Proceedings of
International Symposium on Second
Language Acquisition-based
Language Pedagogy

January 5-6, 2019, Guangzhou, China

The American Scholars Press
Preface

Contemporary educational initiatives in second language learning call for sweeping changes to the manner in which we teach subject centered content, especially English Language Arts. Each of these initiatives demand a sharp departure from the traditional “depositing” or “banking” model of education and require a pedagogy that authentically engages students in an ongoing, collaborative philosophical inquiry, examining their beliefs, experiences, assumptions, and ideas. While many educators wish to achieve these educational aims, they are often left wondering, “How? How can I teach in this manner?”

Building on our common interest in improving foreign language instruction in traditional school and university settings, there are at least four additional reasons to call for the intensification of interdisciplinary cooperation between pedagogy and linguistics:

(a) the challenge to support large groups of students in the process of computer-assisted learning accompanied by AI, big data and cloud computing,

(b) the helplessness of educators and teachers confronted with increasingly varying degrees of language proficiency in learner populations,

(c) the general lack of knowledge about SLA-based language pedagogy throughout society at large.

The last point, (d), also means that even where practitioners are sufficiently qualified for working in language fostering or teaching programs, institutional conditions may be far from favorable (too many students per group, insufficient time, and noise, etc.).

To address these issues, the first International Symposium on Second Language Acquisition-based (SLA) Language Pedagogy was held January 5-6, 2019, at Jinan University in Guangzhou, China. This conference invited colleagues from national and international research communities and from a variety of research paradigms and disciplinary fields to deliver 10 keynote speeches and 85 papers. It turned out to be an encouraging opportunity for constructive academic engagement.

During the conference, national and international linguistics and translation experts discussed new changes and challenges of second language acquisition and teaching, proposed, as a unity, possible responses and solutions, and re-mapped the developing route of the discipline. Keynote addresses and contributing papers made great efforts in order to search and widen our knowledge of second language acquisition and teaching. The conference also covered a lot of new issues in the field, such as the latest advances in SLA theories, SLA program development and SLA-based language pedagogy, etc. Keynote speakers and contributors, together, demonstrated a resolution for looking into the future and reflecting on the past performance of the SLA-based language Pedagogy, both critically and constructively.

The proceedings were selective. Among the 95 papers presented at the conference, 39 papers, together with 4 keynote articles, have been included in these proceedings. These papers, representing the core issues discussed in the conference, are divided into five categories: SLA research and theories, SLA language learning from usage-based perspective, computer assisted language learning, programmatic competence development and SLA-based language pedagogy. It is hoped that the selected proceedings of the conference will provide insights for future research on second language acquisition and teaching.

Qi Gong
Professor of English, Head of College of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China

Fan Peng
Associate Professor of English, Vice Director of College English Department, Jinan University, China

Qian Yong
Associate Professor of English, Jinan University, China
Symposium Organization

Organizer
Jinan University, China

Co-Organizer
Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press, China
Springer Nature, UK
Linguistics & Applied Linguistics, China
Technology Enhanced Foreign Language Education, China
Guangdong Society of Foreign Languages, China

Host
School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China

Organizing Committee

Chairman
Qi Gong, Dean of School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China

Vice Chairman
Qian Cheng, Vice Dean of School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China

Members
Kaihong Liao, Vice Dean of School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Muhui Hu, Director of College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Fan Peng, Vice Director of College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Shuangshuang Pei, College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Lu Wang, College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Fangming Yan, College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Fang Wang, College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Guangqing Yu, Director of Admin Office, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Shuishan Chen, College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Heng Xu, College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Qian Yong, English Language and Literature Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Lu Leng, College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Xuewei Lin, College English Department, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Weimin Li, Admin. Office, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Hong Li, Admin. Office, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Qiaojun Chen, Admin. Office, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Jiang Li, Admin. Office, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Juan Ma, Admin. Office, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China

**Academic Committee**

**Chairman**
Professor, Wen Zhao, Northeastern University, China

**Vice Chairman**
Professor, Rosemarie Tracy, University of Mannheim, Germany

**Members**
Professor, Qi Gong, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Professor, Qian Cheng, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Professor, Kaihong Liao, School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, China
Professor, Rosemarie Tracy, University of Mannheim, Germany
Professor, Qiuwu Ma, Fudan University, China
Professor, Hannele Dufva, University of Jyväskylä, Finland
Professor Aydin Durgunoğlu, University of Minnesota, Duluth, USA
Dr. Chad Miller, University of Hawai`i at Mānoa, USA
Professor, Jeroen van de Weijer, Shenzhen University, China
Dr. Saihong Li, University of Stirling, UK
Professor, Charles Lock, University of Copenhagen, Denmark
Professor, Sumin Zhang, Hebei Normal University, China

**The Proceeding Editorial Committee**
Lisa Hale Cox, American Scholars Press, USA
Dr. Jin Zhang, Zhejiang University, China
Jon Lindsay, American Scholars Press, USA
Dr. Linda Sun, Kennesaw State University, USA
Associate Professor, Qian Yong, Jinan University, China
Table of Contents

Keynote Speech I
Connector Profile of Chinese College English Learners’ Writing
Wen Zhao, Nairui Chen ........................................................................................................................................ 9

Keynote Speech II
The Processing of English Past Tense Morphology and Enhancement of L2 Proficiency through the Continuation Task*
Sumin Zhang ................................................................................................................................................ 18

Keynote Speech III
Basic Research on Learning, Cognition, and Emotion and its Implications for Language Teaching
Aydin Yücesan Durgunoğlu, Heng Xu ........................................................................................................ 25

Keynote Speech IV
The Application of Philosophy for Children Pedagogy in American English Classroom
Chad Miller, Lu Leng* .................................................................................................................................. 33

Abstracts of Other Keynote Speakers
Linguistics Meets Language Pedagogy: Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives on Cross-Linguistic Challenges
Rosemary Tracy ........................................................................................................................................... 39

From Linguistic Resources to Personal Repertoires: Awareness and Action in Language Classrooms
Hannele Dufva ............................................................................................................................................. 41

Graphics, Heterographics, and Language Learning
Charles Lock ................................................................................................................................................ 42

Evaluating TBLT: A Study on Task-Based Language Teaching in Asian Classrooms
Han Hui .......................................................................................................................................................... 43

An Analysis on the Chinese Intonation-Only Questions
Hong Zou ....................................................................................................................................................... 51

Application of Translation Strategies in Second Language Acquisition of Idioms and Buzzwords
Xuehua Lin ................................................................................................................................................... 57

The Application of the Constructivist Theory in English Grammar Teaching
Che Guicheng ................................................................................................................................................ 63

On Transitional Adjustment to Foreign Language Learning in Tertiary Education in Chinese Context
Fang Hui ....................................................................................................................................................... 70

Metacognition-Based Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC) Cultivation in IC MOOCs Context
Ruiying Wang, Guiju Zhang ....................................................................................................................... 79

Metaphorical Competence in China (1998-2018): A Scientometric Analysis by Using CiteSpace
Zhang Qunfang, Wang Jiabao ..................................................................................................................... 87

The Study of Spoken Interlanguage in Students of Non-English Majors in Independent Colleges on the Basis of Error Analysis Theory
Liu Si-si ....................................................................................................................................................... 94
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visualization Analysis of Researches on Chinese as L2 Learning Motivation Based on CiteSpace</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jianguo Shang</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Study of College English Listening Teaching Practice on Krashen’s Monitor Theory</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yingxi Chen</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Study on Constructing a Teaching Model for ESP Courses from SCT Perspective</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yumei Wu</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Study and Application of Lexical Strategy in College English Writing under the Perspective of China’s Standards of English Language Ability</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Song Canhua</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction of Scaffolding Instruction for Writing Based on AEW System from the Perspective of Sociocultural Theory</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lin Baoling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic English Writing Development Based on the Usage Theory and Project-Based Learning</td>
<td>134</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He Chenghui</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflexive Transitive Constructions and Their Acquisition Difficulties</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huang Xiaoping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effects of Corrective Feedback and Output-based Explicit Grammar Instruction on Chinese EFL Learners’ Writings</td>
<td>149</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guilin Ma</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Improvement of English Pragmatic Competence in the Classroom – From the Perspective of Lexicon-Grammar</td>
<td>163</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zeng Yuping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applying the Production-Oriented Approach on the Business English Course: The Case of English for Tourism</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Xiaoxin Mai, Shaolan Bian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problems of Classroom Interaction in Intensive Reading and Speaking Class at the Tertiary English Teaching in China</td>
<td>176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guozhi Cai</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Multiliteracies in the Chinese College EFL Teaching Context</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Huang Shuping</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical Access and Selection in Translation Process: From a Perspective of Cognitive Psychology</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fan Peng</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>On Prosody and EFL Learners’ Perception of Impolite Utterances</td>
<td>196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peng Li</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration of English Intensive Reading Teaching Model Based on Cognitive Theory – A Case Study in South China Business College</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wang Jiabao, Zhang Qunfang</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Functional Stylistic Analysis of Shakespeare’s Sonnet 29</td>
<td>210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Li Xueqin</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALL in a Flipped College EFL Oral Class Based on Production-Oriented Approach</td>
<td>216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lan Zhou, Fan Peng, Yajuan Su</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Using Mobile Devices and Mosoink to Improve EFL Student Engagement
Lu Leng, Xuewei Lin ................................................................. 224

Facilitation Effect of Time-Space Metaphorical Instruction on English Temporal Words Acquisition
Shuangshuang Pei ................................................................. 231

The Application of the Humanistic Approach in College English Class for International Students in China
Fang Wang ................................................................................ 238

A Learning Design Based on Three Motivational Factors
Heng Xu ................................................................................ 244

Academic Expectations in Chinese EFL Research Supervision in a Globalized Context
Peng Hongbing .......................................................................... 252

The Influence of Reading Experiences on the Mental Representations of Time in Mandarin and Cantonese Speakers
Pan Zhu ................................................................................ 258

A Multidimensional Analysis of Chinese University English Learners’ Genre Knowledge
Chunming Wu, Dechao Li .......................................................... 264

The Suffix Er (儿) in Qin’an Dialect of Gansu Province
Qijun Guo ................................................................................ 276

Projection of Hybridized Destination Images – A Comparative Study on Hong Kong and Guangzhou’s Promotion Films
Luo Jinru ................................................................................ 283

A Study of Listening Courses for Japanese Majors and Reform of Japanese Teaching
Jin Hua ................................................................................ 297

A Corpus-Based Study of Ideological Manipulation from Appraisal Theory in Hong Kong Political Interpreting Discourse
Lei Sha ................................................................................ 304

Classroom Reading Speech Assessment from a Phonetic Perspective
Xuewei Lin, Dafydd Gibbon .......................................................... 312

An Ecological Reading of Blue Planet II
Luo Yunyi ................................................................................ 319

Reconstructing Image through Translation: A Semantic Prosody Approach to Characterization in Weicheng
Minru Zhao, Dechao Li ................................................................. 325
Keynote Speech I

Connector Profile of Chinese College English Learners’ Writing

Wen Zhao, and Nairui Chen
Foreign Studies College, Northeastern University, Shenyang, China
Email: dianawen@hotmail.com, and ericachan19941111@gmail.com

[Abstract] This study investigated the use of connectors in non-English major college learners’ writing based on a home-developed learner corpus. The research findings revealed that Chinese college learners prefer to use one-word connectors rather than multiword ones to express the meaning of enumeration and addition, and these connectors are usually placed in sequential sentence order, while inversion or other complex sentence patterns were rarely found. With reference to the English Grammar Profile (EGP), the connector use of learners was mostly spread across levels. It is expected that the current study can shed light on more empirical studies based on China’s Standards of English Language Ability (CSE).

[Keywords] connectors; English Grammar Profile; China’s Standards of English Language Ability; learner corpus

Introduction

Writing ability has been considered the manifestation of critical thinking and language proficiency. Constructing cohesive texts, which are cohesive and coherent in meaning, is a goal for writers in particular (Halliday, & Hasan, 1976). Connectors, as a cohesive device, play a significant role in achieving cohesion and coherence in English writing. The appropriate use of connectors can connect sentences or clauses properly to form a structurally and semantically logical discourse (Altenberg, & Tapper, 1998). However, the effective use of connectors is difficult for native speakers as well as for non-native English speakers (e.g., Li, 2017; Zhao, 2003). Milton and Tsang (1993) pointed out that EFL learners, including Chinese EFL learners, apparently have difficulty in making use of connectors to compose a coherent and cohesive English writing text. In order to have a better understanding of connector use by Chinese learners in their writing, a study was conducted to investigate the connector use by learners at tertiary education and the features they demonstrated in their writing. An overview of connector classification and connector profile was introduced, followed by a corpus-based empirical study. The research findings revealed that Chinese college learners prefer to use one-word connectors rather than multiword ones to express the meaning of enumeration and addition, and these connectors are usually placed in sequential sentence order, while inversion or other complex sentence patterns were rarely found. With reference to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the English Grammar Profile (EGP), further discussion and suggestions were made to the feature descriptors in the China’s Standards of English Language Ability (CSE).

Literature Review

Murcia and Freeman (1983) defined the term “connectors” as “words or phrases whose function it is to show some logical relationship between two or among more basic sentences.” In view of categorization, Halliday and Hasan (1976) classified connectors into 4 categories: addictive, causal, adversative and temporal. The categories were further elaborated into 7 types according to their semantic meanings:
listing, resultative, inferential, transitional, contrastive, summative and appositive (Quirk, et al., 1985). Biber and his colleagues (1999) summarized meaning-based classifications into enumeration and addition, result or inference, contrast or concession, summation, apposition and transition, and classified connectors into 3 types: conjunctions, prepositional phrases and adverbial phrases, taking into account of parts of speech.

The classification (Biber, et al., 1999) provides a guideline for connector studies, with the most representative one being the English Profile Program (EPP). The EPP is a collaborative interdisciplinary project, initiated by the Council of Europe to identify criterial features (i.e. the properties that are characteristic and indicative of the language proficiency of English learners) at each of the six CEFR levels (CoE, 2001) (Hawkins, & Filipović, 2012). The criterial features of the EPP currently consist of two linguistic properties: lexical, as well as grammatical, specified in the English Vocabulary Profile (EVP) and the English Grammar Profile (EGP) programs, respectively. Examples of criterial features in the EGP are shown in Table 1.

**Table 1. Criterial Features of Connectors in the EGP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Connectors</th>
<th>Part of speech</th>
<th>Patterns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>and, but, or</td>
<td>conj.</td>
<td>and, but, or single noun/adjective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2</td>
<td>because</td>
<td>conj.</td>
<td>simple conjunctions + clauses/sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>either...or</td>
<td>conj.</td>
<td>either + noun phrases + or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>never</td>
<td>adv.</td>
<td>Never + auxiliary/modal verb clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>in that</td>
<td>prep.</td>
<td>in that + phrases/clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>hardly...when</td>
<td>adv.</td>
<td>Hardly + had + clauses + when</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that connectors are basically used as conjunctions and adverbs in different sentence patterns. With reference to the EGP, the commonly-used connectors can be listed as the following: and; but; or; so; because; although/though; never; therefore; either...or; not only...but also; neither...nor; hardly...when; in that; as if/as though; as long as; as soon as. Some studies have been conducted on connector use by native speakers (e.g., Milton, & Tsang, 1993; Jaderstrom, & Miller, 2009; Carrió, 2013, etc.), while others have been made on the differences between native speakers and non-native speakers (e.g., Wang, & Yang, 2014; Liu, 2017; Wang, & Zhang, 2017). The most recent studies, especially those in China, were based on learner corpora, with the intention to identify the connector use in clauses, sentences and paragraphs (e.g., Xu, & Zhang, 2006). The empirical studies of the learner corpus indicated that some one-word connectors, especially simple connectors, were overused, although their meaning expressions were limited (e.g., Li, 2011).

Like the CEFR, China’s Standards of English Language Ability (CSE) (MoE, 2018), the first national English proficiency scale, describes what learners are able to do at each of its nine levels. In its grammatical competence description, the cohesion competence of the CSE contains descriptors of learners’ ability to compose coherent and cohesive texts, which performs the same function as the CEFR. Unlike the CEFR, which has the EGP to give the grammatical profile of learners, the CSE contains no grammatical profile of learners at each individual level on the basis of empirical evidence.

**Method**

The current study aims to investigate the following two research questions: (1) How do Chinese college English learners use connectors in their writing? and (2) What are the distinguishing features that learners demonstrate in their writing?
The research data were collected from Pigai Wang (www.pigai.org) and institution-based writing papers. The collected raw data were processed by eliminating some incomplete texts. A home-developed corpus (see Table 2) was then developed, with data ranging from four levels of learners: freshmen (4,587 texts), sophomores (4,998 texts), juniors (4,994 texts) and seniors (3,000 texts). The corpus consisted of 8 genres: narrative, descriptive, persuasive, expository, and journal writing, letters, bibliography, poetry, and the themes covered included personal matters, culture, education, health, environment, science and technology, social events, and moral issues.

Table 2. Corpus Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Freshmen</th>
<th>Sophomores</th>
<th>Juniors</th>
<th>Seniors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Texts</td>
<td>4,587</td>
<td>4,998</td>
<td>4,994</td>
<td>3,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types</td>
<td>18,473</td>
<td>22,693</td>
<td>20,789</td>
<td>19,611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tokens</td>
<td>944,565</td>
<td>1,054,559</td>
<td>1,107,985</td>
<td>801,707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Themes</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genres</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The instruments utilized were Tree Tagger 3.0 and WordSmith 5.0, with the former used for POS tagging (Liang, 2009) and the latter, for data analysis. The function of WordList was used to obtain general statistic information, and that of Concord to retrieve and explore the connector features.

Results

The general information of connector use is summarized in Table 3. Connectors, such as and, but, or, because, were used more frequently than others, with and being the more frequent (69.20%) and hardly...when, the least (0.002%). Coming next was the connector but, which was used fairly frequently (11.20%). Moreover, the use of one-word connectors exceeded multiword ones. The differences existed from freshmen to seniors, with seniors demonstrating more varied use.

Table 3. Frequency of Connector Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Connectors</th>
<th>Freshmen</th>
<th>Sophomores</th>
<th>Juniors</th>
<th>Seniors</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
<td>24,476</td>
<td>28,094</td>
<td>30,468</td>
<td>22,827</td>
<td>105,865</td>
<td>69.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>but</td>
<td>4,410</td>
<td>4,593</td>
<td>4,956</td>
<td>3,171</td>
<td>17,130</td>
<td>11.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or</td>
<td>2,397</td>
<td>2,785</td>
<td>3,576</td>
<td>2,201</td>
<td>10,959</td>
<td>7.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>1,380</td>
<td>1,420</td>
<td>1,773</td>
<td>1,203</td>
<td>5,776</td>
<td>3.78%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not only…but also</td>
<td>1,025</td>
<td>721</td>
<td>781</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>3,087</td>
<td>2.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>906</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>837</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>2,940</td>
<td>1.92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>although/though</td>
<td>646</td>
<td>723</td>
<td>811</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>2,703</td>
<td>1.77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>587</td>
<td>557</td>
<td>686</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>2,168</td>
<td>1.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1,473</td>
<td>0.92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as long as</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>519</td>
<td>0.34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as if/as though</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>0.07%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as soon as</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>0.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in that</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>0.05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>either…or</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.03%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neither…nor</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hardly…when</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.002%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 summarizes the patterns and positions of one-word connectors. The patterns of one-word connectors were not complicated in comparison with multiword ones. One-word connectors were usually positioned in the middle of sentences to link words, phrases, clauses and sentences, or placed at the
beginning of normal or inverted sentences. Juniors preferred to use connectors at the beginning of sentences while sophomores showed a strong tendency to place connectors in the middle of sentences.

**Table 4. Positions and Patterns of One-Word Connectors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positions</th>
<th>Patterns</th>
<th>Freshmen</th>
<th>Sophomores</th>
<th>Juniors</th>
<th>Seniors</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>head</td>
<td>one-word connectors +words (nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc.)/phrases</td>
<td>6,109</td>
<td>6,497</td>
<td>8,462</td>
<td>5,326</td>
<td>26,394 (17.25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>one-word connectors +clause/sentence</td>
<td>2,369</td>
<td>2,165</td>
<td>2,365</td>
<td>2,108</td>
<td>9,007 (5.89%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>middle</td>
<td>one-word connectors +words (nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc.)/phrases</td>
<td>21,321</td>
<td>27,721</td>
<td>28,387</td>
<td>16,980</td>
<td>94,409 (61.71%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>one-word connectors +clause/sentence</td>
<td>4,822</td>
<td>6,930</td>
<td>4,096</td>
<td>6,324</td>
<td>23,172 (15.15%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for multiword connectors, Table 5 shows that most were used in sequential sentence orders. The connector *not only...but also* was used more frequently than other connectors. The inverted sentence order was used less frequently by Chinese college English learners. The pattern of ‘Not only +modal verb/’be’/verb +subject, but also +modal verb/’be’/verb’ was used more frequently by freshmen than the pattern of ‘Not only +subject +verb, but also +verb’ by juniors. The rest of the connectors with negative meanings were hardly used by learners.

**Table 5. Positions and Patterns of Multiword Connectors**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Connectors</th>
<th>Patterns</th>
<th>Freshmen</th>
<th>Sophomore</th>
<th>Junior</th>
<th>Senior</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>not only...but also</td>
<td>Subject +(modal verb) +not only +verb, but also +(modal verb) +verb</td>
<td>910</td>
<td>654</td>
<td>697</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>2,760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not only +subject +verb, but also +verb</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not only +modal verb/’be’/verb +subject, but also +modal verb/’be’/verb</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as long as</td>
<td>principal clause +as long as +subordinate clause</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as long as +phrases</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as if/though</td>
<td>as if/as though +indicative mood clause</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as if/as though +subjunctive mood clause</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as soon as</td>
<td>as soon as+temporal adverbial clause</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hardly...when</td>
<td>Subject +(modal verb) +hardly +verb, when+clause</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hardly +’be’/modal verb/auxiliary +verb +clause +when +clause</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>either...or</td>
<td>Either +word/phrase/clause +or</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Either +’be’/modal verb/auxiliary +verb +or</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neither...nor</td>
<td>neither +word/phrase/clause +nor</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neither +’be’/modal verb/auxiliary +verb +nor</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In view of meaning distribution, Table 6 discloses that the connectors were mainly centered around the following: enumeration and addition, result or inference, contrast or concession, apposition and summation. The meaning of enumeration and addition was of higher frequency (78.43%) than that of apposition of the lowest frequency (0.07%). The learners of the four grades did not show greater discrepancy.
Table 6. Meaning Distribution of Connectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meanings</th>
<th>Connectors</th>
<th>Freshmen</th>
<th>Sophomore</th>
<th>Junior</th>
<th>Senior</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>enumeration and addition</td>
<td>and</td>
<td>24,476</td>
<td>28,094</td>
<td>30,468</td>
<td>22,827</td>
<td>119,980 (78.43%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or</td>
<td>2,397</td>
<td>2,785</td>
<td>3,576</td>
<td>2,201</td>
<td>11,041 (78.43%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>not only…but also</td>
<td>1,025</td>
<td>721</td>
<td>781</td>
<td>560</td>
<td>3,098 (22.51%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>either…or</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>45 (0.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>neither…nor</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18 (0.13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contrast</td>
<td>but</td>
<td>4,410</td>
<td>4,593</td>
<td>4,956</td>
<td>3,171</td>
<td>19,301 (12.61%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>never</td>
<td>587</td>
<td>557</td>
<td>686</td>
<td>338</td>
<td>2,168 (14.95%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hardly…when</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>3 (0.02%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>result or inference</td>
<td>because</td>
<td>1,380</td>
<td>1,420</td>
<td>1,773</td>
<td>1,203</td>
<td>7,334 (4.79%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>so</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>404</td>
<td>405</td>
<td>299</td>
<td>1,573 (10.91%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in that</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>76 (0.53%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concession</td>
<td>although/though</td>
<td>646</td>
<td>723</td>
<td>811</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>3,316 (2.17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as long as</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>529 (0.36%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as soon as</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>84 (0.06%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>summation</td>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>906</td>
<td>769</td>
<td>837</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>2,940 (1.92%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apposition</td>
<td>as if/as though</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>111 (0.07%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All of the one-word connectors in this study were listed according to their patterns in the EGP. Their use distributed from A1 to B2, with the majority clustered at the A1 level. As for the multiword connectors, there was a deficiency of levels between the sequential sentence order and the inverted ones. In the EGP, sequential sentence order was distributed from B1 to C2, while the inverted sentence order from B2 to C2. Table 7 summarizes the connectors and their use patterns across the six CEFR levels.

Table 7. Comparing the Patterns of Connectors with the EGP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Connectors</th>
<th>Patterns</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>EGP levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>and, but, or</td>
<td>and, but, or +noun/adj/phrases/clauses/sentences</td>
<td>133,954</td>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>because +clauses/sentences</td>
<td>5,776</td>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>although/though</td>
<td>conjunctions +clauses/sentences</td>
<td>5,776</td>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so</td>
<td>so +more complex strings of clauses/sentences</td>
<td>4,247</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>adverbs +clauses/sentences</td>
<td>4,034</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>never +auxiliary +clauses/sentences</td>
<td>2,168</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not only…but also</td>
<td>subject +(modal verb) +not only +verb, but also +(modal verb) +verb</td>
<td>2,760</td>
<td>C1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as long as</td>
<td>as long as +phrases</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in that</td>
<td>principal clause +in that +subordinate clause</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>C1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as if/as though</td>
<td>as if/as though +indicative mood clause</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>as soon as</td>
<td>as soon as +temporal adverbial clause</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hardly…when</td>
<td>subject +(modal verb) +hardly +verb, when +clause</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in that</td>
<td>principal clause +in that +subordinate clause</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>C2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>either…or</td>
<td>either +word/phrase/clause +or</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neither…nor</td>
<td>neither +word/phrase/clause +nor</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Neithor +be’/modal verb/auxiliary +verb +nor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>C2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In terms of meaning distribution, the most frequently used one-word connector conveying the meaning of enumeration and addition was and/or, and such use was at the A1 level in the EGP, the beginner features. The multiword connector not only…but also, although a criterial feature at C1 level, was the most frequently used. The meaning distribution across levels was imbalanced, with easier and limited ones preferred by Chinese college English learners.

Table 8. Comparing the Meanings of Connectors with the EGP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Meanings</th>
<th>Connectors</th>
<th>Meanings in the EGP</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>EGP Levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>enumeration and addition</td>
<td>and, or</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>116,824</td>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>either…or</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>C1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>neither…nor</td>
<td>Often to give emphasis or focus</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To focus on an additional negative factor</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>C2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>not only…but also</td>
<td>Often for focus or emphasis</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>C1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2,760</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>result or inference</td>
<td>because</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>5,776</td>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>so</td>
<td></td>
<td>3,023</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in that</td>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
<td>C2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concession</td>
<td>although/though</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2,703</td>
<td>B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as soon as</td>
<td></td>
<td>94</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>as long as</td>
<td></td>
<td>519</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contrast</td>
<td>but</td>
<td>To add an unexpected contrast</td>
<td>17,130</td>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>never</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2,543</td>
<td>B2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hardly…when</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>C2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

In terms of connector use, one-word connectors (e.g., and, but and or) were used more frequently than multiword ones, positioned in sequential and inverted orders. The overuse of one-word connectors may be caused by mother tongue transfer (Zhao, 2003). The sequential sentence order was used more often than the inverted ones. Connectors with the meaning of enumeration and addition, result or inference, apposition, concession, summation and contrast are used more frequently. The meaning of enumeration and addition was overwhelmingly high, which may lie in the differences between the Chinese and Western mindset (Chen, & Jiang, 2015).

As for the distinguishing features of connector use, Chinese English learners are inclined to use connectors of lower EGP levels, the majority of which were at the A1 level and in the form of one-word connectors. This is in line with Li’s study (2011). Most of the connectors were used in sequential sentence patterns ranging across EGP’s A1 to B1 levels. The meaning expression, however, was distributed from levels of A1 to B2. The data analysis also indicated that the connector use was not of great variety, with some overly used in the texts (Xu, & Zhang, 2006). The four grades of college English learners displayed some variation in connector use but did not demonstrate great discrepancies.

Conclusion

The current study has disclosed that Chinese college English learners overuse some one-word connectors (e.g., and, but, or) and underuse multiword connectors (e.g., not only…but also). The most frequently used connector is and. Chinese college English learners are accustomed to use sequential sentence orders, ranging from A1 to B1 levels in the EGP. Enumeration and addition is the most frequently established meaning and the use of connectors under this meaning category is clustered at the A1 level. The study shows that Chinese English learners tend to use connectors at relatively low EGP levels. On the basis of
the empirical study, suggestions with regards to the form, patterns and scale descriptors at CSE 4-7 levels are made (see Table 9). It is expected that the current study can shed light on future CSE-based grammatical feature description of Chinese college English learners.

Table 9. *Suggested Descriptors for the CSE*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels</th>
<th>Descriptors in the CSE</th>
<th>Suggested Descriptors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Can use cohesive devices to indicate relationships between paragraphs, including progression, cause and effect, and comparison and contrast. Can understand and analyze cohesive devices in a text. Can use lexical cohesive devices such as linking words and pronouns to reinforce the coherence of a text.</td>
<td>Can use cohesive devices to indicate relationship between paragraphs, including enumeration and addition, progression and concession (e.g. as long as, as soon as, as if, as though, etc.), cause and effect (e.g. therefore), comparison and contrast (e.g. never). Can use various connectors in some inverted sentence orders (e.g. Not only +inverted auxiliary ‘do’ +but also). Can use various connectors in all sequential sentence orders to link discourse elements including words, phrases, clauses and sentences. Can use various connectors in inverted sentence order.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Can use lexical cohesion, omission and other means to achieve the coherence of a complex text. Can use a variety of sentence patterns to make ideas flow smoothly (e.g. omission, compound sentences, and complex sentences). Can use cohesive devices to indicate relationships between paragraphs (e.g. comparison and contrast, cause and effect, transitions). Can use appropriate cohesive devices to transition topics or viewpoints in a text.</td>
<td>Can use cohesive devices to indicate relationship between paragraphs, including enumeration(e.g. either…or, neither…nor, etc.) and addition, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, transitions. Can use appropriate cohesive devices to transition topics or viewpoints in a text (wide range of conjunctions).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Can understand textual meaning based on sentential cohesion and/or coherence among paragraphs. Can use various cohesive devices to logically organize utterances and texts. Can achieve semantic coherence by using passive voice to alter the focus of sentences. Can use cohesive devices to demonstrate relationships among sentences (e.g. comparison and contrast, cause and effect, progression, transition).</td>
<td>Can use various cohesive devices to logically organize utterances and texts (e.g. furthermore, otherwise, never, etc.). Can use various one-word connectors and limited amount of multiword connectors to link discourse elements mostly in sequential sentence orders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Can understand meanings and rhetorical effects conveyed by inverted and emphatic sentences. Can recognize cohesive devices (e.g. comparison, exemplification) used in common text types such as exposition. Can use basic textual knowledge to effectively organize information based on specific purposes. Can establish coherence among sentences and paragraphs by varying words, sentences, or text structure to reinforce textual coherence and effectiveness of expression. Can effectively use references and linking words to realize text coherence. Can use words to express contrast, addition, and/or other logical relationships (e.g. however, although, nevertheless, similarly).</td>
<td>Can effectively use references and linking words to realize text coherence (e.g. if, when, so, while (wide range of one-word connectors), etc.).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Acknowledgements
This paper was based on the project “The Corpus-based Linguistic Feature Study” (XLYC806017), funded by Liaoning Revitalization Talents Program. Wen Zhao is the first author of the article, and Nairui Chen is the corresponding author.

References
Biography

Wen Zhao is Professor of English and Dean of the Foreign Studies College of Jinan University. She is Honorary Professor of the Education University of Hong Kong. She works as vice director of the College Foreign Language Teaching Advisory Committee of the Ministry of Education, as well as a member of the Foreign Language Teaching Advisory Committee, working under the Vocational Teaching Advisory Committee. Her main publication and research interests are in English curriculum and instruction, computer-assisted language learning, and corpus linguistics. She is currently in charge of “the national Senior Secondary Vocational English Curriculum” project and the key project of the National Social Science Fund “Corpus-based Criterial Featured Parameter Study of College English Language Competence”. She has published over 40 articles in Asian EFL Journal, Language Testing in Asia, Modern Foreign Languages, Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics, and others. She has chief-edited and edited over 90 textbook series from the Ninth Five-Year Plan to the Twelfth Five-year Plan.

Nairui Chen is a Doctoral student in Applied Linguistics, Department of English, at Northern Arizona University, USA. Her research interests are in the areas of corpus linguistics; SLA; second language teaching and learning; EAP (English for academic purposes); (corpus-based) second language writing and feminism. Nairui Chen’s publications include: “Analysis on Female Characters in Harry Potter from the Perspective of Feminism”, Best Selection of Dissertation, Shenyang University of Technology, Shenyang, China, 2016; “Analysis on Quantitative Research Methodology”, Journal of Ethnography, 2017; and “NP Colligation in Chinese EFL Learners’ Writing: A Corpus-based Study”, Journal of Novels and Literature, 2017.
Keynote Speech II

The Processing of English Past Tense Morphology and Enhancement of L2 Proficiency through the Continuation Task*

Sumin Zhang
Faculty of Foreign Studies, Hebei Normal University, Shijiazhuang, China

[Abstract] Different from the previous continuation task researches that demonstrated alignment effect on L2 learners’ words choices and error rates, the present study examines the processing of English past tense morphology and the enhancement of L2 proficiency through continuation task. The participant is required to do 9 continuation tasks successively. The frequency of verb base forms used to denote past time, together with Proficiency Test scores were collected for measurement. Results revealed that continuation task could (1) make the L2 learner decreasingly use base forms to denote past time; (2) increase the L2 learner’s proficiency significantly. The findings provide new evidence to the alignment effect of continuation task on the activation of grammaticalized meanings and the enhancement of L2 proficiency.

[Keywords] continuation tasks; temporal morphology processing; form-meaning mapping; L2 proficiency

Background of the Study
A continuation task (CT) is an effective means to facilitate L2 acquisition in that it intimately couples L2 writing production with reading comprehension and activates almost all major factors that can enhance language learning (Wang, 2012, 2015; 2016). CT is said to be able to produce an alignment effect in that L2 learners can creatively repeat elements of the input text in their output, thus activating L2 learners’ native-like linguistic representation with fewer errors and higher efficiency, which has spawned series of empirical studies and been proven to have alignment effect that significantly affects learners’ L2 production (e.g., Wang, & Wang, 2015; Jiang, & Chen, 2015; Zhang, 2019). However, most of the continuation task studies have focused on the learners’ language use in light of error rates or word choices, and it is not clear from the continuation task literature whether the alignment effect can be confirmed in L2 learner’s temporal morphology processing and their overall L2 proficiency.

“Words not only have meaning but also form” (Lee, 2002, p. 56). It is widely observed that the grammatical forms like English past tense marker -ed and “went” tend to cause processing difficulties for non-native speakers whose L1 does not have the same or similar morphological systems like Chinese, especially for those with limited L2 proficiency (Yao, & Chen, 2017). One account for it is that past tense is grammaticalized and morphologically marked in English. In contrast, whereas in Mandarin Chinese past tense is ungrammaticalized for in order to express past concept, it uses perfect markers LE or GUO compulsively as default value, or “Shi……de” cleft construction as an option (Jiang, et al., 2017; Mai, & Yuan, 2016). Another account for it is the Availability of Resources Principle in form-meaning mapping, which states that comprehension difficulties may prevent learners from processing forms in input. According to the Availability of Resources Principle, comprehension is initially quite effortful in terms of cognitive processing and working memory because learners’ processing capacity is limited and can’t process and store the grammatical forms as native speakers do in moment-by-moment processing (VanPatten, 2015). However, L2 learners’ engagement of morphological information is task and
proficiency-dependent because massive amounts of input can reinforce implicit incidental language learning because frequency of occurrence in input is closely associated with morpheme acquisition (Gor, et al., 2017)). Additionally, L2 readers can gain greater incidental information of morphological forms through reading, and constructional context with intense, dynamic, creative interaction between the reader and the text can exert positive impact on L2 learner’s automatic construction development (Lee, 2002). In light of the above mentioned, the purpose of the study is to see whether continuation tasks (CT) can help L2 learners to build L2-based temporal morphology processing strategy and whether their L2 proficiency can be enhanced.

**Methodology**

**Research Questions**
Based on the analyses above, we formulate the following research questions:

(1) What are the alignment effects of CT on the processing of past morphological forms?
(2) What are the alignment effects of CT on the learner’s L2 proficiency?

**Participant**
The participant is a senior high school 2nd grader. He was required to take an English proficiency test one day before and after the treatment.

**Materials and Procedure**
The materials used consisted of nine stories that were extracted from the first seven chapters of *Treasure Island* written by Robert Louis Stevenson and adapted by John Escott to be suitable for senior high school 1st graders and 2nd graders because “students’ writing motivation and achievement can only be inspired through comprehensible reading input” (Wang, 2012, p. 5). It was published by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press in 2016 (25th edition). The story narrates Jim’s recalling of an adventurous experience of searching for treasure together with a group of people that includes good seamen and bad pirates. It mostly recounts past events and provides a relatively better obligatory past verbal context for tense-aspect markers. Thus, compared with the traditional data-elicitation methods, the CT treatment can greatly avoid the risk of missing the total picture of learner language (Shirai, 2007).

The seven natural chapters were divided into 9 parts (the mean length was around 700 words) in order to balance the amount of reading and also take into consideration of the original plot. The original seven chapters were in both English and Chinese. For the purpose of the present study, the Chinese version was cut off. The participant had an English proficiency test a day prior to the CT treatment. He then was encouraged to continue the story in at least 150 words (the longer, the better) until the end of the treatment.

The day after the completion of the CT treatment, the participant was required to have another English proficiency test as posttest which was part of the College Entrance Test in Zhejiang province in 2016, bearing the same structure and scoring system with that in 2017. The scoring was done by the researcher according to the assessment standard laid by the test makers.

**Data Collection and Analyses**
Two types of data were collected. One was the participant’s 11 compositions (1 pretest writing, 9 during treatment writing, and 1 posttest writing). The other was the participant’s proficiency tests scores (pre-treatment scores and post-treatment scores). AntConc 3.2.0 was used to perform the frequency counting
of verb base forms used to indicate past temporal concept, and BFSU Chi-square and Log-likelihood Calculator were used to analyze the frequencies and L2 proficiency scores.

In order to count the frequency of the verb base forms used to indicate past temporal concept, a [BF] (base form) like “have” in (1) was half-manually coded and counted in all the compositions through AntConc 3.2.0 by the researchers with the help of two postgraduates in Linguistics. In accordance with the concept-oriented approach, over-regularization errors like “helped” in (1)b, or “heard” in (1)c, or “gave” in (1)d were not counted as ill-formed. Instead, they were considered as signs of using morphological inflections to express the past because it reflected the learner’s ability to “extract statistical patterns from the input data and to use the extracted pattern productively in building his or her grammar” (Slabakova, 2002) although the learner was not competent enough to use it properly in certain collocations.

(1)  a. In that day, the doctor also have [BF] a drink.  
    b. So I wanted to helped old seaman.  
    c. Don’t let other people heard.  
    d. Could you gave me the box?

For the measurement of learners’ L2 proficiency, College Entrance Tests Scores were collected twice as a pretest and posttest, using part of the College Entrance Test (Listening comprehension was omitted) in Zhejiang province in 2016 and 2017, respectively.

**Results Analysis**

*Effect of CT on Processing of English Past Tense Morphology*

In order to balance the varied reading input and also for analytic convenience, we grouped the 9 tasks into three stages as shown in Table 1. That is, Task 1, Task 2 and Task 3 were treated as Stage 1, Task 4, Task 5 and Task 6 were treated as Stage 2, and Task 7, Task 8 and Task 9 were treated as Stage 3. Thus, we can see from Table 1 the descriptive analysis of the participant’s writing (W) and the frequency (F) of the verb base forms used to indicate past temporal concept at different stages including the pretest and posttest.

| Table 1. Descriptive Analysis of Pretest, Stages 1-3 and Posttest |
|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
|                  | Pretest          | Stage 1          | Stage 2          | Stage 3          | Posttest         |
| Reading          | 350              | 1941             | 2458             | 2071             | 335              |
| Writing          | 202              | 919              | 658              | 668              | 206              |
| Frequency        | 12               | 31               | 12               | 10               | 2                |

Table 2 shows that the frequencies of the verb base forms used to indicate past temporal concept in the pretest and Stage 1 were not significantly different (G2 = 2.530 < 3.84, p = .1117 > .05); while the frequency differences between the pretest and Stage 2 (G2 = 7.922 > 6.63, p = .0049 < .01), between the pretest and Stage 3 (G2 = 10.013 > 6.63, p = .0016 < .01), between the pretest and the posttest (G2 = 8.122 > 6.63, p = .0044 < .01) were all significantly different. That is, the participant gradually used less verb base forms to indicate past temporal concept with the increment in CT.
The above analysis demonstrated that alignment effects gradually obtained and remained when reading and writing were coupled successively through CT. However, this evidence was only shown at different stages. It remains to be seen whether alignment occurs when different tasks are provided in order to gain more convincing evidence. Hence, the analysis of the frequencies in different tasks, namely, Task 1, Task 5, and Task 9, together with the pretest were conducted as shown in Table 3. The results showed that the frequencies of the verb base forms used to indicate past temporal concept in the pretest and Task 1 were not significantly different (G² = 1.307 < 3.84, p = .2530 > .05). Although the frequency difference between the pretest and Task 2 was getting larger, it was still insignificant (G² = 2.831 < 3.84, p = .0924 > .05). Whereas the frequency difference between the pretest and Task 9 was significantly different (G² = 12.970 > 10.83, p = .0003 < .001). Once again, it demonstrated that the participant gradually used less verb base forms to indicate past temporal concept with the increment in CT, providing additional evidence to the accidental alignment effect of CT on temporal morphology processing.

Effect of CT on L2 Learner’s L2 Proficiency
In order to find out whether the CT effect can be found on the learners’ overall L2 learning, the researchers compared the participant’s pretest and posttest scores as measured by College Entrance Tests. Table 4 showed that there were significant differences between the learner’s pretest and posttest (G² = | -36.3204| > 15.13, p = .0000< .0001). The results indicated that CT could enhance the participant’s L2 overall learning significantly.

Discussion
Frequencies analyses yielded convincing evidence to the accidental alignment effect of CT on temporal morphology processing, which showed that the alignment effect was significant enough to make the L2 learner to decreasingly employ verb base form to indicate past temporal concept. The present study also found that CT could significantly increase the participant’s L2 proficiency in a short time. The results indicated that CT had significant alignment effects on L2 learners’ proficiency.

The nature of CT is the main contributive factor to the increased morphological processing. CT couples production with comprehension, which makes it possible for the learners to draw on the linguistic
expressions immediately available in the text for their continuation writing (Wang, 2015). In the present study, there were totally nine continuation tasks, which could provide intensive and massive amounts of comprehensible input coupled with production to reinforce L2 learners’ processing of past tense morphology for input frequency and L2 exposure intensity is closely associated with morpheme acquisition (Dekeyser, 2000; Zhang, 2018) and L2 readers can gain greater incidental knowledge of morphological forms through reading (Lee, 2002).

The reading material in the CT was also an important attributive element in the alignment effect of CT. The story was about Jim’s recalling of an adventurous experience of treasure searching that involved pirates, rum, knives and guns. At first, the interesting content might arouse male teenagers’ reading interests, which is very important to motivate the learner to have the consistent intention to read it and the inspiration to express their thoughts. Second, the story was adapted to be suitable to the senior 2nd graders so that it can have comprehensible input to the participant to lower the learners’ affective filter to some degree and to scaffold the students’ writing (Wang, 2015). At the same time, the story mostly recounts past events, which provides a relatively better obligatory past verbal context for tense-aspect markers (Shirai, 2007). The obligatory past verbal context, together with the interactive meaning-focused nine turns of successive comprehensible input and compositions might generate an integrated alignment effect to activate the participant to process grammatical forms to overcome the inert grammatical knowledge problem.

The specific design of successive turns of CT performed by the participant might also make its part in the alignment role of CT on incidental morphology processing. As mentioned in the previous part, different from the previous studies that involved only one or two separated CT, the present study designed 9 turns of CT which were connected in content and style for they were from one novel. During the performing of the 9 turns of CT, the participant was highly encouraged to refer to their reading materials to use what occurred in the reading while writing and were also encouraged to write as many words as possible and as long as they wanted without time limit. The allowed autonomy and the encouragement in using the language were facilitative to develop autonomous control and flexible use of language in communication for students need encouragement and autonomy to activate their L2 learning agency (Rivers, 1983). Based on the quickly improved past time morphology processing, we might also be able to claim that CT could also be a better treatment to facilitate L2 learners to process and express temporal relationships.

**Conclusion**

Different from the previous CT studies, the present study examined the incidental processing of English past tense morphology through CT. Apart from that, it also examined the alignment effect of CT on L2 learners’ proficiency. Frequencies analyses yielded convincing evidence to the alignment effect of CT on temporal morphology processing. Additionally, it also indicated that student’s L2 proficiency could be raised by CT in a short time. What needs to be pointed out is that although CT proved to be an effective treatment as shown in the present study, this was only a longitudinal case study. Can the findings be generalized to different participants? And can the alignment effects be the same with different linguistic domains? Given the increasingly important role of morphology in ESL reading comprehension (Zhang, 2017), further investigations into these questions will no doubt be able to add new dimensions to CT studies and enrich our understanding of L2 morphology and proficiency development.
Acknowledgement

This study was funded by the Major Program for Tackling Key Problems from the Bureau of Education, Hebei Province (No. ZD201727).

References


Biography

Dr. Sumin Zhang is Professor of Hebei Normal University. She has a Ph.D. in Second Language Acquisition from Shanghai International Studies University. She is also Executive Director of International Association for Second Language Processing, Director of China Association for Translation, Interpreting and Cognition, Director of China Association for Foreign Language Education. She is a blind reviewer of several Chinese Social Science Citation Index journals. Her research interests are Second Language Acquisition, Second Language Processing, Translation Education, and Applied Linguistics. She has visited and lectured many universities both home and abroad. She has obtained two awards at provincial level for her excellent academic research. She has taken charge of 5 national, ministry, and provincial level research programs. She has published over 40 papers in CSSCI and the other kernel journals in foreign in foreign language teaching and research.
Keynote Speech III

Basic Research on Learning, Cognition, and Emotion
and its Implications for Language Teaching

Aydin Yücesan Durgunoğlu
Department of Psychology, University of Minnesota, Duluth, Minnesota, USA
Email: adurguno@d.umn.edu

Heng Xu
College of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: thengx@jnu.edu.cn

[Abstract] There are extensive research on learning, cognition and emotion for language teaching. To acquire a big picture of previous research and current implications in second language acquisition, this paper identified and highlighted the most important principles and their general effects in language teaching. It assists researchers and practitioners to fully understand what has been validated and how to incorporate them into practice.

[Keywords] learning; cognition; emotion; Second Language Acquisition

Introduction
In the last century, extant research in education and cognition has identified some general effective teaching and learning approaches. More recently, Graesser and his colleagues (Graesser, 2009; Graesser, Halpern, & Hakel, 2008; Pashler, Bain, Bottge, Graesser, Koedinger, McDaniel, & Metcalf, 2007) have compiled these teaching and learning principles and the strength of the empirical evidence behind each principle. In this paper, our goal is to highlight some of these principles and discuss their implications specifically for second language acquisition (SLA). While discussing the implications, we will also provide some relevant research from SLA illustrating the principle.

Contiguity Effects
This principle states that ideas that need to be associated should be presented all together. A contiguity effect can occur when verbal information is associated and presented with related and well-coordinated visual information in language learning. It supports learners to make connections and process the content (Roche, & Scheller, 2008).

In SLA, this principle is very relevant in the teaching of vocabulary. One example (from Levelt, 1989) as illustrated in Figure 1 below indicates that in spoken word recognition, a lexical entry involves both form- and meaning-based information. To know a word means knowing how it is pronounced, its meaning, syntactic category and morphological structure. Based on the contiguity principle, such different aspects of a lexical entry need to be closely associated and thus presented in together.
According to the Lexical Quality Hypothesis (Perfetti, & Stafura, 2014) written words are recognized, by integrating multiple sources of information. This model provides a detailed description of the reading process and shows why lexicon is considered a “pressure point” in language production and comprehension. As illustrated in the figure 2 below, lexicon straddles two systems: (a) word identification (b) integration of that word into the ongoing representation of the text. Hence weak lexical knowledge provides a challenge for both word identification and comprehension processes.

Given vocabulary’s central role and multifaceted construct, vocabulary teaching requires both depth and breadth. Although the number of words that are learned is important (breadth), just as important is the
depth of knowledge about each word, including its connotations. Classroom instruction requires providing both a word’s abstract meaning, but also concrete examples of how and where it is used. As R. Ellis (2005) discussed, vocabulary helps communicate and this is intrinsically motivating. Therefore, in addition to knowing what a word means, showing its use for communication purposes is extremely useful.

Zakeria, & Khatibib (2014) also applied the contiguity effects into their research as they examined associative learning. It was found that the gaining of meanings through the observation of co-occurrence of the words and an instance of their meaning is an efficient approach to acquire vocabulary.

**Dual Code and Multimedia Effects**

Materials presented in verbal, visual, and multimedia form richer representations than a single medium. Two reasons are provided to explain this advantage: (1) the integration of verbal and non-verbal non-redundant materials improves the learning by providing multiple pathways to the concepts. (2) Rich representations lead to active learning by engaging students. This topic is actually an active research area in SLA and in-depth discussions about the evidence indicating the benefits of multimedia presentations can be found in Alzahrani (2017) and Ranalli (2013).

However, also noteworthy, is another learning principle, the Coherence Effect, which states that materials and multimedia should explicitly link related ideas while at the same time minimizing irrelevant material that can be distracting, hence preventing cognitive overload. For example, in language learning, when verbal information is accompanied by related and well-coordinated visual information, it can provide support for the learner’s mental processing of the content. However, if the processing is not coordinated, interferences are likely to occur making it more difficult for learners to process and retain the information (Roche, & Scheller, 2008).

**Discovery Learning**

Discovery learning is limited. It is hard for most students to discover important principles on their own, without careful guidance, scaffolding, or appropriately structured materials. This is a controversial area in SLA, as educators debate the merits of explicit instruction, especially of grammar. In their review, Norris & Ortega (2000) found support for the explicit teaching of structure: “Treatments involving an explicit focus on the rule-governed nature of L2 structures are more effective than treatments that do not include such a focus” (Norris, & Ortega, 2000, p. 483). Likewise, Ellis (2005) stated that there is a need for both formulaic expressions that can become automatic and used without conscious attention to structure as well as rule-based competence. Explicit knowledge includes rules, formulas, conjugations, word patterns, etc. that have been learned. It involves conscious effort and becomes important especially when there is a misunderstanding or inability to express, “When you want to say something but don’t know how “or” points of dysfluency” (Ellis, 2005).

Implicit knowledge, on the other hand, is usually below awareness, and involves noticing patterns, co-occurrences (especially high frequency and typical occurrences). Because implicit knowledge develops a general abstract understanding from patterns that are encountered, it requires a lot of high-quality input and a good demand of exposure. It is used when communication is fast, clear and relatively automatic.

Educators rightfully point out that we want the second language learners to use the language fluently, without necessarily being aware of the rules, with the assumption that knowing and deliberately using a rule will be a slow, controlled process. However, there is no need to assume that explicitly teaching a rule
precludes a student from eventually using it automatically and fluently as they become more proficient. In other words, teaching of explicit rules does NOT mean that learners will always rely on explicit rules to understand and produce language.

Explicit knowledge facilitates the learning process by highlighting what needs to be noticed (e.g., note that the final -ed makes a verb past tense *walk-walked*), providing an analogical basis for understanding and using new constructs (e.g., -er changes the verb to a noun *walk-walker*). When the learner does not have the opportunity to encounter large quantities of high quality input, explicit knowledge provides a shortcut. Learners can also analyze parts of formulaic expressions and monitor their output with the help of explicit knowledge. Finally, through practice and chunking, the explicit knowledge becomes fluent and automatic. In other words, there is a continuous interaction between explicit and implicit knowledge, and it is a loop rather than a dichotomy.

**Active Learning**

Learners best retain and apply the information that has been learned through an effortful process. Several different active learning processes have been empirically verified:

a. **Generation Effect.** Learning is enhanced when learners actually produce rather than recognize answers.

b. **Deep questions.** Students benefit more from asking and answering deep comprehension questions that elicit explanations (e.g., why, why not, how, what-if) than shallow questions (e.g., who, what, when, where) asking for basic descriptive details.

c. **Organization Effects.** Outlining, integrating, and synthesizing information produces better learning than rereading materials or other more passive strategies.

The active learning processes have also been studied in SLA contexts. For example, Eckerth & Tavakoli (2012) examined the reading conditions that led to the learning of the target words. College students read texts under one of three conditions: Task 1 – Read a text with marginal glosses, Task 2 – Read a text with gaps for target words, to be filled from the items in a word list; Task 3 – Read a text with marginal glosses but also write a summary, using one of two given questions and by including all target words. (The texts were counterbalanced, and all participants did all three tasks). The study also manipulated whether a target word occurred 1 or 5 times in the study. The whole learning process was three weeks long followed by immediate testing and by delayed testing three weeks later.

When tested immediately, across the four different types of vocabulary tests, Tasks 2 and 3 which required learners to generate information helped vocabulary performance compared to only reading (Task 1), especially for low-occurrence items. On delayed testing, again across four different types of vocabulary measures, Task 3 (summary) was better than Tasks 1 (read only) and 2 (choose words to fill the gap), regardless of how many times a target word occurred. These results indicate that in actively processing the vocabulary items led to better retention across time.

**Space Effects**

When repeating information during the study phase, spacing the repetitions produces better long-term retention than a massed repetition. That is, learning is improved when new information is incorporated gradually into the memory store with some intervals between the episodes, rather than when it is massed all at once.
A classic example for this effect in SLA is eight-year retention of Spanish vocabulary by English speakers (Bahrick, & Phelps, 1987). Items studied with a 30-day interval between the two exposures led to better memory than items studied with no interval between the two presentations. In a more recent study, Nakata (2018) asked Japanese speakers to learn 48 low-frequency English words by typing in the Japanese translation for these words. In one condition, the words were presented four times in sequential blocks with random distribution of items in each block, which yields massed presentations, with possible spacing ranging between 0-10 items. In the spaced presentation condition, words were repeated across blocks, which made the intervals to range between 2-29 items. Although massed presentation led to better initial learning, on the delayed test given a week later, spaced presentation led to better retention of the translations.

Testing Effect
Information is retained better when it is tested during the learning process, requiring its retrieval from memory. The studies discussed in Section 6 above did not just have active studying, but also instances of retrieval during the sessions. Research clearly shows that testing enhances learning, therefore it is must be determined whether active studying or multiple instances of retrieval improves learning. Addressing this issue, Karpicke and Roediger (2008) tried to disentangle the effects of multiple instances of retrieval (testing) from multiple instances of studying. College students learned 40 Swahili-English word pairs and were tested on these words a week later. There were four different conditions in the study: In one condition, all 40 pairs were studied and tested until all were learned. In the second condition, words that were correctly recalled were not studied any longer, but continued to be tested. In the third condition, if a word pair was correctly recalled, it was still studied, but was no longer tested. Finally, in the fourth condition, recalled items were neither studied nor tested any more. The crucial comparison is between Conditions 2 and 3, namely whether repeated testing (Condition 2) or repeated studying (Condition 3) leads to better recall after a week. The data showed that even if a word is studied multiple times, if tested only once, there is weaker final recall (.36) compared to the condition where studying occurs once but testing is repeated (.80). These data illustrate repeated testing which requires items to be retrieved multiple times, leads to better retention.

Feedback Effects
Students benefit from feedback on their performance. In SLA, one area where this has been investigated systematically is the effectiveness of the feedback provided by the teachers when they recast an error. The effectiveness of recasts has been questioned because of several concerns: One question is whether learners notice the error that is corrected. There may be “limited uptake” by the learners if they do not grasp what the teacher is correcting. Another concern is the lack of deeper information in recasts. Recasts may mark an error, but not necessarily allow the learner to understand why it is wrong. Finally, high-proficiency learners may benefit more from such indirect feedback.

In his study on the effectiveness of recasts, Nassaji (2017) manipulated how extensive the recasts were and observed their effectiveness on learning English articles. Learners interacted with a native speaker while doing picture labeling and description tasks. In extensive recasts, teachers provided feedback on all types of errors, whereas in intensive recasts, the feedback was only for articles. Control group received no feedback. After this learning phase, one of the outcome tasks was to judge the grammaticality of given sentences, and correct he sentences if there was an article error. The testing was
done immediately or after two weeks. Results showed that all groups were similar at pretest. On posttests, extensive recast was better than control, but intensive recast was not better than control, indicating that a broader focus on language rather than a specific construct may be more helpful with recasts.

In another study with English learners, recasting was compared to scaffolded feedback (Rassaei, 2014). As participants learned about wh-questions, teachers provided either recasts, scaffolded feedback or no feedback (control group). Scaffolded feedback consisted of detailing the error and continuously asking the learner what the correct form should be. On the outcome test (written grammaticality judgments) control group showed no change, while the scaffolded group performed better than the recast group.

Motivation, Interest and Self-Efficacy

When students are interested, they engage for a longer period of time, put in more effort, use deeper and more active processing. As a corollary, students are more motivated when the materials and skills are anchored in real world problems that matter to them.

Motivation has played a vital role in SLA and also it could be the best friend or the worst enemy for practitioners in language learning. Learning a second language takes a considerable amount of time. It is a challenge to allot enough class time to one subject while other subjects also need to be delivered. Therefore, the endeavor of learning a language should not begin and end in a language classroom. The learners’ motivation moves us into an area where learners can initiate and direct their own learning in and beyond classroom. The role of motivation is to spur the learners to invest time and effort outside the classroom and choose different cognitive strategies to achieve the proficiency.

When students are motivated, they are more interested in participating, communicating, engaging and initiating. The more time and effort they are motivated to invest in, the more they master and the more competent they are. Wlodkowski (1985) stated that motivation not only propels the learning, but it also mediates learning and finally, is a consequence of learning.

Self-determination theory is one of the most influential theories in motivational psychology and has been applied to SLA extensively (Dörnyei, 2003). It claims that people have three innate psychological needs that individuals want to fulfill, which are relatedness, autonomy and competence. Interest is the first step to move forward in learning and it can always trace back the rationale of relatedness. Not all students are intrinsically motivated to learn a new language, even if it is potentially beneficial to them. Students are more likely to internalize and “take ownership” of the practices of those with whom they feel connected and in contexts where they feel a sense of belonging (Niemiec & Ryan, 2009). The concepts like context personalization (e.g., Bernacki, & Walkington, 2018), situated learning and active personalization (e.g., Zou & Xie, 2018) are all deeply rooted in it. Autonomy is defined as freedom to choose. The sense of being autonomous form a very positive effect on students’ attitude and performance. Students are more motivated and engaged in learning when they choose to do so. Self-efficacy is the core of competence. Students want to know that they are good at what they do. Success breeds motivation. Bandura (1997) stated that the mastery experiences (or being competent) provides striking testimony to one’s capacity and serve as transforming experiences to improve self-efficacy and motivate to succeed in different undertaking.

Learning is deeper when students are more motivated. In any learning context, students can choose to use many different learning strategies, from memorization to deep processing. High level of interest is linked to deeper and more active processing. In SLA, Xu and Durgunoğlu (2019) studied how Chinese
college students read English texts and answered relatively superficial, text-based questions or questions that required deeper processing and critical analyses. For text-based questions, extrinsic motivation was a strong predictor of performance. However, for questions that required deeper processing, intrinsic motivation was a strong predictor. It presented that the motivation can also have an impact how deep the learners can process besides interests and engagement.

Conclusion
Overall, it is clear that just like in any learning and teaching context, SLA classrooms can also benefit from implementing the principles of learning that have been supported by empirical evidence. The highlighted important principles and their general effects in language teaching have been illustrated in the paper. Ideally, it could help researchers and practitioners to fully be informed what has been validated and how to incorporate them into practice.

Acknowledgment
This research was funded by Guangdong Planning Office of Philosophy and Social Science "thirteen five" project (GD16XWW26).

References
Eckerth, J., & Tavakoli, P. (2012). The effects of word exposure frequency and elaboration of word processing on incidental L2 vocabulary acquisition through reading. Language Teaching Research, 16, 227-252.


**Biography**

Professor Aydin Durgunoğlu graduated and acquired her Ph.D. on Cognitive Psychology from Purdue University in 1986. She has been a professor at University of Minnesota Duluth since 2001. Her research interests are literacy development in adults and in children, literacy development in first and/or second languages, bilingualism and knowledge acquisition. She has published more than 40 papers and accomplished many research grants in her research field. She has been rewarded as Global Engagement award and Distinguished Global Professor by University of Minnesota in 2013. She also served as an associate editor for Applied Psycholinguistics from 2006 to 2013 and has also been in editorial board of Journal of Literacy Research, National Center for Adult Literacy (at the University of Pennsylvania) and Reading Research Quarterly since 2008.

**Dr. Heng Xu** graduated and acquired her Ed.D in Teaching and Learning from University of Minnesota Duluth in 2013. She has been an assistant professor at Jinan University since 2002. Her research interests are literacy development in Second Language Acquisition, Learning Motivation and Mobile-Assisted Language Learning. She has published several papers on her research interests and accomplished a few research grants.
Keynote Speech IV

The Application of Philosophy for Children Pedagogy in American English Classroom

Chad Miller, and Lu Leng*
University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, USA
Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: chadmill@hawaii.edu, and lusophialeng@hotmail.com

[Abstract] This research provides educators the theory and practice of the philosophy for children Hawai‘i (p4cHI) approach to education and explores its application within a high school English classroom in order to create opportunities in which p4cHI flourishes in an English or subject-specific classroom. The study applies a qualitative constructivist grounded theory study to examine thirteen former students’ experiences with the p4cHI integrated English Language Arts course. The analysis of their intensive interview responses details an experience where students can be themselves, they learn from each other, their teacher is an active participant in the learning process. In a p4cHI English classroom, the definition of knowledge moves beyond the acquisition of English language knowledge and information and becomes an increased depth of understanding of themselves, their experiences, and the world. In the classroom, English texts became a medium to initiate meaningful thoughts, connections, and questions from the students, and English language became a communicative tool to facilitate student critical thinking and collaboration.

[Keywords] philosophy for children Hawai‘i; teaching English; community of inquiry; thinking pedagogy; communicative language teaching

Introduction – Philosophy for Children Hawai‘i

Philosophy for Children Hawai‘i (p4cHI) is an outgrowth and unique expression of Matthew Lipman’s (1988, 2003) original Philosophy for Children (P4C) movement. p4cHI is an innovative approach to education that transforms the schooling experience by engaging students in intellectually safe communities of inquiry (Makaiau, Wang, Ragoonaden, & Leng, 2017) in order to promote a more thoughtful and just society. p4cHI now has become the namesake of the educational movement associated with doing philosophical inquiry with K-12 and university students in the Hawaiian Islands (Miller, 2013). p4cHI aids students and teachers in converting traditional classrooms into intellectually safe communities of inquiry. Together, participants develop their ability to think for themselves in responsible ways by exploring meaningful questions that arise from their interests, experiences and concerns based on their texts, readings or learning context. p4cHawai‘i.org is their official website (Jackson, 2012; 2013).

Significance of the Study

Over 30 years of U.S. and international research, including recent studies done in Hawai‘i, indicate that the use of philosophical inquiry with a group of students, within an intellectually safe classroom community, sharpens students’ abilities to “think for themselves” (Lipman, Sharp & Oscanyan, 1980, p. 53). This activity also positively affects students’ cognitive and social-affective abilities, engagement, moral dispositions, and self-confidence (Makaiau, 2013; Splitter & Sharp, 1995; Leng, 2015). Even so,
there has been very little written about the intersection between students’ learning experiences and P4C in the education of adolescents in an English class.

This study is a synthesis of the findings from Miller’s (2013) dissertation research. The study aims to provide educators a better understanding of the practice and experience of Philosophy for Children approach to teaching within a subject-specific classroom (in this research, an English Language Arts course), which offers the avenue for P4C, and its educational, cognitive, and social-affective benefits to spread across the English curriculum or other subject-specific curriculum integrating community of inquiry approach to teaching and to cultivate student thinking abilities in a specific classroom.

**Research Design: Constructivist Grounded Theory**
A constructivist grounded theory (Strauss, & Corbin, 1998) will be generated by the data that is grounded in participants’ perspectives concerning P4C when it is used as an approach to teach high school English.

**Description of Participants**
The participants of this study took the P4C integrated English class twice during their high school experience and graduated no earlier than 2009 in Hawai’i. They were almost evenly balanced between male and female ex-students between the ages eighteen and twenty-two. Students who fit these criteria have been exposed to the P4C for roughly 220 hours of instructional time.

**Data Collection: Participant Interviews**
The purpose of this study was to determine respondents’ perceptions of P4C and their attitudes towards it. The main source of data arose as the result of interviews with thirteen former students. Although an interview guide was used, a conversational interview strategy (Patton, 2002) was utilized to naturally explore the participants’ experiences, ideas, memories, and feelings of the class when it came to the use of P4C as an approach to teaching.

**Data Analysis**
Analysis of qualitative data occurred in three phases. The process consisted of: a) Initial open codes were developed to highlight major themes occurring in each individual interview transcripts; b) Using the method of constant comparison (Strauss, & Corbin, 1998), similarities, differences, and complementarities across and within participants were examined. The most salient conceptual categories and sub-categories from the initial codes were developed; and c) Rich theoretical categories were constructed concerning the participants’ experience with the P4C teaching pedagogy.

**Findings**
Three categorical themes emerged from the Miller’s qualitative analysis.

**A Safe and Supportive Social Cultural Learning Context**
The first theme to emerge from the data was that students gained an appreciation of being in a safe and supportive learning environment. The circular seating format, the use of the community ball, the establishment of an intellectually safe environment provided a foundation for trust, understanding, deep inquiry and transformative learning.
A circular seating structure encouraged participation. The circle promoted a new type of power structure. It removed the barriers and restrictions of the typical classroom. The interchange between Miller (the teacher) and Taryn illustrated this importance.

Miller: What are the significant ingredients or elements to teaching a class this way? So, if you had to make a recipe, what are the things that need to be in there?
Taryn: I think we need a circle.
Miller: Okay, what’s the importance of the circle?
Taryn: You get to see everybody and your surroundings. Because if you’re just in the rows or columns, you’re kind of restricted to seeing people talk. (Taryn, 2011, p. 22)

Circular seating facilitates cooperation and collaboration among the students and teacher. Kevin pointed out the drawbacks of traditional seating format: If you see the back of someone’s head then you feel like you’re not getting their attention, and if you’re going to talk then they may not listen. Even if they’re right in front of you they may not be listening. (Kevin, 2011, p. 9)

The community ball built up relationships. Twelve of the thirteen participants specifically referred to the use of the “community ball” in the class, while the thirteenth participant did not refer to it by name but alluded to it on several occasions. According to students’ remarks, the “community ball” plays an important role in building relationships within the classroom. The circular seating sets the context, but the community ball is instrumental in facilitating collaboration among the students, largely because it helped students attentively listen to each other and encouraged students to participate into the inquiry process.

According to Alyse, the community ball gave the students a set of rules and expectations, which, in turn, provided each student a chance to have their ideas heard by their peers.

That is what I really, really liked about the community ball because it kept everything in order and organized. Because we weren’t having people yelling all across the room, but then at the same time, everyone had their say. Everyone threw it to everyone that wanted, felt like they needed to say something, and everyone was able to do that. (Alyse, 2011, p. 11)

Intellectual safety created an atmosphere free from fear. The construction of an intellectually safe environment allowed participants to be themselves. The sense of safety and comfort made participants freely share their ideas, comments, opinions, and experiences with the class.

The Open Inquiry Allowed Students to Shine and Grow
Once the intellectual and emotional safe community is built, students’ inquiry could be very deep. Based on the reading text of the English class, students raised personally relevant questions and discussed controversial issues and critical events connecting to their lives. The questions were intellectually explored without individual biased arising to make people defensive or embarrassed.

It seemed the religious people wouldn’t be upset about it, but they were kind of open to it... when they would address it, they wouldn’t take it in an angry offense. They wouldn’t fire back at you; they would just be like ‘well we thought about it from this angle.’ (Holden, 2011, p. 15)

Readings became an avenue to initiate student thinking. Since this English class integrated p4cHI into its everyday teaching and learning, English texts became a medium to initiate meaningful thoughts, connections, and questions from the students. Students used text to launch exploration into questions and ideas. For instance, several of the participants said the power and function of the English texts rest in how
effective they are in sparking thought and arousing wonder in the students. As a matter of fact, Alana said this is the aim of the course:

In this class, you forget about stupid stuff like that and I think that’s what this class is about. It’s about expanding your brain and being more open-minded and giving yourself an opportunity to think, and to actually think deeply about things. (Alana, 2011, p. 12)

Malia said in other classes “we are encouraged to ask questions, but only questions that pertain to what’s happening [in the text] and questions that have answers that we can all find” (Malia, 2011, p. 4). The p4cHI English class allowed students to explore things that matter most to their lives instead of “address[ing] what’s being pushed away from us” (Holden, 2011, p. 14). The class encouraged them to question and discuss what they really wonder about.

**Students co-constructed learning with their peers and the teacher.** The p4cHI approach to education created a new dynamic in the English classroom. The teacher’s role dramatically shifted from the sage of the platform to a facilitator and teacher-student in the learning activities with and alongside of the students. The teaching changed from the transmission of content knowledge to the inquiry and integrated understanding of the students. Alberto’s response illustrates this change in the role of the teacher:

on some days you just might be sitting there, talking, being one of the students. Other days you might have more of a teacher role. You know, being more disciplinary...you’re pushing the discussion along” (Alberto, 2011, p. 35).

James described “a typical day” in the p4cHI English classroom: “we kind of learned off, like based from each other, we learned from each other. It wasn’t your typical teacher teaches a student” (James, 2011, p. 1). In the class, students were given opportunities to speak and express. “We got to speak and we were shown that we can teach as well as learn” (Alyse, 2011, p. 10).

**Knowledge is Self-understanding and A Way to Think**

In the p4cHI English class, participants understood that knowledge is more than a list of facts and formulas that students are typically asked to learn. Rather, knowing had become directly related to their questions and inquiries, which made the learning process deeply personal and authentically motivational.

The discovery of self-knowledge helped students develop. The interview data shows that students were concerned with a deeper understanding of themselves and the life they are living. The class helped “to kind of grow in our own knowledge and our own person to help us with our lives and lead us into different directions, and lead our actions with certain situations” (Alyse, 2011, p. 9). The cognitive changes were very popular in participants’ learning experiences.

I’d say this is the only real – probably the biggest learning experience of my life so far. Not even. I wouldn’t confine that just to when we were in the classroom. It’s completely changed my whole thinking. It carries on throughout when I leave this room. I try to bring what happens in this classroom out there. (Holden, 2011, p. 11)

The focus of the class was not on large amount of information or asking students to memorize and retain information. When asked, “What did you learn in here?”, one student shared:

It wasn’t learning material; I didn’t gain an absolute knowledge. I didn’t gain like knowledge from chemistry...I didn’t gain a list of facts, or I didn’t remember a bunch of equations that I


Discussion and Conclusion

In the philosophy for children Hawai‘i English class, students and their teacher co-created a social-cultural learning context that ensured a deep community of inquiry could occur. Prior to the course, students and the teacher co-constructed a definition of intellectual safety and made a community ball to facilitate their turn taking. While making the community ball, they began to know each other personally. After engaging in a number of reflective activities and readings that reiterated the importance of intellectual safety and community building, the students began to build up a strong community and a good relationship with their teacher. They respected each other’s ideas, interests, and needs. They listened attentively to what others had to say and shared their thoughts genuinely. This social context of learning sets a psychological foundation for students’ further learning in the text-based and question-stimulated inquiry.

Maintaining a safe and positive classroom environment is a fundamental condition for learning. The collaborative community of inquiry solves the contradiction between students and teachers (Freire, 1970), teachers become co-learners with their students instead of a source of authority merely conveying information. When teachers give students autonomy to direct their inquiry, they learn to value their own thinking as equal to the teacher. In this context, knowledge is created and discovered by the community of inquiry. The role of a teacher changes into a facilitator that coves the community of inquiry forward within a broad range of parameters that stress critical thinking, reflection, clarity, open-mindedness, and good judgment. The facilitator keeps philosophical inquiry on track, respects the natural flow of inquiry, enriches and bridges the discussion, and gently direct the discussion, but without imposing his or her ideas and agenda. By emphasizing dialogue as a way to create a community and improve thinking, students share insights, clarifications, questions, and experiences, cooperatively, so that each participant learns how to listen as well as how to speak respectfully and empathetically (Kennedy, & Kennedy, 2011).

Students’ curiosity, their natural sense of wonder, their eagerness for inquiry, and their desire to make their voices heard were realized and flourished (Dewey, 1997). Philosophical readings of texts raised questions that open up an exploration of important questions about life that students can relate to in their own lives. The class put “the spotlight on thinking…not especially on the memorization of concepts, but on the greater, grander concept of thinking itself” (Lipman, 2008, p. 109).

The study concludes by generating a grounded theory of teaching English that overturns traditional models of teaching and learning, such as the transmission approach to teaching. The p4cHI subject specific class a) firstly constructed an intellectually and emotionally safe environment that foster learning process; b) once the learning context is shaped, students and their teacher become co-participant in the community of inquiry; c) values student perspectives and voices and treats it as essential content of teaching; and d) requires students and their teacher to engage in a more deliberate, reflective, caring, critical, creative, collaborative thinking and learning in order to promote student English communication.

References


**Biography**

**Chad Miller** is the 2012 Hawai’i Teacher of the Year, a National Board Certified teacher, and is currently an Associate Specialist at the University of Hawai’i at Mānoa Institute for Teacher Education. Dr. Miller also serves as the Director of Teacher Development at the University’s Uehiro Academy for Philosophy and Ethics in Education and in this “hybrid” role, he teaches Language Arts methods courses, as well as “Philosophy for Children (p4c)” courses in the College of Education to secondary teacher candidates. He also serves as a Philosopher in Residence, where he collaborates with and supports teacher candidates and veteran K-12 teachers as they incorporate the activity of philosophy into their classroom practice through the use of the “Philosopher’s Pedagogy”. Regardless if he is thinking about the environmental implications of “driving” clouds with third graders, the cyclical nature of violence and drug abuse with sophomores in their Language Arts classes, or the value of living the “examined life” with undergraduates, Dr. Miller finds himself participating in extremely meaningful and rigorous philosophical inquiries with students and teachers each day.
Building on our common interest in improving foreign language instruction in traditional school and university settings, there are at least three additional reasons to call for the intensification of interdisciplinary cooperation between pedagogy and linguistics in many countries: (a) the challenge to support large groups of pre-school and school-age immigrant and refugee children and of adults in the process of learning the majority language of their country of residence, (b) the helplessness of early childhood educators and teachers confronted with increasingly heterogeneous classroom situations and varying degrees of language proficiency in learner populations, and (c) the general lack of knowledge about language acquisition, bi- and multilingualism throughout society at large.

The last point, (c), also means that even where practitioners are sufficiently qualified for working in language fostering or teaching programs, institutional conditions may be far from favorable (too many children per group, insufficient time, and noise, etc.). The talk will focus on what current research on first and early second language acquisition in children has to offer in order to improve the quality and quantity of language support and specific intervention strategies.

My line of reasoning will be based on longitudinal case studies with different learner types (L1, 2L1, early L2; Schulz, & Tracy 2018, Tracy, & Gawlitzek, 2005, Tracy, & Thoma, 2009), and on large-scale (N>1000) cross-sectional research comparing early L2 learners of German as a second language with monolingual German speaking children in specific and diagnostically relevant areas of grammar (word order, subject-verb agreement in production, comprehension of simple wh-questions, Schulz, & Tracy, 2011).

The talk will also report on a standardized test developed to assess the explicit knowledge and the language support competence of early childhood educators and elementary school teachers with respect to properties of the target language, developmental paths, and multilingualism (Michel, Thoma, & Ofner, 2014; Ofner, 2018; Thoma, & Tracy, 2014).

Finally, I will highlight what our research on bi- and multilingualism throughout the lifespan (cf. Bialystok, 2009) and on specific features of bilingual speech, such as codeswitching in children and adults (Bullock, & Toribio, 2009; MacSwan, 2014, Tracy, & Gawlitzek, 2005), can contribute to bringing about a general change of perspective from a deficit-oriented view of learners and bilingual speakers to a fuller appreciation of their resourcefulness and resilience even under unfavorable exposure conditions.

Biography
Rosemarie Tracy teaches linguistics in the English Department at the University of Mannheim, Germany. She studied English, Romance Languages and Psychology at the Universities of Mannheim, Göttingen, and in the U.S. R.T. obtained her PhD from the University of Göttingen and did her “Habilitation” at the University of Tübingen, Germany. Her research interests include monolingual language acquisition, the
simultaneous acquisition of two first languages, early second language acquisition, heritage language acquisition, and language contact phenomena (language mixing, code-switching) in children and adults. She is involved in various language intervention and evaluation projects with pre-school institutions and schools. She has been a member of the linguistics review board of the German Research Foundation (DFG), and has acted as the vice president for research, equal opportunity, and early-stage researchers of the University of Mannheim for the last three years.
The study of second language acquisition has often been seen as divided between two antithetical approaches – the cognitive and the social ones. However, a polarization like this has also been seen as unfruitful and attempts have been made to bridge the gap (Hulstijn, et al., 2014) or to find, e.g., ‘socio-cognitive’ (Atkinson, 2011) or ‘transdisciplinary’ (Douglas Fir Group, 2016) research strategies. However, there are also perspectives that do not see a gap between the social and cognitive dimensions. One such field is the sociocultural, Vygotskian research tradition. As Lantolf (2014, p. 369) observed:

“a sociocultural approach to language learning and teaching does not have to concern itself with ways of bridging gaps, be they cognitive-social, teaching-testing, or research-practice in nature. Vygotsky did not bridge them; he eliminated them.”

Similarly, also ‘ecological’ (Kramsch, & Steffensen, 2008; van Lier, 2004) and ‘dialogical’ (Dufva, 2013) approaches have attempted to shed the dualistic assumptions. Drawing on the above non-dualistic traditions, I will discuss an ecological, dialogical approach to language learning and language teaching. This approach has its focus neither on the cognitive, nor the social sphere as such, but investigates how learning happens in the learner-environment system. This means to consider first, the viewpoint of learners, second, the resources of their environments, and third, what kind of activity takes place when learners interact with other people or use different types of tools and artefacts. Language learning has its cognitive, social and embodied aspects. In this framework, language is understood as diverse sets of linguistic resources that learners set out to appropriate. To continue, the language proficiency they develop, that is, their own reservoir of resources, can be reconceptualized as their personal linguistic repertoire. For the purposes of teaching, it is particularly relevant to consider how learners are attuned to the linguistic resources in their environments, and the learning opportunities they offer to them, and how they are encouraged to actively use language themselves, thus making the resources a part of their habitual repertoire. Hence, language awareness and action-based pedagogy (van Lier 2007) are important considerations in developing pedagogical practices. In my talk, I will discuss the theoretical background and give examples of the activities to be used in language classrooms.

Biography
Hannele Dufva is Professor of Language Learning and Language Education at the Department of Language and Communication Studies, University of Jyväskylä, Finland. Her research interests include language, learning and cognition, and she has aimed at promoting views that originate in the dialogical and sociocultural tradition including Bakhtin, Voloshinov and Vygotsky. Combining these with the perspective of distributed language and cognition, she has worked towards an ecological approach to language learning. She has written chapters and articles in Finnish and English in academic journals and books, but also published widely for the professionals in the field of language education.
For as long as languages have been institutionally studied, taught and learned, the assumption has been that a language is heard and spoken, and that the phonetic should guide the discipline of learning. Language learning has been conditioned by fluency in speech and comprehension in listening. When we think of a second language, or of a modern language, we are distinguishing its study and acquisition from the skills associated with philology. Philology has long been understood as the study of texts, often if not normatively in languages no longer spoken, or if in one still spoken, whose speakers are of little or no interest to the experts in its classical texts. Language acquisition, by contrast, is institutionally housed within linguistics, the discipline that emerges out of the exhaustion of philology, or of what, about one hundred years ago, came to be perceived as its disciplinary limitations.

The technology that made linguistics, as a discipline, imaginable was vocal recording, from the gramophone or phonograph through to the dictaphone (1907), the tape-recorder (1909) and all the devices once to be found in a language laboratory, of which the earliest seem to date from 1908. Without the mechanical ability to isolate and reiterate particular noises, it is hardly imaginable that the phoneme would have taken the place of the syllable, as it did in the work of Saussure, Jespersen, Jakobson, Trubetzkoy, Firth and others.

There were also developments on the graphic side, chiefly motivated by the invention of the typewriter, so manifestly unsuited to Chinese. It was about a hundred years ago that a number of scholars and intellectuals (both Chinese and western) argued that Chinese characters should be modified in accordance with western notions of graphic efficiency. About thirty years ago, English being the pioneering language of the internet, there was a widespread fear that the roman alphabet would displace all others. Just as the typewriter had been developed for the roman alphabet, so the computer, whose keyboard preserves to this day (astonishingly) the QWERTY layout, would be similarly indifferent to other alphabets, and especially to the non-alphabetic writing system of Chinese. Only some twenty years ago did it become apparent that the digital keyboard knows none, or very few, of the limitations of the analogical keyboard.

Today, digital technology enables us to play with scripts and typefaces, to enjoy the heterographic; it has brought about an extraordinary graphic and heterographic emancipation while also reordering the economy of language-activity, of the ratio between writing and speaking in everyday communication. This lecture will explore some of the consequences for language acquisition of these new graphic freedoms and practices.

Biography
Charles Lock has been Professor of English Literature at the University of Copenhagen since 1996. A Senior Scholar of Keble College, he received his DPhil from Oxford in 1982 for a dissertation on John Cowper Powys. In 1979 he was awarded the Laurence Binyon Prize (a University Prize) in the History of Art. He taught for two years at the University of Karlstad, in Sweden, and from 1983 was at the University of Toronto where he was appointed to Full Professor in 1993; he was also adjunct professor at Toronto in Comparative Literature, Russian and East European Studies, Religious Studies and Medieval Studies.
Evaluating TBLT: A Study on Task-based Language Teaching in Asian Classrooms

Han Hui

Nanguo Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China
Email: 151683569@qq.com

[Abstract] Since the appearance of the Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) Method in 1983, it has been widely adopted in language classrooms all over the world. Asia is no exception. With the application of this pedagogics in Asia in the 1990s, there has been a great deal of research on TBLT. In order to have a more comprehensive understanding of the complementation of TBLT in Asia and its challenges and problems, in this paper, the author has carried out a comprehensive study.

[Keywords] TBLT; CLT; Asian classroom

Introduction

Since the appearance of Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) Method in 1983, it has been widely adopted in language classrooms all over the world. Asia is no exception. Teaching and learning practice in Asia has been deeply affected by the traditional oriental culture, and for the reason, its teaching objectives, contents and evaluation have strong practical purposes. With the application of this pedagogics in Asia, there has been a great deal of research on TBLT. In order to have a more comprehensive understanding of the complementation of TBLT in Asia, as well as its challenges and problems, the author has conducted a comprehensive study in this paper. This paper is divided into four parts. In the first part, the author introduces the origination and application of TBLT. Then the author discussed the challenges of TBLT in Asian context. In the third part, the author explains the unsolved problems of TBLT in Asian context. In the last part, the author summarizes the whole study.

The Origination and Application of TBLT

The Origination of TBLT

The Task-Based Language Teaching Method originated from Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Based on the language function, CLT is an instructional methodological system which basically aims to develop learners’ communicative competence. CLT emphasizes that foreign language is a means of communication, and the ultimate objective of learning a foreign language is to develop the learner’s communicative competence by using a foreign language (Yao, 2010). In the communicative teaching classroom, the learners should be provided meaningful information input and use the target language as much as possible. Howatt (1984, p. 279) divided CLT into strong and weak versions of communicative approach. The weak version of the communicative approach stresses that learners should be given opportunities for using English for communicative purposes. In this definition, the text which is based on the language structure is considered as a demonstration of language examples. The learners use the target language through a series of communicative activities in the classes. The weak version intends to provide
learners with the opportunities for practicing the language so that they can communicate in the real world. The definition of the strong version of the communication approach declares that language can be acquired through communication. Howatt (1984, p. 279) described the weak version as “learning to use English”, and the strong version as “using English to learn it”. Ellis (2003) claims that the group work is not the only way to carry out communication activities according to the strong version of the communicative approach. As long as the individual students use rich language in one way or another, meanwhile, the output is new and helpful, then it is communicative learning activity. This communicative approach stresses that language is learnt through communicative activities. Therefore, this strong version focuses on the communication in the classroom. There are three principles in the implementation of this approach: communicative, task-based, meaningful.

**Task and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT)**

With the rise of TBLT, communicative activity was replaced by the term of task. Different people have different understanding of task in TBLT. Richard and Rodgers (1986, pp. 64-83) believe that task is an action of processing and understanding language. Long (1985, p. 89) defined task from a non-linguistics aspect that task is a paid or unpaid work for oneself or others. Nunan (2002) considered that a task is a learning activity which is controlled and regulated by teachers, and then students acquire the information, and it is processed by their thinking, finally they have language output. Skehan (2003) summarized Nunan and Long’s Explanation of Tasks. Firstly, the task should be meaningful. Secondly, the task should be accomplished. Thirdly, there are some similarities between the tasks and the real world. Fourthly, the problems which appeared in the task should be resolved through language communication. Finally, the task assessments should be evaluated by the results.

The task is an important element of Task-based Language Teaching. Nunan (2011, pp. 1-4) classified the task as the real-world tasks or target tasks, and pedagogical tasks. Real world tasks are done through daily lives, working places and recreation, which are non-technical and non-linguistic, while pedagogical tasks are the tasks that happened in the classes. Ellis (2003) indicated that a consciousness-raising task (CR) is designed to make the learners understand the language input and deduct the grammar structure by completing the tasks. Nunan (2011, pp. 35-38) summarized seven principles:

1) Scaffolding; 2) Task; Dependence.; 3) Recycling; 4) Active learning; 5) Integration. 6) Reproduction, to creation; 7) Reflection.

Some linguists apply tasks to language teaching. In 1979, Prabhu put the assumption of TBLT into practice. He believed that it was more effective if the learners focused on the task instead of the language being used. Bangalore, which is located at the south of India, is the fifth largest city in India. Prabhu carried out the experiment of the reformation of the communicative language teaching approach in this city. The premise of the experiment was that language can be naturally acquired by the learners under the condition that they can focus on the meaningful expression. The design of the teaching experiment was divided into three parts including pre-task, during the task and post-task. Prabhu claimed that learners should pay attention to the meaning of the language and the process of acquiring language instead of the language forms. The learners need to be frequently intensified with the target language samples which are made from authentic or simulated context, so that the inner language structure can be built up. Prabhu also divided the learning process into two parts. One is task-preparation, and the other is task implementation. During the task-preparation, teachers should make clear the teaching contents and objectives, and they distribute the
tasks to the students. There is detailed demonstration for the learners. At the second step, learners would carry out the task with the knowledge that they already know and report how the task has been developed.

Long and Crookes (1992) stated that language must be acquired by conversational interaction. So modified interaction is necessary. Willis (1996, p. 38) has given instructions to teachers on classroom teaching. He advocated three phases (PTP) of TBLT: 1) Pre-task, teachers introduce the task and topic; 2) Task-cycle, including the task, planning, and report; 3) Post-task, including analysis and practice. Skehan (2003) has promoted the cognitive language learning approach which made the TBLT a great progress. He advocated that students’ attention could be rationally distributed by reasonable task design during the process of completing the tasks since they are in the communicative language learning environment. Their language is balanced and continuous.

**TBLT in Asia**

With the development of globalization, the demand for foreign language speakers is increasing, especially for talents who are good at listening and speaking. Education departments are concerned with how to improve learners’ communication abilities effectively. In the 1980s, the prevalent grammar-translation approach was criticized in China. The educators thought that the learners’ language communicative ability was neglected by the traditional language teaching method. In the traditional approach, the target language is separated into different parts according to linguistics, and then they are presented to the learners one by one (Wilkins, 1976). Long and Robinson (1998) demonstrated that this kind of method was called focus on forms, which separates the connection between linguistic forms and their meaning. In order to avoid the isolation, TBLT was adopted by the Asian educators in the second language classroom. Ever since the introduction of TBLT in 1980s, it has had a great impact on the second language teaching in Asia, especially in fundamental English teaching.

The new *English Curriculum Criteria for High Schools* (2017) in China states clearly that the task-based teaching approach is advocated. The teachers are recommended to employ the TBLT in the classroom. *The National Curriculum* (1999) issued by the Japanese Ministry of Education stated that one of the central tasks of English language teaching is to develop students’ communicative ability. It suggested the teachers should employ the Task-based Language Teaching method (Butler, 2005). In 1997, Korea issued their *National Curriculum* (7th ed.) which also gave advice to the teachers to use the TBLT in the classrooms (Choi, 2007). In 1991, Singapore issued their *English Language Syllabus* which also called for teachers to use the Task-Based Language Teaching approach in order to develop their students’ intercultural communication competence. Hong Kong published *Teaching Syllabus* in 1997, which also suggested that teachers adopt the Task-based Language Teaching method in primary schools (Carless, 2009). Additionally, language teachers from Malaysia, Vietnam, India, Thailand, Taiwan, and other Asian countries and regions are all recommended to employ the Task-based Language Teaching method in their classrooms.

**The Challenges of TBLT in the Asian Context**

**Conceptual Constraints of the Traditional View of Language Teaching**

The primary challenge for the application of TBLT in the Asian context is the traditional view of language teaching. In the TBLT classroom, most of the time should be allocated to the learners to have in-class activities such as discussion, group work, and problem solving, which is incompatible with the traditional
Asian classroom. Asian students are always asked to remain silent in the classroom, which is considered showing respect to their teachers. Students are passive in the classroom as they have gotten used to the cramming method of teaching for many years. Cortazzi and Jin (1996) believed that the ‘cultures of learning’ in an Asian context are distinct from those in Britain, Australia, or North America. It’s inadequate to apply TBLT to the Asian region. Miller (1995) also thought that Asian students are not expressive in language learning because of the influence from social culture factors. In addition, the Asian students do not prefer group activities because they were influenced by ancient Confucian thoughts. In the Asian teaching environment, the priority of education is to deliver knowledge instead of language skills. Furthermore, TBLT requires teachers to have a higher level of language proficiency and a good command of social language. In fact, many Asian teachers have not achieved the required language ability (Yue, 2002). From the traditional language teaching method, the Asian students are asked to learn language knowledge by heart instead of making active oral expression. It is difficult for the students to participate in the relaxed and happy learning activities and to express and exchange their ideas actively. Cameron (2002, pp. 67-82) considered that the difference between communicative competence and communication problems in TBLT depends on the British and American culture, which is not suitable for all language teaching environments.

However, some scholars do not agree with this view. Littlewood (2007) and Cheng (2004) do not think that Chinese students are affected by the Chinese traditional culture since they are inactive in communication. Language learning is a complicated process. Many factors result in the learners’ unwilling participation in oral communication. For example, inappropriate teaching methods, lower levels of language proficiency, unfamiliar topics, and uncooperative relations between students and teachers (Cheng, 2004). The students in the Japanese classroom are not as was described in that they are more passive and less vocal, meanwhile, they prefer the lecture-style teaching method. Savignon and Wang (2003) found that the freshman in Taiwan were very willing to have meaningful communications in class. Chung and Huang (2009) investigated the Taiwanese high school students and found that they showed great passion on the TBLT. Besides, in Stevenson and Stigler’s (1992) study, they found that primary school teachers in the U.S. spent more time lecturing in the classroom than the teachers in Japan and Taiwan. In the study of Ha (2004), Vietnamese teachers found it preferable to develop the students’ autonomous learning ability with TBLT.

**Constraints of Language Teaching Condition**

The second challenge of the application of TBLT in Asian context is the poor language teaching condition. Most of the Asian English teachers are English majors, but English is not their native Language. Therefore, low English proficiency, together with their lack of teaching and language techniques training, make the Asian teachers to be uncertain about the effectiveness of TBLT in their classrooms (Nishino, 2008). Consequently, the TBLT in Asia region has turned into the combination of audiolingual and grammar translation (Savignon & Wang, 2003).

According to the basic characteristics of TBLT, language teaching materials and activities should be closely related to the student life. Limited resources can be used for the Asian students, though plenty of teaching materials have been introduced in Asian (Butler, 2005). Meanwhile, the perceived authentic teaching materials and activities are only appropriate for the students from the English-speaking countries but not the Asian students, since the given materials and activities are impracticable for the Asia students’ daily lives or they can merely be used in the real-world communication. Hence, it is impossible to achieve the basic principles of TBLT in Asian language classroom.
Some scholars (e.g., Sakui, 2004; Nishino, 2008) have also done research on the large class sizes and limited lecturing time, because they are challenges for the teachers who intend to carry out TBLT to make sure that every student in the class can take part in the classroom activities. The classes are always divided into several small groups. It is a waste of time to have all the groups carry out in-class activities. Therefore, teachers cannot fulfill the required teaching tasks and objectives in time. Furthermore, in the study of Li (1998), in large classes, teachers cannot supervise and give advice to every group discussion. Students prefer to have discussions in their first language, and they often talk a lot on the discussions which are unrelated with the given topics.

**Unsolved Problems of TBLT in Asian Context**

Scholars have made comprehensive research on the TBLT. Although the Task-Based Language Teaching method has gained the popularity in the foreign Language classroom in Asian region, there are still a number of unsettled problems and concerns.

**The Discrepancy Between Examination Culture and TBLT**

Cheng (2004) claimed that the qualification of the College English Test is considered to be the benchmark in the talent markets although it has been reformed several times in China. Long and Crookes (1992) stated that a task-based criterion-referenced test should be added in the assessment for the teaching evaluation in order to carry out the TBLT. The value of exam-oriented education should be changed so that the teachers and learners can treat the marks and exam culture rationally. The quality education should be built to overcome the contradiction between the implementation of TBLT and exam culture.

**The Separation of TBLT and Form-Focused Instruction**

Task-based language teaching emphasized that language practicing is focused on the meaning of the language instead of the form of language. Compared with the traditional language teaching, task-based language teaching method is not focused on the language form. Therefore, the way to assess the development of language form in the TBLT is another issue which have to be resolved. During the process of language input and output, all that matters is language form. The appropriateness of language application can be reflected in the combination of language meaning and form. Although some TBLT experts claimed that task-based language teaching method is also focused on language form, no one can tell how to integrate the form-focused instruction with the TBLT. Ellis (2003) suggested that teachers can focus on language form at the phase of post-task. It is unnecessary to pay too much attention to the language form at the pre-task and task-cycle phases in order to avoid interfering with the language meaning. Therefore, students can experience how language can be acquired.

**The Conflict Between TBLT and Language Policy**

In most Asian countries, TBLT is highly recommended in the second language classroom, but the language policy is implemented in a top-down way. The *Curriculum Standards* were created by an official organization, promoted by the local and provincial administrative departments of education, and finally, it was applied into practice in the classroom by the teachers. TBLT is promoted heavily, on one hand, and on the other hand, the good results of examinations are required. Teachers are powerless (Tsui, 2007). However,
TBLT would be carried out well in the classroom if the teachers have the power to decide the appropriate teaching method and teaching contents. How to coordinate the top-down policy and bottom-up course decision is an urgent issue which have to be resolved in the future.

**Conclusion**

Firstly, despite the challenges of TBLT in Asia, there must be an appropriate way to move TBLT forward in Asia style. Teachers in Asia can organize teaching activities in a flexible way. For example, English learners, who are native speakers of Chinese, are good at imitating and reciting. In the TBLT classroom, teachers can arrange some imitation activities. Since the Asian teachers prefer the PPP teaching mode, they can employ it suitably for the TBLT at the appropriate phase.

Secondly, one of the difficulties of TBLT in Asia is the lack of language environment, so educators should create out-of-class context which is natural and authentic for the learners to have practices. The out-of-class English corner and club can develop Asian learners’ pragmatic environment. It provides with the learners not only the opportunities to practice English after class, but also autonomic learning communities out of class. Additionally, watching original English movies or TV programs can also improve students listening and speaking ability and broaden the culture behind the language.

Thirdly, in Asian context, teachers should make the most of the computer-media interaction environment and network learning platform. Stockwell (2010) stated that the computer-media interaction environment can supply real-world interaction environment for the students, and it is helpful for the teachers to collect the language materials which output through this environment.

In the TBLT, the learning motivation comes from the specific tasks, and the learning process is reflected in the procedures of completing the tasks. The demonstration of tasks can be used to judge the teaching results. Although TBLT is borrowed from English speaking countries, such as Britain, Australia, and North America, colleges and universities and primary and middle school in Asia try to apply TBLT in the classrooms, where English is not the native language. Hence, there are disputes about the feasibility in Asia, at the same time, it is changeable. The studies at home and abroad indicated that task-based language teaching approach is an advanced and effective teaching method (Lai & Li, 2011). The implementation of TBLT in Asia should be based on the specific socio culture in different countries to absorb its essence and get rid of its shortcoming. The selection of language which includes the langue-based tasks activities can be flexible to develop learners’ communicative competence and writing skills. The textbooks should be closely related to the students’ daily lives.

**Acknowledgements**

This research is sponsored by the Program of A Practical Research of the PAD of Pattern in the College Extended Courses, a Guangdong Provincial Quality Project – Teaching Research & Reform Project of Higher Education in Guangdong, 2017 (Grant No. GDJG201701); a part of Guangdong provincial project Research on MOOC-based Blended Teaching Model for College English Development Courses (Grant No. GDJG201602).

**References**


An Analysis on the Chinese Intonation-Only Questions

Hong Zou
Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: phylliszou@126.com

[Abstract] In standard Chinese, intonation-only questions have only prosodic clues to mark interrogative voice. Without lexical and grammatical clues though, native speakers can comprehend the voice of query in intonation-only questions even if they are isolated utterances. Our research analyzes the prosodic characteristics of Chinese intonation-only questions comparing them with their corresponding statements and concludes the rising tail of the final boundary tone is the only distinguishing mark, making intonation-only questions heard differently.

[Keywords] intonation; intonation contour; pitch; duration

Introduction
In Standard Chinese, the interrogative voice is mainly conveyed by three strategies: lexical, grammar, and intonation. Three strategies are sometimes used together and sometimes used alone. Intonation-only questions, which have only prosodic clues, are not as common as those which are formed along with other strategies in daily conversations. This is because polar questions with intonation clues alone sometimes need more information from context or the speaker needs to make more effort to make the prosody of intonation-only questions distinguishable. Otherwise, questions will be easily understood as the corresponding statements. For this reason, the distinguishing characteristic of intonation-only questions’ prosody have drawn a lot of attention from linguists. Liu (1988) mentioned that Chinese intonation-only questions must be uttered with a high rising tune, which is the only mark for interrogative voice, but there is no discussion about how the high rising tunes are presented phonetically in this paper. Huang (1992) negated the opinion in Liu (1988) with examples that he took from some TV series and considered that the high rising tune functioned for other emphasizing emotional voices than interrogative. Yip (2005) discussed that the interrogatives of tone languages like Mandarin were realized with the general rising of the lexical tone contour or the widening of the pitch range of the lexical tone at the end of the utterance. Views in Lou (2016) accorded with Yip (2005) and thought polar questions with only intonation clue must have a terminal rising intonation. These four researchers analyzed intonation-only questions only through the perceptual sense of the hearers. Experimental analysis actually gives more detailed descriptions to the prosodic characteristics of intonation-only questions. Yunjia Wang and Luna Ruan announced in The 8th National Conference on Human-Computer Voice Communication that they found that the intonation-only questions they used in their experiment had significant differences with corresponding statements in both nuclear and final boundary high and low points, and interrogative pitch points were generally higher than corresponding statements. This point basically agreed with Shen (1985) that Mandarin interrogatives had higher pitches than statements as a whole. Lin (2005) made perceptual experiments of interrogatives and found it was the final boundary intonation contour which distinguished interrogatives from their corresponding statements. Following the researches of Lin (2005), Xu, et al. (2018) analyzed Chinese intonation-only questions from both experimental and natural data and conclude that intonation-only questions do not have rising contour as a whole but decline moderately, or stretch flatly, and, at the same time, the contour shape has no relationship with the utterance duration. Compared with corresponding statements, it was mentioned in
Xu’s paper that the final syllables of intonation-only questions seemed to have more up inclination. Although Xu’s analysis has provided a comprehensive description of the prosodic characteristics of intonation-only questions, they do not reveal in detail whether these characteristics make the intonation-only questions distinguishable from their corresponding statements. Our research will focus on this point. We will first examine the utterance contour and then the final boundary tone.

**Analysis**

According to “A Synopsis of Chinese Grammar” by Shuxiang Lü in 1956, the interrogative mood in Standard Chinese contains three different kinds of implicature: inquiring, cross-examining and guessing. In Xu (1999), it was pointed out that the most remarkable implication of intonation-only questions is that the speaker doubts the truth of the statement heard. We collected 23 intonation-only questions from the Database of Spontaneous Speech made by College of Chinese Language and Culture, Jinan University and some TV conversation programs, and mainly found two functions in them: one is to make sure the truth of the speakers’ statements is just heard, and another is to show the surprise to the information that speakers just received. The second function actually involves the first because the speaker, under the second circumstance, not only wants to confirm the fact that he or she just heard, but also feels incredible about the truth of the information. This finding, actually, is in accordance with opinions from Lü and Xu, because inquiry, guessing, and cross-examining are voices of doubt, while the first two are in the basic level, which is the speaker just wants to make a confirmation of the statements and the cross-examining is a stronger voice of doubt in which the speaker actually holds a negative attitude toward the truth of the statement. If we take the statement as X, the first function can be rewritten into the polar interrogative as “DID YOU SAY X?”, and the second would be, “DID YOU REALLY SAY X?”. We have analyzed seven of the twenty-three intonation-only questions, which are considered the most typical. Five of them are in the ordinary question voice, and another two are accompanying surprise. They have the corresponding statements with the exact same words as questions and can be easily comprehended as questions by native speakers. To make a comparison, the author read the corresponding statements of the seven intonation-only questions trying hard to imitate the style and the speed of the questions’ speakers. The WAV sound of the seven intonation-only questions and corresponding statements were analyzed by Praat. Pitch data were transformed into Semi-Tone in order to make a comparison between two speakers’ sounds. We mainly examined three things: pitch contour of utterances, pitch contour of the last syllables, and the duration of whole utterances and the last syllables. We calculated the number of linear slopes of pitch points to construct the shape of the utterances’ and last syllables’ intonation contours. As Ladd (2008) assumed, the function of prosody was to divide the stream of speech into chunks, which involved not only phonetic information but other language cognitive information. Based on Ladd’s criterion, our utterances used here were the seven independent intonational units. Data of the utterances’ slope and utterance duration are illustrated in Table 1.
Table 1. Utterances’ Pitch Slope and Duration

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Intonation-only Questions</th>
<th>Corresponding Statements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Slope and $R^2$</td>
<td>Duration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 1. xia zhou jiu bi sai | $K = -0.2389$  
(The competition is in the next week)  
$R^2 = 0.767$ | D=1.1 | $K = -0.5323$  
$R^2 = 0.4149$ | D=0.88 |
| 2. xia xue qi bu kai | $K = -0.2565$  
(Not next term)  
$R^2 = 0.8795$ | D=0.72 | $K = -0.1916$  
$R^2 = 0.8526$ | D=1.4 |
| 3. suo yi xian zai shi fan pai | $K = -0.0463$  
(So this is a conversion now)  
$R^2 = 0.554$ | D=1.0 | $K = -0.0837$  
$R^2 = 0.377$ | D=1.35 |
| 4. cong shi sui kai shi jiu jie shu le | $K = -0.0247$  
(End by your ten years old)  
$R^2 = 0.093$ | D=2.14 | $K = -0.1184$  
$R^2 = 0.2949$ | D=1.9 |
| 5. ye shi zheng zhi jie de ren wu | $K = -0.0541$  
(Also the political figure)  
$R^2 = 0.337$ | D=1.24 | $K = -0.1008$  
$R^2 = 0.2477$ | D=1.62 |
| 6. shen me bing dou mei you | $K = -0.0261$  
(Don’t get any sick)  
$R^2 = 0.0083$ | D=1.1 | $K = 0.1227$  
$R^2 = 0.1564$ | D=1.4 |
| 7. (na me chang) yi ge ren | $K = -0.1006$  
(So long. Along)  
$R^2 = 0.2411$ | D=0.73 | $K = -0.3236$  
$R^2 = 0.475$ | D=0.47 |

In this table, the first 5 utterances are in the basic doubt voice which holds the main function to make sure about the information. The last two with grey background are utterances with the surprising voice. The number of the utterance slope is $K$ and the duration number is $D$. Among numbers of $K$, there is only one positive one, the statement of Utterance 6, which means no clear declination. This result matches the shape description of intonation-only questions in Xiaoying Xu, et al. (2018) which is the moderate declination or flat stretching. However, we do not find that all corresponding statements have a sharper declination than interrogatives like Shen (1985) and Wang & Ruan (2005) have stated. One of the causes may be because in Shen (1985) and Wang & Ruan’s (2005) analysis they used the experimental data which has excluded the effect of lexical tones. In our analysis we use natural data so that the lexical tone contours actually have a strong effect on the shape of utterances’ intonation contours. It can be found from the fact that $R$ square numbers of most $K$ are very low. The lexical tone is not the only effect. Let’s have a look at Utterance 1 and 2. Both utterances have 5 syllables and falling tones at the initial and final places. However, Utterance 1 has a sharper declination in the statement than Utterance 2 in the interrogative. Then we try to find some relation between intonation contours and other aspects of prosody. The correlation coefficient of the utterances’ slope and the duration is only 5, which means utterance slope has no direct relation with the duration. This agrees with the conclusion in Xiaoying Xu, et al. (2018). Most statements have a larger slope, five to seven points, than questions, but there are two exceptions where the questions’ slope is larger than the corresponding statements – one spoken in an ordinary voice and another in a surprising voice. In this case, it can be assumed that the utterance slope gradients do not have a direct or close relation with factors of durations, statements or questions, and ordinary or surprising voice. We can then assume some paralinguistic factors also having influence on the shape of utterance contours and utterances’ contour could not be the factor to distinguish questions from their corresponding statements. So that the distinguished feature must fall into the pitch contour of the last syllable, which is illustrated in Table 2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utterance</th>
<th>Intonation-only Questions</th>
<th>Correspondent Statements</th>
<th>Intonation-only Questions</th>
<th>Correspondent Statements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. xia zhou jiu bi sai  
(The competition is in the next week) | K = 0.5007  
R² = 0.6847  
D = 0.23 | K = -0.2007  
R² = 1  
D = 0.22 | | |
| 2. xia xue qi bu kai  
(Not next term) | K = -0.2088  
R² = 0.4983  
D = 0.28 | K = -0.0719  
R² = 0.8989  
D = 0.29 | | |
| 3. suo yi xian zai shi fan pai  
(All this is a conversion now) | K = 0.0663  
R² = 0.1456  
D = 0.21 | K = -0.0547  
R² = 0.8464  
D = 0.32 | | |
| 4. cong shi sui kai shi jiu jie shu le  
(End by your ten years old) | K = -0.0258  
R² = 0.0183  
D = 0.15 | K = -1.5992  
R² = 0.9972  
D = 0.14 | | |
| 5. ye shi zheng zhi jie de ren wu  
(Also the political figure) | K = 0.2007  
R² = 0.9918  
D = 0.15 | K = -0.6248  
R² = 0.7653  
D = 0.19 | | |
| 6. shen me bing dou mei you  
(Don’t get any sick) | K = -0.6859  
R² = 0.2901  
D = 0.4 | K = 1.2049  
R² = 0.7141  
D = 0.4 | | |
| 7. (na me chang) yi ge ren  
(So long. Along) | K = -0.0571  
R² = 0.1475  
D = 0.32 | K = 0.0762  
R² = 0.3345  
D = 0.17 | | |

Last syllables mainly have a short duration and a sometimes complex contour, so the slope number can only be used as a reference. Most questions’ R square number of pitch slope (five to seven) are a very small number (below 0.5) which means that the slopes do not fit very well to pitch points of the last syllables in the questions. However, most statements have very good slopes (six to seven have slopes with R square number above 0.7) and pitch contours are basically correspondent to the final syllables’ lexical tone contours. Final syllables’ pitch contours of intonation-only questions are complex. Now, let’s examine them one at a time. Utterance 1 has the final syllable of tone four, a falling tone, in which the corresponding statement has a very clear falling ending while the question has a moderate rise. Both Utterance 2 and 3 ended with tone 1 (even tone) syllables and two corresponding statements have the even ending pitch contour. However, the two intonation-only questions have falling-rising ending contours. In Utterance 2, the ending syllable “kai” has the lowest pitch point at the position of 75% and the rising tail has only a 14HZ difference, which makes the boundary contour actually a very moderate falling inclination. By the slope gradient, Utterance 3, although in a flat contour, the line of final syllable is indeed a falling-rising one in which the lowest pitch point is at the middle. The falling difference is in 17HZ and the rising in 26HZ. The ending syllable of Utterance 4 is a neutral tone, but the penult syllable is a falling tone. So, in the statement of Utterance 4 the last syllable “le” has the extending falling tone from penult syllable “shu”. But in question of Utterance 4 “le” is in a moderate falling–rising tone with the lowest point in the middle like in Utterance 3. In Utterance 5, the question has a final syllable with the rising contour like the question in Utterance 1, while its statement has a falling ending that agrees with the last syllable’s lexical tone. The last syllable of Utterance 6 has a lexical tone of tone 3, which is in a falling-rising contour. The statement and question both have similar final boundary tone that is in a middle-folding contour, the middle period of sound in a cracked voice. But the rising tail of statement is much lower and shorter than the question, so the whole contour of statement is in a falling inclination, but the question isn’t that sharp. In Utterance 7 the final syllable is a rising tone in lexicon. However, in the statement, the last syllable “ren” is an even contour with the pitch difference of only 5HZ, and in question, it is a moderate falling-rising contour with the lowest point in the 66% position and the rising tail having 15HZ difference. To sum up, the seven
intonation-only questions, no matter whether in ordinary voice or surprising voice, have final syllables that have pitch contour with a rising tail, although some of them are short and moderate.

Then, we further tried to find an explanation for the duration and slope of the rising tail of the last syllable. After examining the relativity about the pitch difference of rising tails with factors like the duration of the rising tail, the lexical tone of the last syllable, and the duration percentage of the last syllable with the whole utterance, we did not find any reasonable explanation for why some rising tails are longer than others and why some rising tails have more sharp differences than others. We can only account for this as individual style. However, we did find that the utterances with the surprising voice had relatively longer last syllables. Table 3 provides data of the factors mentioned above. The number in the bracket after the percentage is the syllable number of the whole utterance.

Table 3. Factors that Might have a Relationship with Each Other

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pitch Difference of Rising Tails (HZ)</th>
<th>Duration of Rising Tails (S)</th>
<th>Percentage of the Last Syllable with the Whole Utterance (%)</th>
<th>Lexical Tones (contours)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>21% (5)</td>
<td>falling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>39% (5)</td>
<td>even</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>21% (7)</td>
<td>even</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>7% (9)</td>
<td>neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>12% (8)</td>
<td>falling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>36% (6)</td>
<td>falling-rising</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>44% (3)</td>
<td>rising</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Through the examination of the pitch contour of utterances and last syllables of intonation-only questions, it is concluded that the rising tail in last syllables contours is the only distinguishable mark that makes the intonation-only question be heard differently to the corresponding statement. On another part, the intonation questions with surprising voice will have a relatively longer duration of the last syllables. Under the circumstances, it is assumed that the intonation-only question is not distinguished with its corresponding statement by a very obvious prosodic mark and the strategy used by the native speaker to comprehend the interrogative information properly is mainly by context. The assumption still needs further research on comprehension to prove.

References

Application of Translation Strategies in Second Language Acquisition of Idioms and Buzzwords

Xuehua Lin
South China Business College of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China
Email: 1370432703@qq.com

[Abstract] Second language acquisition, or SLA, is the processes by which people learn languages in addition to their native tongue(s). The brain is an important organ of the human body, receiving and processing information from the internal and external environment, leading all the activities in the body, such as breathing, digesting, sleeping, seeing, hearing, moving, learning, memorizing, and language, etc. The process of second language acquisition is the process in which the brain receives and processes language information. In other words, it is the process of inputting and outputting language information. Translation is the act of transforming one language information into another language information. It is related to both language information input and language information output. The application of translation strategies in second language acquisition is necessary.

[Keywords] second language acquisition; translation strategies; language information input; language information output

Introduction
Second language acquisition, or SLA, is the processes by which people learn languages in addition to their native tongue(s). The brain is an important organ of the human body, receiving and processing information from the internal and external environment, leading all the activities in the body, such as breathing, digesting, sleeping, seeing, hearing, moving, learning, memorizing, and language, etc. The process of second language acquisition is the process in which the brain receives and processes language information. In other words, it is the process of inputting and outputting language information. Translation is the act of transforming one language information into another language information. It is related to both language information input and language information output. The application of translation strategies in second language acquisition is necessary.

Foreignizing translation and domesticating translation are seen as two of the main translation strategies. In 1813, Schleiermacher gave a lecture On the Different Methods of Translation, distinguishing two different ways of translating: either the translator moves the reader to the author, or the translator moves the author to the reader (Venuti, 2006). Based on Schleiermacher’s ideas, in 1995, Lawrence Venuti presented the terms of “foreignizing translation” and “domesticating translation” in his book, The Translator’s Invisibility (Venuti, 2006). Foreignizing translation is a term used to designate the type of translation in which a target text is produced, which deliberately breaks target conventions or retains something of the foreignness of the original. In foreignizing translation, a translator is required to approach the author and employ the expressions used by the author to convey the original content. Domesticating translation is a translation strategy in which a transparent and fluent style is adopted in order to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text for the target language readers. In domesticating translation, the translator is asked to express the original contents by coming towards the target language readers and applying the expressions that they are accustomed to and that they like.
Functional equivalence is a translation theory put forward by Eugene Nida (Ma, 2003). In functional equivalence translation, one is not so concerned with matching the receptor-language message with the source-language message, but instead with the dynamic relationship, the relationship between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptors and the message. In Nida’s theory, when determining whether a translation is faithful to the original text or not, the critic should not compare the formal structures between the source text and its translation but compare receptors' response. The critic should judge a translation not by verbal correspondence between the two texts in question, but by seeing how the receptor, for whom the translated text is intended, reacts to it. Nida’s theory emphasizes the importance of the acceptance of a translated text by the intended reader in the receptor language and avoids the subjective evaluation of critic.

To use foreignizing translation or domesticating translation has long been a heated topic for debate. So far there is no conclusion about which translation strategy is best. It is believed that foreignizing translation will be an unavoidable trend, but, at the same time, the necessity for domesticating translation cannot be undervalued. In second language acquisition, functional equivalence theory can be taken as a starting point and then different translation strategies can be adopted according to different situations. This paper takes Chinese as the native tongue and English as the second language and takes second language acquisition of idioms and buzzwords as examples.

Translation Strategies in Idiom Input and Output

An idiom is an expression in the usage of a language that is peculiar to itself either grammatically (such as “no, it wasn’t me”) or in having a meaning that cannot be derived from the conjoined meanings of its elements (such as “ride herd on” for “supervise”) (Wehmeier, 2004). An idiom is a special kind of phrase. If learners do not know that the words have a special meaning together, they may well misinterpret what someone is saying, or be puzzled by why they are saying something that is untrue or irrelevant. For example, learners might not recognize the idioms “bite someone’s head off” and “out in the cold”. They would then have problems understanding remarks such as “Don’t bite my head off just because you’re bad tempered” and “They were going to play together and that left me out in the cold”. Translation strategies in idiom input and output should be adopted according to different situations.

Translation Strategies in Idiom Input

For some English idioms, there is no image or metaphor in Chinese, and therefore, the phrase can’t cause the same response from Chinese learners. When Chinese learners input such idioms, domesticating translation can be used. This translation strategy can be suitable for the majority of idioms. For example, “love me, love my dog” can be input as the meaning as “爱屋及乌”; “One’s meat is another’s poison.” can have the meaning as “萝卜青菜, 各有所爱”; “Your chickens have come home to roost.” Can have the meaning as “自食其果”; “Go to the sea, if you would fish well.” as the meaning as “不入虎穴, 焉得虎子”; “drunk as a fish” as the meaning as “烂醉如泥”; “easy as my eyes” as the meaning as “易如反掌”; “It’s raining cats and dogs.” as the meaning as “倾盆大雨”; “as poor as a church mouse” as the meaning as “一贫如洗”; “a flash in the pan” as the meaning as “昙花一现”; “in for a penny, in for a pound” as the meaning as “一不做, 二不休”; “Like cures like” as the meaning as “以毒攻毒”; “A good winter brings a good summer.” as the meaning as “瑞雪兆丰年”; “better be a head of a dog than the tail of a lion” as the meaning as “宁为鸡头, 不为凤尾”; “cast pearls before swine” as the meaning as “对牛弹琴”; “A man may dig his grave with his teeth.” as the meaning as “祸从口出”; “Harm watch, harm catch.” as the meaning as “害人反害己”; “a dog in the manger” as the meaning as “占着茅坑不拉屎的人”; “Speak of
devil, and devil comes” as the meaning as “说曹操曹操到”; “apple of one’s eye” as the meaning as “掌上明珠” ; “draw a bow at a venture” as the meaning as “瞎猫碰上死耗子” (Cowie, 1994).

For some English idioms, a unique image can cause resonance or the same reaction in Chinese learners and will not cause misunderstanding. When Chinese learners input such idioms, a foreignizing translation can be used, and the characteristics of the English language and culture will be preserved. For example, “ivory tower” can be input as the meaning as “象牙塔”; “Dog eats dog.” as the meaning as “狗咬狗”; “God helps those who help themselves.” as the meaning as “自助者天助之”; “the golden age” as the meaning as “黄金时代”; “Time is money.” as the meaning as “时间就是金钱”; “The sins of fathers are visited upon the children.” as the meaning as “先辈之祸，祸及子孙”; “A barking dog never bites.” as the meaning as “爱叫的狗不咬人”; “Death pays all debts” as the meaning as “人死债了”; “rub salt in the wound” as the meaning as “在伤口上撒盐”; “bone of the bone and flesh of the flesh ” as the meaning as “骨肉相连”; “eye for eye, tooth for tooth” as the meaning as “以眼还眼, 以牙还牙”; “wolf in sheep’s clothing” as the meaning as “披着羊皮的狼”; “the root of all evil” as the meaning as “万恶之源”; “All that glisters is not gold.” as the meaning as “闪光的不都是金子”; “Deeds are fruits,; words are but leaves.” as the meaning as “行动是果实，言语只是树叶”; “Experience is the best teacher.” as the meaning as “经验是良师”; “as faithful as a dog” as the meaning as “和狗一样忠诚”; “Every man is the master of his own fortune.” as the meaning as “每个人都是自己命运的主人”; “Man will conquer nature.” as the meaning as “人定胜天” (Cowie, 1994).

Translation Strategies in Idiom Output
For some Chinese idioms, there is no image or metaphor in English, and they do not cause the same response from English readers. When Chinese learners output such idioms, domesticating translation can be used. This translation strategy can be suitable for the majority of idioms. For example, “千里之堤毁于蚁穴”can be output as the meaning as “A little leak will sink a great ship.”; “一朝被蛇咬, 十年怕井绳” as the meaning as “A burnt child dreads the fire.”; “笑里藏刀” has the meaning of “A man may smile and smile and be villain.”; “东山再起” as the meaning as “take two bites at a cherry”; “井井有条” as the meaning as “in apple-pie order”; “直言不讳”as the meaning as “call a spade a spade”; “生龙活虎” as the meaning as “full of beans”; “天涯何处无芳草” as the meaning as “There are plenty more fish in the sea”; “五十步笑一百步” as the meaning as “The pot calls the kettle black”; “覆水难收” as the meaning as “What’s done is undone”; “曲高和寡” as the meaning as “caviar to the general”; “挂羊头卖狗肉” as the meaning as “After praising the wine, they sell us vinegar”; “一丘之貉” as the meaning as “birds of a feather”; “害群之马” as the meaning as “a black sheep”; “有其母必有其女”as the meaning as “Like father, like son”; “守口如瓶” as the meaning as “as close as an oyster” (Zeng, 2014).

For some Chinese idioms, the unique image can cause resonance or the same reaction of English readers and will not cause a misunderstanding. When Chinese learners output such idioms, foreignizing translation can be used, and the characteristics of Chinese language and culture will be preserved. For example, “趁热打铁” can be output as the meaning as “Strike while the iron is hot.”; “浑水摸鱼”as the meaning as “fish in troubled waters”; “随波逐流” as the meaning as “go with the stream”; “空中楼阁” as the meaning as “castles in the air”; “同舟共济” as the meaning as “be in the same boat”; “火上浇油” as the meaning as “pour oil on the flame”; “眼见为实” as the meaning as “Seeing is believing.”; “轻如鸿
Translation Strategies in Buzzword Input and Output

Ever since China’s opening to the outside world, many English buzzwords have entered into Chinese vocabulary. Some of the borrowed words have become so familiar with the Chinese people, for these words have been assimilated by the Chinese language and no exoticism can be sensed any more. Chinese learners are very familiar with the cultural backgrounds of the original text and have no difficulty understanding their meanings. When Chinese learners input such buzzwords, foreignizing translation can be used, and the cultural characteristics of English language will be preserved. For example, “mad cow disease” can be input as the meaning as “疯牛病”; “generation gap” as the meaning as “代沟”; “genetic engineering” as the meaning as “基因工程”; “test-tube baby” has the meaning as “试管婴儿”; “climate change” as the meaning as “气候变化”; “global warming” as the meaning as “全球变暖”; “bluetooth” as the meaning as “蓝牙”; “multimedia” as the meaning as “多媒体”; “test-tube baby” has the meaning as “试管婴儿”; “hippies” as the meaning as “嬉皮士”; “yuppies” as the meaning as “雅皮士”; “web club” as the meaning as “网吧”; “arms race” as the meaning as “军备竞赛”; “slumpflation” as the meaning as “萧条膨胀”; “the beat generations” as the meaning as “垮掉的一代”; “nuclear war-fighting theory” as the meaning as “打核战理论”; “multipolar” as the meaning as “多极的”; “Watergate” as the meaning as “水门”; “zipgate” as the meaning as “拉链门”; “oxygen bar” as the meaning as “氧吧”; “information highway” as the meaning as “信息高速公路”; “electronic commerce” as the meaning as “电子商务”; “psywar” as the meaning as “心理战”; “dog packs” as the meaning as “狗仔队” (Lu, 2001).

In English buzzwords there are many expressions with rich cultural connotations that are not familiar to Chinese learners. For these expressions, if foreignizing translation is used to preserve the cultural characteristics of the English language, it will be difficult for Chinese learners to understand them. When Chinese learners input such buzzwords, domesticating translation can be used, and the acceptability is
achieved effectively. For example, “jumping the couch” can be input as the meaning as “情绪失控”; “get up one’s nose” as the meaning as “惹毛”; “riddle of Sphinx” as the meaning as “难解之谜”; “rootkit” as the meaning as “流氓软件”; “Planemo” as the meaning as “冥王星降级”; “planetary peril” as the meaning as “地球险情”; “SMS” as the meaning as “短信服务”; “SOHO” as the meaning as “微型公司,家庭公司”; “BSE” as the meaning as “疯牛病”; “Slumdog” as the meaning as “贫民窟”; “scenekid” as the meaning as “非主流”; “WMD” as the meaning as “大规模杀伤性武器”; “LMAO” as the meaning as “笑死我了”; “mancession” as the meaning as “经济大萧条”; “MPT” as the meaning as “为生活减速”; “sockpuppet” as the meaning as “论坛马甲”; and “ringxiety” as the meaning as “手机幻听” (Lu, 2001).

Translation Strategies in Buzzword Output
With the ever-growing influence of China in all aspects of the international community, more and more Chinese buzzwords have become familiar with the English people. English readers are familiar with the cultural backgrounds of the original text and have no difficulty understanding their meanings. When Chinese learners output such buzzwords, foreignizing translation can be used, and the cultural characteristics of Chinese language will be preserved. For example, “中国梦” can be output as the meaning as “China Dream”; “循环经济” as the meaning as “circular economy”; “信息超市” as the meaning as “information supermarket”; “草根文化” as the meaning as “grass-roots culture”; “奥运吉祥物” as the meaning as “Olympic Mascots”; “孔子学院” as the meaning as “Confucius Institute”; “奥运经济” as the meaning as “Olympic Economy”; “和平发展” as the meaning as “peace and development”; “民生” as the meaning as “people’s livelihood”; “好久不见” as the meaning as “long time no see”; “和谐社会” as the meaning as “Harmonious Society”; “廉租房” as the meaning as “low-rent house”; “正能量” as the meaning as “positive energy”; “菜篮子工程” as the meaning as “Vegetable Basket Project”; “希望工程” as the meaning as “Project Hope”; “台风” as the meaning as “typhoon”; “太极拳” as the meaning as “Tai Chi”; “功夫” as the meaning as “Kungfu”; and “麻将” as the meaning as “mahjong” (Xia, 2016).

In Chinese buzzwords there are many expressions with rich cultural connotations that are not familiar to English readers. When Chinese learners output such buzzwords, domesticating translation can be used to make the translation in line with English readers’ thinking mode. The cultural characteristics of Chinese language will be lost in the translation, but the acceptability is achieved effectively. For example, “你懂的” can be output as the meaning as “You know what I mean”; “给力” as the meaning as “awesome”; “点赞” as the meaning as “thumbs up”; “一带一路” as the meaning as “a Silk Road and Economic Belt and the 21st Maritime Silk Road”; “风口” as the meaning as “everyone stands a chance to fly when there is a favorable wind blowing from behind”; “留守儿童” as the meaning as “stay-at-home children”; “群租” as the meaning as “group-oriented leasing”; “忽悠” as the meaning as “jerk someone around”; “鸟巢” as the meaning as “Bird’s Nest Stadium”; “水立方” as the meaning as “Water Cube Natatorium”; “福娃” as the meaning as “Fuwa, the mascots of Beijing Olympic Games”; “精神文明” as the meaning as “ethical and ideological progress”; “雷人” as the meaning as “making others shocked”; “闪人” as the meaning as “said when one is leaving”; “实现科学发展观” as the meaning as “develop in a scientific way”; “压力山大” as the meaning as “under a lot of stress”; “山寨货” as the meaning as “all that copy the style or design of other famous and first-class brand”; “凤凰男” as the meaning as “a man who tries his best to improve his working ability and living standards and managed to move from a remote rural area to a big city” (Xia, 2016).
Conclusion

When Chinese learners input English idioms or output Chinese idioms, foreignizing translation or domesticating translation can be adopted on the basis of whether there is a corresponding image in another culture. When Chinese learners input English buzzwords or output Chinese buzzwords, foreignizing translation or domesticating translation can be employed on the basis of how familiar the readers are with the cultural factor. In a word, in second language acquisition of idioms and buzzwords, functional equivalence theory can be taken as a starting point and then different translation strategies can be adopted according to different situations.

Acknowledgement

This paper was funded by the Key Program of the English Language and Literature of Guangdong Province, 2016.

References


The Application of the Constructivist Theory in English Grammar Teaching

Che Guicheng
School of Foreign Languages, Shaoguan University, Shaoguan, China
Email: chegch@126.com

[Abstract] Although constructivist theory has been used in language teaching or learning, there are limited reports about its application in English grammar teaching or learning. An experiment was conducted to test whether Constructionist theory can be integrated into English grammar teaching. Pre- and posttests were conducted. Results from the study indicate that the Constructionist approach has more advantages than the traditional Grammar-Translation Method. In this way, students will learn grammar actively in a carefree atmosphere and they will acquire the language as soon as they take the reins of grammar rules.

[Keywords] constructivist theory; English grammar teaching; Grammar-Translation Method; grammar rules

Introduction

Constructivism has become the prevailing learning theory in America and Europe since the late 1980s (Howatt, 1984). Constructivism holds that learners actively take knowledge, connect it to previously assimilated knowledge and make it theirs by constructing their own interpretation (Cheek, 1992). There are limited reports in language grammar teaching or learning based on the theory of constructivism. Grammar is the fundamental organizing principle of language when taking language as a starting point (Crystal, 1988). Historically, grammar teaching has been central to and often synonymous with teaching foreign language for the past 2,500 years (Rutherford, 1993). Grammar, as a part of language competence, should be considered as a means rather than an end in itself. The application of constructionist theory in English grammar teaching as suggested in this thesis is somewhat a compromised method. A number of freer activities including pair and group work are provided to reinforce what was learnt. This author emphasizes learning grammar through use. Due to the complexity of the learner variables and the fact that the traditional method has a long history in China, the application of constructionist theory in English grammar teaching in this research might simply mean to integrate constructionist theory into grammar teaching. It is a combination of teaching grammar inductively and deductively. Hopefully, this research will provide English teachers with some insights into grammar teaching and more preferably they will set to think about their grammar teaching methods.

Research Design

The Questions and Subjects of Research

The main questions of research to be solved: first, whether the constructionist theory can be integrated to English grammar teaching or not; second, whether the grammar teaching of the Constructivist approach improves students’ interests in English grammar teaching or not. The subjects of this experiment were the freshmen English major students in Grade 2015 of Shaoguan University. There were four classes: Class One consisted of 31 students (4 males; 27 females); Class Two of 33 students (4 males; 29 females); Class Three of 32 students (5 males; 27 females); Class Four of 31 students (4 males; 27 females). The author chose Class One and Two as the experimental subjects and the other two classes as the control ones.
**Experiment Scheme**

The experiments lasted for one semester from February to July 2015. During the period of experiment, the experimental classes were taught by the author and the control classes were taught by another teacher who had a similar educational background and years of teaching as the author. Before the experiment was carried out, there was no significant difference between the two classes (see Table 1 and 2). The students of the four classes all used *English Grammar in Use* (Murphy, 2004). The book is intended mainly for intermediate students who have already studied basic English grammar. The teachers often consulted in order to keep the same level of syllabus, course arrangement and the relative teaching facilities as each other. In order to avoid the Hawthorn effect, which is the subjects’ behaviors influenced by the research condition, all of the students and teachers should be ignorant of the circumstances where they are participating in the research.

**Table 1. Teaching Procedure of the Experimental Class**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roles</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Student</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Procedure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situation</td>
<td>Retell by themselves</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Ask questions and guide</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Encouragements and guidance</td>
<td>Deduce the grammar rules from the examples</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Discussion</td>
<td>Summarize the results;</td>
<td>Learning Structured dialogues, role, task assignment;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Give more examples for more specific grammar rules;</td>
<td>Practice in pairs or small groups activities;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further Reflection</td>
<td>Multiple perspective in the evaluation</td>
<td>Sharing of information in collaborative learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>Conclude the grammar rules</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daily Practice</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>Make sentences about their daily life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>Test integrated with the task, not a separate activity;</td>
<td>Point out the reason of their own answer;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Check the results of test after students finish tasks;</td>
<td>In groups or pairs;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Review the grammar rules</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. Teaching Procedure of the Control Class**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Review</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tell the introduction</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tell the grammar rules directly</td>
<td>Do the substitute exercises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Check students’ answer;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point out the mistakes;</td>
<td>Remember the grammar rules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give the correct answers;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In summary, the experimental class briefly illustrated the constructivist teaching model based on constructivist teaching perspective (Brooks, & Brooks, 1993). The teaching procedure includes eight steps as follows: situation; discussion; reflection; further discussion; further reflection; conclusion; daily practice; and feedback. But it doesn’t mean all teaching contains these eight steps. At the presentation stage, grammar was introduced to students in a situation. At the focused practice stage, activities focused on controlled practice for the grammar item which was presented already. Then freer activities were provided for students to practice the structure being learned. The teacher may note any mistakes for further discussions. The
whole instruction was based on tasks in which students play an important role. So the teacher uses the effective teaching strategies for the purpose of providing opportunities for the students’ generative learning, cooperative learning and discovering learning (Krashen, 1981). The students’ autonomy and initiative are fully cultivated.

**Testing Aids**
The first test aid was the quiz about the Knowledge of Grammar. The author gave students the pre-examination and post-examination which also mainly came from the “Study Guide” of the book “English Grammar in Use”. For the pre-examination, there was no significant difference between the experimental classes and the control classes in the level of grammar knowledge, which restricted the disturbed factors. However, the post-examination contrasted the different effects between the grammar teaching of constructivist approach and the traditional Grammar-Translation Method.

The second test was the questionnaire. It is about the interests of students to grammar learning, which include five degrees: “I like to learn English grammar best”; “I’d like to learn English grammar better”; “I like to learn English grammar”; “I like to learn English grammar just so so”; “I don’t like to learn English grammar”. The author just marked the five degrees as 5 for “best”; 4 for “better”; 3 for “like”; 2 for “so so”; 1 for “don’t like”. At the beginning of the experiment, the questionnaire about their interests on grammar learning needed to be finished in order to check their knowledge as well as interest background. At the end of experiment, the same questionnaire was also completed by the experimental classes and the control classes. Then the author made a comparison for the data of pre-examination and post-examination so that the author could analyze the influence of interests in grammar learning between the experimental classes and control classes.

**Data Acquisition and Analysis**
The pretest was conducted in the last week of the beginning of experiment. Subjects took part in the quiz in the classroom. Meanwhile, they filled in the questionnaire about their interests to grammar learning. The number of subjects is 157. For the two quizzes, there were 153 papers as time went on and 156 papers from the pretest and the posttest separately were withdrawn on the spot (See Appendix 1). For the two questionnaires, the 152 papers and 147 papers were withdrawn from the pretest and the posttest separately (See Appendix 1). After the pretest, the data of the quiz and the questionnaire were inputted into the computer, and the author analyzed the data by means of SPSS (20.0) so he could make making appropriate teaching approaches. The posttest was finished in the final week. The grades of pretest and post-examination between the experimental classes and control classes analyses through collection and input, which obtains the statistics of mean and standard deviation by Independent Samples Test.

**Result and Analysis**
In this paper, the author analyzed the results of the experiment and tries to see the effect of the constructivist method on teaching grammar. The following results show that the experimental and control classes were, in general, equal in the knowledge and interests background before the test.

**Result and Analysis**
Table 3 tested (analyzed by SPSS20.0) for pretest scores of grammar knowledge. The statistics between the experimental classes and the control classes including Mean and Std. Deviation indicated little difference in the pretest. In addition, the result of Table 3 (t = -0.500, Sig. = 0.618) shows there was no significant difference between the two classes.
Table 3. Independent Samples Test for Both Subjects of Pretest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade E-C</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>41.8375</td>
<td>13.14423</td>
<td>1.46957</td>
<td>-0.500</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>0.618</td>
<td>-4.93978 - 2.94355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>42.8356</td>
<td>11.35906</td>
<td>1.32948</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Notes: “E” stands for the experimental subjects; “C” stands for the control subjects.

Table 4 tested for the pretest of students’ interest in grammar learning. The statistics of Mean and Std. Deviation between the experimental classes and the control classes indicated little difference in the pretest. In addition, the result of Table 4 (t = 0.42, Sig. = 0.675) showed there was no significant difference between the two classes in interests at the level of .05, but it was not significant enough.

Table 4. Independent Samples Test for Both Subjects of Pretest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>3.6329</td>
<td>1.14553</td>
<td>.12888</td>
<td>.420</td>
<td>148.065</td>
<td>.675</td>
<td>-.26399 - .40652</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>3.5616</td>
<td>1.94261</td>
<td>.11032</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Notes: “E” stands for the experimental subjects; “C” stands for the control subjects.

The consequence of the grammar teaching after the experiment could be reflected in the following: Figures 1 and 2 show the scores of English proficiency of the post-examination for the experimental and control classes.

**Figure 1. Post-Examination Score for Experimental Classes**

**Figure 2. Post-Examination Score for Control Classes**

*Note: In the Figures 1 and 2, for vertical ordinate, it’s the number of students who have got the marks in each interval of 10 scores, more than 60 and one for less than 60; while for the horizontal ordinate, it’s the four intervals of each 10 marks and one for less than 60 marks of the examination.*
From Figures 1 and 2, we can see clearly that the students of the experimental classes received much higher scores than those of the control classes. Meanwhile, most of the experimental students got marks ranging from 80 to 100 and no one failed; while most of the students from the control class got marks ranging from 60 to 79, and moreover, there were 11 students that failed the examination. Therefore, from the comparison of the marks, we can see that the experiment proved effective.

To examine in more detail the result of the two classes, a descriptive analysis was conducted. Table 5 is the descriptive statistics for English scores of both classes in the post-examination.

**Table 5. Descriptive Statistics Both Classes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The English Grades of Posttest</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>85.000</td>
<td>9.49737</td>
<td>1.05526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>68.200</td>
<td>15.01621</td>
<td>1.73392</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Notes: E is for the final examination data of the experimental class; C is for the final examination data of the control class*

From Table 5, we can see that the Std. Deviation of the experimental classes (9.49737) was lower than that of the control classes (15.01621), which indicates that individual differences were smaller for the experimental group, while it was larger in the control class. This means that the marks of most students of the experimental classes centered around the mean (85), while the marks of most students of the control classes were scattered more. Therefore, we may say that the constructivist grammar teaching method was more effective to most of the students in the experimental class than the traditional method.

In order to know further if the scores of the two classes were different statistically, a T test was conducted, which can be seen in Table 6.

**Table 6. Independent Samples Test for Posttest**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English grades</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Std. Error Difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade E-C</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>-5.51884</td>
<td>8.277</td>
<td>123.321</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.02979</td>
<td>12.78225</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Notes: “E” stands for the experimental subjects; “C” stands for the control subjects.*

Table 6 is the independent samples test for both subjects of the posttest about the examination scores. From the table, the author got the result $t = 8.277$, Sig. (2-tailed) = 0.000, $p<0.001$. So, the two classes have a great difference. The experiment class improved in grammar knowledge. Therefore, we may say that the constructivist grammar teaching method was more effective than the traditional method.

In order to see if the constructivist way of teaching grammar could raise students’ interest in grammar learning, a correlation study was conducted. Table 7 is the correlation of the interests in English grammar learning between the pretest and posttest for the experimental subjects. In the table we can see that the interests of the experimental subjects between the pretest and posttest were correlative at the 0.05 level, which means that the constructivist grammar teaching method influenced the students’ interests in learning grammar.
Table 7. Correlations of the Interests between Pre & Posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest in Grammar Learning for the Experimental Class</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.193</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 8 is the correlations of the interests in English grammar learning between the pretest and posttest for the control subjects. In the table, we can see that the interests of the control subjects between the pretest and posttest were not correlative, which indicates that the traditional grammar teaching method did not influence the students’ interests in learning grammar.

Table 8. Correlations of the Interests between Pre & Posttest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interest in Grammar Learning for the control Class</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.393</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

From the tables above we can find that the application of constructivist theory to English grammar teaching and learning was more effective than the traditional grammar-translation method.

Conclusion

Through the experiment, the author found out that there were some obvious advantages over the traditional grammar-translation teaching method. First, during the experiment, according to the constructivist theory (Yager,1991), the author tried to use familiar daily items to teach dull abstract grammar rules. It stimulated students’ interests to learn the grammar and the interests were better for their memory and language acquirement. As for the analysis in the experiment, the interest of the experimental subjects did have something to do with their achievements.

Second, in the constructivist teaching process, the teacher always asked the students to give reports or group/pair discussions, etc., so students had to speak English more frequently than in a traditional class. The practice was better for their spoken language. As the time went on, they were not only able to grasp the grammar knowledge, but also could speak English more fluently. It was the additional advantage of the constructivist teaching method.

Third, in this constructivist teaching method, students had to find out the grammar rules by themselves guarded by the teacher, which trained their ability to deduce rules by themselves, which is quite useful for their future.

But constructivism is not a panacea. It has its own drawbacks and it cannot figure out all difficulties in teaching practice. Some people say constructivism is more suitable for students from privileged backgrounds who have outstanding teachers, committed parents, and rich home environments. Some people say the classroom collaborative work, if used inappropriately, can produce a “tyranny of the majority”, in
which a few students’ voices dominates the group’s conclusions. Some people say that constructivists, by rejecting evaluation through testing and other external criteria, have made themselves unaccountable for their students’ progress.

Although we cannot regard constructivism as the only viable theoretical framework for English grammar teaching and learning, its dominating place is self-evident. The author hopes that some of the insights gained in this study may be helpful to the English grammar teachers as well as the learners. We are acutely aware of the necessity of adopting constructivist approach in English grammar teaching.

References
On Transitional Adjustment to Foreign Language Learning in Tertiary Education in Chinese Context

Fang Hui
South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China
Email: clara0527@126.com

Abstract The academic transition from upper secondary school to higher learning has drawn growing attention in recent years. Nonetheless, relevant literature has been mostly devoted to investigating students’ early university experiences and proposing countermeasures to prevent attrition of university students, while very few studies have been focused on students’ foreign language learning at the secondary-tertiary transition, especially in a Chinese setting. This study uses the “U-curve” theory adopted in cross-cultural adjustment research literature to categorize phases of transitional adjustment to foreign language learning in higher education. By selecting university students majoring in English as research subjects and examining qualitative data derived from learners’ reflective journals and interviews, this study explores the academic adjustment to tertiary English learning, and then discusses the adjustment implications for individuals and universities to facilitate academic transition.

Keywords academic transition; college adjustment; foreign language learning; U-curve theory

Introduction
Academic transition refers to the border crossing between different levels of education (Petriwskyj, 2013), usually from the lower level to the upper one. The transition period of university students begins when students enter the university from high school. This period, full of obstacles and challenges, is an important stage of students’ life development. So far, there is no unified definition of the academic transition period, but most scholars believe that it’s the first school year for freshmen, while some think it’s the first semester (Tuckman, & Kennedy, 2011; Jansen, & van der Meer, 2012). There are also scholars who divide this term into “the first transition period” and “the second transition period”. The former refers to the first semester and the latter to the second and the third semester (Jin, et al., 2003; Fu, et al., 2012; Wang, et al., 2015).

The study of academic transition began in Europe and America in the 1980s. Researchers reported that first-year students in Canada, the United States, Great Britain, and Australia whose academic performance fell below their expectations based on their prior high school achievement experienced adjustment difficulties (e.g., Holdaway, & Kelloway, 1987; Ehlers, 2014; Clerehan, 2003). Another localized study intended to examine the perception of preparedness for post-secondary education found that an extra year of high school enabled students to mature and to acquire specific academic skills conducive for success in university, such as note-taking skills and independent research skills (Brady, & Allingham, 2005). Most studies so far have centered on academic challenges faced by first-year or first-term university students and proposed intervention programs to bridge the gaps between previous educational experience and university and to improve academic success (e.g., Recite, & Paez, 2002; Allan, & Clarke, 2007; Hultberga, et al. 2008; Leese, 2010).

The research on academic transition in China started late and began at the beginning of the 21st century. In terms of research contents, most studies in the Chinese context mainly discussed students’ cognition, behavior and emotional status in the transition process and explored the possible causes. For instance, in a survey of students at Chinese universities, Jin, et al. (2003) found that first-year university students had
significantly decreased learning motivation, increased emotional vulnerability and what they called “sub-maturity” during the second transition period. In terms of research methods, most studies concern a synchronic survey using such tools as questionnaire and interview. Wang, et al. (2015) pointed out the inadequacy in both the number and the in-depth nature of diachronic research which highlighted dynamic and developmental observation and called for more curriculum-based research drawing from a wider theoretical foundation and using varied research tools. In light of this, the current study explores the academic transition experienced by Chinese EFL learners by using the “U-curve” theory adopted in the cross-cultural adjustment research literature. By examining qualitative data derived from students’ reflective journals and interviews, this study provides insights into academic adjustment and then discusses the adjustment implications for individuals and universities to accelerate students’ secondary-tertiary transition with respect to foreign language learning.

**Adopting the U-Curve Theory to Categorize Phases of Academic Transition**

During the first months in universities, students tend to experience a wide range of transitional difficulties associated with their change in learning environment. These adjustment difficulties or transitional challenges include concerns about study and library skills, time management, supervisory relationship, and other general aspects related to studies. Literature on academic transition has identified the first year in university as a crucial and fragile stage in students’ university career. So vulnerable are students at this point that Schaetti (1996) has likened the process to such life changes to moving from one country to another, changing jobs, or even losing a loved one. Given the relative universality of the adjustment process, this study adopts the U-curve theory proposed by Oberg (1960) in the cross-cultural transition and adjustment field to enhance the understanding of academic transition experienced by university students. Oberg (1960) describes four stages of adjustment: a honeymoon stage, a cultural shock stage, an adjustment stage and a mastery stage. Accordingly, the experience of cross-cultural transition commences with a honeymoon stage of enthusiasm and fascination with a new environment. This is followed by the crisis stage of cultural shock, which is characterized by disillusionment and dejection, secondly by a transition stage and finally by a period of adjustment, integration and enjoyment (see Figure 1).

![Figure 1. The U-Curve of Cross-Cultural Adjustment](image)

Adjustment literature has addressed transitional challenges by focusing on university freshmen especially international students who are more likely to confront cultural shock during the first months at university. Actually, everyone in a new situation will go through some form of culture shock if “culture” is conceptualized in a broad sense. Since there are different cultures between university and high school, between university and the student’s family, college students’ adaptation to tertiary education can be deemed as a kind of cultural adaptation. This legitimates the adoption of cultural adjustment theory in analyzing the secondary-tertiary transition of university students (Zou, 2013). This research addresses such transition in a curriculum-based manner by focusing on the second language acquisition. The aim of this research is, therefore, to describe the academic adjustment to tertiary English learning in a Chinese setting. It selects the U-curve framework as a possible vehicle for categorizing the phases of such transitional adjustment; and it uses reflective journals and interviews to collect qualitative data, given that a number of behavior patterns have been observed in the reflective journals that seem to comply with this model of adjustment.

Methodology

Research Methods
This study adopts reflective journals, a longitudinal mechanism to record experiences over a period of time, as the prime research device for two reasons. First of all, reflective journals provide rich, contextualized data to reflect participants’ perceptions of their transitional experiences and the subsequent actions emerging from these perceptions. Secondly, reflective journal writing cannot only help chronicle students’ own experiences and interpretations in the course of their transition, but also enhance their reflective consciousness and capability. The research focus is, thus, on understanding the students’ adjustment from their own perception by taking a phenomenological method and by avoiding the possible “intrusion” of externally conceived assumptions or measurements. Additionally, reflective journals engage participants in self-assessment of their early learning experiences at university. By improving their awareness of taking an active role in the learning process, reflective journal writing can potentially exert a positive impact on how they face this period since it serves as “a means of discovering who we are, that we exist, that we change and grow” (Moon, 1999, p. 43). Interviews were conducted among several students when concerns were raised from their diaries. Reflective journals plus interviews can provide a more in-depth investigation into students’ perceptions of their transitional experiences.

Research Subjects and Recruitment of Participants
Previous studies concerning academic transition with respect to English learning were targeted on the non-English major students, leaving a blank of research on the transitional adjustment of English major students whose situations might differ. For one thing, English majors are expected to meet higher requirements and to accomplish English-related tasks that are more difficult than their non-English major counterparts. For another, English learning for this group can be more related to their career planning, and thus, imposes more pressure on them.

The participants were recruited through a volunteering manner from a cohort of first-year English majors at a moderate-sized full-time undergraduate university located in southern China during the first week of the autumn semester. After the researcher explained to them at a class setting the initiative of the research and outlined its potential benefits for adjustment and self-reflection, they signed in this project and were assured of the confidentiality of the data provided. Participants were encouraged to submit their
reflective journals in which they wrote down their feelings and thoughts on a weekly basis. Thirty-eight students initially volunteered to participate in the study. Four dropped out at the early stages of the project and another eleven students did not proceed to submit their reflective journals during the course of the project. It is not surprising given the relatively long time frame, the additional workload and the difficulty in fulfilling the ongoing commitment. Twenty-three students continued their journals until the end of the second semester and each submitted about thirty diaries for data analysis.

Data Collection
To investigate their perspective in relation to academic study, the participants were expected to either write freely concerning academic matters or to use a template adapted from McGuinness (2007), which guided students to:

- Provide a weekly synopsis of goals, resources used, and activities undertaken in relation to learning.
- Outline difficulties encountered with the project; include feelings about learning with particular emphasis on differences with previous learning.
- Provide a general reflection on their experiences and an occasional but significant reflection on the reflection process itself.

It is interesting to note that all participants in this context followed the template provided. Conversations with them revealed that it reduced anxiety and provided them with clear directions for reflection. Participants were allowed to write in Chinese, their mother tongue, in order to avoid ambiguity in language.

Results and Discussions
Certain common behavior patterns were observed from the participants’ feedback in relation to their interpretations of their experiences of transition. The fine-grained experiences of Chinese ELF learners majoring in English seemed to comply with the cultural adjustment process illustrated in the U-curve theory.

Honeymoon Phase
During this stage, the new learning environment fascinated most participants who expressed positive anticipation and excitement about their English learning at university. Words like “full of confidence” and “refreshing and exciting” emerged from their journals, even in the case of two students who thought they could have gone to a better university. A sense of regret was offset, to some degree, by their curiosity about the new environment. But it seems that those positive feelings about their early experiences were always accompanied by at least some reference to a sense of fear or anxiety:

“Whenever I enjoy a free and seemingly relaxing college life, I will feel a deep sense of regret that I might be wasting too much precious time.” (Respondent 5, week 3-4)

The respondents’ feeling of fascination, like in this case, was soon replaced by disillusionment, confusion and even dejection, suggesting that the honeymoon period, if it existed at all for the EFL learners, was very short lived.

Shock Phase
All participants entered a period of disillusionment, or even shock, during the first year at university, mostly in their first term. The initial confidence in mastering the English language was clearly undermined for
some respondents. One student’s experience depicted in her journal marked her entrance into a disillusionment period as early as the first month at university:

“I just started school with confidence in everything, and I firmly believed that my English listening and speaking could be largely improved through my efforts. But I panicked at my first English class when the teacher gave the lecture in full English. I was in total confusion and sat in embarrassment that I could NOT understand a word!” (Respondent 15, week 2)

Such anxiety was sustained in her first semester before she learned how to cope with it. This student’s frustration actually resulted from her failure in recognizing the gap between the EFL learning at secondary level and that at the third level. The former focuses on English reading, writing and grammar knowledge, usually for exam purposes, whereas the latter emphasizes more on students’ English listening and speaking, more often for daily use and professional development.

Expressions showing disorientation prevailed in most respondents’ journals where they reported an absence of clear academic goals after the college entrance examination and a misconception about the third level education that “university is for relaxation”. For instance, Respondent 13, like many others, was ill-informed about tertiary learning before they came to the university. One of her journal entries read:

“Before I came here, I had been ‘assured of’ a relaxing college life since I worked my head off in senior high. My life was simple and my goal was clear then. But I’ve been here for almost two months without a clue of where I’m heading for.” (week 9, first semester)

The academic challenges that tertiary education poses for ELF learners are well established. Results found in this study reiterate and extend findings by Liu (2003) and Wang, et al. (2015). Adjustment literature referred frequently to the difficulties involved in becoming an independent learner, managing time, concentrating, and prioritizing academic goals, and translating skills and study habits into the higher education environment. The following statements, for instance, hint at the difficulties associated with the need to shift from one pattern of behavior to another.

“I miss my old days when my life and study was arranged by my parents and teachers. I got used to that. I had plans, I did. But I could not simply stick to them.” (Respondent 19, week 8, first semester)

“…I even doubt any improvement has been made on my English study so far. It seems my old methods of following teachers’ instructions and finishing my assignments don’t fit into the English learning here.” (Respondent 6, week 5, second semester)

These statements were concerned with how to shift from a long-formed habit of relying on others to students relying on themselves, and how to shift from a pattern of being taught passively to one of learning actively.

More serious problems pertained to students’ dejection about their capacity to learn English well. Four respondents wrote in their journals exclaiming the mounting difficulties in, for instance, catching up in a full-English class, giving English presentations, conducting in-depth reading and academic writing, which was always luring them into quitting English as their major.

“To be honest, I had a thought of changing the major. My poor English listening and pronunciation gave me a sense of inadequacy.” (Respondent 18, week 14, first semester)

Additionally, some students constantly complained about their habit of procrastination and attributed their “shockingly low” grades in the first term to their unfulfilled academic commitment under a problematic learning attitude and poor time management.
All of the above symptoms of academic shock have pointed to the respondents under-preparedness for university English learning. This is similar to the culture shock which is defined by *Webster Dictionary* as “a sense of confusion and uncertainty sometimes with feelings of anxiety that may affect people exposed to an alien culture or environment without adequate preparation.” However, academic shock, at whatever level it is experienced, is a necessary catalyst to adaptation and growth, and thus to effective learning.

**Adjustment Phase**

Individual students negotiated the shock stage with different degrees of success and over different periods of time. Evidence of adjustment to academic environment and academic roles started permeating in the second half of most of the reflective journals, generally within week 9 to week 15 of the second semester. Still there were three students who passed quickly through the initial period of confusion and moved onto this stage of adjustment as early as the end of the first term. They found increasingly strong motivation in learning English as they participated in selective academic activities such as seminars and colloquia.

For some respondents who were shocked by their low GPA in the first term, they soon made painful efforts in the second term to battle their idleness and tried to make sense of their transition. A typical example was respondent 11 who idled away his first semester and nearly failed in a 6-credit English course. Almost half of his journals in the second term were centered on how he changed his learning attitude and used various learning strategies to improve his grades. Two of his journal entries read:

“I don’t think I did a good job in a recent English presentation. I was quite nervous, which affected the fluency of my speech. Yet my teacher positively recognized the progress I’ve made by saying... Maybe my oral English is not as bad as I thought!” (week 7, second semester) “I often got lost in a full-English class in the last term. But with improvement in my English listening, I can follow my teachers and understand most of their instructions. And, here is the best part, the more I understand, the more I gain.” (week 13, second semester)

It can be seen that, apart from his self-reflection, gaining confidence derived from teachers’ compliments and mastery experiences are the two important factors that facilitated academic transition. Some diarists explained the positive effects that interacted with teachers and peers on their academic success, a result that reiterated the findings by Amenkhienan (2000). Like Respondent 1 who was on the brink of withdrawal, a respectable teacher’s conversations with her helped to identify her goal in the midst of English learning at college. In the case of Respondent 13, she reported the effect of a positive role model on her English learning throughout the second term:

“...Vicky (the senior student) filled in her summer vocation with intensive self-training in English public speaking. That’s why her oral English is so good that she’s won many rewards in different competitions.” (week 2) “...she encouraged me to raise my hand and air my views in the class. I shall try...” (week 7) “I believe if I follow Vicky’s advice and work really hard, I could be a shining star just like her one day.” (week 12)

Nevertheless, it should be noted that all respondents expressed different degrees of pressure as they were about to take the TEM4 (Test for English Majors-Band 4) in the fourth term. Some admitted in an interview that they began to battle procrastination and exert more efforts in academic study out of the fear that they might fail in this important test. This implies that the initial self-adjustment for quite a few students was test-driven as shown in the following cases:
“I feel I finally settle in doing some solid work such as practicing dictation every day. Not required in high school English learning, passage dictation is tested in the TEM4. And I’m sure if I don’t do any practice, I will fail in this part.” (Respondent 20, week 10, second semester)

“The model test taken in this week gave me a blow on how far to go if I want to pass the TEM4. I have to do something before it is too late.” (Respondent 3, week 11, second semester)

In short, most students at the stage of self-adjustment indicated views that their motivation stemmed from test preparation, academic activities, mastery experiences and derived feelings of self-efficacy.

Educational literature has found transitional problems arise when students lack self-regulatory learning ability (Tuckman, & Kennedy, 2011), and metacognitive strategies, which stand at the core of the system of learning strategies, are the key to cultivating such ability. A longitudinal study has found a significant decrease in the Chinese EFL learners’ autonomous learning ability after one year of learning (Wang, et al., 2015). In this study, by contrast, most respondents during the second semester felt that they did a better job in developing an appropriate plan for learning, managing time, monitoring and reflecting on the learning process. Apparently, the use of metacognitive strategies as well as the reflective journal writing was conducive to enhancing students’ learner autonomy. Respondent 11 reported a positive effect of keeping a reflective journal on fostering her self-regulatory learning ability.

“When I wrote a diary, I started a self-talk. Whenever I felt distracted, a voice came out to warn me: be focused, be focused!” (week 16, second semester)

In contrast with previous disorientation, most participants could find a clear goal in the second term, that is, to pass the TEM4. This goal, however, is more of performance goal than of mastery goal. Mastery goals represent a focus on learning and self-improvement, and performance goals represent a more general concern with demonstrating ability and trying to do better or not appear worse than others (Ames, 1992). Given that a performance goal merely fosters a failure-avoiding pattern of motivation, Wang, et al. (2015) argues that a test-oriented goal should not be deemed as an effective component of learner autonomy. It remains an unsolved question as to whether students’ learning motivation can be sustained after they have taken the TEM4.

In brief, almost every diarist provided reflective evidence suggesting that academic problems were being proactively addressed and that a sense of confidence and competence did emerge – usually within the second semester – despite early shocks. Nevertheless, very few participants displayed signs of entering the mastery stage given that most respondents set a performance goal and their learner autonomy and critical thinking had yet to be improved.

Conclusion

This study was designed to explore the student’s perceptions of their secondary-tertiary transition with respect to their foreign language learning. By using reflective journals for research purposes, this study provides insights into applying U-curve theory to chronicle English majors’ academic transitional experiences in a Chinese context. The academic shock experienced by participants in this research was characterized by feelings of disorientation, frustration and dejection. Most of them had entered the adjustment phase by the end of the second semester with indications of adaptation to academic environment and academic roles, generation and maintenance of motivation, and relatively effective use of learning
Nevertheless, by the end of this project, very few participants had submitted reflective evidence to show their entry into the mastery stage since the adjustment was mostly initiated by external motivation and students’ autonomous learning ability has yet to be improved.

It was also found that the cognitive and emotional reflection facilitated by participants’ use of reflective journals had a positive impact on their tertiary English learning and gave rise to adjustment possibilities. Admittedly, this group of participants may not be a representatively reflective group, and the keeping of reflective journals may not be beneficial for all EFL learners. However, there seemed to be enough positive insights from these participants to suggest that the use of reflective journals could exert beneficial and even transformative effects on their academic transition by helping them to explore changes in motivation during the learning process, to build up confidence by increasing understanding and enjoyment of the transition, to promote engagement and ownership of the learning experience, and to develop critical thinking.

It is necessary to emphasize both the highly self-selecting nature of the participant group and the relatively limited time frame within which this group’s reflections were gathered. The reflections of this group may not be representative of Chinese EFL learners in general, and the time frame may not be long enough to cover the entire adjustment phase. In addition, the small size of the study population and the low response rate made it inappropriate to generalize the findings. Given that secondary-tertiary transition is such a multi-faceted topic, which includes academic, psychological and social transition issues, this study focused only on academic transition with respect to second language acquisition.

It is beyond the scope of this research to comprehensively explore the best ways for supporting EFL learners, but the detailed personal insights provided in this study have the potential to substantiate and enrich suggestions for providing effective and proactive support mechanisms for students at different stages. In the context of these insights, the U-curve adjustment model may be a useful framework to prime EFL learners for the academic shock that may be an inevitable part of their early college life.

References


Metacognition-Based Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC)
Cultivation in IC MOOCs Context

Ruiying Wang  
*South China Business College (SCBC), Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China*  
Email: Iris_wr@126.com

Guiju Zhang  
*South China Business College (SCBC), Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China*

**Abstract**  
Based on the four processes of metacognition, namely, planning, monitoring, regulating and evaluating, this study constructed a model to cultivate Chinese English learner’s Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC) in the context of IC MOOCs, and reflected on the effectiveness of this model in qualitative data. The findings indicated that this model effectively helped learners to improve their ICC, prepare themselves for learning autonomy and identify the problems and difficulties in their learning experience.

**Keywords**  
metacognition; Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC); MOOCs

**Introduction**  
In the new global world, Intercultural Communication (IC) has become a central issue for language teaching and studies; particularly with the promotion of “the Belt and Road” (B & R) initiative, researchers have shown an increased interest in it. The significance of Intercultural Communication Competence (ICC), additionally, has been stressed at the national strategic level according to the *Guidelines on College English Teaching* (Wang, S. R., 2016). Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs), as a new developing trend of digital media and the internet, have provided magnificent opportunities for learners to become immersed in the IC environment, which can realize the double goals of promoting learner’s English proficiency and ICC (Suo, & Chi, 2018).

Metacognition, initially put forward by Flavell (1979), has been defined as ‘the information individuals hold about their own cognition and internal states and about coping strategies that impact both’ (Flavell, 1979; Ya-hsun, et al., 2018, p. 19). Enhancing learners’ metacognition can contribute to the promotion of spontaneous learning fluency, increased online learning interest and engagement with learning materials on MOOCs (Labroo, & Pochepstova, 2016; Ya-hsun, et al., 2018). Thereby, it can be assumed to be employed as an effective perspective to cultivate learners’ ICC. Thus, this study, at present, is to explore, establish and analyze the model of metacognition-based ICC cultivation in the context of IC MOOCs with the aim of promoting Chinese English learners’ ICC and preparing themselves for approaching learning autonomy. One central question guides this study: was the model of metacognition-based ICC cultivation in the IC MOOCs context constructed by the researcher effective in ICC cultivation?
Literature Review

ICC Studies in the IC MOOCs Context
Several studies have attempted to explain the effectiveness of employing MOOCs in ICC cultivation. In 2016, Chi, et al. introduced the production of the MOOC Intercultural Communication of SISU with details about the course design, implementation, management, assessment and its implications for enhancing the disciplinary development of IC (Chi, et al, 2016). A recent study by Suo and Chi (2018) integrated the MOOC Intercultural Communication into college English teaching as a blended teaching modality, which indicated that it could help students achieve the goals of improving both ICC and English proficiency. R. Y. Wang (2018) explored learner’s perceptions of taking the IC MOOC about their MOCC learning experience, development in ICC and their problems. These studies have revealed that MOOCs, especially IC MOOCs, are good supplementary materials to ICC learning and teaching.

Metacognition-Based Studies
The concept of metacognition was characterized as “cognition about cognition” and “thinking about thinking” (Flavell, 1979). Until now, scholars have carried out comprehensive and deep researches on it, which have long demonstrated that applying metacognitive strategies improved students’ learning and performance. Over the past 20 years, the related research focused on aspects of knowledge and skills of metacognition in the field of both theory and its application. Dana L. Erskine(2009) studied the effects of prompted reflection and metacognitive skill instruction on university freshmen’s use of metacognition. Kimmel and Volet (2010) examined the significance of context in university students’ development of metacognition related to a specific group assignment. Li and Huang (2016) summarized the relation between metacognition and the second language acquisition, which stated that metacognition has a large impact on listening, speaking, reading and writing. Zhang and Chen (2011) reviewed that for metacognition knowledge, most researches contributed to the implication of the close relation between English learning and metacognition knowledge, but for metacognition skills, domestic researchers concentrated on the positive effects of metacognition skills on problem-solving, psychological health and autonomous learning. In another major study, T. Ya-hsun, et al. (2018) investigated the effects of metacognition on learners’ online learning interest and their continuance to learn with MOOCs.

Metacognition-Based ICC studies
Several studies investigating metacognition have been carried out in the field of intercultural communication. Hladik, et al. (2012) found that the metacognitive component of self-regulation could play a key role in the process of changing one’s attitudes in multicultural learning. In another study, Chen and Hu (2010) tried to integrate metacognitive strategies into the cultivation of ICC from the four phases of warming up, planning, monitoring and evaluating in the process of the teaching and learning of IC, in which the learner’s ICC was expected to be effectively improved through the enhancement of their metacognition and autonomous learning capacity. Dai (2012) discussed the important role that metacognition played in the process of cultivating ICC and proposed a brand-new concept of “virtual training environment to cultivate ICC in an immersive way” supported by virtual reality technology. A recent study by C. Wang (2018) assumed that proper instructions on metacognitive strategies may play a positive role in the development of ICC in accordance with the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity.

Metacognition has been studied in several disciplines, and previous studies also have reported that metacognition has been an effective method to help students cultivate ICC. Nevertheless, metacognition-
based ICC cultivation in the context of IC MOOCs has never been studied. In light of this, the aim of this study was to construct a model of metacognition-based ICC cultivation in the context of MOOCs and evaluate and validate its implications.

### Method

**Model Construction**

Chinese English learners were easily accessible to these two IC MOOCs on the platform Future Learn: one was *Intercultural Communication* (Kulich, Zhang, & Chi, 2018) delivered by SISU with 5 weeks of study, the contents were mainly concerned with some basic ideas related to IC, identities, communication styles, values and cultural adaptation; the other was *Improve Your Intercultural Competence* (Calahan, 2018) designed by Perdue University with 4 weeks of study, the contents mainly being about the basis of IC, intercultural attitudes of openness and curiosity, knowledge of self-awareness and cultural worldview, and verbal and non-verbal communication, and cultural empathy. To become effective metacognitive thinkers, learners were supposed to obtain these four essential metacognitive skills, namely, planning, monitoring, regulating and evaluating. By having referred to Erskines’ metacognitive teaching steps (2009), a model of the metacognition-based ICC cultivation in the IC MOOCs context was constructed by the researcher (see Figure 1), which was an easy four-step model that included a variety of questions at each step that learners could plan their IC MOOC learning to identify their tasks and define the problems and difficulties in order to select appropriate strategies before learning IC MOOC, to monitor themselves as they worked through the tasks, to regulate themselves while learning IC MOOC in order to identify and overcome obstacles to solving the tasks in front of them and to evaluate their experiences of both using metacognitive skills and learning IC MOOC to appraise their work, performance and strategy effectiveness (see Table 1).

![Figure 1. The Model of the Metacognition-Based ICC Cultivation in IC MOOCs Context](image-url)
Table 1. *Four Steps of Metacognition and Questions to Ask by Learners Themselves*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Questions to ask yourself</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Planning | 1. Why do I want to learn this IC MOOC? Why do I want to improve my ICC?  
2. What do I expect to learn from this IC MOOC? What is my original understanding of these topics?  
3. What might be the difficulties and problems I may encounter and how can I solve them? |
| Monitoring| 1. Do I have a deep enough understanding of the IC information to be able to summarize what I’ve learned after I’ve finished?  
2. Do I have a better understanding about these IC topics now?  
3. Can I finish those assignments, discussions and tests without much trouble?  
4. Do I feel confident to communicate with those MOOC learners from other cultures?  
5. How does the IC knowledge of what I am learning relate to the real world? |
| Regulating| 1. Should this method or arrangement I have chosen about IC MOOC learning be abandoned and an alternative used instead?  
2. What different strategies can I change to overcome the obstacles while learning this IC MOOC? |
| Evaluating| 1. What did I learn from this IC MOOC? Did I learn as much as I could have/should have?  
2. Did metacognitive method benefit me in my IC MOOC learning? If yes, what were they?  
3. How have I improved my ICC after learning this IC MOOC in terms of knowledge, skill, attitude and critical awareness? |

**Research Setting and Participants**

The research was conducted in the course *Intercultural Communication* which was given as a selective course for sophomore students with 16 weeks in the researcher’s college. Forty-five students participated in this study, with 26 girls and 19 boys and an average age of 20, who all passed CET4 with a relatively high English language proficiency. Four essential metacognitive skills were taught and demonstrated by the researcher in advance. By having followed the above model of the metacognition-based ICC cultivation in IC MOOCs context, students in six groups chose to finish the study of one of those above-mentioned two IC MOOCs within six weeks. The learners’ ICC eventually would be assessed in terms of knowledge, skills, attitudes and critical awareness as referred to in Byram (2014) and R. Y. Wang (2018). As for knowledge, learners were supposed to acquire similarities and differences between different cultures and learn more about how to interact with foreigners, while for skills, they were required to learn to interpret possible explanations and relate to their own culture, and discover how to learn about a culture and apply what they learned in real IC. Curiosity, openness and empathy would be focused on in attitudes and critical awareness of “self” and “other” would be emphasized (Wang, R. Y., 2018). Ethical approval was obtained from the participants before the study commenced.

**Data Collection**

All the participates were asked to write a piece of reflection paper by following the model of the metacognition-based ICC cultivation in the context of IC MOOCs and the related questions in Table 1, in which their own thoughts and opinions of each step of metacognitive skills, development of ICC and problems and difficulties of employing this model should be included. Forty-five reflection papers were collected at the end. One representative from each group (n=6) joined in a semi-structured interview about the views on this part of learning at the end of the MOOCs study and the interview was audio-recorded and transcribed for further analysis. The researcher, meanwhile, carefully observed students’ reactions in class and kept the teaching journals in detail as filed notes for further reflections. The field notes, which encompassed learner’s changes and promotion of ICC in class, could triangulate and enrich the data from
the learners’ reflection papers and interviews and produce more insights into the learner’s ICC cultivation in IC MOOCs context based on metacognition.

**Data Analysis**
The researcher carefully read and coded all of students’ reflection papers, interview transcripts and her own teaching journals with particular attention paid to students’ metacognition-based IC MOOC learning experience, their ICC improvement and their problems and difficulties encountered in this learning process by following the model of metacognition-based ICC cultivation in IC MOOC context.

**Research Findings**

**Learner’s Metacognition-Based IC MOOC Learning Experience**
The researcher was specifically looking for the evidence of planning, monitoring, regulating and evaluating in the student’s reflection papers, interview transcripts and her own teaching journals. Most students expressed positive responses to using the model of metacognition-based ICC cultivation in the IC MOOC context, which indicated that they were more responsible and accountable for their learning by engaging in the reflection learning with questioning and independent thinking, as one student remarked, “I have never planned my learning before, let alone predict the problems and difficulties. Now, consciously thinking about my IC MOOC learning made my studying more active and effective. I was more focused with a goal in mind and was motivated to gain clear understanding of some topics.” Some students wrote clearly how they monitored their learning process and claimed that this experience made them more equipped, confident and less stressed. One student wrote, “I checked whether I could summarize the main points after I’ve finished each week’s study. I also reflected that how I could use what I’ve learned in this MOOC in my real communication with my foreign friends.”

Sometimes by not effectively interacting with IC MOOC learners from different cultures to get more information, students regulated their strategies for better learning, as it was written in this part, “For some questions I can’t get instant responses and answers from other MOOC students, I went to interview one of my foreign teachers to get a deep understanding about those topics. I derived a sense of achievement from doing it and felt more confident to communicate with foreigners.” Some students clearly evaluated their own efforts and appraised their performance, which could be seen in this part of interview transcript, “I had a wonderful MOOC learning experience this time. Generally speaking, I’m satisfied with what I have done during these weeks. But if there’s a second chance, maybe I should be more active and courageous to talk with other learners to share my opinions about those topics.” All in all, a large number of students reported that they learned how to identify a problem, plan how to overcome that problem, monitor their strategies and draw conclusions as to how their methods worked (evaluation) in their journals.

**Learner’s ICC Improvement**
As for learners’ ICC improvement, four key components of ICC in terms of knowledge, skills, attitude and critical awareness were carefully searched in the collected data. A majority of students reported that they markedly improved their ICC through this metacognition-based IC MOOC learning experience. Some students mentioned that this experience provided them with first-hand IC experience, by reflecting upon those questions related to metacognitive strategies, they were much more sensitive to observe and think about the similarities and differences between different cultures, and were aware that they should not jump to conclusions and suspended their judgment because there might be different possible explanations for the
same matter, as was reflected in this journal, “I not only learned about the cultural differences in countries, but also saw the different views and opinions of people from different countries on the same problem.” In addition, this metacognition-based IC MOOC learning experience exposed students to interaction with other MOOC learners from various cultures, which aroused students’ curiosity and interest in those cultures and they learned to put themselves in other’s shoes to show empathy. Because of online chat with foreign MOOC friends, some students showed that they wanted to learn more about their cultures by reading books, watching movies or by traveling to their countries. From some interview transcripts, students were found to be more rational about western culture, and even this metacognition-based IC MOOC learning made them rethink about some aspects of Chinese culture which they used to take for granted, as one student said, “I used to admire American culture so much and I think all of Americans are kind and outgoing. But by learning this MOOC and communicating with some American MOOC learners, I found that maybe I should give it a second thought to my conclusion. Now, I value the uniqueness of Chinese culture more. We should be more confident about our own culture.” From the researcher’s field notes about the observation of students’ behaviors and reactions in class, they were also more willing and confident to deliver their opinions and perspectives about some IC topics, which were benefited from this self-directed IC MOOC learning experience according to students’ descriptions.

**Learner’s Problems and Difficulties Encountered in Metacognition-Based IC MOOC Learning**

Some problems and difficulties were revealed in this metacognition-based IC MOOC learning model from students’ reflection papers, interview transcripts and the teacher’s teaching journals. Initially, some students complained that this model was time-consuming and reported that they were overwhelmed with projects, papers, tests, and other assignments all due at the same time, and therefore, did not consciously monitor or evaluate their thinking, leaving them with nothing to report. Therefore, time management skills and the significance of metacognition about thinking should be emphasized more in future learning and teaching. Some students, in addition, were not used to be self-directed learners and they mentioned that although they could see the value of using metacognition, they were concerned more about how to acquire the knowledge to pass the exams and gain the information they would use in their future professions. From the researcher’s observation, these types of students cared more about getting good grades than learning, were focused more on memorizing than understanding and lacked intrinsic motivation for learning. These students should be more aware of the point of obtaining a higher education that aims to teach learners how to become self-directed and autonomous learners, to not only understand and remember the information, but also to learn to analyze and evaluate to obtain critical thinking and think like experts as well.

**Conclusion**

This research lent further support to the argument that there was value in bringing metacognition to Chinese learners’ ICC cultivation in the IC MOOCs context, which was a fresh try and proved to be effective and productive. Improving learners’ metacognition awareness could help to identify main task goals, increase student self-monitoring and self-questioning, and promote self-assessment. The model of metacognition-based ICC cultivation in the IC MOOCs context effectively helped learners to improve their ICC, prepare themselves for learning autonomy and identify the problems and difficulties in their learning experience. Due to the short duration of this project and less diverse data collection, however, this initial study has its limitations, which hopefully stimulates future researchers to mine the potential of some other aspects of
metacognition-based IC MOOC learning, for instance a study with quantitative data, or research about how to promote students’ metacognitive skills under an exam-oriented educational system.

**Acknowledgement**

This research is sponsored by the college research team “Education for International Understanding Research Team”; by the Guangdong provincial project “Research on MOOC-based Blended Teaching Model for College English Development Courses” (Grant No. GDJG201602); by the Guangdong provincial project “A Study of Intercultural College English Teaching Based on Constructivism under the Background of the Belt and Road (B & R)” (Grant No. 2017GXJK245); by the college project “College English Teaching Based on Intercultural Perspective” (Grant No. 2018JG27); by the college project “An Action Research of the College English Teaching Model Based on Intercultural Perspective under the Background of B & R (Grant No. 2017JG03); by the project “A Study on the Construction and Practice of the ESP Course Teaching Model in Application-oriented Universities”, 2018 Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (No. 2018JXCG07).

**References**


Metaphorical Competence in China (1998-2018): A Scientometric Analysis by Using CiteSpace

Zhang Qunfang, and Wang Jiabao
South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China
Email: qunfang81@aliyun.com, and angelascut@126.com

[Abstract] This paper makes a scientometric analysis of the research phases’ trends and focuses of metaphorical competence studies by using the CiteSpace System, based on the data of the research papers published between 1998 to 2018, which were retrieved from the CNKI database. It finds that the studies are extended from the theoretical studies to the experimental studies. The top five keywords in the field of metaphorical competence studies over the past 20 years are respectively “metaphorical competence”, “metaphor”, “conceptual metaphor”, “vocabulary teaching” and “foreign language teaching”. Metaphorical competence, cognitive metaphor and English writing have gradually become the newly emerged focus during the past 20 years.

[Keywords] metaphorical competence; CiteSpace; scientometric analysis

Introduction
Metaphorical competence emerged in response to the cognitive turn of metaphor study since the late 1970s. The conduit metaphor theory initiated by Michael Reddy and Metaphor We Live By (1980) by Lakoff & Johnson marked the formal arrival of the era of cognitive research on metaphor (Chen, 2016). Metaphor is an inseparable way of human cognition and the external world. Since it is acknowledged that metaphor is ubiquitous, the ability to recognize and use metaphor is crucial. Metaphorical competence is a marked feature of native speakers’ language use and should be the focus of foreign language learning.

The studies on metaphorical competence started late in China. The earliest literature on metaphorical competence in China National Knowledge Internet (CNKI) was D. M. Chen’s “On Metaphorical Competence in Cognitive Linguistics from the Analyticability of Idioms” published in Journal of Foreign Languages in 1998 (Chen, 2016). So far, the study of metaphorical competence in China has been going on for more than 20 years. Many researches on metaphorical competence in China have been conducted, but there has been no scientometric analysis on it in China so far.

Metaphorical competence research includes a metaphorical competence test and the study of the relationship between metaphorical competence and relevant variables. Metaphorical competence includes metaphorical comprehension and metaphorical output (Shi, & Liu, 2010). The study on metaphor understanding is more than on metaphorical interpretation and production. There are relatively few empirical studies on metaphorical competence (Xu, & Yuan, 2012). Chen L. (2016), based on the principle of literature statistics, analyzed 57 papers on metaphorical competence published in Chinese core journals over the past 18 years (1998-2015). It is pointed out that the study of metaphorical competence in China focused on two aspects: theoretical and practical study. The theoretical study was mainly embodied in the significance of metaphorical competence and disciplinary orientation. Practical study was embodied in the application of metaphorical competence in teaching and empirical research. Based on this, Chen proposed that there are still many shortcomings in metaphorical competence in China’s domestic academic circles, as well as the expectations and prospects for improving future development.
Although some review studies were conducted comprehensively, their research methods were still qualitative and lacked scientific quantitative analysis. The problems and shortcomings of the current research on metaphorical competence were pointed out, but there has been no scientific judgment on the development trend, hot areas and frontier trends of this research. Thus, this paper makes a scientometric analysis of the research phases’ trends and focuses of metaphorical competence studies by using the CiteSpace System with the data of the research papers published between 1998 to 2018, which were retrieved from the CNKI database. The purpose of this study is to explore the answers to the following questions:

**Question 1:** What are the characteristics of metaphorical competence studies in China from the perspectives of the time distribution, research hotspots and research frontiers?

**Question 2:** What are the implications of these characteristics for future research?

**Dataset and Method**

**Dataset**

In this paper, the CNKI full-text database was used as the data source for advanced retrieval. The search criteria were “metaphorical competence” as the subject term with the scope accurate; and the search time was from January 1, 1998 to December 31, 2018. A total of 1650 records were retrieved in the 1st-time search. And it was found that in the data, some only referred to “metaphorical competence”, but the object of study was not “metaphorical competence”. To ensure the reliability of conclusion, literature with incomplete abstracts or keyword information and themes that did not match with this study were removed. For example, in *A Study of Conceptual Metaphor in Greek Mythology* by Wu H. (2017), in order to cultivate Chinese students’ metaphorical competence, the author tries to study the application of conceptual metaphor in Greek mythology. But actually, it does not really study “metaphorical competence”, and thus it was removed from the dataset. Finally, 745 valid records were achieved, each containing the author’s name, institution, keywords, title, abstract and publication year and month.

**Methods**

CiteSpace is an information visualization software developed by Java language. With co-citation analysis and pathfinder network scaling (PFNET), CiteSpace visually explores a research field, shows intellectual landscape of a knowledge domain, and finds hot-topics and emerging trends through different visualization maps. Most of the methods and analysis used in this study were implemented by CiteSpace, including data acquisition, data processing, function selection, operation, visualization and interpretation.

In this study, CiteSpace was applied to process data. Firstly, 745 document records were exported in Refworks document type format using CNKI’s “Export/Reference” tool. When downloaded, the exported document was named Download_***.txt document. Then, the Import/Export of CiteSpace version 5.4 R3 was launched to convert the exported document and save the converted data. At last, we use CiteSpace to analyze the keywords in all 745 articles. Then, by drawing the annual word frequency distribution map and keyword network clustering map of metaphor competence research literature from 1998 to 2018, we could analyze the hotspot changes, research trends and development fronts of metaphor competence research.
Bibliographic Landscape

Time Distribution

Figure 1 shows the general data statistics of the literature related to metaphorical competence obtained from the full-text search using the subject term “metaphorical competence” from 1998 to 2018. As shown in the figure, the research on Metaphorical Competence in China can be roughly divided into three stages: the preliminary stage of development from 1998 to 2001; the acceleration period from 2002 to 2008; and the mature period from 2009 to 2018. Overall, the number of records in the past 20 years has shown an upward trend, with a slight drop of no more than 30. From 2002 to 2008, the number of texts continued to rise. From 2009 to 2016, the number of texts continued to fluctuate. The number of texts remained stable at fifty records, while from 2016 until now, the number of texts has declined. Nevertheless, the trend of metaphorical competence research in the past two decades is very obvious.

Research Hotspots

Figure 2 is the co-word cluster mapping of keywords in metaphorical competence research. Cluster attempts to reflect the structural characteristics of clustering, highlight key nodes and important connections, and help to observe the development trends and trends of a discipline during a certain period of time. The data was imported into CiteSpace. The analysis period was set to 1998-2018. The time slice was one year, totaling 20 time analyses. Node Type chooses Keyword. The keywords in each time analysis were set to top 40% in frequency, and the number was less than or equal to 50. Path Finder was used to analyze the data. At the same time, each time slice and the number of keywords in each time analysis were tailored. We compounded time slice, set the threshold to 10, and ran the program to get the keyword co-word network map of metaphorical competence research literature.

The square in the graph is the node. The connection between nodes indicates that there is a certain co-occurrence relationship among different nodes. The thicker the connection, the closer the co-occurrence relationship is. This indicates that the more likely they are to co-occur in a document (Zhang, 2016). There are many small nodes inside or around the large nodes, which constitute a cluster, indicating that these keywords are closely related.

In Figure 2, nodes represent the key words of the literature. The first six nodes are metaphorical competence, metaphor, conceptual metaphor, vocabulary teaching, foreign language teaching and college...
English teaching. Therefore, the study of metaphorical competence represented by these six keywords has been the focus of the study of metaphorical competence in the past two decades.

![Co-Word Cluster Mapping of Keywords in Metaphorical Competence Papers (1998-2018, one-year slices)](image)

According to the information generated by CiteSpace, the keywords were processed. The top 20 keywords with highest frequency and the top 10 keywords with highest degree of betweenness centrality were extracted, as shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Betweenness Centrality Index can help us find key nodes. The higher the degree of betweenness centrality, the more nodes this keyword connects and the more information flows, it controls between keywords (Small, 1986). CiteSpace uses this indicator to explore and assess the importance of specific keywords. Betweenness centrality can display research hotspots, reflect the ability of each keyword as a “medium” in the whole network, that is, the ability to occupy the shortest path between the other two nodes (Zhang, 2016). Table 2 shows that metaphorical competence has the highest degree of betweenness centrality 0.91, followed by “metaphor”, “conceptual metaphor”, “English proficiency” and “foreign language teaching”.

Based on the above analysis, we find that the focus of metaphorical competence research in the past 20 years is mainly on “metaphorical competence”, “metaphor”, “conceptual metaphor”, “vocabulary teaching” and “foreign language teaching”. It is consistent with the results of the keyword co-occurrence mapping of metaphorical competence generated by CiteSpace.

**Table 1. Top 20 Keywords with Highest Frequency**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>metaphorical competence</td>
<td>436</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>metaphorical comprehension</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>metaphor</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>conceptual metaphor theory</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>conceptual metaphor</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>cultivation</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>vocabulary teaching</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>conceptual fluency</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>foreign language teaching</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>college English</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>cognition</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>English proficiency</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>metaphorical awareness</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>English writiing</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>English teaching</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>second language acquisition</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>metaphorical thinking</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>cognitive metaphor</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>relevance</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>college English teaching</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In all 745 bibliographic records, the frequency of the keyword “metaphorical competence” was 436 times, and the degree of betweenness centrality was 0.91. *Metaphor* and *conceptual metaphor* were the keywords that were second only to *metaphorical competence* with the betweenness centrality of 0.42 and 0.22, respectively. It can be seen that the theoretical study of metaphorical competence is of great importance in all the records. From the high-frequency keywords such as *metaphorical competence, metaphor, conceptual metaphor, vocabulary teaching* and *foreign language teaching*, we can see that until now, the study of metaphorical competence in China has focused on two aspects: theoretical and empirical researches on metaphorical competence.

**Table 2. Top 10 Keywords with Betweenness Centrality**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>Betweenness centrality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>metaphorical competence</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>metaphor</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>conceptual metaphor</td>
<td>0.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>English level</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>foreign language teaching</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>metaphorical thinking</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>metaphorical comprehension</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>college English</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>vocabulary teaching</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>metaphorical awareness</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Research Fronts**

One of the core functions of CiteSpace software is to detect and analyze the development of research fronts and the relationship between research fronts and its intellectual bases (Zhao, 2012). “Burst detection algorithm” can be applied to identify words that experience a sudden increase in their usage frequency, also called burst. A group of dynamic concepts and potential research problems highlighted in the burst detection algorithm results represent the research fronts in a field.

With the help of Find Burst Phrases algorithm of CiteSpace, this study chose technical terms from the title, abstract and keywords, judges their frequency fluctuations in different time zones, and determined which keywords were frontier terms. Firstly, the statistical objects were set up, and the term “Sort by the beginning year of burst” was selected to rank the terms such as burst words according to the starting time of burst. Thus, the statistical table of strongest citation bursts on metaphorical competence in the past 20 years was obtained, as shown in Table 3. Table 3 lists the top 3 keywords with strongest citation bursts. The red color block in the table indicates the year when the burst intensity of the key word is high, showing the diachronic development and the front trend of metaphor research.

**Table 3. Top 3 Keywords with Strongest Citation Bursts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Strength</th>
<th>Begin</th>
<th>End</th>
<th>Burst trend during 1998-2018</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Table 3 shows that the keyword with the highest burst intensity in 2001 is “metaphorical competence”, while the keywords with the highest mutation intensity in 2010 and 2012 are “cognitive metaphor” and “English writing”. According to the time period of key words mutation, “metaphorical competence”
mutation was the earliest, “cognitive metaphor” mutation ended in 2011, and “English writing” mutation ended in 2015.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

Applied linguists, adapting to the development of cognitive metaphor theory, have introduced metaphor's cognitive view into language teaching on a large scale, especially in the practice of foreign language teaching, and have made a lot of achievements. From the above analysis, we can see that the research on metaphorical competence has attained the attention of the academic community in China, but such attention still needs to be strengthened.

From the perspective of the diachronic study of metaphorical competence, its development is fluctuant with the years of 2002, 2008 and 2016 three demarcation lines. It can be seen from the diachronic analysis of 20 years’ research on metaphorical competence that Chinese academia has gradually realized the indispensability of metaphor in language and the teachability of metaphor in language teaching.

From the perspective of keywords in metaphorical competence research, “metaphorical competence”, “metaphor”, “conceptual metaphor”, “vocabulary teaching” and “foreign language teaching” are the hottest topics. Therefore, it is not difficult to see that the study of metaphorical competence actually belongs to the interdisciplinary field of cognitive linguistics and applied linguistics. It emphasizes the practical timeliness of putting the achievements of cognitive linguistics into language teaching, the guidance of theory to practice, the combination of academic significance and application value, and it is an interdisciplinary study.

From the perspective of the research frontiers of metaphorical competence, “metaphorical competence”, “cognitive metaphor” and “English writing” have become the top-ranked burst words. This frontier trend shows that the discussion of English as a second language is in full swing, but the discussion of many other languages, like Chinese and minority languages, has not been followed up.

The study of metaphorical competence in China over the past 20 years shows that metaphorical competence has great vitality. Metaphorical competence, as well as linguistic competence and cognitive competence, should be highly emphasized and valued in the process of language teaching. Many foreign language teachers, especially college English teachers, have consciously or unconsciously carried out the cultivation of metaphorical awareness throughout the teaching process. However, there is less research conducted on the acquisition and cultivation of metaphorical competence of primary, secondary and postgraduate students. And little research has been done on the application of metaphorical competence in the teaching of Chinese and minor languages. It can be predicted that the future study of metaphorical competence will make great progress with promising results.

**References**


The Study of Spoken Interlanguage in Students of Non-English Majors in Independent Colleges on the Basis of Error Analysis Theory

Liu Si-si
Department of College English, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies South China Business College, Guangzhou, China
Email: 724192305@qq.com

[Abstract] It has been reported that students of non-English majors in China’s independent colleges generally have a low level of spoken English with large numbers of errors, some of which appear repeatedly. On the basis of the theory of error analysis, the spoken interlanguage, especially the pronunciation from students of non-English majors in China’s independent colleges is examined and the errors are identified, categorized and calculated. Phonetic, lexical and grammatical errors were found and the reasons for these errors are explained with the hope of helping students to avoid errors, improving the teaching and learning of spoken English and enhancing students’ proficiency in spoken English.

[Keywords] spoken interlanguage; error analysis; teaching and learning of spoken English; independent colleges

Introduction
The new syllabus of College English requires cultivating students’ ability to use English to communicate rather than just to obtain information, which means that improving students’ competence of oral expression should be highly emphasized in college English teaching. However, numerous researches show that students have a low self-assessment of their spoken English and a strong will to improve it. This author also has discovered that there are a large number of errors in students’ spoken English in the five years of College English teaching and that many errors appear repeatedly. The theory of error analysis, put forward by the British linguist Corder, has been used as an important way to learn interlanguage to enable teachers, researchers and students learn the rules of learning a second language (Corder, 1981). Based on this theory, this research examines the students’ spoken English, learns the errors, offers the reasons, help students to avoid these errors, provides a guideline for teachers and improves students’ spoken English ability eventually.

Interlanguage and Error Analysis
A second language learner language is also called “interlanguage” – learners’ developing second language knowledge (Selinker, 1972). Interlanguage is a developing system with an interim structure, rather than an imperfect imitation of the target language. It is systematic, predictable but also dynamic, continually evolving as learners receive more input and revise their hypotheses about the target language. Selinker has ensured the status of “interlanguage” in the study of second language acquisition in his research paper Interlanguage. The purpose of studying “interlanguage” is to find the rules of second language acquisition and provide a theoretical basis for language teaching.

Errors are inevitable in second language learning. Brown (1994) defined errors as a noticeable deviation from the grammar of a native speaker. James (1998) defined errors simply as “unsuccessful bits of language”. Error analysis was put forward by the Britain linguist Corder in his research paper The...
Significance of Learners’ Errors. Corder (1967) held that error analysis is a procedure for analyzing second language data which begins with the errors that learners make and attempts to explain them. It uses the target language as the point of comparison. Error analysis is important, as first, it helps teachers to assess teaching procedures in the light of what they can reasonably expect to accomplish in the classroom, second, it can provide the researcher with insights into the process of acquisition, and last, it also helps learners to be aware of the steps that they go through in acquiring second language features (Corder, 1981). Since the very beginning of second language teaching, error analysis has been used as an important way to diagnose learners’ errors and study the interlanguage. It is important to be able to tell the differences between errors and mistakes. According to Corder (1971), mistakes are random performance slips caused by fatigue, and excitement, etc. and are readily self-corrected, while errors are systematic deviations by learners who have not yet mastered the rules; they are more difficult to correct, and they are an indication of the learners’ attempt to figure out the second language system.

Many linguists have offered explanations for the reasons of learners’ errors. Richards (1971) divided errors as intralingual and interlingual errors. Intralingual errors are the errors in the target language itself. Interlingual errors happen because the learner misuses an item because it shares features with an item in the native language. There are huge differences between English and Chinese in pronunciation, grammar and cultural background. Learners tend to use the Chinese grammar phenomenon when learning English and that is the reason Chinglish appears.

The researches on error analysis of oral English in China have been conducted in the following aspects: the types and the reasons of errors and the strategies of correcting errors. However, these researches mainly focused on the lexical and grammatical errors and the phonetic errors have not been analyzed in depth (Shan, 2011). This research makes a thorough analysis into the phonetic errors.

Research Method

Research Objectives
A quantitative empirical research was conducted to find out the types of errors made by students of non-English majors from independent colleges, the percentages of these types of errors, the reasons for the errors and to offer suggestions to the teaching and learning of spoken English.

Research Objects and Samples
The research objects were 80 students of Grade 2016 from Guangdong University of Foreign Studies South China Business College. To make this research more representative, all of these students were randomly chosen from different schools, including the Schools of Economy, Management, Chinese Language, Minority Language and Computer Science. All of them had taken the Reading and Writing Course of College English for three semesters and the Listening and Speaking Course for two semesters.

The research samples were the recordings of 1 to 1.5 minutes of students’ opinions towards a topic and then the recordings are transcribed into words for analysis. The students were told that this was not a test to make them comfortable so that we can observe their ability of spoken English in daily life.

Research Procedures
According to Corder (1974), the procedures for error analysis are collection of a sample of learner language, identification of errors, description of errors and explanation of errors. Based on this, the procedures for this research were, first identifying errors in the research samples during which mistakes need to be
separated from errors, second classifying the errors into phonetic errors, lexical errors and grammatical errors and calculating the percentage for each type of errors, and last, explaining the reasons for the errors.

**Data Analysis**

When identifying errors in these 80 students’ recordings, mistakes had to be separated from errors. Sometimes it was difficult to distinguish mistakes and errors. If a deviation happened consistently, it was regarded as an error because it showed the student had not mastered the rules and if the deviation was avoided in some occasions, it was regarded as a mistake. After excluding all of the mistakes, a total of 1180 errors were identified, including phonetic errors, lexical errors and grammatical errors, which accounted for 60%, 19.5% and 20.5%, respectively, showing that students had serious problems with pronunciation.

**Phonetic Errors and Reasons**

A total of 708 phonetic errors were identified in this research. Based on categorization of Suenobu, et al. (1992) and the research finding, phonetic errors were divided into phonemic errors, indistinguishable words and word stress errors, accounting for 76%, 21.8% and 2.2%, respectively. It was obvious that students made a large number of phonetic errors and each student made approximately 10 errors in the 1-1.5 minute recording on average.

Phonemic errors appeared most frequently and they could be further divided into errors of substituting, adding and omitting of phonemes. Errors of phoneme substituting, a wrong phoneme substituting for the right one, was most common, accounting for 72.1%. Errors of phoneme substituting happened more often in consonants than vowels. The most common substitutes were /r/ for /l/, /l/ for /r/, /s/ for /θ/ and /w/ for /v/ and some other common substitutes in consonants were /s/ for /ʃ/, /d/ or /z/ for /ð/ and /dʒ/ or /ʃ/ for /ʒ/. For the substitutes in vowels, the most common one was /æ/ for /ei/ or /æ/ and students made errors for the phonemes /ʊə/, /eə/, /e/, /ə/, /ʌ/ frequently. For errors of phoneme adding, adding a vowel after a word ending with a consonant and adding the retroflexed phoneme /r/ at a wrong place were most common. Errors of phoneme omitting consist of omitting one consonant when two of them came together, e.g. /t/ omitted in /pt/ in the word “optimistic”, omitting the consonant at the end of a word, making that word ending with a vowel and omitting the phoneme /l/ after a vowel.

The reasons for phonemic errors can be both interlingual and intralingual. Interlingual errors happen in the following situations. First, English phonemes that do not exist in Chinese such as /θ/, /v/, /ʃ/, /ð/, /ʒ/ and /æ/ are substituted by the similar phonemes in Chinese; second, a vowel phoneme is added after a word ending with a consonant and the consonant phoneme is omitted at the end of a word to make that word end with a vowel because the typical Chinese syllable structure is consonant-vowel while the typical English syllable structure is consonant-vowel-consonant (Shan, 2011); third, one consonant is omitted when two of them come together because consonants do not come together in Chinese. Other phonemic errors are intralingual because they are caused by students’ not having mastered the phonetic rules and skills.

Indistinguishable words accounted for 21.8% of the phonetic errors, which caused great difficulties for others to understand. The word stress errors, referring to putting the stress on the wrong syllable of a word, were a very low proportion of phonetic errors.

**Lexical Errors and Reasons**

Lexical errors could be divided into morpheme errors, words of wrong choices or words not existing and collocation errors. There were a total of 230 lexical errors and these three types made up 72.2%, 15.7% and 12.1%, respectively.
Morphemes could be divided as inflectional and derivational morphemes. An inflectional morpheme is a suffix that is added to a word to assign a particular grammatical property to that word, such as its tense, number, possession, or comparison. Inflectional morphemes in English include the bound morphemes -s (or -es); 's (or s’); -ed; -en; -er; -est; and -ing. Unlike derivational morphemes, inflectional morphemes do not change the essential meaning or grammatical category of a word (Nordquist, 2018). Inflectional morpheme errors made up 90.4% of all morpheme errors in this research. The most common inflectional morpheme error was neglecting -s or -es in the plural forms of nouns, followed by neglecting -ed in the passive voice, neglecting -s or -es in the third person singular form of verbs and failing to add -ing in the progressive tense. A derivational morpheme can be either a suffix or a prefix and it can change both the meaning and grammatical category of a word. Derivational morpheme errors in this research mainly included the misuse of parts of speech of words. There is no inflectional or derivational morpheme in Chinese, so students tended to neglect or misuse them and always used words’ root forms in English learning. Therefore, morpheme errors are interlingual.

Words of wrong choices means substituting the right words with words of similar pronunciation or meaning, e.g. substituting “rise” with “raise” and substituting “document” with “paper work”. Words not existing happen when students create an unreal word similar to the right word, e.g. “scientisters”. The reason for this type of errors is intralingual because students lack accurate vocabulary to meet the communicative needs.

Collocation errors belong to intralingual errors because students do not master the right phrasal forms.

**Grammatical Errors and Reasons**

There are four types of grammatical errors – errors of sentence structure, structure words, tense and voice. Of the 242 grammatical errors, these four types accounted 40.5%, 29.8%, 28.1% and 1.6%, respectively.

Errors in sentence structure consisted of errors in the main constituents of a sentence, namely subject and predicate and mixture of main and subordinate clauses. Predicate errors accounted for 61.2% of all sentence structure errors, including two predicates or no predicate in one simple sentence. This kind of error is intralingual because students do not master the right structure of a simple sentence. There are huge differences in sentence structures between Chinese and English. In Chinese, different clauses are arranged by thinking model or in chronological order. However, in English, main-subordinate clauses are used, in which subordinate meaning is subject to the main meaning (Tan, 2004). When using compound sentences, students are inclined to transfer the Chinese sentence structure in to English. As a result, mixture of main and subordinate clauses is interlingual.

English structure words include articles, prepositions, conjunction and interjection. Conjunction and preposition errors are common in the research, such as “in addition...but also.” Misunderstanding of these structure words leads to this type of errors, thus it belongs to intralingual error.

As to the tense errors, students tended to use the simple present tense to replace other tenses for the reason that, in Chinese, we do not use different forms of verbs for different tenses, so tense errors are interlingual. There are few voice errors in this research and active voice was sometimes used in the place of passive voice.

**Implications to Teaching and Learning of Spoken English**

Due to the fact that all students in this research were in their third year of college and they had taken the Course of Reading and Writing of College English for three semesters and the Course of Listening and
Speaking of College English for two semesters, the types, numbers and percentages of errors in their spoken interlanguage could reflect problems in the teaching of spoken English in the independent colleges. There are some implications and suggestions to improve the teaching and learning of spoken English.

For pronunciation teaching and learning:
1. More emphasis should be put on the teaching of pronunciation. Insufficient emphasis from colleges, including independent colleges, leads to the high proportion of phonetic errors. Nowadays, the College English teaching in China has already shifted its focus to cultivating students’ output ability – the ability of writing and speaking. However, from the curriculum arrangement of College English, it can be seen that independent colleges have not paid as much attention to speaking as to writing. As a result, teachers should be given enough time to teach pronunciation and students should have enough time to fully understand and practice in class.
2. Teachers should put more emphasis on the differences between English and Chinese when teaching pronunciation so students will not be impacted by the negative transfer from their mother language. For the phonemes that do not exist in Chinese such as /θ, /ʃ/, /ð/, /ʒ/ and /æ/, teachers need to explain them in greater detail, such as the manner and place of articulation and students should practice more so as not to replace them with the similar phonemes in Chinese. It is important to distinguish the typical English and Chinese syllable structures. The typical Chinese syllable structure is consonant-vowel and for English it is consonant-vowel-consonant, and students need to be reminded not to add a vowel or omit the consonant at the end of word under the influence of Chinese. Students should pay more attention to the way of pronouncing continuous consonants without omitting any consonant for there is no such structure in Chinese syllables.
3. Try to avoid the intralingual error, for example, differentiating phonemes /r/ and /l/ correctly, pronouncing the phoneme /l/ after vowels, the retroflex phoneme /r/ and the word stress in the right way.

For lexical teaching and learning:
1. Teachers need to help students use inflectional and derivational morphemes correctly instead of only using the root forms of words because of the interlingual negative transfer.
2. The importance of vocabulary must be emphasized to avoid the situation where students use the wrong words or words that do not even exist.
3. Students need to pay more attention to phrasal collocation, especially the error-prone ones.

For grammar teaching and learning:
1. Many students do not know the basic English grammar rules, such as structures of simple sentences and tenses, so it is of great importance for teachers to help students lay a solid foundation about English grammar.
2. Students need to understand that English grammar is different from Chinese in the many aspects. English is hypotaxis while Chinese is parataxis and morphemes are used to show different numbers, tenses, etc. in English. Students need to establish the English thinking patterns to reduce the interference of Chinese.
3. Teachers should use detailed examples to illustrate the error-prone points in context.
Conclusion
Analyzing errors in students’ spoken interlanguage is an effective way to improve the teaching and learning for teachers and students. In this research, the common errors in pronunciation, lexicon and grammar are identified and described and the reasons for these errors are explained to provide suggestions for the teaching and learning of spoken English in independent colleges. However, it is worth mentioning that analyzing errors does not mean that teachers should focus on the errors and ignore what the students did right. In fact, errors are evidence of how much students have mastered and they do not mean failure. Teachers need to treat these errors positively and be careful when correcting the errors in order not to hurt students’ confidence.

Due to the time constraints, there are some limitations in this research such as not large enough samples, suprasegmental phoneme errors and pragmatic error not being included. More extensive and complete researches can be made from these aspects to better understand and improve the level and development of students’ spoken English.

Acknowledgments
This research was sponsored by the college project “The Study of Spoken Interlanguage from Students of Non-English Major in Independent Colleges on the Basis of Error Analysis Theory” (Grant No. 19-020B) as a sub-project of the Key Program of the English Language and Literature of Guangdong Province, 2016; by Guangdong provincial project A Study of Intercultural College English Teaching Based on Constructivism under the Background of the Belt and Road (B & R) (Grant No. 2017GXJK245); and by Guangdong provincial project Research on MOOC-based Blended Teaching Model for College English Development Courses (Grant No. GDJG201602).

References

Visualization Analysis of Researches on Chinese as L2 Learning Motivation Based on CiteSpace

Jianguo Shang

School of foreign languages, Xuzhou University of Technology, Xuzhou, China
Email: sjg@xzit.edu.cn

[Abstract] With the popularity of China, Chinese as L2 learning motivation has attracted researchers’ attention. In order to explore the present and future situations in the research field, this study reviews the papers in the field published from 1980 to 2019 in China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), and analyzes the research hotspots, evolution and frontier by means of CiteSpaceIII. Through visualization analysis, it was found that (1) The motivation type, motivation intensity, influence factors and stimulating measures have become the hotspots in the field; (2) Chinese as L2 learning motivation research has experienced an initial stage, exploring stage and a developmental stage; (3) Students’ demotivation, teaching experiment and theory construction is becoming the research frontier in the field. This study will set a clear direction for the future research on Chinese as L2 learning motivation.

[Keywords] Chinese; L2; learning motivation; CiteSpaceIII

Introduction

Learning motivation is a learner’s inner driving force which can bring about goal-oriented learning behavior. Gardner & Lambert (1959) first divided the L2 learning motivation into integrated motivation and instrumental motivation. Tremblay & Gardner (1995) extended Gardner’s classic motivation mode by adding goal salience, valence, and self-efficiency as mediating variables between attitude and motivation; Dörnyei (1994) conceptualized L2 motivation with a three-level framework: language level, language learner level and learning situation level; Dörnyei (2005) put forward L2 Motivation Self System (L2MSS) based on self-discrepancy theory, and divided L2 motivation into 3 parts: ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience. These L2 motivation theories provide the theoretic bases for researches on L2 learning motivation.

However, the researches on L2 learning motivation mainly focused on English learners’ motivation, while the other language learning motivation researches have been much more limited (Nakamura, 2018). With the popularity of China, Chinese as L2 learning motivation has begun to attract researchers’ attention.

This study will explore the present and future situations in the research of Chinese as L2 learning motivation by analyzing the research hotspots, evolution and frontier.

Research Methods and Data Collection

The literature research method and bibliometric analysis method were employed in the study. In order to make the research results visualized, we used CiteSpaceIII, a kind of statistic software developed by Professor Chen Chaomei of Drexel University in America, to create a knowledge map and analyze the hidden relationship between knowledge domains (Chen, et al., 2015).

Because most of the papers on Chinese as L2 learning motivation have been published in China, the data used in this study was from the China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI). We used the advanced searching function of CNKI to retrieve the literature. It is believed that Gilbert (1980) published the first article in the field, so the time span for literature retrieval was set from 1980 to 2019. We chose...
“journal”, “dissertation”, and “conference paper” as the data source, set “Chinese learning motivation” as the topic, and then we got 1229 initial papers on Chinese as L2 learning motivation. After that, we read all the titles and some abstracts of these papers, eliminated the unrelated ones, such as the papers on Chinese as L1 and Chinese as L3, and finally obtained 409 target papers. These papers were exported into Refwords, and then saved into a file named “download_motivation”.

**Research Hotspots**

We employed CiteSpaceIII to analyze the data in the file of “download_motivation”. By setting Time Slicing from 1980 to 2019 and Node Type as “Keyword”, we made a keywords co-occurrence analysis, and then got the knowledge map of keywords in the field as shown in Figure 1 and the frequency and centrality of these keywords as shown in Table 1.

*Figure 1. Knowledge Map of Keywords Timing from 1980 to 2019*
Table 1. Frequency and Centrality of Keywords Timing from 1980 to 2019

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Centrality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>learning motivation</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>Learning strategy</td>
<td>0.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leaning strategy</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Chinese teaching</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching strategy</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivation intensity</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teaching countermeasures</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>influence factors</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Learning Chinese</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stimulating strategy</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>motivation intensity</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivation type</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Chinese proficiency</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teaching countermeasures</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Influence factors</td>
<td>0.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>affective factors</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Confucius institute</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural identity</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Chinese learning attitude</td>
<td>0.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confucius institute</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Expected efforts</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 motivation self system</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>instructor</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Figure 1, the sizes of the nodes represent the frequency of keywords, the bigger the node, the more frequent the keyword (Li, & Chen, 2016, p.85). It is shown that the keywords, such as learning strategy, teaching strategy, motivation intensity, motivation type, influence factors and affective factors, were frequently used in the research field.

Table 1 also shows that these keywords such as learning strategy, teaching strategy, motivation intensity, motivation type, influence factors, and affective factors were frequently used. Centrality of keywords is a key indicator of the degree of resource control of the nodes in the knowledge map, and the larger the centrality, the more important the node (Li, & Chen, 2016, p.93). Table 1 indicates that learning strategies, teaching countermeasures, motivation intensity, Chinese proficiency, and influence factors are the important keywords.

From Figure 1 and Table 1, we can see that motivation type, motivation intensity, influence factors and stimulating measures have become the hotspots in this field for the past decades. Motivation type was a hot research topic in Chinese as L2 learning motivation, and researchers have classified Chinese as L2 learning motivation according to different motivation theories. Cao & Li (2002) divided it into surface motivation and deep motivation according to Biggs’ theory; Feng (2003) classified it into integrated motivation and instrumental motivation according to Gardner’s classic motivation mode; Yang & Zuo (2016) divided it into ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience according to Dörnyei’s L2MSS. All of these studies adopted English learning motivation theories to investigate Chinese learning motivation, and its feasibility was questioned. Motivation intensity was another hot topic in the field, and Li (2014) found that the Chinese learning motivation intensity is controllable, while Ding (2014a, 2014b, 2015) found that Chinese as L2 learners showed different motivation intensity in different learning stages. Influence factors was also an important research topic, Yang & Zuo (2016) and Zhang & Zhao (2019) studied the relationship between Chinese learning motivation and its influence factors, such as learning strategies, leaning achievements, and cultural backgrounds. Stimulating measures also gained much attention, and Lian (2018) and Wu & Wang (2019) explored how to stimulate Chinese learning motivation, but the related empirical studies have been seldom reported.

Research Evolution
Gilbert (1980) published the first article on Chinese as L2 learning motivation, but it was in 2008 when the Beijing Olympic Games were held that China became popular in the world and Chinese as L2 learning
motivation began to attract more researchers’ attention. So, we set Time Slicing from 2008 to 2019 and Node Type as “keyword” in CiteSpaceIII, and made another keywords co-occurrence analysis. We then got the time zone view as shown in Figure 2 and the frequency and the year of first publication of keywords as shown in Table 2.

Figure 2. Keywords Co-Occurrence Time Zone View (2008-2019)

Table 2. The Frequency and the Year of First Publication of Keywords (2008-2019)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Year of first publication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese learning motivation</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>2008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning strategy</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Asian overseas students</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central Asian students in China</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Influence factors</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation intensity</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation types</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching strategy</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L2 motivation self system</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai students</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stimulating strategy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective factors</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2018</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Figure 2 and Table 2, we can see that the developmental process of the research on Chinese as L2 learning motivation can be roughly divided into the following three stages:

1. Initial stage (2008-2011): Keywords such as learning strategy, international students from Central Asia appeared frequently in this stage, and researchers mainly studied Central Asian students’ Chinese learning motivation and its related factor: Chinese learning strategy.
2. Exploring stage (2011-2015): In this stage, researchers began to explore different research topics in the field, such as motivation type, motivation intensity, influence factors and teaching strategies, and the research scopes in the field were expanded.

3. Developmental stage (2015-2019): Keywords such as L2 motivation self system (L2MSS), stimulating strategies and affective factors emerged in this stage, and researchers began to study Chinese as L2 learning motivation through different methods and from different aspects.

**Research Frontier**

The bursts in cited literatures and keywords reflect changes of research interests and they are important indicators to judge the research frontier (Zhu & Cai, 2013, p. 13), but there were no bursts in cited literature and keywords in this study, which was partly because Chinese as L2 learning motivation was a new research field and the researches on it were sporadic. In order to make up for this deficiency, a new literature review from 2018 to 2019 was carried out to discover the research frontier in the field. By reading and analyzing these newly-published papers in the two years, we found that the following new research topics have emerged, and they may become the research frontier in Chinese as L2 learning motivation:

1. Students’ demotivation. Why students have come to lose their learning motivation is an important research question. Only when we know the causes of students’ demotivation can we find the effective ways to improve their learning motivation. So, some researchers, such as Zhou, (2018a, 2018b) and Wu, & Wang (2019), began to investigate the causes for students’ losing their interest in Chinese learning.

2. Teaching experiment. Some researchers, such as Lian (2018) and Wu, & Wang (2019), explored the stimulating measures of Chinese as L2 learning motivation from theoretical aspects, but the empirical studies in the field have seldom been reported. So, the teaching experiments should be carried out in order to test the effectiveness of these stimulating measures.

3. Theory construction. Different motivation theories and research methods were employed to investigate Chinese as L2 learning motivation, such as Gardner’s classic motivation mode (Huang, 2018), Dörnyei’s 3-level learning motivation theory (Zhang & Zhao, 2019), and Glaser & Strauss’s Grounded Theory Analysis method (Zhang & Ding, 2018), but few researchers have constructed the theory of Chinese as L2 learning motivation.

**Conclusion**

This study analyzed the papers on Chinese as L2 learning motivation in CNKI database through visualization analysis, and the keywords co-occurrence maps were drawn to discover the research hotspots and evolution in the field. The results of this study show that (1) Motivation type, motivation intensity, influence factors and stimulating measures have become the hotspots in the field; (2) Chinese as L2 learning motivation is a new research field, and it experiences initial stage, exploring stage and developmental stage; (3) Students’ demotivation, teaching experiment and theory construction of Chinese as L2 learning motivation is becoming the research frontier in the field.

**References**


A Study of College English Listening Teaching Practice on Krashen’s Monitor Theory

Yingxi Chen
South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China
Email: tracycici@qq.com

[Abstract] Listening plays an important role in second language acquisition. The degree of acceptance of listening input in college English second language acquisition leads to different learning effects. Based on Krashen’s monitor theory, focusing on the learning effect of college English Viewing Listening and Speaking course, this paper conducted a questionnaire in three non-English major freshman classes of different English levels – one with all students scoring more than 120 on the National College English Entrance Exam (Class A), one being a bilingual class (Class B), and one with regular students (Class C) – to examine the students’ obstacles in English listening. The results indicated that there was a significant difference between Class B and C on the input effectiveness condition, a significant difference between Class A and B, and Class A and C on the affective shielding barriers condition. The study analyzed these obstacles and put forward corresponding learning strategies. The innovation of this study was to combine Krashen’s theory, learning strategies and a newer teaching paradigm, the Presentation-assimilation-discussion (PAD) paradigm, and with the Unipus platform to help improve students’ English listening learning ability.

[Keywords] learning strategies; Krashen’s monitor theory; learning strategies; PAD paradigm

Introduction
Acquisition is different from learning when the former focuses on the subconscious process and the latter the conscious process. However, the two terms are often used interchangeably (Ellis, 2018, p. 7). Numerous researchers have studied different aspects of the second language acquisition, from internal factors to external ones, from linguistic features to cognitive ones, from the perspectives of different teaching paradigms, and even from neuropsychological views, etc.

The traditional ways of learning a foreign language, for example, by just reading books, listening to some recordings, writing English essays, speaking in English with the teacher/students cannot satisfy the students. Neither does the traditional classroom. Different teaching information shared platforms have been used in the English classroom, e.g., in this College English listening class, the Unipus platform. This kind of autonomous learning platform gave the students the chance to study at their own speed. However, the students need guidance and to be monitored.

In the previous studies (Chen, 2017a; Chen, 2017b), the author reviewed a newer teaching paradigm, the PAD teaching method, used in an English teaching class to better the students’ self-study learning effect. In this teaching paradigm, the class is divided into three parts, the teacher’s presenting part, the students’ assimilation part, and the student-student/students-teacher discussion part. However, the effects of the students’ autonomous study, for example, the problems the students faced during the study, the strategies the students used and so on, still needed to be studied. To evaluate the effects mentioned above, we need to carefully examine the obstacles the students encounter during their listening so as to put forward some learning strategies and melt them into the foreign language teaching to help the students monitor their study behavior.
When listening obstacles are mentioned, people think of the foreign language acquisition process. Among a large amount of theoretical models to describe the process of the second language acquisition, Krashen’s monitor theory had a great influence, including the acquisition-learning hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis, the affective filter hypothesis, and the natural order hypothesis. Second language acquisition should be a bidirectional process of language input and output (Wang, 2007). To Krashen’s understanding, monitor is a way to edit the mechanism of language usage, which needs conscious on language knowledge, e.g., the grammar, the language form, and enough proper time thinking the above two. Besides, enough comprehensive input is the vital condition of language acquisition. The ideal input requires comprehensible, interesting and relevant material, with enough input and that is not grammatically sequenced. Moreover, the affective filter hypothesis considers that the second language learning process is influenced by many affective conditions, e.g., learning motivation, personalities, anxiety or relaxation, etc.

This paper mainly focused on the practice of Krashen’s monitor theory, trying to investigate the problems existing in English listening learning by a questionnaire and working out the learning strategies which could be used in class.

Research Methodology

Research Questions
Based on the previous studies, according to Krashen’s acquisition theory, this article attempts to find out the answers to the following question: what listening comprehension obstacles do non-English majors have when they were in the assimilation part of the PAD paradigm, in the aspects of input effectiveness, autonomous inner processing effectiveness, and affective shielding barriers, etc.?

Subject
Freshmen from three non-English major classes were recruited as the subjects. There were 16 students in Class A in which they all got more than 120 in the National College English Entrance Exam; 31 students in Class B which was a bilingual class; 44 students in Class C which was a regular class.

Questionnaire
The English Listening Comprehension Barriers Questionnaire was used to examine the subjects’ obstacles in English listening. Based on Krashen’s second language acquisition theory, this questionnaire (see Table 1) included two parts, a five-point scale (1 meant totally disagree and 5 meant totally agree) and an open-ended question of the obstacles in English listening other than the items mentioned in the scale. The first part contained three aspects, 6 items of input effectiveness, 2 items of autonomous inner processing effectiveness, and 2 items of affective shielding barriers.
Table 1. The English Listening Comprehension Barriers Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input Effectiveness</th>
<th>Autonomous Inner Processing Effectiveness</th>
<th>Affective Shielding Barriers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. linking word</td>
<td>1. cannot catch the key information</td>
<td>1. reject doing listening exercises</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. weak form</td>
<td>2. unable to comprehend when</td>
<td>2. having no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. swallowing sound</td>
<td>3. taking notes while listening</td>
<td>3. confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. new word</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. speed</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. similar sound</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results and Analysis
The following was the result of the questionnaire of the three classes (see table 2). Figure 1 was the histogram of the average scores of the six items on the input effectiveness among the three types of class, and Figure 2, was the two items on the autonomous inner processing effectiveness, and Figure 3 was the two items on the affective shielding barriers.

Table 2. The Result of the Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Input Effectiveness M (SD)</th>
<th>Autonomous Inner Processing Effectiveness M (SD)</th>
<th>Affective Shielding Barriers M (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>3.36 (0.67)</td>
<td>3.06 (0.66)</td>
<td>2.19 (0.60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>3.65 (0.73)</td>
<td>3.18 (0.82)</td>
<td>2.74 (0.96)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>3.29 (0.78)</td>
<td>3.28 (0.95)</td>
<td>2.78 (0.92)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Result of the Average Scores of the Six Items on the Input Effectiveness among the Three Classes
A one-way ANOVA test showed that there was no significant class difference on the input effectiveness condition ($F(2, 90) = 2.21$, $p > 0.05$), however, a post hoc test indicated that there was a significant difference between Class B and C ($p < 0.05$). On the autonomous inner processing effectiveness condition, the ANOVA test showed that there was no significant class difference ($F(2, 90) = 0.42$, $p > 0.05$), and the post hoc test showed no differences between classes ($p > 0.05$). On the affective shielding barriers condition, the ANOVA test showed that there was no significantly class difference ($F(2, 90) = 2.84$, $p > 0.05$), however, a post hoc test indicated that there was a significant difference between Class A and B, Class A and C ($ps < 0.05$).

As can be seen from the above, when considering the input effectiveness, the figures showed that students from Class C had more difficulties in these items, compared to Class B. When considering the affective shielding barriers, for the item rejecting doing listening exercises, students from Class A had more difficulties compared to Class B, but have fewer difficulties compared to Class C; for the item having no confidence, students in Class A had more difficulties compared to Class B and C.

The second part was not a must-do-to question. And the results translated into English done by the author were as follows: Since the students in Class A got higher marks in their college English entrance exam, they have fewer problems in listening. One student thought that sometimes there might be too much information obtained from the listening and it was difficult to identify the key information; another thought that accents from the listening made the understanding become more difficult.

In Class B, although the students were not chosen by their English marks, since this was a bilingual class, their marks were slightly higher than the ordinary class. One student thought that sometimes he/she could understand nothing about the listening, when another thought that he/she feared a lot about the listening.

In Class C, two students thought that they could hear the pronunciation clearly but could not recall the words; two thought that they needed more time to react to understand; and two wrote that they could not focus on taking notes. For the others, the answers varied from too many new words and proper nouns in the news, to totally being unable to understand the whole passage, having got the rough idea of the passage but knowing very little about the details, having got some words but unable to understand the whole sentence or even the whole passage, having difficulties in understanding some proper nouns, to seeming like having
got the information but unable to finish the exercises successfully, to trying to translate the listening into Chinese in their mind so that it seems very difficult to take down important notes.

The above results indicated the answers to the research question fell in mainly three parts, non-English majors having listening comprehension obstacles in input ineffectiveness, autonomous inner processing ineffectiveness, and in affective shielding barriers.

Implications and Conclusion
Based on the questionnaire, combined with the students’ class performance, we proposed that enhancing students’ learning ability was very important. It was difficult to learn a foreign language in adulthood. Although many Chinese started to learn English in primary school, not many of them could learn it well. And learning is quite differed from acquiring. However, we teachers could still do something to help the students improve their English listening levels by first improving their learning abilities.

In order to make improvements on the learning ability, both the teacher and the student should focus on autonomous learning ability to improve the classroom learning effectiveness. In addition, affective experience should be another focus. When the critical thinking ability is improved, the students might have more interest in the language itself so that they might be more eager to cooperate with others and study in a more effective way.

Specifically, corresponding countermeasures could be taken to improve students’ English listening learning ability, such as some learning strategies. With Krashen’s second language acquisition theory, we considered that the following strategies could be emphasized in class. These strategies were mainly divided into three aspects: relating to the input effectiveness, the autonomous inner processing effectiveness, and the affective anti-shielding barriers.

Strategies on the Input Effectiveness
Students could be told to be well aware of the expected listening tasks and/or propose appropriate listening strategies. Before they start the listening tasks, they should concentrate first. When they are doing the listening, they should get familiar with the accent of the characters in the recording for a very short period, which means that they should pay more attention to pronunciation skills at ordinary times. Then, try to judge the meaning according to his or her pronunciation, intonation and stress. After the listening, the students may write down the new words and look them up in the dictionary so as to expand their vocabulary. Then in the future listening, they may apply these new words, phrases and grammar to help them understand the content.

Strategies on the Autonomous Inner Processing Effectiveness
Predictions on the main idea of the listening materials should be made beforehand, and brave assumptions could be made based on the previous information heard and background knowledge in mind. Some information-related words or phrases or contents should be noticed during the listening, such as who, what, when, where and how. When the listening task begins, the students may check which part of the listening they did not understand. After every listening, the students should evaluate how much they understood and which they did not.

Strategies on the Affective Anti-Shielding Barriers
Before the listening, the students may ask themselves to make progress this time. During the listening, the students should realize their carelessness and mistakes and try to correct them. After the listening,
Reflections on one’s own problems should be thought about carefully, such as the key areas that they did not understand and keep in mind that it is acceptable to make mistakes. They should try to stay calm, not be nervous and be confident in understanding the full text of the listening by keeping talking to themselves and encourage themselves to listen well next time.

To sum up, the study put forward the idea that our teaching related to listening could be based on Krashen’s Second Language Acquisition Theory. According to the theory, learning a language is a conscious process. Krashen’s monitoring theory reflects the inner relations between language acquisition and learning, indicating that learning ability and learning strategies are important, as well as critical thinking. In order to meld these theories into practical teaching, this study involved the newer teaching method reform, the PAD Class that focuses on the autonomous learning and critical thinking, and the meta-thinking theory as well as the meta-cognition theory that focuses on learning strategies. Some progress had been seen after one semester’s teaching, according to the students’ final grades and their feedback. The combination of Krashen’s theory, learning strategies and this new teaching method was an innovation to both the teacher and the students.

Acknowledgements
This research was financially supported by the Key Program of the English Language and Literature of Guangdong Province, 2016 (GDTX170109). It was also part of the research of Higher Education Research and Reform Project of Guangdong Province, 2018, “Research on Cultivating Thinking Characteristics and Strategies of College English Listening Autonomous Learning”; the research of Higher Education Research and Reform Project of Guangdong Province, 2017, “A Practical Research of the PAD Class Pattern in the College English Extended Courses”; and the project “The Cultivation and Application of Critical Thinking by Using PAD Teaching Method” (2018JXCG06).

References
A Study on Constructing a Teaching Model for ESP Courses
from SCT Perspective

Yumei Wu
College English Department, South China Business College
Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China
Email: athenayumei.wu82@foxmail.com

[Abstract] In the age of globalization, English for Special Purposes (ESP) courses have become part of the College English system. As a theory on the development of advanced mental functions, sociocultural theory has been widely applied in second language acquisition. According to the orientation and teaching content of ESP, sociocultural theory has a leading role in the effective teaching of ESP courses. This study probes into the core of SCT and its activity system, constructing a teaching model for ESP courses after analyzing the result of a survey among ESP learners. Holding practical teaching purposes, the activity-oriented teaching model, a newly tried model, will be illustrated in a deep sense, making second language acquisition happen in ESP courses with the aim to improve the teaching effect of ESP courses.

[Keywords] sociocultural theory; second language acquisition; English for Special Purposes; activity; mediation

Introduction

The latest version of the Guidelines on College English Teaching specifies that English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses are a necessary part of the College English system, and they are serving with instrumental function (The National Foreign Languages Teaching Advisory Board, 2017). ESP courses, such as Business English, Tourism English, Marketing English and Convention and Exhibition English, when in the process of course design, are faced with learners’ practical needs. In other words, ESP courses, which have been set as an indispensable part of the College English system, should be designed with specific aims that can be traced in real life. In this sense, teaching of the ESP courses should cover the knowledge and skills not only for the English language but also for solving real life problems. Thus, preparation for teaching ESP courses should take into consideration the factors including the analysis of the core language and students’ learning needs.

Sociocultural Theory (SCT), which has always been defined by different scholars from diverse perspectives, originates from the cultural-historical theory, which was proposed by the Russian psychologist, Vygotsky at the beginning of the 20th century. Since the 1980s, SCT has been widely applied in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). The study of SLA in the SCT framework was initiated by Frawley and Lantolf (1985). Lantolf (2007) laid the framework for the study in SLA from the perspective of SCT and the study in this field has attracted great attention overseas. However, the number of papers done by Chinese scholars and researchers is still far smaller (Qin, 2017). At the same time, teaching of ESP courses, which have been part of second language (L2) learning, is still an area to be further explored. With the consideration of the social and cognitive nature in both SCT and ESP courses, this study is trying to set up a model for teaching ESP courses guided by SCT. In this paper, a survey on students’ needs for learning ESP courses will be conducted with relevant theories elaborated at the first place. Then, a teaching mode for ESP courses will be presented following the analysis of the findings from the survey.
Theoretical Framework

Being social and cultural are the basic points of Sociocultural Theory (SCT), whose core concept is that human mental functioning is mediated by cultural artifacts (Lantolf, 2006; Ratner, 2002). That is to say, we human beings utilize the tools, such as languages and networks, which are provided by a social and cultural background, to mediate a relationship between each other and to facilitate mental development. SCT argues that this developmental process takes place in in cultural, linguistic and historically formed settings, like families, peer group interaction, workplaces and schooling, and the most important forms of human cognitive activity develop through interaction within these social and material environments (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). It is not difficult to see that leading to the result of human cognitive development, the use of languages, which are part of culture as well as the cultural product, is one of the primary means in the mediated process. According to Halliday and Vygotsky, languages are “a cultural tool that has been developed and refined in the service of social action and interaction” (Wells, 1994, p. 49). From their perspective, language is powerful as a semiotic tool encoding the cultural experience and enabling its group of people to communicate with each other so as to coordinate their behavior and activities (Wells, 1994, p. 72). Languages, then, shall be studied against the background of social events. As existing cultural artifacts, languages can also help create new activities, concepts and artifacts to regulate human biological and behavioral activities. Language learning, as claimed by SCT, is thus, a socially mediated process.

As is defined by Lantolf and Thorne (2006, p. 79), mediation is “the process through which humans deploy culturally constructed artifacts, concepts, and activities to regulate the material world or their own and each other’s social and mental activity.” It can be noticed that language takes up a dual role, being a means to accomplish social interaction and the one to manage mental activity. Put in language learning, the second language can be seen as the focus of the activity and also the cultural tool to mediate its acquisition (Ellis, 2013, p. 525). As Mitchell and Myles (2004, p. 200) emphasized, children’s language learning happens in collaborative meaning-making activities where interaction is regarded as an essential means. That is to say, language acquisition occurs in, and as a result of, the interaction that takes place between speakers (Artigal, 1992). This is also the process for acquiring L2, which cannot be accomplished without learning how to use language to mediate language learning (Swain, 2000).

In the range of SCT, theories concerning social interaction, private speech, the zone of proximal development, and internalization are supposed to work together serving the learning process of L2. From the perspective of SCT, language learning is dialogically based (Ellis, 2013, p. 526). Individuals are fundamentally social beings, being able to observe how others use language and noticing general features of the dialogic process, which can provide assistance to language learners for imitation and performing tasks. This is the functioning of scaffolding, a word from Vygotsky to refer to the assistance one language learner can get from other people, such as teachers and classmates. It reflects the general construct of interaction, the negotiation of meaning. However, learners possess experiences and cognition to a different degree, and thus the same set of general features in interaction may not be acquired by all the learners. It is at this point that dynamic assessment, which was proposed by Poehner and Lantolf (2005), can serve to diagnose learners’ problems, modifying their performance accordingly instead of applying the static measure.

Together with the theory of social interaction either in the form of scaffolding or dynamic assessment, private speech has been observed and regarded as a necessary approach to promote learners’ L2 acquisition. Ohta (2001) specified three types of private speech, including: (1) vicarious speech, which serves as a means for learners to complete the utterance of another, or to repair other’s error when testing the answer...
to a question addressed to others; (2) repetition, a way to achieve control over new words, phrases or sentences with learners repeating them; (3) manipulation, a means for learners to analyze words, sounds and structure by building up and breaking down them. Borer (2006) also held the same idea that learners would memorize words better by their own private speech.

Vygotsky’s other important notion is the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which is seen as the level of potential development. It is with the construction of the ZPDs that learners are able to make the performance of some structure possible with social assistance. To some extent, the ZPD can be in the form of an activity instead of a place (Newman & Holzman, 1997). Functioning together, social interaction and private speech in the ZPD is to achieve the effect of internalization, a process “by which a person moves from object/other regulation to self-regulation” (Ellis, 2013, p. 533). Thus, L2 learners tend to experience problems in using new linguistic forms and functions in interactions with others at the first place, and through verbal interaction, they will develop from other regulation to self-regulation, internalizing the linguistic terms to different extent. It is in this process that imitation in interaction with others and private speech becomes the key to internalization. L2 learners will observe how others use language expressions in the social world and imitate them. As Vygotsky (1986, p. 187) emphasized, to imitate is actually to help learners progress from something they know to something new.

Regarded as a unified system combining components of the SCT (Lantolf, 2000), the activity system brought up by the activity theory comprises the subjects, the object of the activity, the mediation means, the context for performing actions in the activity, the rules that are understood by subjects and the division of the labors shared among subjects. However, when accomplishing the same activity, learners may not do it in the same way if with different motives, which will determine their response to a task (Leontiev, 1981).

Language learning is a social activity in nature, and thus, L2 learning is supposed to be conducted socially in a cultural context. As the case in point, ESP courses feature the language application in typical special contexts and the language forms that are supposed to be used in learners’ target contexts (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Apparently, contexts related to ESP learning are those that can be found in society, and therefore the teaching of ESP courses can be conducted within the framework based on SCT. Specifically speaking, it is the activity system underpinned by SCT that shall be adopted for ESP teaching.

**Methodology**

This paper is to work out a teaching model for ESP courses in the framework with components of the activity system. To set up the model, a survey on students’ motives and satisfaction on the teaching of ESP courses will be conducted. Totally, 352 students took part in the survey. They started their College English learning in 2017, and they had passed CET 4 before choosing their ESP courses in 2018. They were asked to finish a questionnaire right after they finished the ESP courses.

Referring to the survey conducted by Qin (2017) on the status quo of students’ College English learning, this questionnaire was designed to look into students’ specific motives and expectations on the ESP courses, shedding light on the foundation for the course teaching that follows the activity theory. Specifically, questions in the questionnaire were in the form of multiple choices asking students about their motivation to choose the course, their expectation and satisfaction on the courses in terms of the content. Several open questions were also designed to ask students to provide information about the cases when English was or will be used in their workplaces.
To make the questions workable, the questionnaire was trialed on a couple of respondents and modified before being sent out to all the subjects in the survey. The questionnaire was designed on “Wen Juan Xing”, an online platform for questionnaire design, and it was sent to the subjects through WeChat.

**Findings**

There were 352 ESP course learners taking part in the survey with all the questionnaires being effective for no respondent could submit the online questionnaire if he answered the questions without following the directions. According to their response in the survey, most of the subjects (72.22%) chose the ESP courses because they regarded them useful either for their part-time jobs, internship, and future jobs (37.5%), or for their major study (34.72%). There were 58.33% respondents that were holding interests in the courses they chose. One thing should be mentioned, most learners were likely to choose more than one reason for their choices, and their motives were inclined to be practical.

Table 1. *The Response to the Question about Reasons for Choosing the ESP Courses*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for taking the ESP courses</th>
<th>Percentage of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>For interests</td>
<td>58.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being useful for part-time jobs, internship, and future jobs</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>For taking the credits only</td>
<td>16.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being useful for my major study</td>
<td>34.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other reasons</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked about opinions on classroom teaching, as the result shows, 65.28% students were satisfied with the teaching methods adopted by their teachers. With similar data in the survey, the course content was deemed to be meeting their expectation by 68.06% respondents. Negative answers to these two questions were given for the reasons focusing on the issues of (1) providing insufficient chances to communicate in class, (2) lacking updated information in terms of the course content, (3) knowledge and skills taught in class lacking close connection with the corresponding real life cases, (4) course content being of little help when in face of practical situation, and (5) course content being of little use for further development. As for students’ expectation on part-time jobs, apprenticeship, or full-time jobs, 31.94% students will not consider taking jobs that have a requirement on English use.

Table 2. *The Response to the Question about Satisfaction Towards ESP Classroom Teaching*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction towards teachers’ teaching methods</th>
<th>Percentage of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>65.28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsatisfactory</td>
<td>34.72%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.*The Response to the Question about the Teaching Content of the ESP Courses*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is the course content in line with your expectation?</th>
<th>Percentage of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes.</td>
<td>68.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>31.94%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In a more specific way, answers to the open questions were designed to look into the practical cases students have ever met when English was in use or they would be going to meet. Answers to these questions revealed that English skills in communication through emails, negotiation, daily conversation in workplace, and applying professional terms are in a great demand. To specify that English skills are needed in real life, respondents listed detailed cases in point. According to their experiences and expectations, English expressions and conversations, which are supposed to be used for product introduction, doing presentation, providing services in different fields such as banking and catering, conducting business negotiation, and communicating with foreigners, just to name a few, are of great help and usefulness. From this perspective, the practical nature of the ESP courses should not be ignored.

Discussion
The result of the survey conducted has revealed the expected effect of the ESP course teaching from the perspective of the subjects involved. This is in consistence with the purposes of teaching ESP courses, which has been set in *The College English Course Teaching Requirement*. It is proposed that the purpose of teaching ESP courses is to help solve the language problems existing in students’ major study and to cultivate English competence related to students’ professions so as to improve students’ communicative skills and working ability. Obviously, English, regarded as a tool, is the object to be promoted, and it is also a means to mediate students’ behavior in study and at work. Accordingly, the SCT framework is adoptable to adjust the teaching of the ESP courses. It is at this point that this paper is to bring up and illustrate the activity-oriented teaching model, a newly tried model based on the activity system developed from the SCT.

![Figure 1. The Activity-oriented Model for teaching ESP courses](image)

This model is supposed to be applied to each activity designed in the teaching process; it can also be a model for setting a task that comprises a series of activities. In the activity-oriented teaching model, according to the activity system, the necessary factors including the subjects, the object of the activities, the mediation means, the context of the activities, the rules that are understood by subjects, the division of the labor required, and together with subjects’ motive will work together to serve the classroom teaching of the ESP courses.

In the first place, the motives for learning should be transformed to be the objectives of doing the activities. The motives coming from students’ needs in their daily life and at work will then make the activity design practically oriented, interesting and attractive to the subjects. Besides, the objective cannot be set without considering students’ ZPD in order to make the objectives achievable. Once the objective
has been set, the context for doing the activity should be set and the specific division of labor in the activity can be assigned to each subject that will participate in the activity. It is at this stage that the mediation tools such as the necessary language support including the focused expressions and the conversing samples, and some written and computer-based materials that provide useful information of culture and society should be provided. With such mediation tools, students aiming to realize the practical objective will try to modify their language use by imitation and solve misunderstanding by clarifying their expressions through others’ feedback and collaboration in communication and private speech that may occur during their correction. The whole process of activity will be ended with comments and feedback from teachers or peers. It is this whole process that stimulate students’ SLA along with the development of their cognition.

Worth mentioning, the complete system of the teaching model and its follow-up operation is the guarantee for realizing the practical purposes. The teaching content of an ESP course can be arranged by a series of tasks, each of which consists of two or three activities that are supposed to be conducted in students’ learning. To have a check on the teaching effect, opportunities for students to utilize language as the mediation tools for behavior modification and communication in their study and at workplaces should be provided. Closely linking the teaching to the cases in life, this activity-oriented model, based on the SCT framework, provides ESP learners with knowledge and skills that are requisite in life, making SLA possible in the available language context and practice.

Conclusion
This paper was to work out a teaching model for ESP courses through a survey conducted among students who just took the ESP courses. Underpinned by SCT, the activity-oriented teaching model has been brought up with practical teaching objectives, holding the aim of improving learners’ use of English, the second language, in their major study and jobs. To fully implement such a model to serve the teaching objectives and promote the learning effects, ESP teachers are supposed to upgrade their knowledge in both the professional knowledge and practical skills, grasping learners’ status quo and their needs, and finally improving their practical language skills in real life cases.

Acknowledgement
This paper was supported and funded by The Research and Practice of the ESP Course Teaching Model Based on Cognitive Needs in the Application-oriented Higher Institutes, the Teaching Reform Project of Higher Education in Guangdong Province in 2017 (No. 173 in the official letter [2018. No. 1] from the Department of Education of Guangdong Province); The Research on MOOC-based Blended Teaching Model for College English Development Courses, the Teaching Reform Project of Higher Education in Guangdong Province in 2016 (Grant No. GDJG201602); the college research team “Education for International Understanding Research Team”; A Study on the Construction and Practice of the ESP Course Teaching Model in Application-oriented Universities, the 2018 Training Programme of the Teaching Achievement Award in South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (No. 2018JXCG07); A Study on the System and Practicing Model of College English Extra-curricular Activities, the 2018 Training Programme of the Teaching Achievement Award in South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (No. 2018JXCG08); the college teaching research team “College English Extensive Course Teaching Team” in South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (No. 2019JXTD06).
References


The Study and Application of Lexical Strategy in College English Writing under the Perspective of China’s Standards of English Language Ability

Song Canhua
South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China
Email: 47995320@qq.com

[Abstract] Writing ability is a comprehensive reflection of L2 learners’ language level. In the evaluation criteria of writing quality and writing level, lexical strategy has always played an important role. However, due to various reasons, lexical strategy, such as the breadth and depth of vocabulary, is often absent in college English writing, which seriously hinders the further improvement of college English writing ability. Based on the requirement of college writing ability in China’s Standards of English Language Ability and Krashen’s Second Language Acquisition theory, this paper analyzes the reasons for the lack of lexical strategy in college English writing, and proposes the feasible measures for effective input of lexical strategy in writing, aiming at improving the consciousness and input of lexical strategy in college English writing and contributing to the promotion of writing level.

[Keywords] China’s Standards of English Language Ability; college English writing; lexical strategy; promotion of writing level

Introduction
As an important part of the five basic skills in English learning, including listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation, writing is a comprehensive ability to reflect the actual language level of English learners. In addition, writing is an important part of various English tests at home and abroad. Among the standards of evaluating writing ability, lexical strategy often constitutes one of the main aspects. Taking IELTS, a widely accepted English language testing system, as an example, “lexical resource” is one of the four major scoring standards. According to the description, in order to achieve the score of 7 points, it is required to achieve the standard of “uses a sufficient range of vocabulary to allow some flexibility and precision” and “uses less common lexical items with some awareness of style and collocation”.

China’s Standards of English Language Ability issued in June 2018 (Ministry of Education of PRC, 2018) classifies the English learners’ language ability into three stages of “basis, improvement and proficiency” and nine levels, which give a comprehensive and detailed introduction to the requirements corresponding to different levels, and “provide a scientific, effective, and coherent goal description for English learners with different learning objectives in various educational stages or school ages in China” (Liu, 2017). Concerning the levels of 5-7 which correspond to the college English ability, the Standards specifically describes the requirements of the applying lexical strategy in writing, such as “Can paraphrase to enrich his/her choice of words”. (Table 48, Writing expression strategies), and “Can elaborate on abstract topics, using complex sentences, along with a variety of cohesive devices, to construct clear and convincing explanations” (Table 5 Overall written expression). As for the roles of lexical level in writing, some scholars believe that the level of English vocabulary is the most important factor affecting English writing ability and it directly determines the length of English writing, richness of content, and the sufficiency of thematic ideas (Ma, & Wen, 1999). Moreover, some researches prove that the use of low-frequency words in writing can increase the diversity of vocabulary and thus improve the quality of writing (Laufer, & Nation, 1995). However, in college English writing, students tend to prefer simple high-frequency vocabulary mainly
The Causes of Lexical Strategy Deficiency in College English Writing

The use of lexical strategy in second language writing is a process involving consciousness, input and output. Based on Krashen’s Second Language Acquisition theory, namely Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, Natural Order Hypothesis, Monitor Hypothesis, Input Hypothesis and Affective Filter Hypothesis, the lack of lexical strategy in college English writing is caused by various reasons, including the negative transfer of high-frequency vocabulary, learners’ avoidance of lexical strategy, and neglect of vocabulary input by some teaching methods.

The Negative Transfer of High-frequency Vocabulary

Transfer in language learning refers to the influence of one learning on another, while negative transfer refers to the negative impact of one learning on another. According to Krashen’s Natural Order Hypothesis, learners have a certain natural order in their language learning (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 2000). In the process of English vocabulary acquisition, learners experience the lexical acquisition of the high-frequency vocabulary in primary and secondary schools, and then the low-frequency vocabulary in college. In vocabulary selection, they naturally prefer to use high-frequency vocabulary and avoid low-frequency vocabulary, thus causing the negative transfer of high-frequency vocabulary to low-frequency advanced vocabulary in writing. In college English writing, this is manifested in the following way: when students choose words to make sentences, they tend to think of and use the basic vocabulary acquired from the English study in primary and secondary schools, and the limited basic vocabulary is repeated in different writing tasks, while the advanced vocabulary learned in college English is discarded. Influenced by the negative transfer of high-frequency vocabulary, college students’ English writing ability only stays at the stage centered on the application of basic vocabulary, resulting in fossilization of writing ability and eventually hindering the promotion of English writing ability.

Learners’ Avoidance of Lexical Strategy

Avoidance in language learning means that when speaking and writing in a second language, users often avoid relatively unfamiliar words and sentence structures, but choose those relatively simple or familiar (Richards, Platt, & Kendricks, 2000). Influenced by the examination-oriented education in primary and secondary schools, some learners are cautious in choosing words and sentence structures and try to avoid using relatively unfamiliar new vocabulary, in order to avoid losing points in English writing tests due to errors in vocabulary usage. Even when entering the stage of college English learning, some learners still hesitate to try new vocabulary, but try to complete the writing tasks with the simplest and most familiar vocabulary, which contributes to the lack of advanced vocabulary in college English writing. This evasive psychology leads to the lack of motivation for learners to use newly learned advanced vocabulary in writing, thus affecting the further improvement of writing level.

Neglect of Vocabulary Input by Some Teaching Methods

Krashen’s Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis holds that there are two obvious ways to develop language proficiency, namely, learning and acquisition. The so-called learning refers to consciously acquiring
language knowledge, understanding and knowing grammar and language rules. Acquisition is the ability to acquire language unconsciously in a natural way through the understanding and use of language. In language learning, listening and speaking ability is mainly acquired, while reading and writing ability is mainly learned. Therefore, it is necessary to consciously cultivate learners’ reading and writing ability in language teaching. However, in today’s college English teaching, discourse teaching approach and communicative teaching approach are widely adopted. Under the influence of these teaching methods, some teachers place too much emphasis on the macro-perspective discourse analysis of English texts or over-emphasize the cultivation of students’ listening and speaking abilities, ignoring or even skipping the teaching and practice of vocabulary, which greatly reduces the importance of vocabulary as the basis of language. As a consequence, the vocabulary quality of students makes no progress in terms of breadth and depth, so that the writing level is not improved.

The Cultivation and Measures of Lexical Strategy in College English Writing
The promotion of vocabulary strategies in second language writing requires two aspects: cultivating learners’ consciousness of lexical strategy in writing and strengthening the input of advanced vocabulary.

Cultivate Learners’ Consciousness of Lexical Strategies
From the view of Krashen, when using a second language, learners often unconsciously pay attention to whether their language is correct (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 2000). This kind of “attention” is the process of monitoring. According to the level of monitoring, Krashen classifies learners into three categories: those who have too much monitoring, those who have not enough monitoring and those who have reasonable monitoring. Among them, reasonable monitoring is the goal of second language learning, which is reflected as follows: to draw up an outline before oral expression or to prepare a manuscript before writing, and to modify it as much as possible in writing or prepared speech to improve the quality. Therefore, based on the Monitor Hypothesis, learners need to monitor themselves in writing, consciously use vocabulary strategy, and purposefully choose advanced vocabulary so as to improve the quality of writing. In college English writing, students need to actively restrain themselves, reduce their dependence on basic vocabulary acquired in primary and secondary schools, break through the inertia of choosing the fixed vocabulary with a certain meaning, avoid the fossilization of vocabulary, and strengthen the awareness of choosing advanced vocabulary in writing.

On the other hand, according to Krashen’s Affective Filter Hypothesis, affective factors play a role in filtering language input, thereby hindering or accelerating the acquisition of language (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 2000). The affective factors that influence learners include learning motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Only under the best emotional conditions can learners achieve effective acquisition. Although some learners have accumulated a wealth of advanced vocabulary, they lack the motivation to try them in writing for fear of making mistakes. Therefore, based on the Affective Filter Hypothesis, in college English writing, teachers need to adopt incentive mechanism to stimulate students’ internal drive to improve their writing level, develop a sense of lexical strategy, build up students’ confidence in the correct use of advanced vocabulary, ensure students’ moderate anxiety about the use of advanced vocabulary, and thus ensure the active use of lexical strategy in college English writing.

Integrating classic literature works into the teaching of college English writing is a way to cultivate learners’ consciousness of lexical strategies. With rich and colorful vocabulary and flexible sentence patterns, classic literature works enable readers to have visual aesthetic feeling and spiritual artistic
enjoyment in reading, which thus helps to create the best emotional conditions, stimulate learners' awareness of lexical strategies and motivation to try advanced vocabulary. For example:

“Women are supposed to be very calm generally: but women feel just as men feel; they need exercise for their faculties, and a field for their efforts as much as their brothers do; they suffer from too rigid a restraint, too absolute a stagnation, precisely as men would suffer; and it is narrow-minded in their more privileged fellow-creatures to say that they ought to confine themselves to making puddings and knitting stockings, to playing on the piano and embroidering bags” (Brontë, 1983).

In this short excerpt, the author purposefully employs a range of relatively formal and serious words, such as “faculties, rigid, restraint, stagnation, precisely, privileged, confine, embroider”, and also uses a series of parallelism sentences, which vividly depict the image of a woman who bravely and firmly pursues the complete equality between male and female. Under the guidance of teachers, students can appreciate the charm of lexical strategy in English writing while enjoying the impressive stories. That is, the application of lexical strategy can not only makes living stories and lively characters, but also shows the knowledgeableness and elegance of the writer. Therefore, reading and appreciating classic literature works motivate students to consciously try advanced vocabulary and sentence patterns in writing, aiming to convey their ideas with more accuracy and more stylistic consciousness, which are helpful to create the best emotional conditions, stimulate students’ internal drive to improve their writing level, and cultivate their awareness of lexical strategies.

**Strengthen the Input of Advanced Vocabulary**

Language input is an important factor in foreign language learning, so providing students with sufficient quantity and high-quality language input is a key part in foreign language teaching (He, 2002). Input Hypothesis is the core of Krashen’s second language acquisition theory. According to Input Hypothesis, language acquisition is based on understanding and language can only be acquired by absorbing comprehensible input information, which is named the i+1 mode. About the mode, i represents the learner’s existing language level, and +1 means that the input language information should contain new contents and forms, slightly higher than the learner’s existing level. Hence, according to Input Hypothesis, in the process of vocabulary input, on the one hand, teachers need to ensure the comprehensibility of input content so that new advanced vocabulary is appropriately acquired on the basis of learners’ existing vocabulary level. On the other hand, teachers should also pay attention to the comprehensibility of input methods to ensure the interest of input contents. Only in this way can the learners focus their attention on the understanding of input information, grasp its meaning and usage, and then acquire language unconsciously.

This paper takes text *The Tail of Fame* from Volume 4 of *New Horizon College English* (2nd Edition) as an example to discuss the application of i+1 mode in college English vocabulary input.

**The Comprehensible Input of Advanced Vocabulary in Vocabulary Expansion**

During the study of vocabulary from the text, teachers can design vocabulary expansion task, list the basic vocabulary from elementary and secondary schools as prompt words, and instruct students to search the vocabulary list for advanced vocabulary with the same meanings, thus achieving acquisition of new advanced vocabulary and fulfilling i+1 comprehensible input based on students’ existing knowledge of basic vocabulary. For example, on the basis of the new advanced words that will be input, teachers can list the following synonym acquired from primary and secondary school as prompt words: encourage; tempt; tiny; understate; cheating; pollute; lawyer; support; dismiss; devoted. Under the guidance of the prompt
words, students go through the vocabulary list and find the corresponding advanced expressions: spur; lure; minute; discount; fraud; contaminate; attorney; second; expel; single-minded. Based on the comprehensible prompt words, the students not only completed the vocabulary expansion task, but also acquaint themselves with the meaning and usage of the newly input advanced vocabulary, and so acquired the language unconsciously.

**The Comprehensible Input of Advanced Vocabulary in Text Learning**

In the text study, teachers can design some reading task, under the guidance of which students browse the text and search for English expressions corresponding to the prompt Chinese phrases and sentence patterns. With the Chinese prompts, students can find the corresponding English expression, such as: “ride on the express elevator to the top; flavor of the month; exploit one’s talent; be hard-pressed to do; make minute changes to; lose one’s favor; remain true to oneself; takes sb. out of mind; sb. find comfort in thinking that”. Therefore, while completing the reading task, students can grasp the new advanced English expressions based on the comprehensible Chinese prompts, thus achieving the comprehensible input of advanced vocabulary.

**Conclusion**

Writing is an important aspect of English language skills. However, the lack of lexical strategy, such as the deficiency of vocabulary in diversity and complexity, often appears in college English writing, which affects the improvement of college English writing ability. Levels 5-7 of *China’s Standards of English Language Ability* correspond to the English levels that college students should achieve, with a clear description of the application of lexical strategy in writing skills. Echoing the requirements of the *Standards* for lexical strategy in college English writing and based on Krashen's five hypotheses, this paper analyzes the reasons for the lack of lexical strategy in college English writing, and puts forward feasible measures for effective input of lexical strategy, thus contributing to improving the awareness and input of lexical strategy and promoting college English writing.

**Acknowledgement**

This research was sponsored by Guangdong Provincial Young Innovative Talents Project – Exploration and Practice of Cultivating Critical Thinking Ability in College English Writing Teaching in Application-oriented Universities (Grant No. 2017WQNCX204), and also sponsored by The School-level Quality Engineering Construction Project of South China Business College Guangdong University of Foreign Studies – The Study and Application of Lexical Strategy in College English Writing Based on *China’s Standards of English Language Ability* (Grant No. 2019JG26)

**References**


Construction of Scaffolding Instruction for Writing Based on AEW System from the Perspective of Sociocultural Theory

Lin Baoling

Guangdong University of Foreign Studies South China Business College, Guangzhou, China
Email: 172011815@qq.com

[Abstract] Automated writing evaluation is widely used in English writing teaching. In order to obtain a better teaching effect, the paper intends to construct the teacher scaffolding and peer evaluation scaffolding from the perspective of sociocultural theory based on the Juku AWE system to motivate students’ confidence and interest in writing. The teacher scaffolding is carried out in pre-writing and post-writing sections. Peer evaluation scaffolding is implemented through the Juku AWE system.

[Keywords] sociocultural theory; scaffolding; peer evaluation

Introduction
Writing skill is regarded as one of the four basic skills for English learning and is an important part for English teaching. However, many college English teachers have been caught in such a dilemma in teaching writing: it is difficult for them to find effective ways to instruct English writing. Although they have spent a lot of time guiding their students to practice a lot, the results are far from satisfactory. Writing teaching is still time-consuming and less effective for many college English teachers due to too many students in one class. The teachers have so many teaching tasks that they do not possess enough time and energy to correct every student's composition in detail, not to mention enough time to provide immediate feedback to students, which dispels students’ writing enthusiasm to some degree. But now the situation is changing. With the development of computer and corpus linguistic, Automated Writing Evaluation (AWE) has emerged. Many studies have proved the effectiveness of AWE (Keith, 2003; Weigle, 2010). Nowadays, many teachers are putting the AWE system widely into use in college English writing teaching. This system provides a convenient way of writing and correcting, which saves a lot of time for the teacher and is effective for students. The most widely used AWE system in China is the Juku AWE system.

Based on corpus and cloud computing, the Juku AWE system was put into online use in June, 2010. Since then, many colleges and universities have applied the Juku AWE system into college English writing according to the introduction on Juku AWE system from Baidu (available from https://baike.baidu.com). It is an intelligent system, aiming to provide online scoring and comments on English essays. This system has the advantages of instant scoring, automated correction, and specific comments sentence-by-sentence. In the process of writing, students can click the “continue to improve”, to modify their compositions many times. In addition, there are the functions of teacher feedback and peer feedback, which greatly reduces the teachers’ burden and mobilizes students’ autonomous writing enthusiasm. The Juku AWE creates a convenient and effective writing training environment for students by giving instant online feedback on vocabulary, sentence, structure and content through analyzing students’ writing data. In recent years, many scholars have focused research on the application of the Juku AWE system into college English writing teaching. The studies indicate that the system can enhance students’ writing competence and stimulates their autonomous writing enthusiasm. It is an effective method for improving the existing teaching mode
of English writing. But there are some shortcomings for this system. It cannot provide effective feedback on the writing’s structure, content or essay logic. In order to reach good teaching effect, the system online feedback needs to combine with the teachers’ feedback and peers’ feedback. Based on these researches, this paper tries to construct teacher scaffolding and peer evaluation scaffolding based on sociocultural theory perspective to improve the effect of the application of the Juku AWE system in college English writing teaching.

Sociocultural Theory and Scaffolding Instruction
According to the Sociocultural Theory (SCT), the individual studies under the background of history, society and culture. When the individual participates in social activities, he fulfills the internalization of the meaning through the communication between the internal and the external (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 85). Hence, social communication plays a crucial role in the process of cognitive development. As for language learning, language itself is a social construction, and it has both constructivist and social characteristics.

Sociocultural Theory
The essence of Sociocultural Theory (SCT) on language learning is that acquisition occurs in interactive social contexts where learners can participate and are assisted by experts. Language learning is regarded as social process involving interaction and negotiation. There is a Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) between the learners’ actual development level that has already formed and a potential development level. ZPD is the distance between the actual development level that has already formed, and a potential development level determined by problem solving under the guidance of other co-learners. Vygotsky’s theory of “zone of proximal development” closely connects the individual and the society, teaching and development, the external and the internal, the present and the future, and highlights the sociality of cognitive development, the diversity of developing directions, the promotion of teaching, the guidance of teachers, and the importance of cooperative learning (Wan, 2019).

Scaffolding Instruction
On the basis of the ZPD theory, Bruner (1976) propounded the theory of Scaffolding Instruction, another essential notion in SCT. “Scaffold”, originally referring to frame work used in the construction industry, is a figure of speech used to describe a teaching mode: students are regarded as a building, their “learning” is a process of constantly and actively constructing themselves; teachers’ “teaching” is a necessary scaffolding to support students to constantly construct themselves and create new skills. Scaffolding Instruction is defined as scaffolding instruction is used to help learners construct the understanding of knowledge by providing a conceptual framework, in which the concepts are necessary for learners to develop further understanding of problems, and thus to decompose complicated learning tasks, in order to gradually deepen the learners’ understanding. Scaffolding instruction emphasizes the “zone of proximal development” as the space time of teachers’ intervention (Wan, 2019). Through the scaffolding provided by teachers, the students could develop from the actual development level through the ZPD to the potential development level. Scaffolding emphasizes that the guided support should consider learners’ needs and be conducted in interactive ways in which learners can participate. As an important form of communication, scaffolding is the key factor to facilitate learning, which is closely related to the ZPD. Scaffolding can be the cooperation between experts (teachers) and novice (students) or the interaction among peers.
For the learners, both teachers and peers could provide the “scaffolding” which is a little bit more difficult than learners’ actual level through supportive communication. The effective scaffolding could inspire learners’ interesting, standardize the learning task and make it easier to operate. Scaffolding instruction requires the teacher or the peers to have good understanding on learners’ situation so that they can make a better plan to help the learners, giving instant feedback to learners during the process and reducing the learners’ frustrations in learning. Scaffolding instruction tries to explore the essential characteristics and diversity by combining the social element with cultural element, which is significant for second language teaching.

Scholars in China studied the application of scaffolding instruction in teaching from different aspects, covering speaking, reading, translation and writing. Peng Yuanlin (2008) applied scaffolding instruction into the E-learning environment in English teaching. In her study, the teacher is more like a coach, tutor and a helper to support students to experience and participate in the activities. Zhang Jing (2014) made an empirical research on teaching reading by scaffolding instruction, which proved that teaching reading by scaffolding instruction is better than traditional teaching model. In the field of college English writing teaching, Shao Chunyan (2016) proposed a multi-role participation model of teaching writing to English majors based on the sociocultural theory and findings in the field of L2 writing. Shao’s teaching model emphasized the agentive role of students in writing and created a series of classroom social activities to facilitate students' multi-role participation as thinker, writers, editors, readers and judges in the writing process. Luo Sha (2016) implemented scaffolded peer evaluation in MOOC, intending to construct a scaffolded peer evaluation mechanism to promote supportive dialogic communication in learning evaluation, to develop learners' learning and evaluative ability through the case of evaluating foreign language writing assignments in College English Reading MOOC. Li Hong-jie (2019) studied the construction of teacher’s scaffolding in English Writing based on the summary of the relevant literature and the nature of scaffolding, discussing the approaches to cultivate the students’ independent and critical thinking ability in writing with six steps through three links. Chang Min (2018) used scaffolding theory to guide the teaching of college English writing. She put forward that as guide and builder, the teacher would construct positive psychological support, interactive support and evaluation support for the students. Her experiment proved that this model is beneficial to the internalization and construction of knowledge for students. And it’s also good for the cultivation and improvement of students’ English writing ability. All these researches indicate that the application of scaffolding instruction could reach better learning effect for students’ English writing teaching and learning. However, no scholars study how to apply scaffolding instruction into the writing class based on Automated Writing Evaluation system, even though the Automated Writing Evaluation systems, such as Juku Automated Writing Evaluation system, are widely used in college English writing class nowadays. This paper intends to construct a new English writing class by providing teachers’ scaffolding and peer’s scaffolding for students’ writing based on Automated Writing Evaluation system.

**Scaffolding Instruction Based on AWE System**

Scaffolding instruction teaching is the nuclear teaching model in sociocultural theory, which attaches great importance to students’ learning process. In this teaching model, learners, teacher and collaborative members (peers) are involved in writing. The interactive between learners and teacher as well as the interactive between learners and collaborative members are necessary and important (Li, Wu, & Liu, 2015). Teachers not only correct mistakes, but also are the guide, the instructor in scaffolding instruction teaching,
building “scaffolding” for the students by helping students to have a better understanding of the writing task and giving feedback to students. And for the students, in this interactive writing process, they are learners, the information source, playing the role of the teacher and reviewer in turn by providing the peer evaluation.

**Teacher’s Scaffolding Instruction**

Based on the Juku AEW system, there are two important sections for constructing teacher’s scaffolding in writing class: pre-writing and post-writing. Before the writing, teacher helps to lead in the topic situation and guide the students to have a better understanding about the writing task. And when students finish their writing, teacher would give feedback to them on the writing platform or give the face to face feedback in class. More importantly, teacher would analyze the data provided by the Juku AEW system to have comprehensive understanding on students’ weakness in writing and give specific instruction in class. The function of teacher’s scaffolding is presented in the two sections, which is critical to improve students writing. In order to present the idea more clearly, the paper here takes the writing task “social media” for example to illustrate how the teacher builds scaffolding for students.

**Pre-writing.** Teacher needs to build the scaffolding instruction according to the theory of Zone of Proximal Development. The writing task design needs to be based on the students’ actual language ability. The teacher provides learning scaffolding to the students according to the writing topic: topic related expressions or sentence patterns for presenting advantages or disadvantages. Before the writing practice on the Juku AEW system, the teacher would organize a lead-in activity on the topic “social media” in class. In the class, at the beginning, students discuss together about the types of social media in our life by brainstorming. During the process, the related expressions are input to students. After that, teacher would present two videos about the changes on our life by social media to students. Students are required to have a group discussion about the influence of social media on our life and make an oral report in class. In this way, a lot of topic-related expressions and sentences patterns are presented; opinions and ideas are exchanged among students and teacher. Later, students are required to finish the writing task – “Advantages and Disadvantages of Social Media” on the Juku AEW system. All of these activities are the learning “scaffolding” that are actually provided by teacher, which are helpful for students’ online writing. It would be much easier for students to deal with their writing task by the “scaffolding”.

**Post-writing.** After the students are finished with their writing, the teacher can get their writing data through the Juku AEW system. Students’ writing performance will be presented completely in front of the teacher, for example, scores, revision times, grammar problems, repetition rates, copy or not, and feedback to peers. The teacher would have comprehensive understanding about the students’ performance through the system. Students’ attitudes and efforts are seen through the data. The teacher needs to analyze the big data to get each student’s small data about writing and form specific feedback for each student. Most importantly, teacher needs to deal with students’ common grammar problems by giving lecture in class, reminding students to avoid similar mistakes so that to improve students’ writing in general. According to teacher’s feedbacks, students need to revise their writings again on the writing platform. Teacher’ post-writing feedbacks is the exact scaffolding for the students’ very next writing.

**Peer Evaluation Scaffolding**

Peer evaluation is an activity that students improve their writing through getting and giving feedbacks to each other. As a form of collaborative learning, peer evaluation has been put into practice in second
language writing teaching for many years. It is effective in promoting learners’ learning and is easier to be accepted (Liu, 2018). From the perspective of sociocultural theory, peer evaluation is regarded as a conversation among learners. For learners, it is a process of building scaffolding for each other. It helps to motivate learners’ interest in writing and form positive influence on students’ critical thinking. Peer feedback is the supplement to teacher feedback. And to some degree, it is more effective than teacher feedback. Scaffolded peer evaluation is much more efficient through the Juku AEW system. Students can use online writing system anywhere anytime. Once the teachers or the partners submit in their feedbacks, students can read them immediately on the system.

Scaffolded peer evaluation cannot be carried out without the help of the teacher at the beginning. Before applying the peer evaluation scaffolding, training students about how to implement online peer evaluations is necessary. Firstly, the teacher needs to introduce the concept and benefits of online peer evaluation. Next, the teacher needs to introduce the function of peer evaluations of the Juku AWE system and teach the students how to use the function. Thirdly, teacher guides the students to log on the online system to read peers’ writing assigned by teachers and give feedback to each other. For one semester, students have to finish 6 writing tasks and peer evaluations tasks on the online writing system. The students have to submit the writing tasks within the deadline. The peer evaluations section is designed to begin after all the students have finished their writing. Then, the system will delegate one peer evaluation task to each student at random. Students need to finish the peer evaluation within the setting time by teacher. The feedback they give to peers can be general comments, or specific revision suggestions on the language, grammar and structure. If the peer’s writing is excellent, they can recommend the writing to the whole class. It will be a great honor for student to be the recommended one. After receiving the peer feedback, students need to read the feedback carefully and make some revisions. The students have to submit their writing again after revising their writing. The whole process is operated through the Juku AEW system that is convenient for teacher to monitor the data.

The following chart illustrates the whole process clearly:

![Figure 1. Mode of Writing Process](image)

This teaching model has been applied into the author’s classes for one semester. To get feedbacks of the scaffolding instruction based on the Juku AEW system, we made a survey among the students through the questionnaire and interviews at the end of the semester. Data shows that 93% students felt that the Juku AEW system was convenient and effective. All of the students thought the teacher’s pre-writing activities were helpful and motivating. They were more confident in writing through pre-writing scaffolding provided by the teacher. There were 61% of the students who felt that the online peer evaluation was interesting and helpful and 66% of the students were willing to read peers’ writing and give their comments carefully. But
48% students felt that the feedback from peers was useless and only 53% of the students could get motivation from reading peer’s writing. All of the students considered the teacher’s feedback much more helpful and authoritative. Through the interviews, we got more specific responses from students. Some students thought reading peer’s writing helped to realize deficiencies in their writing, they got inspiration from other’s writing, and even improved their personal reading ability. Some felt challenged for the reason that they could not find any mistakes in their peers’ writing when they gave peer evaluations because of their poor English sometimes. Some students also mentioned that the function of peer evaluation on Juku AWE system needed to be improved for it only provided one peer evaluation chance for students.

**Conclusion**

Based on sociocultural theory perspective, the scaffolding instruction in writing was effective. It motivated students’ interest and built up student’s confidence in writing. Teacher’s scaffolding teaching was quite helpful for students. It promoted students’ recognition development. Peer feedback was not always effective. It was related to students’ English levels and students’ attitudes towards peer evaluation, which means learners with different language abilities and attitudes performed differently in the feedback and results. But participating peer’s writing and transforming the role from student to “teacher” were different experiences for students which made students more active in writing activity, even stimulated students’ responsibility and built up the trust among peers. It was beneficial for students. Teacher feedback integrating with peer evaluation and Juku AWE system’ feedback was the most effective way to improve students’ writing ability. However, there are still some challenges in applying the scaffolding instruction in writing class: how to guide students to give effective peer evaluation? How to improve students’ autonomous writing awareness? How to design more inspiring pre-writing activity? All these are needed to take into consideration and deepen in future teaching.

**Acknowledgement**

This research was sponsored by the college research team “Education for International Understanding Research Team”; by the provincial project granted by Foundation for Innovative Young Talents in Higher Education of Guangdong “Research on Usage-theory based Academic English Writing Construction in Privately-funded Business Colleges” (Grant No. 2018WQNCX298); by Guangdong provincial project “Research on MOOC-based Blended Teaching Model for College English Development Courses” (Grant No. GDJG201602); by Guangdong provincial project “A Study of Intercultural College English Teaching Based on Constructivism under the Background of the Belt and Road (B & R)” (Grant No. 2017GXJK245); and by college project “Construction of College English Writing model Under the Background of Big Data – Based on Juku Pigai Online Writing System” (Grant No. 2019JG28); a part of A Practical Research of the PAD of Pattern in the College Extended Courses, a Guangdong Provincial Quality Project – Teaching Research & Reform Project of Higher Education in Guangdong, 2017 (Grant No. GDJG 201701).

**References**


Academic English Writing Development Based on the Usage Theory and Project-Based Learning

He Chenghui
South China Business College of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangdong, China
Email: hechenghui980524@163.com

[Abstract] Language acquisition of usage-based theory believes that meaning is the use and structure emerges from use. From the perspective of learners’ psychological motivation and needs, the theory of use requires language learners to use English as a communicative medium to fulfill their self-interests or their own academic research needs, so as to improve their English writing proficiency. The teaching of academic English writing based on the theory of usage and project and content learning, a more communicative and practical teaching design to prompt learners to produce language, could help them actively participate in the project design, project implementation, research report writing based on their own research interests and demand. In this way, English language learning, and academic writing in particular, has been changed into a real language use, which, in turn, leads to a more meaningful language acquisition.

[Keywords] academic English writing; theory of usage; project/content-based course design

Introduction

“Meaning is the use and structure emerges from use”, Tomasello’s usage-based theory of language acquisition focuses on how children develop their language. People utilize linguistic conventions to achieve social ends (Tomasello, 2003). The distinction between the descriptive/empirical and linguistic/theoretical traditions, made in the context of L1 acquisition research, is also applicable to the study of developmental patterns in L2 acquisition (Ellis, 2013). L1 language development in a naturalistic setting might be based on the so-called unplanned language use, while L2 learners, including teenagers, and college students are more involved with planned language use, by paying the most attention to the language form they might choose. Tomasello’s belief in usage-based theory that meaning is the use is more concerned about a grammatical and structural pattern learning in an unplanned language use.

Therefore, our second language learning and teaching should focus on how meaning-based grammatical constructions emerge from individual acts of language use. Most of the universities in China are reluctant to include Academic English Writing in their general English curriculum because the teachers feel confused about whether they and their students should focus on academic language, patterns, grammatical, or structural dimension of linguistic composition, just like the grammatical construction in child language acquisition, while they have long been ignoring what the usage-based theory advocates “meaning-based construction emerging from individual acts of real language use”. Unlike the new language learners who are surrounded with real language use environment which would help them to know the usage of the vocabulary, pattern quickly, college students in academic English writing course are completely organized to the learning about “how to do” questions. In fact, even after being told exactly how to write a “perfect” academic article, students sometimes still feel puzzled about what they are doing it for. This research is going to focus on the course design of academic writing according to usage-based theory of language acquisition and will set up a project-based writing teaching mode to create a planned language
use environment by creating unplanned pattern, grammatical and structural development for college academic English writing learners.

Language Acquisition of Usage-Based Theory & Academic Writing Learning

Language Acquisition of Usage-Based Theory

Tomasello’s usage-based theory of language acquisition (Tomasello, 2003) maintains that language structure emerges from language use, and children build their language relying on their general cognitive skills. About how the child acquires language, it is the human cognition universals of communicative needs and vocal-auditory processing result in some language universals such as nouns and verbs as expression of reference and predication, but not a universal grammar that allows for language development. According to Bavin (2009), the usage based approach for language development has been supported by the naturalistic and experimental evidence that “universal of linguistic structure derive from the fact that people have the same set of general cognitive processes”. The SLA researchers raised the question that the learner focuses on communication in naturalistic second language acquisition and thus, learns incidentally, whereas in instructed the second language acquisition the learner typically focuses on some aspect of the language system. There is a need to keep an open mind as to where the processes of acquisition are the same or different in naturalistic and classroom settings (Klein, 1986).

Usage-based learning approach has foundations in the studies of spontaneous speech and shows that the verb one child learned seemed to be an island at first, but later, a pattern later confirmed in data from several other children. The strong effect of input frequency on the emergence of productivity of argument structures in children is consistent with a usage-based view. The usage-based theory of language acquisition makes the fundamental claim that “language structure emerges from language use”, which applies at the level of individual words, as their communicative function derives from their use, as well as at the level of grammar, as structure emerges from patterns of use of multi-unit utterance. (Ghalebi, & Sadighi, 2015)

Issues in Academic English Writing Researches

A broad definition of academic writing is any writing done to fulfill a requirement of a college or university. Academic writing is also used for publications that are read by teachers and researchers or presented at conferences. According to Pang (2009), academic English writing capacity is the capability that people (college students, teachers, researches, or scholars) use to choose the suitable genre to fulfill their work for a communicative purpose from a conventionalized social context and a certain professional and disciplinary and cultural practice. Academic English, other than the general English that has been learning in elementary and secondary education, has its own distinctive practical importance, difficulty, and complexity. Since more attention was paid to EAP (English for Academic Purpose), academic writing ability has become a focus in recent years’ college English course and curriculum reform in China. To improve academic writing proficiency, the EAP course has to help students set up a new network of knowledge and information and strengthen a closer cross-disciplinary collaboration to raise students’ academic reading and writing awareness and Genre awareness.

One interesting fact from Bitchener & Basturkmen’s interview (2006) is that students are the most likely to attribute their writing problems to their language capability, while teachers believe it is not. Recent further researches on academic writing are mainly focused on the target, tasks, of academic writing ability (Cooper, 2007); the factors that influence EFL academic writing (Ferenz, 2005); and the relationship
between reading strategies and writing performance (Plakans, 2009). Kwan’s research (2008) strongly proposed that reading, writing and researching are an indispensable part to each other to improve students’ academic writing proficiency. Shao (2017) put forward a schema to build up academic English writing ability that includes: 1. choose authentic research papers as learning materials; 2. establish a discourse structure study chart and analyze sentences from its communicative and rhetorical purposes; 3. lead to a micro-writing style and vocabulary feature study; 4. conduct a simulated structure, style, and sentence-with-purpose writing training.

Usage-Based Theory Language Acquisition & Academic English Writing Course
With no doubt, the academic writing capability is of great importance in today’s much more frequent academic communication at home and overseas. Chinese college undergraduate students in general lack sufficient academic training and their presentation are not professional, while in western countries many teenagers begin to receive systematic training in their high school educations. Academic English writing, by satisfying exchanges and communications in an academic environment for students, has been given more emphasis than before, and many universities and colleges have offered related English academic writing courses for improving students' overall quality.

However, grammar, and language has long occupied the core of academic writing, and teaching has been limited to the textbook learning in the most academic English writing course. And in most cases, academic writing is being isolated from reading and researching. It is not by accident that language acquisition of Usage-Based Theory has offered another way to review our academic English Writing course for it claims that language structure emerges from the practical use; words, grammar, language patterns, and sentence structures derive from their use. In an environment that would be designed for real use, with enough authentic reading and research samples and strong motivation to fulfill what they really want, students would predicatively acquire the academic language by conducting the project/content-based research program.

Usage-based theory maintains that language is actively constructed by the language learners, and language has been acquired by the learners’ cognitive competence and their actual interaction with the surrounding environment. Within the same constructivist framework of language learning, project-based language learning advocates students’ engagement in active, intentional, authentic, reflective and social-dialogical learning (Gu, 2003). Therefore, academic English writing on project-based learning and teaching and usage-based language acquisition would predictably offer a new mode for English academic writing course.

Project-Based Academic English Writing Course Design
Unlike post-graduate students with a more direct purpose to write academic paper for publishing, the undergraduate academic English writing courses for undergraduate students who would like to exchange idea or find out their interests, should focus more on designing how to lead student into how to read researches firstly, and then compare previous research works, and conduct their own research at last.

TPIRE Project-Based Mode
Also believing in the language development from the real use, project-based learning would create a student-centered real disciplinary environment in which students could independently or collaboratively conduct a project through a process of choosing topics, searching for information, self-discovering,
cooperating and analyzing and solving the problems. Han (2018) designed a TPIRE project-based learning mode for the college spoken English course, involving a 5-step project-conducting procedure that includes Topic, Plan, Implementation, Report, and Evaluation.

The TPIRE Mode innovatively changes the traditional spoken course from topic presentation to a real use-based problem solving project, which engages students into more active and academic interaction with not only their partners, but the problem, the environment the project tasks, and procedures. To accomplish the mission, students have to experience a whole process of real research from setting up the project topic to task division to reporting result and the final reflection. It is a comprehensive design that TPIRE does not adopt spoken proficiency as an isolated training. Instead, speaking skills and strategies have been blended into the project process, the real language uses. However, one of the obvious drawbacks for this innovative mode design is that, rather than a spoken activity, TPIRE is more likely to be suitable for an academic writing project plan, for it would inevitably involve with more written proposals, presentations, research report. Also, it does not consider literature/previous research review into the project procedure, which actually performs significantly for a real academic research.

Figure 1. TPIRE Mode
TRDIWP mode

Almost at the same time with the TPIRE mode of academic writing or a little after that, this paper has coincidentally conducted a 16-week action research on a project-based academic writing course under the instruction of constructivist’s usage-based theory. Compared with TPIRE, which has been designed for an integrated academic English speaking development, TRDIWP mode concerns more about the students’ English academic writing improvement, which includes Topic(T), Literature & Related Research Review(R), Project Design(D), Implementation(I), Report Writing(W), Result Presentation (P).

![TRDIWP Mode Diagram]

**Figure 2. TRDIWP Mode**

**Teaching Procedures of TRDIWP Mode**

The TRDIWP mode centers on a certain topic, which firstly designs to lead students to some reading articles and research papers with a purpose of provoking their innovative thinking and catching inspiration for their own related research on the topic. And then students would focus on what they are concerned with and what they want to conduct research on and design some questions to answer and problems to solve, for which students might also have to consider the questionnaire questions or interviews for figuring out the problem. In the implementation part, students are going to exactly follow the instruction of their research design, organize the interview, questionnaire, and collect data. After receiving all the results, students then are required to write their research papers. They could concentrate on the questions with very obvious evidence and analyze the causes and possible effects. After their initial paper writing, they are also expected to design a spoken presentation in which they could deliver their findings and discoveries from their research and check whether their previous hypothesis would be feasible or not.

**Teaching Philosophy Delivered by TRDIWP Mode**

The project-based TRIWP mode of English academic writing course has tried its best to place students in a centered position of language learning, to encourage a more active interaction between students and their research projects, to build up a real disciplinary communication environment in which students would naturally develop their comprehensive abilities including not only their academic writing ability, as well as their reading, searching, problem-solving abilities. The project-based TRIWP mode of English academic writing training, in contrast to the traditional academic reading and writing course, would offer more
opportunities and challenges for the students to develop their skills to use and apply the language in a real use environment, and at the same time, according to the constructivism, to complete a self-establishment of their language information and professional knowledge.

**Students in Project-Based TRDIWP Action Research**

The first round of project-based TRDIWP action research involved in 17 students (5 boys, 12 girls) from 9 majors including International Economics and Trade, Exhibition Economics and Management, Human Resource Management, International Business, Finance, and Marketing, etc. The variety of students’ major studies helps to create more various interests and possible topic choices, which requires a closer collaboration between groups of students.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Majors</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>International Business</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exhibition Economics and Management</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-Business</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Management</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investment</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digital Media Technology</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 3. Students Information of the Action Research Class*

All of the students come from the university’s College English Innovation program which has been designed to cultivate highly-efficient students both in English learning and their own major studies. And according to their college-entrance examination, all of the 17 students are in the top 5% in their English test among all their following students.
TRDIWP Action Research and Course Practice

The action research begins with a pre-test of topic writing which was used to decide the writing proficiency which the students possess. As a matter of fact, in the topic writing pre-test, 80% of the students could not conduct a full-structured and well-developed essay writing. And 40% of them even could not write long enough (160 words) as the writing instruction told them to do. Some students later explained that they had not written like that for several months so they had become unfamiliar to the writing and some of them claimed that they have not been trained to write longer than 180 words, and sometimes it was difficult to write a long essay (over 350 words) without a very good writing plan.

Not everyone in the class felt excited about the action research because they did not have a positive experience with English writing in the previous learning. And it seemed difficult to finish a 160-word writing in 35 minutes, and they wondered why they just had to write like that.

With proper instructions from the teacher, about the problem and questionnaire design, all of the 5 groups of students conducted their own research projects, some of which even chose very recent-happening events as their topics. Then, 89% of the students believed that they were highly motivated by the project, and they felt energetic to learn how to conduct an academic research, and only 5% of them felt a little bit anxious about the research project, and others believed the project was too overwhelming to complete.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Project Topic</th>
<th>Related Reading</th>
<th>Students’ Topic</th>
<th>Research Methods</th>
<th>Report Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Marriage, Family and the Home</td>
<td>Marriage; Family; How to teach kids.</td>
<td>Marriage Attitude Gap between the Younger and Older Generations</td>
<td>Questionnaire Comparison</td>
<td>Research Essay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The Power of the Group</td>
<td>The Influence of Culture; Peer Groups; Crowds.</td>
<td>School Bullying and Its Causes and Effects</td>
<td>Interview and Group Discussion</td>
<td>Research Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Gender Roles</td>
<td>Growing up Male or Female; Gender and Academic Achievement; The Influence of Mass Media on Gender Roles.</td>
<td>Straight-Man Cancer/ Misogyny</td>
<td>Interview and Group Discussion</td>
<td>Research Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Gender Issues Today</td>
<td>Balancing Home and Work; It’s Not So easy Being Male; Gender Equality at Work.</td>
<td>The Role of Woman in Modern China</td>
<td>Interview and Group Discussion</td>
<td>Research Report</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Mass Media Today</td>
<td>The Role of Mass Media; What Is Network; Privacy and the Media.</td>
<td>Causes and Effects of Bullet Curtain/ Screen Comments</td>
<td>Questionnaire</td>
<td>Research Report</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. Case Facts of Students Project Researches

From Figure 4, we can see that, with project-based academic learning, students no longer considered academic writing as the skills they could not reach, and they conquered their initial concern about being overwhelmed by project research. Students were highly motivated for completing project and they were able to conduct an innovative project-based research and combined the research with their real life use. “The Research of Straight Man Cancer/ Misogyny” and “The Role of Woman in Modern China” were based on recent events of some social celebrities’ improper comments on the role of woman and developed into a relatively huge discussion on the campus, attracting more than 100 students into the interview and
discussion activity, which offered a good opportunity for students to do the research, and to use the language to present themselves during the English interviews and later to collect data and do the data analysis. All of the students in the class believed project-based academic writing could actually help to create a genuine environment for language use and research, so they were not finishing their writing at home. On the contrary, they were creating their own work by doing the research and writing the research paper. They did not feel overwhelmed by the academic writing any longer.

With proper instruction and aid, project-based academic writing not only can help students establish a brand-new angle to train their academic researching and writing capacity, as well as transfer the textbook reading and concept remembering to a meaningful act that requires their real language use. Project-based learning also leads students to a more efficient communication and collaboration with their partners and also the course teachers.

**Conclusion**

Advocating learning emerging from use, theory-based language acquisition introduces us to an active construction of language through an interaction between cognitive awareness and surround use environment. Young kids acquire their first language by their understanding communication intentions, as what college students learn in their L2 academic writing development. Through the designed, or natural intention of use, project-based learning would be an effective way to help construct not only young kids’ initiative language framework, but also college students’ more comprehensive language structural, context, and genre awareness.

**Acknowledgement**

This paper was funded by the Key Program of the English Language and Literature of Guangdong Province, 2016; and is part of Research on Usage-theory-based Academic English Writing Construction in Privately-funded Colleges, a provincial project granted by Foundation for Innovative Young Talents in Universities and Colleges of Guangdong, 2018 (Grant No. 2018WQNCX298); part of a Guangdong provincial project Research on MOOC-based Blended Teaching Model for College English Development Courses (Grant No.GDJG201602); supported by A Study on the Model of the College English Extra-curricular Activity System and Practice, the 2018 Training Programme of the Teaching Achievement Award in South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (No. 2018JXCG08); part of Blended Teaching Innovation of College English Comprehensive Quality Training Mode, a University-sponsored Teaching Research & Reform Project of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies South China Business College, 2018 (Grant No. 2018JG07).

**References**


Reflexive Transitive Constructions and Their Acquisition Difficulties

Huang Xiaoping
Xiamen Institute of Technology, Xiamen, China
Email: 873023367@qq.com

[Abstract] Reflexive transitive constructions are in the middle of the continuum of transitivity. Different constructions of reflexive transitivity are examined based on transitivity. The motivations of using reflexive pronouns and their functions are explored. The difficulties and countermeasures for Chinese students to acquire reflexive transitive constructions with causative meaning are discussed. It is believed that the behavior of reflexive pronouns can better explain the transformation of different constructions and the consistent core causative meaning of verbs.

[Keywords] transitivity; reflexive transitive constructions; reflexive pronouns; causative

Introduction
Reflexive pronouns are common words both in Chinese and English. Several researches focused on Chinese learners’ acquisition of English reflexive pronouns. First, language transfer and efficacy of universal grammar were explored in the perspective of relative big subject (Wang, 2000; Chen, 2001; Li, 2010). They confirmed the joint effect of both mother tongue and universal grammar. Huang (2016, pp. 97-107) researched into the mistakes among Chinese learners in the use of a group of verbs involving reflexive pronouns as objects of verbs. The result showed that the causes of the mistakes included negative intralingual and interlingual transfer and students’ inadequate understanding of the atypical causative meaning of those verbs. Few studies were found to discuss reflexive pronouns based on transitivity and a construction grammar approach (Goldberg, 1995; Craft, 2001). This approach is believed to be powerful in explaining the semantics of different constructions and the transformation of constructions.

Hopper & Thompson (1980, p. 252) and Croft (2003, pp. 176-178) examined important elements of prototypical transitivity and pointed out that transitivity, a superordinate word covering both transitive and intransitive category, forms a continuum from transitive to intransitive ones. Based on their cluster of prototypically transitive properties, Liu (2006, p. 301) looked at the continuum of transitivity and maintained that the transitive properties can be the criteria to determine the high or low transitivity in the transitivity continuum. According to those transitive properties, transitive verb-object constructions with high transitivity often show physical changes of the patient, which expresses typical causative semantics. The reflexive transitive constructions with lower transitivity also have a verb-object relationship, but the subject and object are identical. When this kind of construction indicates position shifts or certain changes of the object, it has causative meaning. The intransitive constructions with even lower transitivity include the constructions with omitting or implicit object. This paper examines the transformation and differences among constructions of reflexive transitivity, explores the functions of reflexive pronouns, and then analyses the difficulties and countermeasures for Chinese students to acquire such constructions.

Transitivity Continuum and Reflexive Transitivity Events
Liu (2006, pp 295-300) believes that transitivity is regarded as a continuum, prototype transitivity and intransitivity events form two ends of the continuum, then other phenomena such as middle voice and reflexive structures are in the middle of the continuum. He presented the following figure to distinguish the
relationship between participants in the continuum from prototype construct (two participants event) to prototype intransitive construct (one participant event) according to discernibility of participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>One Participants Event</th>
<th>Reflexive Event</th>
<th>Middle Voice Event</th>
<th>One Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**Figure 1. Transitivity-intransitivity Continuum**

Reflexive transitive events take a middle cohesive position in transitivity and intransitivity continuum, which includes events involving two participants with high transitivity and one participant with lower transitivity which includes the construction with a concealed reflexive pronoun as a participant, and the constructions in which reflexive pronouns never surface. Reflexive transitive events can be divided into three types:

Type A is a reflexive transitive event of two participants. Reflexive pronouns as objects are indispensable. Look at examples below:

(1) You have to acquaint yourself with these regulations.
(2) He began to wash himself with a damp cloth.
(3) They washed those marks off the wall.

Example (3) is a causative construction with high transitivity. In Examples (1) and (2), both subjects do something to themselves to make change. The subjects are similar to the agent, and the objects are similar to the patient.

Type B is a reflexive transitive event of two participants. Reflexive pronouns as objects are optional, and the meaning with or without a reflexive pronoun is the same. See examples below:

(4) They hadn’t washed in days.
(5) The Eskimos are adapting to change. (Sinclair, 1999, p. 181)
(6) She does not need to learn a new skill or adapt herself to a new job. (COCA)

These are reflexive transitive events with optional pronouns. The reflexive pronoun in Example (4) is omitted and so there is only one participant on the surface. But Examples (4) and (3) have the same meaning. They are both bathing and washing their bodies. In Examples (5) and (6) both “adapt” mean “changing oneself to adapt to change and new things” though the reflexive pronoun does not surface in Example (5).

Type C is one participant event with an implicit pronoun. For example:

(7) The girl rolled across the field.
(8) He refrained from responding.

In terms of deep semantic structure, similar to the sentence “She walked herself to the gate”, Example (7) may be rewritten as “The girl rolled {herself} across the field.” Example (8) is rewritten as “He refrained{himself} from responding.” Though the implicit pronouns in Examples (7) and (8) never surface.

**The Motivations and Functions of Reflexive Pronouns**

The motivations of using reflexive pronouns after verbs and the functions of reflexive pronouns can be examined from semantic roles, time gap between action and result and the meaning differences of verbs.

If the subject’s semantic role is the “agent”, the reflexive pronoun appears after the object. If the subject is “the experiencer of verb action” or “the patient/the affected person”, then the reflexive pronoun does not appear after the verb. Examples:
The door slid shut.

The bottle broke open.

The lake froze solid.

The lion bled to death.

She sang herself hoarse.

From the perspective of semantic roles, the subjects of Examples (9) and (10) are “utensils”. The subject of Example (11) is a natural thing. The semantic roles of these subjects are “affected”. The “affecter” may be “wind, certain force, and low temperature”, respectively. Therefore, there is no reflexive pronoun after the verb of Examples (9-12). The subject of Example (12) is an animal, and the verb “bleed” is the involuntary action of “the lion”. So, the subject lion is not the “agent”, but the “experiencer”. The subject of Example (13) is a human and its action is voluntary. Although she does not necessarily predict the consequence of the voice change caused by singing excessively, the subject did sing so much that she became hoarse. So, the subject is the agent, and the reflexive pronoun is the patient. This reflexive pronoun is considered as the fake object (Simpson, 1983). The change and the result of hoarse is not a visible physical process, so Example (13) is an atypical causative construction with weak transitivity. Compare these examples:

The vase broke apart.

John broke open the cask. (Bolinger, 1971)

Similar to the “John broke the barrel”. The subject of Example (15) is the agent, and the cask is the patient, that is a typical causative construction. Goldberg (1995, p. 189) referred to Examples (9-12) and Example (14) as intransitive resultatives, meaning “X BECOMES Z”. The subjects are “experiencer” (Luo, 2009, p. 109).

The use of a reflexive pronoun involves a time gap between the action and the result. In Examples (9-11) The verbs freeze, break and slide are followed by a “resultative phrase” to form a bare RP, i.e. a RP without an object. It does not indicate the continuous process of the action but highlights the result of the action. Example (9) refers to “the door closes as soon as it slides”. Example (10) refers to “the bottle opens as soon as it hits”. Example (11) refers to “The lake has become solid”. The verbs freeze and break show the completion of the action. The verb slide is often used to show continuous action, but when slide is used in conjunction with verb shut, it means “the moment it slides, the door is shut”, not meaning “sliding for a period of time”. Rappaport Hovav & Levin (2001, pp. 780-783) argued that when one event depends on another, that is temporal dependence and when two events do not happen together, there is a lack of dependence, namely temporal independence. In Example (13) the reflexive pronoun shows the temporal independence between the action sing and the result hoarse voice.

Also, the difference in meaning is observed in constructions with or without reflexive pronouns. Compare examples below:

He limped into the room.

He limped himself into the room.

According to Yin (2010, p. 18), when the object and the subject are the same entity, there are two kinds of interpretations, namely, action of self-variation, which is realized as a unitary resultative construction, and action-induced, which is realized as a binary resultative construction. Although the change of orientation can be interpreted as either the change of movement itself or the result of causative action, the
latter emphasizes the more difficulty of action. Both Examples (16a) and (16b) denote the mode and orientation of movement, but (16b) highlights the difficulty of the movement.

Acquisition Difficulties and Countermeasures

It is found in teaching and learning that the following two types of constructions with reflexive pronouns as objects are difficult constructions for Chinese English learners. The first type of construction presents an obvious difference between English and Chinese sentence patterns, which requires students’ understanding of the conflation of English semantics, for example:

(17) The girl cut herself free and escaped.

Example (17) has a transitive verb, but the object herself is a fake object, not the patient of cut, meaning “the girl breaks off what binds her so that she can get away from it.” The conflation of English semantics and its causative meaning constitute a difficulty for students.

The second type is a group of verbs with the semantic component of “involvement” such as involve, engage, commit, adjust, adapt, qualify, confront, concern. In this paper they are called “involve” verbs because of their semantic commonality. “involve” verbs include the following constructions:

- **Pattern A**, a construction with active voice: S+V+reflexive pronoun+prep. Phrase, e.g.:
  (18) The old lady engaged herself in making clothes for her neighbor’s children.

- **Pattern B**, a statal passive construction: S+be+V-ed+prep. Phrase, e.g.:
  (19) The old lady was engaged in making clothes for her neighbor’s children.

- **Pattern C**, a construction with concealed reflexive pronoun: S+V+concealed reflexive pronoun + prep. Phrase, e.g.:
  (20) Only 10% of American adults engage in regular exercise.

The engagement process in pattern A in Example (18) makes herself busy making clothes so that it has causative meaning, but its causative usage is abstract and metaphorical, not a typical causative construction. Pattern B, Example (19) is not an action passive voice, but a statal passive voice (Quirk, et al., 1985, pp. 227-229). Its state is caused by engagement action and is regarded as implicit causative semantics. In pattern C, Example (20) there is a concealed reflexive pronoun after the verb engage. The meaning remains unchanged whether the reflexive pronoun surfaces or not. Since it is difficult to understand the statal passive of “involve” verbs, it is even more difficult for students to make sentences with them. When students were asked to use the verb “involve” to make a sentence to mean “they participated in the big project”, many students wrote:* “They involved in the big project.” The following common mistakes are observed in students’ exercises while they learn “involve” group of verbs.

(21) * He committed to the campaign.

(22) * When we confronted a problem, we should think about the cause of the problem.

To help students learn “involve” verbs, recognition of the patterns of these verbs and repeated practice and error correction exercise are necessary. At first, the patterns of these verbs are presented. For example:

(23) They involved themselves in the big project.

(24) They were involved in the big project.

In Example (23) the object, the reflexive pronoun, is the affected one, while in the statal passive form Example (24), the subject is the affected. Both Examples (23) and (24) express causation, though they are
atypical causative constructions. So, it is necessary for teachers to explain to students the difference between Examples (23) and (24), and the causative meaning of the verb.

Secondly, sentence making using these verbs are included in the classroom exercise, homework and quiz to have repeated practice. And then error correction exercises are done after common errors are collected from students’ exercises.

A CLEC search on these verbs shows that the misuse of these verbs is quite common in English and non-English majors’ compositions in China (Gui, & Yang, 2002). The research on the misuse of “involve” group of verbs shows that when students use these verbs to translate and construct sentences, the misuse of the statal passive construction “S+be+V-ed+prepositional phrase” is the most serious (Huang, 2016, p. 101). Examples (21-22) are all misuses of the statal passive construction, which poses learning difficult for Chinese learners.

The factors causing the misuse of these verbs are complex. Apart from the difficulties caused by the differences between English and Chinese, intralingual transfer is also one of the factors. The usage of these verbs is varied, and the predecessor’s usage may affect other usages. For example, Sentence (22) may be influenced by “I confronted him with my suspicions, and he admitted everything” (LDOCE).

The inadequate understanding of the causative meaning of “involve” verbs is also one of the important factors for misuse. In typical causative constructions verbs express visible concrete actions and bring about surface physical changes. The agent and patient are clear. “Involve” verbs express abstract causation and bring about non-surface demonstrable physical changes. In its statal passive form, the subject is the affected person, and the causer does not appear on the surface. Learning atypical causative semantics and reflexive pronoun usage of these verbs needs teachers’ explanation and guidance.

Understanding the fact that the surface intransitive usage is transitive usage with concealed reflexive pronouns is the key to understanding the different constructional transformation with or without reflexive pronouns. Since the meaning of the verbs in Patterns A, B, and C Examples (18-20) are the same, the semantic roles should be regarded as the same. So, when explaining the usage of Example (20), it is reasonable to say that engage is actually a transitive verb with a concealed reflexive pronoun which is both the object and the affected person.

Conclusion

In summary, there are three types of reflexive transitive events. Reflexive pronouns are indispensable in some of these constructions, but they can be optional on the surface in some other constructions. The third type, the construction in which an implicit reflexive pronoun never appears is regarded as one participant event on the surface. There are two kinds of concealed reflexive pronouns. One can be omitted without causing a difference in meaning. The other surfaces or does not denote meaning change. The “verb+zero reflexive pronoun+RP” construction means that the verb and the result are closely combined. The “verb+a reflexive pronoun+RP” means that the verb and the result are independent of each other in which the difficulty of verb movement is highlighted.

When verbs in different patterns present the same meaning, they play the same semantic roles. So, the verb in Pattern C constructions should not be regarded as an intransitive verb, but as a transitive verb with an optional reflexive pronoun, which is the key to the interpretation of the atypical causative semantics of reflexive transitive constructions. It is necessary for teachers to guide students to understand the transitivity of reflexive transitive constructions and the atypical causative semantics of their verb expression. Since the misuse of “involve” verbs are found to be common and persistent among Chinese learners, class time and
focused exercises to attack these difficult verbs should be arranged. It is necessary for teachers to help students to recognize the patterns and causative meaning of these verbs. And varied exercises such as sentence making exercises and error correction should be done repeatedly both in classroom and in homework and quiz to consolidate the learning of “involve” group verbs.

References


Effects of Corrective Feedback and Output-based Explicit Grammar Instruction on Chinese EFL Learners’ Writings

Guilin Ma
Huali College, Guangdong University of Technology, Guangzhou, China
Email: 973282253@qq.com

[Abstract] This study examined the impact of corrective feedback and form-focused instruction (FFI) on the linguistic accuracy of Chinese EFL learners’ writings. Three parallel classes were randomly assigned into four groups: FFI-code (n=20), FFI-underline (n=17), FFI-only (n=23) and a control group (n=18). Each experimental group was exposed to output-based explicit grammar (form-focused) instruction following corrective feedback. Treatment succeeded in directing learner attention to linguistic accuracy and led to learner improvement in immediate posttest and delayed post-test. However, coded feedback and its combination with grammar instruction were relatively more effective, and the advantage consistently and stably remained in delayed post-test. The findings, overall, demonstrate that the supplement of output-based grammar instruction to corrective feedback is a beneficial pedagogical approach to facilitate linguistic development in EFL writings.

[Keywords] corrective feedback; grammar instruction; coded feedback; accuracy; output

Introduction
Teacher instruction plays a facilitative role for language acquisition (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Ellis (1994, p. 635) concluded, based on the findings of a large quantity of research on form-focused instruction (FFI), that although classroom instruction cannot alter the order and sequence of language acquisition, it can accelerate the pace and rate of acquisition. Also, explicit form-focused instruction supplied as equilibrium to meaning-focused instruction can prevent the occurrence of fossilization, leading the further development of interlanguage (Lightbown, & Spada, 1990, p. 91).

Previous studies of corrective feedback on FL/L2 writing have shown that students can improve their performance in the aspects of fluency and accuracy through the aid of feedback which is meaning-based, or form-based or both (Ferris, & Roberts, 2001; Li, 2013; Wu, 2015). The effects have been proved to be short-term in some studies (Ferris, & Roberts, 2001) or long-term in others (Chen, & Li, 2009). On the other hand, there are also some relevant studies which failed to reveal the similar results (Lalande, 1982). However, some studies have shown the advantage of more direct feedback (Sheen, 2007) or more indirect feedback (Ferris, & Roberts, 2001). Obviously, few conclusive arguments have been achieved in previous relevant research, out of the reasons that it has not been performed in a consistent and systematic manner within an authentic pedagogic setting, that its purposes have not been specified, and that student writers’ revisions usually did not receive enough attention from teachers and researchers.

The present study takes exploring effective ways to make teacher feedback work better as its research object. Inspired by the proposals of Wong’s grammar consciousness raising (GCR), the motivation for this study was (a) to investigate whether corrective feedback could, in conjunction with explicit grammar instruction, lead to linguistic development and (b) to compare the extent of linguistic development, if any, derived from instruction with different degrees of explicitness. More broadly, such a study allows for exploration of interlanguage development fostered during the interaction between learners and teacher-initiated feedback on learner output.
Theoretical Background and Prior Research
How can form-focused instruction (FFI) facilitate learning? Broadly speaking, there are three compensatory explanations, which corroborate each other. The first one, drawing on the work of Schmidt (1990) claims that only after forms have been taught can noticing of the forms happen, after which input may be converted into intake. According to this position, form-focused instruction, with its starting point drawing learners’ attention on forms can facilitate interlanguage development.

The second one draws on the work of Ellis, Fotos and Wong, which posits that learners’ grammatical consciousness could and should be raised in the daily classroom activities. One important notion is “grammar consciousness raising” (GCR) (Wong, 2005). This term develops from the work of Fotos and Ellis (1991). As a pedagogic activity which can be presented to learners in some forms, the aim of GCR is to enable learners to understand the properties of linguistic rules. One crucial advantage of GCR tasks is that learners’ attention can be drawn on grammatical forms of target language without the expense of skipping the semantic aspect, as Wong points out, “GCR tasks help learners pay attention to grammatical forms that they may otherwise miss on their own and at the same time, provide opportunities for meaningful interaction” (2005, p. 84). However, the tasks used for data have been restricted in the sentence level (Kowal, & Swain, 1997; Swain, 1985). More serious is that GCR tasks have been applied and examined within the narrow topic of discussing the effect of input on acquisition. Therefore, a GCR task adopted at the present study is output-based and constitutes a definite advance as it extends the functional scope of grammatical consciousness-raising.

The third claim derives from the debate concerning the role of negative evidence in improving the quality of learner performance. Negative evidence is defined as “a teacher’s correction of a learner’s utterance” (Larsen-Freeman, 1995, p. 139), which, of course, is of different degrees of directness. It is argued that in learning a new language, adult learners have no ideal access to the acquisitional mechanisms that children possess (Schachter, 1989). As the mechanisms function on the unique basis of positive evidence, what L2 learners can rest on is the general learning mechanism that operates on the basis of negative evidence frequently in the form of error correction. Thus, it is reasonable to assume that negative evidence is inseparable from L2/FL language classroom.

Since the 1990s, attention to grammar instruction has been revived, from both teachers and researchers. There is an unavoidable tendency to combine explicit and implicit approach to grammar teaching. Ferris (2002, p. 27) pointed out that while the role of sole grammar instruction is susceptible to dispute and doubt, the effects of grammar instruction in combination with feedback and revision exercises have not been validly explored so far because of the unclear nature and complicated operation of the variable (grammar instruction) in relevant literature. Students may learn no more from covert teacher feedback than they do from their own self-edit, because much of the available feedback, either overt correction or indirect indication of errors does not indicate why or how student output fails to match the target language forms. Grammar mini-lesson that follows certain types of corrective feedback with different degree of directness seems to be worthwhile.

Form-focused instruction, or FFI, as Ellis (2002) pointed out, refers to “any planned or incidental instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic form”. In the present study, grammar instruction, termed as form-focused instruction (FFI), based on careful examination of learners’ written output, provided the learners with example presentation and rule explanation of several subtypes in each gross type of errors to explain where the problems derived from and how to correct them,
i.e., why application of certain rules is impossible in certain contexts. The present study sets out to answer the following two questions:

1. To what extent does corrective feedback and its combination with output-based explicit grammar instruction influence learner performance in text revision, respectively?
2. To what extent does the combination of corrective feedback with output-based explicit grammar instruction influence linguistic accuracy of EFL writing?

**Methods**

**Measures**

This study followed a pretest-treatment-immediate posttest-delayed post-test design. The independent variables were different types of instruction, i.e., feedback and grammar instruction; the dependent variables were linguistic development, as measured by percentage of error correction and percentage of errors (accuracy) of target forms in learners’ writing. Measures of accuracy were developed to evaluate the quality of the learners’ written production and the effect of formal instruction on revision, respectively.

1. Error corrections: Errors being corrected against the total error count per paper after corrective feedback and further explicit instruction.
2. Error counts: Error percentage against the total word count per paper multiplies the mean word count per group. All errors relating to verb forms, noun endings, articles, word form, and sentence structures were considered.

**Participants**

All students from three separate and parallel non-English major classes, enrolled in the selective College English course at a state university in South China, were invited to participate in the study. On data collection days, a total of 85 students were present, 91.76% (78, 33 males and 45 females) of which participated in all of the study. Learners reported that the years of studying English were from 7 to 14 years, with an average time length of 9 years. Their proficiency was high intermediate according to their teachers’ assessment and the scores they obtained in the grammar knowledge test.

**Target Linguistic Forms**

The five linguistic aspects in detail are as follows:

1) Verb errors (V): Error in verb tense as well as verb forms which should be in accordance with tense and subjects.
   - a) *At the beginning, I feel happy though I didn’t know why.*
   - b) *I had a happy day because there are so many friends.*

2) Wrong Word (WW): Errors in word choice (categories of sense relations and collocation) and spelling; Errors in part of speech.
   - a) *I still rememble that thing.*
   - b) *He seemed so frighted that he couldn’t move.*

3) Sentence structures (SS): Errors in sentence/clause boundaries (run-ones, fragments, comma splices), word order, omitted words or phrases, unnecessary words or phrases, other unidiomatic sentence construction.
   - a) *She doesn’t understand what is life.*
   - b) *I talked about those silly deeds, seek for forgiveness.*

4) Noun ending errors (NE): plural or possessive ending incorrect, omitted, or unnecessary.
The code system was employed to address and describe the errors in learner output, which functioned as an important indicator system for another rater to check the researcher’s ratings, thus a stable source to count inter-rater reliability. It was a comprehensive system in that it combines both message organization and form. It was believed that combined taxonomies for error classification were of high versatility (James, 1998, p. 114).

**Design and Implementation**

**Grammar knowledge test.** As a pen-and-paper test, the grammar knowledge test consisted of three parts: multiple choice, grammaticality judgment test, and meta-linguistic knowledge test. The test paper version was from Folse, et al. (2000, pp. 180-187) with a slight change in arrangement of some items. Learners’ responses were scored as either correct (1 point) or incorrect (0 point). The total score was 100. The test was conducted during classroom time two days prior to student first drafts being collected (20 minutes).

**Session of treatment.** All learners were required to write a 40-min narrative essay about 200 words during the class time. This type of writing task was chosen based on the consideration that students might have familiar knowledge of the topic and of the narrative’s rhetorical structure, thus having relatively full presentation of their writing proficiency.

One week after drafts were being collected and edited by the researcher, the experimental groups received certain treatments and the control group received no treatment. Coded feedback was presented to one experimental group as in (a). A code list was also presented to the group, explaining the meaning of each code. The group of non-coded feedback was presented with only the underlined words and no code at the place of an error, as in (b).

a) **Coded feedback (FFI-code)**

* She lead a healthy life. (V)
* I hadn’t any difficult in doing the first part of the paper. (WW)
* And that ^ also my last time to attend a spoken class. (SS)

b) **Non-coded feedback (FFI-underline)**

* She lead a healthy life.
* My parents is also very worried about me.
* So I looked forward to win the final before it.

**Session of Student Revision**

One week after the essays had been collected and edited, the subjects received their marked (if applicable) papers. They were asked to edit their essays in 20 minutes and write their responses on an answer sheet. The edited papers were then collected by the class teachers and given to the researcher.

**Session of Supplemental Grammar Instruction**

The supplemental grammar instruction was implemented in the classroom time for approximately 20 minutes immediately after the session of students’ first revision was finished. The instruction was presented to each group in the form of PPT. The materials of grammar mini-lesson were based on three categories (verb forms, word forms and sentence structure) of errors students committed in their writings. Students
were asked to evaluate the problematic utterances grouped into the three types respectively, which though being not the direct presentation of the original utterances, were detailed representative of the subtypes of committed errors in each category. Immediately after grammar instruction, students were required to edit their papers again and write the answers in the answer sheets as mentioned above.

Session of Immediate Post-Test and Delayed Post-Test
Students were required to write a new narrative immediately after the second revision task was performed. One week later, students were required to write a new narrative once more. The writing quality was measured in terms of linguistic accuracy as mentioned. Three writing assignments in sequence constituted the major tasks of the present study, apart from the revision tasks of the drafts. The genre of essays belonged to one of specific rhetorical patterns (narration).

Data Collection and Analysis
The classroom teacher was invited to participate in the assessment task. Sums of erroneous places in each paper were counted and assigned into the five categories by the researcher and then checked by the teacher. They discussed the places where uncertainty arose. It aimed to control the variable of the rater’s editing style or preference, which may have more or less varied from one rater to another (Nystrom, 1983; Van Lier, 1988, p. 211) as reported in Ellis (1994, p. 585), thus affecting the consistency of assessment. The inter-rater reliability reached a high 0.85.

In order to avoid the difficulty of zero point in some categories for statistic calculations, all zero error places in each category in any paper were rendered at a 0.01 point, while one erroneous place was rendered at 1 point. Each correct change in students’ revision was rendered at one point.

It should be noted that since text length (word count) varied from one sample to another, all error counts and error correction counts were normalized: the former by dividing error counts by word counts and multiplying by a standard word count which was set in line with the average word counts of each group; the latter by dividing number of correct changes by error counts and then multiplying by a standard which was set in accordance to the average error counts in each group. The method was adopted from Biber, et al. (1998).

Results
Patterns of Error Types in the Written Output
The frequency of student error types in each group is summarized in Table 1. A one-way ANOVA was performed and no significant differences for the between-groups variables for any of the five targets: verb forms, F (3, 68)=0.98, p=0.41; word forms, F (3, 68)=1.44, p=0.24; sentence structures, F (3, 68)=0.62, p=0.61; article, F (3, 68)=0.96, p=0.42; noun endings, F (3, 68)=0.48, p=0.70. As shown in Table 1, errors in terms of articles and noun endings were apparently infrequent. Thus, they were not included as the targets of the following treatment as well as of the following statistical analyses.

Table 1. Patterns of Error Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>V</th>
<th>WW</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>Article</th>
<th>Noun Endings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FFI-code (N=20)</td>
<td>3.07/2.49</td>
<td>2.23/1.92</td>
<td>1.91/2.17</td>
<td>0.16/0.39</td>
<td>0.22/0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFI-underline (N=17)</td>
<td>3.21/3.11</td>
<td>3.62/2.28</td>
<td>2.74/1.67</td>
<td>0.06/0.19</td>
<td>0.20/0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFI only (N=23)</td>
<td>3.73/3.39</td>
<td>2.96/2.19</td>
<td>2.44/1.86</td>
<td>0.30/0.72</td>
<td>0.35/0.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control (N=18)</td>
<td>2.42/1.40</td>
<td>3.11/1.88</td>
<td>2.30/1.88</td>
<td>0.32/0.59</td>
<td>0.42/0.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. V = Wrong Verb forms; WW = Wrong Word forms; SS = Wrong Sentence Structures.
The Impact of Formal Instruction on Error Correction

The effect of corrective feedback. The performance of each group in error correction was summarized in Table 2. It revealed that as the verb forms were concerned, the group which received no corrective feedback corrected much less errors (M%=.30) than the learners with coded feedback (M%=0.84) and those with non-coded feedback (M%=0.53). A one-way ANOVA showed that the difference in error correction percentages across the group was statistically significant with the coded feedback group correcting more errors than both the non-coded feedback group and no corrective feedback group.

For both word forms and sentence structures, there was also an overall statistically significant difference among the three groups. The Scheffé results showed that the group with coded feedback corrected significantly more errors than the no corrective feedback group. The group with non-coded feedback also corrected more errors than the no corrective feedback group. In general, these results indicated that, as anticipated, the group with coded feedback could be distinguished from the no feedback group in the aspect of error correction of all the linguistic features under investigation. Also, the group with non-coded feedback could be distinguished from the no feedback group in terms of error correction of word forms and sentence structures.

Table 2. Revision 1: Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA including Scheffé Comparisons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>M% (SD) of each condition</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
<th>Location of significance: Scheffé p (effect sizes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>C</td>
<td>U</td>
<td>NCF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>.84 (.32)</td>
<td>.53 (.36)</td>
<td>.30 (.37)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WW</td>
<td>.73 (.37)</td>
<td>.64 (.34)</td>
<td>.33 (.35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>.67 (.42)</td>
<td>.53 (.38)</td>
<td>.21 (.34)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.005  Note: C = Code group; U = Underline group; NCF = No corrective feedback group.

The combined effect of corrective feedback with FFI. The analysis for the effect of corrective feedback in combination with form-focused instruction (FFI) on error correction appears in Table 3. It showed that the error correction percentage of each group improved to a certain degree, among which, the no feedback group (FFI-only) was of the biggest improvement. Scheffé post hoc pairwise comparisons showed that only the effect size between FFI-code and FFI-only remained. However, the effect size of the treatment on the sentence structure across the three groups became largely diminished.

Table 3. Revision 2: Descriptive Statistics and ANOVA including Scheffé Comparisons

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>M% (SD) of each condition</th>
<th>ANOVA</th>
<th>Location of significance: Scheffé p (effect sizes)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FFI-C</td>
<td>FFI-U</td>
<td>FFI-only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>.90 (.25)</td>
<td>.56 (.38)</td>
<td>.48 (.35)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WW</td>
<td>.88 (.28)</td>
<td>.67 (.34)</td>
<td>.55 (.39)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>.71 (.40)</td>
<td>.57 (.39)</td>
<td>.50 (.38)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**p<.001; *p<.01

The results revealed that after being exposed to explicit grammar instruction, the performance of each group, which was represented in the error correction percentage, improved to a certain degree. However, it was obvious that only the group with coded feedback could be distinguished from the no feedback group in terms of verb forms and word forms. Additionally, the effect size from the significant comparison in verb forms between coded feedback group and non-coded feedback group remained (from .31 to .33), even after the treatment of formal instruction.
**Formal Instruction and its Impact on Short-Term Development**

Descriptive statistics for the pretest, immediate post-test and delayed post-test scores for the error counts on the three targets are given in Table 4, and Figures 1, 2 and 3 display the group means for each target graphically. Comparison of the pretest performance among the groups was found to be non-significant for all three targets: verb forms, $F(3, 74) = 0.78, p = .507$; word forms, $F(3, 74) = 1.44, p = .240$; sentence structures, $F(3, 74) = 0.67, p = .572$. Similarly, the ANOVA yielded no significant effect for prior grammar knowledge on learner performance: $F(3, 74) = 0.59, p = .622$. The results indicated that all the four groups may be regarded as equivalent at the onset of the study.

**Table 4. The Effects of FFI-Corrective Feedback: Descriptive Statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Pre-test M (SD)</th>
<th>Immediate post-test M (SD)</th>
<th>Delayed post-test M (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFI-C (n=23)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>3.07 (2.49)</td>
<td>1.13 (1.29)</td>
<td>1.40 (1.69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WW</td>
<td>2.23 (1.92)</td>
<td>1.59 (1.24)</td>
<td>1.61 (0.89)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>1.91 (2.17)</td>
<td>1.24 (1.10)</td>
<td>0.98 (0.83)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFI-U (n=17)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>3.21 (3.11)</td>
<td>1.63 (1.86)</td>
<td>1.86 (0.95)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WW</td>
<td>3.62 (2.28)</td>
<td>1.43 (1.15)</td>
<td>2.17 (1.56)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>2.74 (1.67)</td>
<td>1.00 (1.13)</td>
<td>1.61 (1.17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFI-only (n=23)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>3.73 (3.39)</td>
<td>1.87 (2.23)</td>
<td>1.60 (1.65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WW</td>
<td>2.96 (2.19)</td>
<td>2.41 (1.65)</td>
<td>3.29 (2.55)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>2.44 (1.86)</td>
<td>1.36 (1.08)</td>
<td>1.88 (1.44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control (n=18)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>2.42 (1.40)</td>
<td>2.56 (1.86)</td>
<td>3.60 (2.76)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WW</td>
<td>3.11 (1.88)</td>
<td>2.99 (2.37)</td>
<td>2.56 (2.00)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>2.30 (1.88)</td>
<td>2.06 (1.46)</td>
<td>2.46 (2.20)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The effects of FFI-corrective feedback on the three linguistic features.** The pretest and immediate post-test scores for grammatical structures were examined between subjects and also within subjects using two-way, repeated measures ANOVAs. As shown in Table 5, no significant differences were observed in the immediate-post-test scores between treatment- and control-group learners for the three grammar targets. Additionally, a significant treatment effect was found in the treat-group learners for all grammar targets. Learners in the treatment groups improved on grammar performance as a result of being exposed to instruction, whereas the control group, without the benefit of instruction, performed no better on the immediate post-tests than they did on the pretest.

**Table 5. The Effects of FFI-Corrective Feedback in Immediate Post-test: Two-way Repeated Measures ANOVA**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Within subjects</th>
<th>Between subjects</th>
<th>Time * Group Interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$df$</td>
<td>MSQ</td>
<td>$F$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>65.654</td>
<td>15.33***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WW</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>29.432</td>
<td>12.53***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31.001</td>
<td>18.39***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* *** $p < .001$; ** $p < .005$; * $p < .05$

Similarly, the immediate post-test and delayed post-test scores were examined. As shown in Table 6, significant differences were observed in the delayed posttest scores between treatment- and control group subjects for all grammar targets. In addition, treatment effect was found to be non-significant in the treatment-group students for all grammar targets. It indicated that learners in the treatment groups did not continue to improve on grammar performance. As shown in the results of delayed post-test in Table 4,
learners in treatment groups performed at approximately the same level one week after the treatment, whereas the control group performed worse on the delayed post-test than they did on the immediate post-test.

Table 6. The Effects of FFI-Corrective Feedback in Delayed Post-test: Two-way Repeated Measures ANOVA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Within subjects</th>
<th>Between subjects</th>
<th>Time * Group Interaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>df</td>
<td>MSQ</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.784</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WW</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.559</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.939</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.01; *p<.05

Figure 1. Group Means of Error Counts of Verb Forms Over Time

Figure 2. Group Means of Error Counts of Word Forms Over Rime
The effect of FFI-corrective feedback across group. The descriptive statistics including group means and standard deviations for each group over time are given in Table 7 and the means plotted on the graph in Figure 4. These results showed that the FFI-code group outperformed the other three groups on immediate post-test and delayed post-test. The analysis of variance confirmed that there were significant effects for group, $F (3, 74) = 3.00$, $p < .05$, and for time, $F (2, 73) = 24.93$, $p < .001$, as well as a significant Time×Group interaction, $F (6, 148) = 3.94$, $p < .005$. Scheffé’s post hoc pairwise comparisons were used to detect the source of the significance (see Tables 8 and 9). Results in Table 8 revealed that, first, there were no differences among the four groups at the time of pretest; second, the FFI-code group and the FFI-underline group performed significantly better than the control group on immediate post-test. No significant differences were detected on immediate posttest between the FFI-code and FFI-underline, nor between FFI-only and FFI-code or FFI-underline groups. At the time of delayed posttest, only the FFI-code group continued to perform significantly better than the control group. The other two groups appeared to perform no better at all than the control group.

Post hoc pairwise comparisons in Table 9 were made after a significant F ratio for the between-group factor (treatment). Significant differences were observed in the delayed posttest scores between FFI-code and the control group for two grammar targets (verb forms and sentence structure). Significant differences were also observed between FFI-only and FFI-code for word form, as well as between FFI-only and the control group for verb forms.

Table 7. The Effect of FFI-Corrective Feedback Across Groups: Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Immediate post-test</th>
<th>Delayed post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$M$</td>
<td>$SD$</td>
<td>$M$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFI-C</td>
<td>7.21</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFI-U</td>
<td>9.57</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFI-only</td>
<td>9.13</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>5.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>7.67</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>7.62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4. Group Means of Error Counts of Total Errors Over Time

Table 8. Scheff’s Post Hoc Pairwise Comparisons: Sums of Error Counts Across Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>FFI-C—FFI-U</th>
<th>FFI-C—FFI-only</th>
<th>FFI-C—Control</th>
<th>FFI-U—FFI-only</th>
<th>FFI-U—Control</th>
<th>FFI-only—Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>.511 (-2.37)</td>
<td>.621 (-1.92)</td>
<td>.993 (.47)</td>
<td>.993 (-4.66)</td>
<td>.993 (.45)</td>
<td>.810 (1.45)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immediate posttest</td>
<td>1.000 (-.10)</td>
<td>.316 (-1.68)</td>
<td>.008 (-3.67)**</td>
<td>.016 (-3.57)*</td>
<td>.495 (-1.58)</td>
<td>.278 (-1.98)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed posttest</td>
<td>.107 (-2.78)</td>
<td>.588 (-1.66)</td>
<td>.003 (-4.63)**</td>
<td>.127 (-2.97)</td>
<td>.817 (-1.12)</td>
<td>.456 (-1.85)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Scheff’s Post Hoc Pairwise Comparisons: Separate Error Counts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Sentence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Delayed posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>.901 (-.20)</td>
<td>.898 (-.47)</td>
<td>.007 (-2.20)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word</td>
<td>.849 (-.55)</td>
<td>.046 (-1.68)*</td>
<td>.501 (-.95)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td>.638 (-.64)</td>
<td>.272 (-.90)</td>
<td>.029 (-1.48)*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.01;  †p<.05

Table 10. Post Hoc Comparisons: Significant Contrasts of Post-test Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Error correction task</th>
<th>Writings tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immediate posttest</td>
<td>WW</td>
<td>FFI-code &gt; FFU, FFI-only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td></td>
<td>FFI-code &gt; FFI-only</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed posttest</td>
<td>WW</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>FFI-code &gt; FFI-only</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td></td>
<td>—</td>
<td>FFI-code &gt; Control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The Effects of Corrective Feedback on Revisions

It was found that the treatment groups corrected a much higher percentage of errors than the group without corrective feedback. Learners with coded feedback significantly outperformed those without feedback in
all the three linguistic areas: verb form, word form and sentence structure. Similarly, learners with non-coded feedback significantly outperformed the group without feedback in the areas of word form and sentence structure. It was also found that although the coded feedback group outperformed the non-coded feedback group, the effect size of the difference did not achieve the significant level in the aspects of word form and sentence structure. Ferris & Roberts (2001) and Zhu & Wang (2005) all reported that corrective feedback with differential explicitness did not result in different effect on error correction. Zhu & Wang (2005) suggested that, as corrective feedback was believed to have “double function”, its forms might be closely connected to “consciousness raising” function instead of “error correction” function. Therefore, it can be supposed that the effect derived from corrective feedback may continue in the subsequent learner performance.

As output-based grammar instruction was delivered, all three groups improved on error correction. When the results were compared in terms of verb form, word form, and sentence structure, the FFI-only group observed the largest extent of improvement in all the three targets, then the FFI-code group in word form alone; the FFI-underline group did not achieve obvious improvement in any linguistic target at all. Nevertheless, FFI-only group did not exceed the other two groups in all the measures. These results demonstrated that form-based instruction on student papers definitely drew learner attention and pushed them to notice the non-target forms in their output. To further consider the advantageous effects of code from other types of formal instruction, it is reasonable to hypothesize that with the code being provided, learner attention would mainly focus on the errors which were highlighted with categories. Furthermore, code could induce the potentially future interlanguage development because the student was reminded not only by the fact that error(s) existed, but also the nature of errors. Therefore, it could be assumed that the success of code might derive from the fact that it is more capable of providing an extended opportunity for the students to modify their output and create new output more successfully. These results once again support the claim that negative evidence is helpful and necessary for adult language learners to increase their mastery of the target language. The results further demonstrate that “consciousness raising” function of corrective feedback is evident. With lack of corrective feedback, learner attention cannot be directed at problematic linguistic areas with smoothness and efficiency.

**The Effects of FFI on the Short-Term Development**

Learners in the treatment groups improved significantly in subsequent new writings, whereas the control group without the benefit of form-focused explicit instruction did not improve much as the treatment groups did. Furthermore, learners in the treatment groups maintained approximately the same level of performance one week after the treatment. These results support the previous claim that explicit instruction is facilitative of learning (Ellis, 1994). Explicit grammar instruction included difficult and complex linguistic items students might fail to respond successfully as well as general rules and items they might respond to successfully after the corrective feedback, which might help learners not only notice more, but also comprehend more about the mismatch of form-meaning connections in their output.

Also, it is noteworthy to point out that the maintained performance of the treatment groups in the delayed post-test was similar to the result obtained by Iwashita (2003), who suggested that when learners lacked opportunity to get exposed to target language outside classroom, their awareness toward the instructed forms might not get enhanced, thus their subsequent performance of the targets might fail to further improve. Despite this, learners were still able to retain the gains accrued by the explicit instruction. Therefore, it is possible that negative and positive evidence together may not immediately enable learners
to integrate comprehensible input from post-output instruction into their interlanguages but may help them use partially acquired knowledge more accurately and accumulate more good evidences. Just as gradual diffusion model (Gatbonton, 1983) states that accumulated good repertoires of TL which include wrong IL forms, constitute a coexisting state. As accumulation of the good resources is up to a certain degree, the wrong forms will be rejected and expired from the IL. This corresponds to some extent to the proposal advanced by Fotos (1998) that prior grammar instruction should be directed at promoting learner comprehension of the target forms instead of expecting immediate development of the forms in interlanguage system and complete mastery of the forms in subsequent production.

The Role of Error Types
When all results are compared in terms of target structures, the beneficial effects of formal instruction are evident. FFI-code had a helpful impact on all linguistic targets (verb forms, word forms and sentence structures) at the time of immediate posttest and on word forms and sentence structures at the time of delayed posttest. The effect of FFI-underline on the three targets disappeared after the immediate post-test and presented a slight regradation, i.e., error counts increased. The beneficial effect of FFI-only was persistent on verb forms. However, its effects on word forms and sentence structures failed to retain after the time of immediate posttest.

The relative various performances of learners in terms of the three linguistic aspects may be explained in two ways. First, both corrective feedback which is negative and relatively indirect, and form-focused instruction which contains direct correction and explanation of rules contributed to short-term gains of verb forms, word forms and sentence structures, whereas only FFI-code appears to exert a consistently beneficial effect on all the formal deficits during a longer term. Second, the effects associated with the improvement of the accuracy were constrained by the nature of the target linguistic structures. Just as Larsen-Freeman has pointed out (1995, p. 141), it is unreasonable to expect that all grammatical knowledge can be learned under a single mechanism. Considering the different nature of various grammatical points and the complex learning process, we can more reasonably assume that there is no one single process operating for learners to achieve the learning of different linguistic areas evenly.

Another interesting finding was that short-term development of word form in learner language was evident in relation to the control group. This was in accordance with that of Ferris & Roberts (2001) in the aspect of correction of wrong word forms. In other words, students who did not receive any formal instruction performed well (error correction or new writing task) in terms of word forms. Students without the interruption of feedback distracting their attentional sources toward different aspects of linguistic forms, may focus primarily on the comprehension and fluency of their papers. Therefore, although the first glance gives rise to question whether word choice is treatable or not, the fact is that usually students may not worry about the original word choice they used; they may just replace it with a new one in which they feel confident when they find comprehension break down during the session of rereading their previous essays.

Conclusion
The present study indicates that coded feedback can work best when it is combined with explicit grammar instruction. In this respect, teachers may need to examine the kinds of tasks they use in their lessons in order to see to what extent they provide their students with the opportunity for reflecting output with the help of indirect feedback before explicit instruction is provided. The experimental findings showed that to a large extent, students could handle the emerging errors from their written production well with the help of indirect feedback. Nevertheless, to foster the learner’s ability in self-editing their own essays, a consistent feedback
system is required, in which the way to mark errors is formulated. Codes concerning the nature of errors are suggested to provide to the learner (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris, 2002), at least at the beginning of the relevant courses which aims to guiding the learner to get familiar with the checklist used at a later period when he/she dispenses with feedback from instructors. The significance to train students to self-edit composition is to foster their autonomy on examining their own linguistic output, because students need to become aware of which kinds of qualities, text organization, accuracy, fluency, a variety of lexical choices or sentence patterns are under investigation of their own writings. What they lack is careful and consistent instead of rough and random teacher feedback on either language accuracy or perfection of expressions in terms of its native-likeness.

These preliminary results support the use of coded feedback and output-based explicit grammar instruction as an effective instructional approach in EFL teaching. However, further quantitative and qualitative investigation of this approach is needed to advance collective understanding of the implications of this pedagogical practice.

**Acknowledgments**

This study was made possible by a grant in the following two projects from the Huali College, Guangdong University of Technology. Characteristic Innovation Projects of Universities in Guangdong Province (Educational Research Projects): No. 2017GXJK226, Micro-Lesson Based Research on Teaching Mode of Flipping English and American Literature Classroom, and No. 2016GXJK203, Research on the Validity of College Students’ Vocabulary Memory from the Perspective of Psycholinguistics.

**References**


The Improvement of English Pragmatic Competence in the Classroom
– From the Perspective of Lexicon-Grammar

Zeng Yuping
School of Foreign Languages, Zhaoqing University, Zhaoqing, China
Email: 1753923556@qq.com

[Abstract] In the process of English learning, both the breadth and depth of English lexicon, as well as grammar should be attached importance to in order to improve English learners’ pragmatic competence. This article focuses on forming a meaningful network through the integrity of lexicon and grammar in learning English by mastering the usage of noun and nominalization and verb and verbalization. The improvement of English pragmatic competence not only involves the improvement of the breadth and depth of lexicon and lexicon association ability, but also involves the establishment of English lexicon-grammar network in context.

[Keywords] lexicon-grammar; English learning; English pragmatic competence

Introduction
English learners in China relatively lack chances of natural exposure to the target language. The main way they learn English is in the classroom. From my teaching experience, I often find that most students learn English through memorizing English words and grammar, respectively. In their composition, it is easy to see that they use many more colloquial expressions, repetition and redundant words or wrong collocation often appear. Most students take it for granted that they could improve their English levels or skills if they acquire enough English words and grammar. The mastery of vocabulary and grammar is the prelude to the development of learners’ English pragmatic competence in using. Language is indeed meaning potential (Halliday, 1994). Learning English means learning its meaning. A language meaning system is embodied by lexicon and grammar, which are inseparable; just like cooking, in which cooking materials and cooking methods are indispensable. But it doesn’t mean it is enough to just memorize the meaning of English words and grammar. The meaning system of language in fact is a concept system which must be connected with the sensory motor system, cognitive system and language system at the same time in context. In order to improve English learners’ pragmatic competence, both the width and depth of English lexicon, grammar as well as context should be acquired together and form an appropriate network in their brain in learning.

Integrity of Lexicon and Grammar
In traditional grammar, the status of grammar is far higher than vocabulary. Vocabulary is just the filler whose function is to meet the needs of grammar. With deeper research on language, researchers have a new concept about vocabulary. Just as Wilkins (1972, p. 111) stated, “while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed”. Vocabulary and grammar are indispensable to each other in the process of language learning. Here, lexicon/vocabulary refers to the totality of vocabulary items in a language, including all forms having lexical meaning or grammatical function. There is a continuum between grammar and the lexicon (Lakoff, 1987). Langacker (2000, p. 18) pointed out that lexicon and grammar form a continuum, and structures at any point along it being fully and properly described as symbolic in nature. The status of vocabulary and the relationship between vocabulary and grammar should be taken into consideration as a whole. When people communicate with each other, they
focus on meaning. The meaning of a sentence cannot be obtained just from the meanings of individual words, from the composition of words or from previous construction. Construction itself also has meaning which will affect the sentence meaning. The improvement of learners’ pragmatic competence involves vocabulary learning, grammar learning in context and all are acquired together but not separately. A meaningful and acceptable communication can show some degree of cohesion in various levels of language, such as semantic, lexical, syntactic, phonetic and other components.

**Forming a Network through Integrity of Lexicon and Grammar Learning**

Learning a language means learning its meaning. Meaning derives from all sorts of relationships which cover the lexical level, grammatical level, semantic level and pragmatic level as well. It contains syntagmatic relations and paradigmatic relations and shows the sequence from concreteness to abstraction. A word gives information through its being chosen (paradigmatic) and at the same time, it is a part of the realization of a larger term (syntagmatic). The hierarchical meaning relations are described as five categories, such as collocation, colligation, semantic preference, semantic prosody and core (which is invariable, and constitutes the evidence of the occurrence of the item as a whole) of co-selection as components of a lexical item (Sinclair, 2004). Vocabulary and grammar both have meaning, which will be changed with different situations. Word meaning is variable and open. It highly depends on its contextual situation (Evans, 2006). Vocabulary and grammar learning should not be separated to learn but as a whole in context. The integration of both is an effective way for learners to form a network and to improve their pragmatic competence. Take the following passage for example.

‘John was late. The station clock had struck nine. It was time for Susan to start work. She took the first essay from the pile. It was by Mary Jones. Mary had not been well for weeks. The doctor told her to take a holiday. The problem was that she couldn’t afford one. Living in London is now very expensive. All central government subsidies to the Greater London Council have been abolished.’

From this passage, readers will find that each sentence has some cohesive relation with the previous sentence but the whole passage has no coherent meaning and logic. As a result, the whole passage is meaningless indeed. Meaning exists at all levels. It is the integrity of lexicon and grammar in English learning that learners can form a network of lexicon and grammar which enables them to use language appropriately and effectively. In order to improve English learners’ pragmatic competence and avoid the above meaningless writing, lexicon-grammar should be acquired together in context to form a meaningful network in their brain. As a consequence, once needed, words and grammar will be triggered to form correct utterances and achieve the communicative purpose. Now that there is a continuum between lexicon and grammar, in the following cases, the integrity of lexicon and grammar will be discussed, that is, mastering the usage of noun and nominalization and the usage of verb and verbalization, through which English learners are able to know under what circumstance their communicative purpose will be realized appropriately and effectively.

**Mastering the Usage of Noun and Nominalization**

The most important two parts of speech in language are verbs and nouns. In the process of learning nouns, if connected with concrete context, some synonyms will be understood better and bring some intuition to learners. For example, there are some sentences in a book called *Life of Ma Parker* which depicts rheumatics which brings Ma Parker some sufferings, “To take off her boots or to put them on was an agony to her, but
it had been an agony for years. In fact, she was so accustomed to the pain that her face was drawn and screwed up ready to the twinge before she’d so much as untied the laces”. There are three synonyms, namely agony, pain and twinge in the passage. If learners consult their dictionary, they will find the meanings of these three words. But even though they know the meanings of these three words, it is not the case that they can distinguish between them easily if without context. While in the context, learners can sense the differences among the three synonyms. The implied meaning between the lines will help learners understand the thoughts of the author.

Nouns in English can bring about the phenomenon of ambiguity if deviated from context. For example, in the sentence ‘I am looking for a man who knows German’ can be understood in the following two ways, one is ‘I am looking for a particular man who knows German’; the other is ‘I am looking for any man who knows German’ (Givón, 1984). To master nouns means to not only know their functions in grammar but also to know how to use them to express one’s ideas or thoughts in different context. So, when learning nouns, learners should learn them in context and grasp their connotative meanings. Simultaneously, different features of styles should be acquired which enable learners to use them appropriately in different situation, like nouns ‘domicile, residence, abode and home’ or nouns ‘steed, horse, nag, gee-gee’. Although these nouns have the similar meaning, they are applied in different styles.

In addition, in English, nominalization, as a kind of important resource of vocabulary and grammar, plays an important role in communication. Nominalization provides people with a way of choice when they are not willing to show participants or wants to hide their identity to show objectiveness. Through changing and restructuring sentences, nominalization enables the whole text to be concise, to have textual coherence, to be objective and be rich in information. Nominalization can also blur the interpersonal relationship and delete modal elements. Its main role is not only expressing the dynamic process but emphasizing the relationship between things or entities. For example, in this sentence, ‘if you want to investigate the relative effectiveness of various swim-strokes, you would have to detail the number of swimming tested’ can be written like ‘An investigation of the relative effectiveness of various swim-strokes would have to detail in the number of swimmers tested’, which is more concise and objective without redundant words. A semantically condensed text, e.g. one in which most activities are expressed by nominalized verbs without explicit mention of agents, instruments, and experiencers, seems at first glance to be quite easy, but it is often very difficult to render such noun expressions accurately and meaningfully. In fact, this is precisely the type of text which requires “unpacking” by making explicit what is structurally implicit in the source text (Nada, 1993, p. 133). When nominalization is used, it should have positive effect on the writing. It should conform to the writing style and used appropriately. Take the following thesis statement as an example, ‘Successful sports professional can earn a great deal more money than people in other important professions. Some people think this is fully justified while others think it is unfair’. These lines are just fine if used in general. While if in a composition as thesis statement, it is much better to change these lines like ‘With enormous income, the celebrities as successful sports professionals are far richer than those engaged in other occupational fields. Some people argue that this phenomenon is fairly reasonable while others consider it discouraging /inequality. Here objectiveness and condensation of the structure are realized by using nominalization.

Mastering noun and nominalization in context and form a meaningful network can enlarge learners’ vocabulary depth and width and deepen their understanding of grammar.
Mastering the Usage of Verb and Verbalization

A verb, as one of the most important figures of speech, is a word that in syntax conveys an action, an occurrence, or a state of being. In many languages, verbs are inflected to encode tense, aspect, mood and voice. Verbs in English should agree with the person, gender and number of some of its argument, such as subject or object. Verbs vary by type, and each type is determined by the kinds of words that follow it and the relationship those words have with the verb itself. The types, tense and aspects of verbs reflect the features of events which are described by verbs. Verbs are of importance in English grammar. The verb, or rather the verb phrase…is so central to the structure of the sentence that no syntactic analysis can proceed without a careful consideration of it; another is the great complexity of the internal semantic and syntactic structure of the verb phrase itself (Palmer, 1988).

Through analyzing my students’ compositions, it can be seen that some students overuse some verbs. They just do slot-filler exercises and adapt an English to Chinese thinking mode. For example, they use ‘make’ or ‘let’ too much, just like in the following two sentences ‘my performance in the first semester at college let my parents happy very much’ and ‘This made me think about an old saying practice makes perfect’. When told them to analyze these two sentences ‘my performance in the first semester at college greatly pleased my parents’ and ‘this reminded me of the saying practice makes perfect’ with the formers, they all agree that the latter ones are more suitable in their composition.

When learning English, students in China are more likely to correspond the meaning of a verb in English to Chinese interpretation mechanically. Therefore, in the process of generating sentences it is more likely for them to shift the argument features of source language to those of target language. The argument shift occurs in pairs between transitive verbs and causative verbs which make it difficult for Chinese learners to master it. In addition, there is the phenomenon of exchange between nouns and verbs in English, about which English learners should attach importance to. For example, when Shakespeare describes the beauty of Egypt’s queen Cleopatra, he uses the expression ‘beggared all description’. Here, beggar which is noun is used as verb, which means language is as poor as a beggar that cannot describe the beauty of Cleopatra. From this, it can be seen clearly that lexicon and grammar cannot be separable. The same word will have different meaning when appearing in different context which embodies the feature of language economy.

Nouns profile a thing which is scanned summarily as a static gestalt based on image schema while verbs, on the contrary, profile a process which is scanned sequentially based on the relations. For example, the sentence “I saw her duck and swallow” can be understood just in two ways, “I saw her duck and swallow” (Both duck and swallow are birds) and “I saw her duck and swallow” (Both duck and swallow are actions). The sentence structure and the hearer’s general knowledge about words maybe restrict the understanding of the sentence. Verbalization refers to the language phenomenon that a non-process is taken as a process or a non-action is realized by a verb. The verbalization of nouns often expresses the characteristics of the nouns and the property of the action. When using the noun verbalized to describe an action, the whole sentence will be not only concise but also vivid. There are some types of verbalization often used. For example, the nouns which indicate human body can be used as verb like in the sentence ‘The youngster shoulders their responsibility’; the nouns which refer to the location can be used as verb like in the sentence ‘The thief was cornered and caught’ or ‘The newspaper boy porched the newspaper’; the nouns which indicate a person’s identity or position can be used as verb like in the sentence ‘He co-authored a book on biotechnology’. 
In the process of forming meaningful concepts and reasoning, human physiological structure, body experience and rich imagination play an indispensable role. The concepts formed by people are restricted by people's sensory motors. They are embodied by schema structures, mental images, and metaphors as well as metonymy in which people's imagination plays an important role. The semantic knowledge does not directly derive from the internal part of words or external meaning but from the interaction between learners and the object which is express by words and grammar. People are accustomed to using relatively simple and specific concepts to refer to more complex abstract concepts (Heine, Claudi, & Hunnemeyer, 1991). Verbalization accords with the law of nature. In the process of improving English learners' pragmatic competence, the learners should attach importance to this phenomenon and know the mechanism of it, then they will internalize this knowledge and use it without thinking or subconsciously. When people learn a foreign language, they are not only to learn the language itself, but cultural differences from their native language. Learners should transcend their own culture and see things as the members of the target culture will. The inseparability of understanding language and understanding culture cannot be emphasized too much. Successful mastery of a foreign language has much to do with an understanding of the target culture. Foreign learners should understand the way of thinking of native speakers and develop their intuitions toward the target language. Knowing the phenomenon of verbalization offers a new way of looking at the world. Nominalization can blur or conceal the actor of a process whereas the use of verbalization requires the explicit expression of the actor.

Mastering verb and verbalization in context and forming a meaningful network can enlarge learners’ vocabulary depth and width and deepen their understanding of grammar. Conclusion

Lexicon and grammar convey information and play a key role in the whole process of English learning and is of critical importance to language learners. The process of learning English is a dynamic one. Learners must develop their vocabulary breadth and depth and master grammar and use both appropriately in order to become proficient in their English learning. Word knowledge is a multi-dimension framework, so does grammar. The process of language learning is the process of constructing language meaning. Teachers should aim at developing a more learner-centered teaching style rather than be directed only by their textbooks. They should put emphasis on the demands and interests of learners so as to enhance their motivation and maximize their enthusiasm and initiative of learning English. Language is changeable and language change is originated from language use but not language itself. When learning English, learners should attach importance to the integrity of lexicon and grammar, such as noun and nominalization and verb and verbalization, which enables learners to study language as a whole and form a network of meaning system in their brain, from which they can improve their English pragmatic competence and communicate in English fluently and appropriately.

References


Applying the Production-Oriented Approach on the Business English Course:
The Case of English for Tourism

Xiaoxin Mai, and Shaolan Bian
School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: arielmai@qq.com

[Abstract] Based on Wen Qiufang’s Production-Oriented Approach, this paper studies the effectiveness of a POA teaching design on improving Business English students’ output performances and critical thinking ability. A two week experiment was carried out with sixty-four first-year students on the course of English for Tourism using a teaching design based on the POA system. The results showed that the POA design can promote teacher-student communication and peer learning, improve students’ overall output results, and help cultivate their critical awareness during the learning process.

[Keywords] production-oriented approach; business English; critical thinking

Introduction
As a course of English for Business Purposes, English for Tourism enables students to acquire English listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translation skills in the context of travel and tourism, and it is also highly communication-oriented. During our past years of teaching the course, we were often pleased by students’ keen interests in the travel-and-tourism-related topics and the exercises provided in the course, yet we were also somehow disappointed by their unsatisfactory output performances which could take the form of poorly written or translated passages, or oral presentations marred by the inappropriate use of grammar, and tourism-specific lexical chunks, etc. In other words, motivation was not a problem, but the learning result was dissatisfactory. Moreover, students’ performance in class and their output products also demonstrated a lack of critical thinking (CT) skill. A questionnaire survey done at the end of the last semester showed that about half of the students were frustrated by the quality of their own speaking, writing and translation performances. Moreover, about 2/3 admitted not having the habit of combining learning with thinking, or in other words, critical awareness (CA).

As Professor Wen Qiufang pointed out (2017), providing input tasks does not mean that students can have effective output, because in output they still face various difficulties. In our view, the problem of output performance quality being disproportional to the quality and amount of input exercises was one resulted from two facts: first, input failed to support output, and second, output failed to evaluate input. As for the second problem of students’ lacking CT skills, we agree with Ren and Wang’s view that the traditional teaching practice hinders the development of CT skills since it centers on mechanical memorizing and imitation and fails to cultivate analysis, inference and evaluation which are the core of CT (2018). To address these two issues, we conducted a two-week experimental study on sixty-four Chinese-speaking Business English majors at Jinan University by applying the Production-Oriented Approach (POA) on the course of English for Tourism. POA was chosen not only because it would facilitate output performance, but also because its teaching principles and assessment system would be conducive to the training of CT. Devised by Professor Wen Qiufang and her team in recent years, POA is a pedagogical system “designed to make optimally efficient and effective the teaching and learning of English at universities in China by adapting, combining, and refining established theories of second language
acquisition to create pedagogical materials, key principles, and sequences of teaching, learning, and assessment that focus and maximize language input, output, interaction, and learning together” (Cumming, 2016). All text should be formatted according to the details of these instructions. To reduce costs, authors should keep copies of their papers; reprints of final versions will not be supplied.

![Figure 1. The System of POA (Wen, 2015)](image)

According to the theoretical frame of POA (Figure 1), the three teaching principles are: 1) the “Learning-Centered Principle”, which emphasizes the importance of fulling teaching goals and facilitates effective learning; 2) the “Learning-Using Integrated Principle”, which focuses on the integration of input (listening and reading) and output (speaking, writing and translation); and 3) the “Whole-Person Education Principle”, which advocates the improvements of students’ CT ability, self-learning ability and overall humanistic quality alongside the development of comprehensive English language competence. And the teaching hypothesis includes “output-driven”, “input-enabled” and “selective learning”. As for the teaching process, during which a teacher’s mediation is presented, it comprises three phases: “motivating”, “enabling” and “assessing”, which reflect and illustrate the principles while testing the hypotheses (Ren & Wang, 2018).

**Applying POA to English for Tourism**

The experiment lasted for two weeks during the second semester of the 2018-2019 academic year, and the in-class time it covered was four forty-five-minute sessions. Two classes of first year students of Business English major were recruited. They were of 30 and 34 members, respectively. In terms of the main teaching material, Unit 6, titled “Chinese Cuisine” was chosen. And the research questions addressed in the study were:

1) *Will POA help to ease the discrepancy between the quality of input and the quality of output?*
2) *Will POA help to enhance students’ CA in learning?*

**Design and Procedure**

Based on the three phases of the POA teaching process and following the design flow of “output-input-output”, our original teaching process, a looping design of “input-output”, went through a major makeover, and the result is the new design shown in Figure 2.
To help students cultivate their CA and eventually improve their CT skills, teachers have to embed CT skills in the teaching materials and provide students the opportunities to identify them, analyze them, characterize them, and consider similarities and differences between them (Mansoor, & Samaneh, 2014). Techniques to integrate CT activities in-class, as suggested by Carr (1998, cited in Schneider, 2002) range from providing time and space for brainstorming, allowing students to find solutions to problem on their own, providing opportunity to compare and contrast and categorize, and encourage creativity. For the teaching design of Unit 6, all above-mentioned techniques were applied.

When it comes to the three phases of the teaching process, as Wen (2015) explained, the “motivating” phase includes three steps. First, the teacher presents the tasks with specific communication scenarios. Second, students try to complete the tasks, and after they realize the difficulties, they will be motivated to complete the tasks and engage in further learning. Third, the teacher explains the learning goals which are divided into two categories, “communicative goals” and “cognitive goals”, as well as the corresponding output tasks. As pointed out by Wen (2015), for teachers, “motivating” is the most challenging of all three phases. She also suggested that pre-class video learning can be used for “motivating” purpose.

For this experiment, two three-minute micro-videos were created for the “motivating” phase to illustrate the culture shocks foreign visitors may experience when they first encounter the various Chinese regional foods, as well as the difficulties Chinese hosts may encounter when helping foreign guests understand typical menu items. The students watched one video prior to class in each week, and they were asked to come up with their own ways to tackle the above-mentioned difficulties.

During the “enabling” phase, for the first week, Text A “Chinese regional cuisines” was used as the main material for in-class learning. The input tasks (in-class listening and reading) enable students to learn about the eight major regional cuisines, and the key principles used when translating into English the names of the signature dishes of each cuisine. The corresponding output tasks designed for this part were (Task A.1) “write a short introduction for your hometown cuisine” (in-class group work), and (Task A.2) “translate some signature dishes of your city or province” (post-class individual work). The communicative goal of the tasks was using the lexical chunks acquired so far to introduce a certain regional cuisine and
translating the names of Chinese dishes by applying the newly-learned principles, whereas the cognitive goal was to understand the differences between Chinese and foreign dietary habits, as well as the consequential culture shocks foreign guests may encounter. As for the second week, Text B “The Healing Cuisine” (in-class listening and reading) introduced the influence of Chinese traditional medicine on people’s eating styles and the health-preserving aspects of Chinese dietary culture. The corresponding output task (Task B) was to “write a short and informal speech to explain to foreign guests some Chinese-characteristic dietary concepts such as Yin and Yang, Hot and Cold, Shanghuo, and Yixingbuxing, etc”. The communicative goal of Task B was to apply the lexical chunks, especially the cultural-specific expressions learned in this unit and the speech-making techniques acquired previously to educate foreign visitors in a social networking situation so as to help them ease any possible culture shocks. And the cognitive goal of the task was to gain insights into the influence of traditional Chinese culture on the modern day diet and eating habits while learning to be critical towards such influences and be open-minded towards foreign dietary cultures. Also, in the second week, students were instructed to complete a concluding task for the unit (Task C, done after class in groups and submitted in the form of an eight-minute video), and this task took the form of a debate on the topic “Should dog-meat consumption be banned?” The communicative goal of this task was for students to use, as many as possible, in writing and speaking, the lexical chunks acquired in Unit 6, and the language patterns used in making arguments acquired in previous weeks. As for the cognitive goal, it was enabling them to think critically on the issue of dog-meat eating and other similar controversial animal-consumption issues, while learning to be culturally tolerant.

As for the “assessing” phase, four types of assessments were applied, that is, teacher assessment, student self-assessment, student peer assessment and the Teacher-Student Collaborative Assessment (TSCA) which was a POA-specific system devised and recommended by professor Wen (2016b). Details of the assessment application are shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Students (=Ss)</th>
<th>Teacher (=T)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-class</td>
<td>No assessment required after the completion of output tasks.</td>
<td>After S’s completion of output tasks, chooses typical samples and decides accordingly what to assess with Ss later in class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-class</td>
<td>Peer assessment on the typical samples chosen by T, followed by T-S collaborative assessment.</td>
<td>Guides Ss to do peer assessment and then collaborates with Ss to further assessing target contents designed pre-class.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-class</td>
<td>Ss revise their output products, do self-assessment, and peer-assessing partners’ products.</td>
<td>Randomly picks some refined products to assess, draws conclusion and sends high quality products online to share with all Ss.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Results and Discussion**

After the 2-week experiment, quantitative and qualitative surveys were conducted. Anonymous questionnaires designed using a five-point Likert scale addressed mainly the teaching design and the fulfillment of learning goals, and sixty-two valid questionnaires were collected. Semi-structured oral interviews were also conducted with twenty students randomly recruited, and the aim was to understand their learning experience, obtain their feedback on the POA teaching design, and propose solutions for any problems that would have emerged.

The quantitative data revealed that the students’ satisfaction level on the new teaching design was high, with the numbers of “satisfied” and “very satisfied” accounting for nearly 80% (Figure 3). As for the
fulfillment of learning goals, about half of the respondents were “satisfied” or “very satisfied” (Figure 3). Apparently, the satisfaction rate for the teaching design was higher than their own fulfillment of learning goals.

Figure 3. Satisfaction with the POA Teaching Design and Fulfillment of Learning Goals

In terms of the level of difficulty in completing the output tasks, 60% of the respondents chose “moderate”, while 26% felt they were “difficult” (Figure 4). As Wen (2015) suggested, both input and output tasks can be of a higher level of difficulty for the purpose of motivating students and stimulating better performance. That is to say, for this experiment, the materials could have been given a slightly higher level of difficulty. As for the satisfaction level on individual participation in output tasks, about 45% chose “moderate”, and nearly 40% were “satisfied” (Figure 5).

Figure 4. Degree of Difficulty in Completing Output Tasks

Figure 5. Satisfaction Level on Individual Participation in Output Tasks

Students were also asked about their general view on how helpful the teaching design and materials were in cultivating critical awareness. The results show that most students considered them to be helpful, with the “helpful” group accounting for 50% and “very helpful” close to 30% (Figure 6).
Figure 6. How Helpful the Teaching Design and Materials were in Cultivating Critical Awareness

As for the semi-structured oral interviews conducted with twenty students, all interviewees gave positive feedback on the two-week experience. In conclusion, their comments showed that the new teaching design and reorganized materials induced a positive leaning experience in three aspects: pre-class output tasks highly stimulated interests, in-class TSCA facilitated teacher-student interactions and knowledge internalization, quality of output products higher than usual helped install self-confidence and cultivated CA. One thing worth noticing was that eight out of twenty interviewees expressed the same feeling of having learned more in these two experimenting weeks comparing to what would have been learned in a normal two-week period. And most of them attributed this sense of fulfillment to the fact that the quantity and quality of their output products were increased. And the following are some participants’ comments which highlight the positive aspects of the POA design.

“I consider the situations presented in the pre-class video to be very truthful because I myself have run into similar difficulties before. So, the tasks really got me thinking.”

“I think the new assessment process is very thorough, engaging and encouraging. Although it takes a lot of time, I really enjoy my communication with our teacher and among ourselves. And the rounds of assessing and reassessing truly help me improve my results.”

“The new techniques our teacher used in class and the tasks we did together, especially the debate, really made me want to learn more, and I realized I could see things from different perspectives and think critically now, at least with the given materials, and under the teacher’s guidance.”

Some students also brought forward suggestions which included 1) having the Task C debate in class rather than after class in the form of a video, as the latter was too time consuming; and 2) having the teacher assign several output tasks of different difficulty levels at once, allowing students to choose one freely, because some students of lower language competence and learning capacity felt the tasks given to be too difficult. Based on the above results of quantitative and qualitative surveys, the two research questions can be answered as follows:

1. **POA helps to increase the quality of output.**
2. **POA helps to enhance students’ Critical Awareness.**
Conclusion

Based on the Production-Oriented Approach, the authors created a teaching design for one unit of the course English for Tourism and conducted a two-week experiment to test the effectiveness of the design on improving students’ output performances and enhancing their critical awareness during the learning process. The results can be concluded from the following two aspects:

– From the students’ perspective: the POA design helped to stimulate interests, facilitate peer learning and teacher-student communication, enhance effective assessment, and increase the quality of output.

– From the teacher’s perspective: the POA was conductive to the optimization of teaching materials, the improvement of the teacher’s skills in making teaching design and understanding students’ feeling and learning outcome in a timely and effective manner.

As this experiment was conducted with a small group of first-year students and only lasted for two weeks, whether POA works for other courses of English for Business Purposes targeting wider student population and longer learning periods, further researches are needed to yield an answer. Moreover, due to the fact that such POA design requires a considerate amount of effort from the teacher in and outside of the classroom, to carry out a wider-scaled reform, group effort and resources from the teacher’s community is recommended.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge support from the National Social Science Fund of China (17CYY017), the Department of Education of Guangdong Province (2016 Higher Education Reform Projects), and Jinan University (The 21st Batch of Education Reform Projects).

References


Problems of Classroom Interaction in Intensive Reading and Speaking Class at the Tertiary English Teaching in China

Guozhi Cai
Jilin University Zhuhai College, Zhuhai, China
Email: 2246487089@qq.com

Abstract Recent literature on English Language Teaching (ELT) highlights the importance of social interaction, also known by terminologies such as “communication”, “negotiation of meaning”, “co-construction”, “cooperative learning”, and “responsive teaching”, etc. In line with this trend, the newly-issued College English Curriculum (2000) in China and its corresponding textbooks advocate communicative and task-based language teaching. This article analyzes discourse co-constructed by teacher-student and student-student interaction in tertiary English-language courses such as “Contemporary College English”, also known as Intensive Reading (IR) and “Speaking”. This study is ethnographic in nature. The data includes classroom observation, transcription of the discourse in both classes and interview of students observed. Data transcription and analysis reveal the teacher’s dominance of classroom talk in the former course and the low quality of students’ interlanguage produced during student-student interaction in the latter, which is not conducive to improving their English proficiency, all of which merit further research.

Keywords social interaction, tertiary education, ELT in China

Introduction
The trend of ELT worldwide has moved away from a traditional method, i.e. grammar translation, teacher-centeredness to a more student-centered approach, featuring such concepts as communicative language teaching (CLT) (Widdowson, 1978), task-based language teaching (TBLT) (Long, 1985; Ellis, 2003), interaction and others (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Influenced by the trend, ELT in China has witnessed changes through the issue of the New Curriculum (2000) and the changes to its corresponding textbooks advocating student-centeredness, communicative and task-based language teaching (Cai, 2011). Kumaravadivelu (2003) maintains that ‘Classroom reality is socially constructed and historically determined’ (p. 13). Indeed, the large class sizes, teachers’ language proficiency, teachers’ understanding of student-centeredness and the concepts of teaching and learning all make the implementation of student-centeredness a challenging task that will not be achieved easily (Cai, 2011). For English majors in China, the four skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing – are all highlighted and Contemporary College English, also known as the Intensive Reading (IR) course, is the core module with the aim to improve all four skills (Cai, & Cook, 2015). Meanwhile, other modules like Listening and Speaking, Extensive Reading and Writing each having its own specific focus correspond to the four skills, are also running in accordance to the curriculum. This article, analyzing the classroom discourse, will point out the problem of interaction with the purpose to attract both practitioners’ and scholars’ attention to improve the efficiency of classroom interaction.
Literature Review

*Interaction Hypothesis and its Application in ELT*

Van Lier argued that most current views of language education are based on the assumption that social interaction plays a central role in learning processes, manifested by such terminologies as “communication”, “negotiation of meaning”, “co-construction”, “cooperative learning”, “responsive teaching” and so on (2001, p. 90). A further part of the argument favoring interaction hinges on a phenomenon known as ‘scaffolding’, which derives from cognitive psychology and L1 research. In language acquisition studies, scaffolding refers to the provision through conversation of linguistic structures that promote a learner’s recognition or production of those structures or associated forms. The importance of this concept is that in various conversational or other task-related interaction, the ‘vertical discourse’ – the sequence of turns taken with conversant – aids learners in gradually incorporating portions of sentences, lexical items, and reproducing sounds, etc., in meaningful ways rather than in mechanical repetition or lengthy monologues (Chaudron, 1988, p. 10).

Interaction is viewed as significant because it is argued that: 1) only through interaction can the learner decompose the TL structures and derive meaning from classroom events; 2) interaction gives learners the opportunities to incorporate TL structures into their own speech (the scaffolding principle; and 3) the meaningfulness for learners of classroom events of any kind, whether thought of as interactive or not, will depend on the extent to which communication has been jointly constructed between the teacher and learners (Chaudron, 1988, p. 10).

It is hypothesized that output promotes ‘noticing’. That is to say, in producing the target language (vocally or sub-vocally) learners may notice a gap between what they want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognize what they do not know or know only partially. In other words, under some circumstances, the activity of producing the target language may prompt second language learners to consciously recognize some of their linguistic problems; it may bring to their attention something they need to discover about their L2 (Swain, 1993). This may trigger cognitive processes which might generate linguistic knowledge that is new for learners, or which consolidate their existing knowledge (Swain, & Lapkin, 1995). The line of research that focuses on the interactional structure of conversation was developed by researchers such as Long (1981) and Gass, et al. (1998). The emphasis is on the role which negotiated interaction between native and non-native speakers and between two NNSs plays, in the development of a second language.

Ever since the introduction of concepts such as CLT, TBLT and interaction to China, only a few empirical studies have been conducted in China in relation to interaction. Cai & Sun’s (2017) study revealed that working in pairs outside the interpretation class enhances students’ English proficiency. Xu & Kou's (2018) study shows that there is a positive relationship between learners’ strategic use in interaction and their L2 oral performance in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF).

**Method**

*Intensive Reading and Speaking*

Intensive Reading (IR), literally means ‘reading meticulously’. Everett (1990) noted that in many programs, IR is considered to be the most appropriate manner for developing students’ language ability (including all the four skills discussed in the previous section). The Speaking module stipulates the learning outcome to be: exchanging ideas with people from English-speaking countries on major international or domestic issues,
such as political, economic, cultural, educational and scientific, engaging in lengthy and in-depth discussions on these subjects, and expressing themselves clearly, assertively and coherently (New English Curriculum 2000). Drawing on interactional theory, this article will analyze data collected from both IR and Speaking classes with the same students to reveal classroom interaction in different classes.

**The University, its Students and Teachers**

The study was conducted on a campus of one of the second tier universities in China. Pegg observed that many accounts of access underplay the nature of personal connections, yet research often relies on this network to generate opportunities for selection of cases, to ease the way into organizations and to smooth the path of the research (2009, p. 73). Being a Chinese English teacher teaching at a university in China makes me an insider in the researched culture. Meanwhile, collecting the data from a neighboring university gives me an outsider’s view and analytical distance, both of which are important for an ethnographic study (Hammersley, 2006). I accessed the university contact number via their website and was able to speak to the dean explaining the purpose of my research and my wish to collect data at her university. When I arrived there, another teacher, Ms. Wang showed great interest in what I was going to do and agreed that I could observe her classes. After I explained my purpose for observing the class, students were happy to be observed and took it as an opportunity to reflect upon their classroom participation. Being a university teacher who has been doing research at the university level (Cai, 2011; Leedham & Cai, 2013; Cai & Cook, 2015; Cai & Sun, 2017; Cai, 2019), I am very aware of the ethical issues and explained to the participants their right of withdrawal if they wish.

There were 25 students in the same class and their level of English was mixed, but the majority might be characterized as intermediate. The teacher observed was in her late thirties. She holds an MA in Applied Linguistics from the UK and has been working at the university for over 5 years. The Australian Native English speaking teacher also holds an MA and has been teaching in China for more than 10 years. The data to be analyzed was from the observation, recording and transcription of 16 English classes with freshmen and other data included interviews of students observed and relevant documents, i.e. the English syllabus and textbooks, teachers’ work plans and PowerPoint slides.

For this article, examples were drawn from the transcripts of English IR and Speaking classes with the same cohort taught by Ms. Wang and Tom, respectively.

**Data Analysis**

The following first two excerpts are from the IR classes taught by Ms. Wang when she explained the text *The Nightingale and the Rose* by Oscar Wilde. Altogether, 10 teaching hours of 45 minutes each were allocated to this text, including two teaching hours for exercises. Most of the time was spent explaining the use of vocabulary, grammar items and sentence structures that had been prepared on over 40 PowerPoint slides.

The following PowerPoint slide was used whilst Ms. Xu taught the word ‘fling’.
Words and Expressions

• fling
  1) to throw violently, with force
     Don’t fling your clothes on the floor.
  2) to move violently or quickly
     She flung herself down on the sofa.
     She flung back her head proudly.
  3) to devote to
     He flung himself into the task.

Figure 1. PowerPoint Slide Used to Explain the Word “Fling”

The following excerpt was the discourse produced when the teacher explained the new word “fling”.

Table 1. Discourse Produced by the Teacher Explaining the Word “Fling”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turn</th>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Original utterances</th>
<th>My translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>… And now he flung himself down on the grass.</td>
<td>What actually is he doing? He falls down to the grass, flings himself down on the grass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Flung himself down on the grass, Fling oneself?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fling oneself, fling oneself down on the grass.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>板一下子叫作样了呢。我就在草地上上了，一下子就趴在上面。</td>
<td>Let’s look at the word fling fling oneself down on the grass. OK, fling to throw violently with force. and for example don’t fling your clothes on the floor. Don’t throw your clothes on the floor. Don’t throw and to move violently or quickly show here in this sentence she flung herself down on the sofa she moved violently or quickly down on the sofa. flung back her head proudly. Flung back her proudly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>third meaning to devote to something</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>He flung himself into the task. He spend all his time carrying on the research working on the task. Yes here meaning of to fling oneself into something fling oneself down to something.</td>
<td>She flung her head and made herself look cool.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is indicated in the transcript, all the utterances were made by the teacher explaining the meaning of the new word. In fact, the teacher read out from the PowerPoint slide repeatedly and the content of her discourse did not deviate from what was in the slide. In a sense, the slide served as a script for the teacher to read out loud. Jin and Cortazzi (1996) observed that in an IR class, new words and selected grammatical points are explained and exemplified in detail, with drills and exercises involving pronunciation, translation and the use of synonyms and paraphrases.
A further example of the teacher’s dominance of the classroom discourse was the occasion when Ms. Wang’s explained the word ‘sweet’. The sentence under discussion was: “Give me a red rose”, she cried, “and I will sing you my sweetest song.”

Table 2. Ms. Wang’s Utterances Explaining the Word ‘Sweet’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turn</th>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Original utterances</th>
<th>My translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>... Sweet song, please give me a red rose I sing this and my sweetest song. A sweet song</td>
<td>Oh a very sweet song, sweet song. ... sweet can be used to modify many things, anything edible can be modified by sweet. sweet cake, sweet cake, sweet wine... Many others things can also be expressed by sweet. For example:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A sweet, have you ever seen any sweet girl? A sweet girl, a sweet girl.

What does it refer to... In fact it means the girl has good temper, she is good-tempered... sweet smile, sweet smile, sound pleasant, very sweet...

and a xxx sweet sweet blood. Sweet blood say the girl got a lot of mosquito bites. Got a lot of mosquito bite. I think mosquito likes me because my blood is very sweet.

Mosquito likes my blood. My blood is very fragrant.

The discourse was produced by the teacher when she explained in detail the meaning of the word “sweet”. Apart from the example in the original text, five more collocations with the word “sweet” have been explained. No interaction, or indeed “scaffolding’, or “vertical conversation” (Chaudron, 1988) was observed when the teacher explained the words in detail.

The following two excerpts are from the Speaking class with the same student cohort. In the Speaking class, five groups of five students sat in a circle discussing topics given by the teacher.

Transcribing small group discussion can be very problematic when the background noise is so disturbing. As the recording was made inside the classroom where several groups talked simultaneously, I could only transcribe some sections of their talk.

Excerpt One is from Group 1 when students were discussing the following topic: If you live in a foreign country, in which country do you want to live? (Sic) Due to space constraints some lines with no errors were omitted. Column 1 is turn; Column 2 students; Column 3 students’ utterances.
As the transcript reveals, when students had chances to produce English, the quality of their English was not high. NfM happened once when Student A struggled to say the word ‘tropical’. Other errors highlighted included lexicon, for instance, “a lot of country”, “a lot of singer” and syntax, for instance, “whatever, you are poor or rich you can realize”, “can became”; and “is still live”. Some errors hampered communication. Student C realized the communication breakdown (Long, 1985) and switched to Chinese. Apparently “noticing” (Swain, 1993) did occur when this group of students talked to each other. The opportunity of learning seems to be missed as a result of a lack of assistance, i.e. scaffolding from a higher level of English speaker.

Excerpt Two is from Group 2 when students discussed the same topic as Group 1.
Table 4. Discourse Produced by a Student Group 2.

| 5 | B | The France food France people and France girl. |
| 6 | A | French girl? |
| 7 | B | Sorry French girls. |
| 8 | A | You think they are open enough? |
| 9 | C | Of course. |
| 10 | B | Of course. And their eyes is very very attractive I think. Their eyes different from the American girls and British girls and also their culture. And also their culture. They have a lot of traditional culture. |
| 11 | C | Ohm I think I enjoy the most is the experience when I live in abroad. I live abroad. Because when I live in abroad, I can experience many place I never go there. And when I am old I will come back to my hometown and that time |
| 12 | E | (try to cut in) Story |
| 13 | C | I will have a lot of story to tell my friends |
| 14 | B | Your child. |
| 15 | C | my neighbourhood |
| 21 | D | Would you like to tell us about foreign country when you come back? |
| 22 | C | Yes, of course but I am not sure when I come back if I will come across with you, with your guys |
| 27 | B | What each other’s girl-friend look like |
| 30 | E | And maybe the child have get-together |
| 31 | B | If you got a foreign girl? All laughing |

Again, some lines with no errors were omitted for the purpose of saving space. The quality of Group 2 students’ English was similar to that of Group 1. Error correction occurred once when student B uttered ‘France girls’ instead of saying ‘French girls’. Other errors included lexicon ones, such as, “a lot of story”; “foreign country (no indication of its plural or singular forms)”; “live in abroad”; “come across with you”; and “many place” and syntactic errors such as “their eyes is different”; “Their eyes different from the American girls and British girls and also their culture”; “I think I enjoy the most is…” “What each other’s girl-friend look like” and so on.

The Interview Data

Based on the observation and transcription, I decided to interview students concerning classroom interaction and 8 of them agreed to be interviewed. Students’ answers to the interview question about their participation could be summarized as such (The answers were translated by the author):

In the Intensive Reading class, they understood that explaining grammar and language points was important, meanwhile, they wished the teacher could get students involved in some interaction. One student put it, “I don’t like the fact that the teacher dominates the whole talk during the lessons. A teacher should really be a facilitator who gets students involved rather than conducts the talk all the time. We students need opportunities to practise”. When asked about their interaction in the Speaking Class, the students all agreed that they would welcome the opportunity to put what they have learned into use, meanwhile, they expressed their wishes that the teacher would be available when help was needed. One student said, “As a matter of fact, I felt frustrated when I could not put my thought in English. I wish Speaking Class could be more efficient. I spend a lot of time reading English newspapers and find it quite interesting. I know that to learn English is to use it. If I read newspapers on the American election, then I know how to use the sentences in real life.”

The transcript of the classroom discourse in the IR and Speaking Classes and interview data reveals that in the IR class, the teacher dominated the classroom talk, whereas in the Speaking class students were
empowered to express their own ideas. During the students’ discussion, NfM, communication breakdown and attention to the ‘gap’ occurred in both groups, which would have been a good opportunity for students to improve their English. The lack of assistance, or scaffolding, however, sometimes caused frustration, and at times, students had to resort to their mother tongue to overcome the breakdown as in the Group 1 discussion, all of which suggests missed opportunities for students to improve their English.

**Conclusion**

This article analyzed the discourse produced in both IR and Speaking classes with the same student cohort. Classroom interaction suggests that in an IR class, the teacher dominates the classroom talk and in the Speaking class, the English spoken by students through interaction is problematic. Although NfM, cooperation of learning and co-construction occur, the quality of students’ English is not high. As a result, it is almost impossible for students to learn from each other. Most importantly, teacher’s assistance being unavailable when needed is perhaps not beneficial to improving the quality of students’ output and, indeed, to students’ English learning. The result of this study is in line with others in a similar research milieu (Cai, 2011; Cai & Cook, 2015; Leedham & Cai, 2013), which suggests that the adaptation of concepts in the classroom such as “communication”, “negotiation of meaning”, “co-construction”, “cooperative learning” and “responsive teaching” will not be straightforward due to many constraints, such as teacher’s English proficiency; what counts for teaching and learning; quality of textbooks; expectations from classroom practice; evaluation methods and so on (Cai, 2011), all of which merit further investigation.

**References**


---

**Appendix 1**

**Interview Questions**

1. What do you want to achieve through English learning in terms of proficiency and career?
2. In the Intensive Reading classes, the teacher often starts new lessons with background knowledge and then outlines the structure of the text. Detailed explanations on language points and complex sentences are the foci. Could you please make some comments on the classroom performance?
3. What role do textbooks play in your English learning?
4. Are you familiar with the concepts of student-centeredness, participation and interaction? Do you like activities such as group discussion or pair work? Why?
5. What freedom or constraints do you feel you have in English learning?
Developing Multiliteracies in the Chinese College EFL Teaching Context

Huang Shuping
College of Chinese Language and Culture, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: huangshuping@hwy.jnu.edu.cn

[Abstract] The article attempts to review the theory of multiliteracies and apply their pedagogy in the Chinese college EFL teaching context. A survey is conducted to investigate students’ competence of multiliteracies, and then corresponding teaching measures are adopted on the basis of the multiliteracies approach. The study indicates that integrating multiliteracies pedagogy into EFL teaching is helpful to enhance students’ English proficiency and develop students’ multiliteracies awareness and competence.

[Keywords] literacy; the multiliteracies pedagogy; EFL teaching

Introduction

Literacy pedagogy has traditionally meant teaching and learning to read and write in page-bound, official, standard forms of the national language (New London Group, 1996). However, the social environment has been changing greatly since the last decade of the 20th century. In order to adapt to the increasingly globalized, yet hyper-diversified evolving world with advanced multimedia and digital technologies, it is significant to develop a new approach to literacy pedagogy, which is not confined to traditional language-based view of literacy. Therefore, in the mid-1990’s, the New London Group proposed the notion of multiliteracies. According to the New London Group, the term “Multiliteracies” refers to two major aspects of language use today. The first is the variability of meaning making in different cultural, social or domain-specific contexts. These differences are becoming ever more significant to our communications environment. The second aspect of language use today arises in part from the characteristics of the new information and communications media. Meaning is made in ways that are increasingly multimodal – in which written-linguistic modes of meaning interface with oral, visual, audio, gestural, tactile and spatial patterns of meaning (Kalantzis & Cope, 2000).

Inspired by the New London Group, many scholars have done research on multiliteracies, including Lemke (1998), Baldry (2000), Kalantzis & Cope (2000, 2012), Unsworth (2001), Jewitt (2002), Royce (2002), and Kress (2003), etc. Some scholars have paid special attention to multiliteracies in the field of foreign language teaching (see Warner & Dupuy, 2018). The theory of multiliteracies has also aroused the research interest of Chinese EFL teachers and scholars. Hu (2007), Gu (2007), Zhu (2008), Zhang (2010), Ge & Luo (2010), and Zhang (2011) have contributed to the introduction and application of the multiliteracies pedagogy in China. However, as Zhu (2008) pointed out, we have fallen behind some countries in the study of multiliteracies and it is urgent for the educators and teachers in China to attach importance to the multiliteracies pedagogy.

The current study is a teaching practice implemented by following the framework of the multiliteracies pedagogy with the goal of developing the Chinese EFL college students’ multiliteracies. To successfully carry out the teaching practice, we take two major steps: first, a survey is conducted to investigate students’ multiliteracies competence; second, corresponding teaching measures are adopted drawing on the multiliteracies pedagogy.
Theoretical Framework
Within the pedagogy of multiliteracies, language and other modes of communication are viewed as dynamic resources (“available designs”) for meaning making that undergo constant changes in dynamics acts of language use (“designing”) and learners attempt to achieve their own purposes, thereby contributing again to the cycle of available designs (“the redesigned”) (Warner & Dupuy, 2018). So “Design” plays an essential role in the multiliteracies theory.

According to the New London Group (1996), the multiliteracies pedagogy consists of four components of teaching practice: Situated Practice, Overt Instruction, Critical Framing, and Transformed Practice. Situated Practice refers to the immersion in experience and the utilization of available discourses, including those from the students’ lives and simulations of the relationships to be found in workplaces and public spaces. Overt Instruction means systematic, analytic, and conscious understanding. In the case of multiliteracies, this requires the introduction of explicit metalanguages, which describe and interpret the Design elements of different modes of meaning. Critical Framing requires the students to interpret the social and cultural context of particular Designs of meaning. This involves the students’ standing back from what they are studying and viewing it critically in relation to its context. Transformed Practice mainly refers to transfer in meaning-making practice, which puts the transformed meaning to work in other contexts or cultural sites.

These four components of pedagogy do not constitute a linear hierarchy, nor do they represent stages. Rather, they are components that are related in complex ways. Elements of each may occur simultaneously, while at different times one or the other will predominate, and all of them are repeatedly revisited at different levels (New London Group, 1996).

By extending the multiliteracies pedagogy, Kalantzis and Cope (2012) have recently established the Learning by Design model. This model introduces four core “Knowledge Processes” from the perspective of how learners obtain knowledge: Experiencing, Conceptualizing, Analyzing, and Applying. Each Knowledge Process can be further divided into two sub-categories: Experiencing the known & the new; Conceptualizing by naming & with theory; Analyzing functionally & critically; Applying appropriately & creatively. These Knowledge Processes are helpful for teachers to analyse the learning that takes place when the multiliteracies pedagogy is implemented.

Investigating Students’ Competence of Multiliteracies
To explore Chinese college students’ multiliteracies competence and their views of English learning in the New Media Age, we conducted a questionnaire survey in 2016. The questionnaire was made up of two parts. The first part concerned students’ skills of multimodal Microsoft PowerPoint slide-making and presentation. The second part was intended to investigate the students’ English learning methods and strategies in an era with widespread information science and technology. Sixty questionnaires were distributed among students of the introductory college English proficiency level, and finally fifty-nine questionnaires were completed and regarded as valid.

According to the statistics of the first part of the survey, 85% students stated they mastered the skills of producing PowerPoint slides. Among these students, 56% of them thought their capability of PowerPoint slide-making was at the intermediate level, 51% of them learned PowerPoint slide-making from the computer courses in their secondary schools, however, only 37% of them tended to utilize and combine four design elements (i.e. text, image, music, video) to make a PowerPoint slide and only 30% of them knew the effective way to make a PowerPoint oral presentation. Among the nine students who claimed they
did not know how to make a PowerPoint slide, six were willing to learn and the other three students neither showed willingness, nor unwillingness.

The above survey data demonstrate that most students can make PowerPoint slides, but their skills are not yet advanced, and the majority of them don’t know how to use and combine different semiotic resources flexibly to realize the meaning making potential of the multimodal PowerPoint texts. Most students are aware of the significance of mastering the production of PowerPoint slides in today’s world, and they want to learn to improve their production skills of PowerPoint slides.

The second part of the questionnaire was made up of open-ended questions related to students’ English learning methods and strategies. Analyzing the answers provided by the respondents; we found that students’ awareness of multiliteracies still needs to be strengthened. However, it is encouraging to see that more than half of the students have noticed the new way of learning in the contemporary communication environment. For instance, 68% students have the experience of learning English from internet websites, social media or Apps and 80% students believed that the technology-assisted learning is effective. In addition, students hoped that teachers not only taught from the textbooks, but also through English songs, movies, newspapers, and games, etc. With regard to the extracurricular English learning activities, students expressed their willingness to take part in English speech contests, dramas, debates, and essay competitions, etc.

To sum up, the results of the survey indicated that students have certain multiliteracies awareness but their multiliteracies competence still needs to be promoted; and this has laid the foundation for our teaching practice based on the Multiliteracies Pedagogy.

Integrating Multiliteracies Pedagogy into Teaching Practice

In view of the above findings of the survey, we redesigned our English teaching course by taking the following teaching measures based on the multiliteracies pedagogy. In so doing, we hope to enhance the students’ multiliteracies competence and their English learning efficiency.

Redesigning the Teaching of the Texts

Since Chinese EFL teaching chiefly centers on the written-linguistic text study, integrating the multiliteracies pedagogy into the text teaching is a feasible way to develop students’ multiliteracies. Huang (2017) has reported a specific lesson plan of applying the multiliteracies pedagogy and Learning by Design model to teach a text entitled Turning Your Phone Off as a Technological Gesture of Affection in our EFL teaching practice. As a part of the pre-reading activity, two cartoons about people’s addiction to cell phones are presented to students, and students were required to describe what social phenomena are revealed in the two pictures. In this way, the teacher leads students to relate their life experiences to the text they need to study. This is actually implementing the Situated Practice in the multiliteracies pedagogy and the Knowledge Process of Experiencing from the known to unknown. After teaching the full text, the teacher let students watch two short online videos named Look up and Get off the phone, and then asks the students to compare them with the text. The purpose of this teaching step is to cultivate students’ awareness of the multimodality of communication. The teacher then provides active intervention and scaffolding to help students learn how to analyze the design elements of the two videos – the teacher here is performing Overt Instruction of the multiliteracies pedagogy. To put Critical Framing into practice, the teacher divides students into groups to discuss issues such as the purposes and reasons behind the text and the videos. This teaching process is designed to foster students’ critical thinking skills and promote their ability to analyse functionally and critically. To implement Transformed Practice, the teacher asks the students to apply what they have learned to analyze or create a public service advertisement in any form, aiming to develop
students’ application capability. Students are encouraged to cooperate with each other in small groups with the aim to increase their collaborative skills.

**Conducting Various Forms of English Learning Activities**

In addition to the study of the English textbooks, various other forms of activities are also held to actively involve students in their English learning, for example, reading English poems, singing English songs, making English PowerPoint slides and giving oral presentations, etc. These activities not only can promote students’ interests in learning English, but also can train their multiliteracies competence, because students have to figure out how to use different semiotic resources or design elements properly and creatively to fulfil their different goals of communication.

Take the presentation of PowerPoint slides for instance. Students are required to take turns to share and present their PowerPoint slides in class. When one student (the presenter) is making his or her presentation, all the other students (the audiences) must observe carefully and take notes; when the presenter finishes his or her talk, all the audiences and the teacher, as well as the presenter him/herself have to discuss and make comments on the presentation. In the whole process, the teacher is mainly responsible for offering guidelines and is actively involved in dialoguing with the students. This kind of interaction between the teacher and students are conducive to foster students’ critical thinking and communication skills. The teacher is not the only judge or commentator of the students’ presentations. In other words, each presentation is assessed from three dimensions: self-evaluation, peer-evaluation and the teacher’s evaluation, which can be helpful for students to reflect and improve.

**Utilizing Online English Learning Resources**

Nowadays, it is convenient for students to get access to the internet. Making full use of the internet is efficient for the students’ learning. On the one hand, the teacher selects and recommends useful online learning resources for students. For instance, for students who need to enlarge their English vocabulary, they are advised by the teacher to use some English vocabulary Apps or platforms such as Bai Ci Zhan, Shanbay to expand their vocabulary and enhance their reading skills. On the other hand, students are reminded not to entirely rely on the teacher but take initiative to search for information and learning materials from the websites, social media, Apps by themselves. In this way, students’ autonomous learning competence can be facilitated. In addition, during the first several minutes of each English teaching period, students can watch some original English video clips related to the theme of the text that students are going to study. The video clips are searched and selected by the students themselves from the Internet. This has greatly enhanced their passion for learning and the ability to choose appropriate study materials from the internet.

Through these activities, students’ interests in learning English have been increased and students have realized the significance and ubiquitous nature of multimodal texts and various semiotic resources in communication, that is to say, their multiliteracies competence have been boosted.

**Conclusion**

The multiliteracies pedagogy is a new teaching approach that addresses some of the changes of the global context: globalisation and an ever-increasing diversity of culture and language as well as the proliferating multimedia and information technologies (Kalantzis, Cope, & Fehring, 2002). The pedagogy of multiliteracies is still in the initial stage of practice in China. The current study is an attempt to explore the
enactment of the multiliteracies pedagogy in college EFL teaching with the hope that it can provide some ideas or implications for the EFL teaching reform in China.

The present teaching practice as an application of the multiliteracies pedagogy has to a certain extent increased students’ understanding and competence of multiliteracies. Students have learned to keep up with the development of modern technology and utilize the online resources to learn English. Moreover, students have gained skills of integrating and harmonizing different semiotic resources or elements to design new multimodal hybrid texts to achieve various aims of communication. The current teaching practice also has a positive impact on the teacher’s teaching concept. The roles of the teacher and students have been changed in the teaching process. The teacher becomes a knowledgeable consultant who provides guidance and suggestions to students, and students have turned from passive knowledge receivers to active knowledge producers. Teaching contents have been expanded as well. The teacher not simply teaches language, but also teaches other multimodal ways of meaning making. Technologies have been employed more often to assist teaching. The teacher takes advantage of multimedia, internet resources, Apps, etc to trigger students’ learning interest and enthusiasm.

However, there are still some issues remain to be explored and studied. First, the students’ critical thinking skills need to be further strengthened. Second, some students are accustomed to the traditional way of learning, and are less willing to change, because they think that the new way of learning increases their burden. Third, the teaching effects will be better if the teacher can get professional training on how to apply the multiliteracies pedagogy into practice.

References


Lexical Access and Selection in Translation Process: From a Perspective of Cognitive Psychology

Fan Peng
School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: fanpengchina@vip.qq.com

[Abstract] Translation involves rephrasing a message expressed in one language and is considered to be both a linguistic and cognitive process. However, the mechanism controlling this complex translation process still remains obscure. In this study, we aimed to investigate lexical access and lexical selection in the translation process from comprehension to production. We found that professional translators may not use inhibitory processes to control the concurrent activation of two languages; they may instead use alternative control mechanisms to signal the appropriate language and activate words in the intended language.

[Keywords] translation process; lexical access and selection; Inhibitory Control Model; asymmetrical switching cost

Introduction
Translation entails expressing the sense of words or text in one language, the source language (SL), in another language, the target language (TL). Translation tasks can be distinguished depending on particular variations of the modality of the input (e.g., visual, auditory), the modality of the output (e.g., written, oral) and the temporal parameters relating the input and output (e.g., simultaneous, consecutive, and self-paced, etc.) (Kopke, & Signorelli, 2012), but all these modalities involve switching between two languages.

Language switching in translation can occur from comprehension to production (analyze sentences in the source language and produce them into the target language). For example, in sight translation, the translator comprehends SL text in the written modality and then produces the translation aloud (Dijikstra, & Van Heuven, 2002). In addition, language switches can occur from comprehending in one language to comprehending in the alternative language. For example, in bilateral translation, the translator comprehends and translates sentences from two languages that alternate in ways that are not always predictable.

From this analysis, one of the most remarkable abilities of professional translators is that of separating their two languages during comprehension and production while continuously switching between them. However, how do translators cope with the cost of the continuous language switches while translating? And what is the mechanism controlling language access during translation that permits both efficient language selection in one language and rapid between-language alternations?

A central stage in language processing is that in which speakers retrieve the words from the lexicon that match their communicative intention. The process by which this is achieved is often referred to lexical selection (Levelt, 2001). A selection mechanism is needed because several lexical representations are activated due to spreading activation from the semantic system to the lexical level. Thus, any representation activated at the conceptual level spreads a proportion of its activation to its corresponding lexical node. In this scenario, the semantic system activates not only the word that matches the intended meaning but also other semantically related items. That is, when naming the picture of a cat, not only the lexical node “cat” is activated, but also other related words, such as “dog” and “kitten”. The lexical selection mechanism is in charge of deciding which of the activated lexical items needs to be prioritized for further processing. It is
widely accepted that the level of activation of lexical nodes is the critical variable for deciding which element is to be selected. Thus, in general, the lexical selection mechanism would pick out the word with the highest level of activation which, in normal error-free production, corresponds to the intended meaning. However, some models of lexical access assume that this mechanism is also sensitive to the level of activation of non-target – but activated – lexical nodes that act as competitors. That is, the ease with which a word is selected depends on its level of activation relative to that of other lexical items (Rodriguez-Fornells, et al., 2005).

Although it is crucial to understand how the translation task is performed, little research has been reported within the translation literature that tries to answer this. The present study aims to explore the mechanism that permits translators separating their two languages during comprehension and production while continuously switching between them by implementing the lexical selection system in general language processing. This investigation mainly focuses on the following three questions:

1) Does the semantic system activate the two lexicons of a translator?
2) Do the lexical nodes of the non-target language (the language not intended for translation) act as competitors?
3) How does a professional translator response to the non-target language?

**Lexical Access and Selection in Translation Process**

Many studies performed with bilinguals suggest that both languages are active during comprehension. In addition, there is also evidence of co-activation in language production. The present models of lexical access assume that during the course of lexicalization in one language (e.g., L2), the lexical nodes of both languages of a bilingual receive activation from the semantic system (Colome, 2001). Since translators must be highly proficient in both languages, the first question seems to have a positive answer, that is, the semantic system activates both L1 and L2 lexicons of a translator.

Different from the convergent answer to the first question, the second and the third questions are harder to respond to due to the more controversial results from the studies in bilinguals. Some models of lexical access assume that the lexical selection mechanism is language-specific (Costa & Ivanova, 2006), in the sense that it only considers the activation-levels of words in the intended language. According to this idea, lexical intrusions from the non-intended language would be prevented since those words would not be included in the pool of possible candidates for production, and therefore they will not be able to interfere during lexical access. The notion that lexical selection can be sensitive to specific properties of lexical nodes, and can use them to guide selection, has already been postulated in models of monolingual lexical access. For example, in Dell’s model (Dell, 1986), the lexical selection mechanism is sensitive to the grammatical class of lexical items. That is, if the speaker wants to produce a noun the selection mechanism would consider for selection only lexical items corresponding to nouns (Hahne, 2001).

In contrast, other models of bilingual lexical access assume that the lexical selection mechanism is insensitive to the language in which the speaker intends to express her ideas. In such a framework, the speaker would consider for selection all activated lexical nodes, irrespective of the language to which they belong, and successful selection of the proper lexical node (i.e., in the correct language) is achieved by creating a differential level of activation in the two lexicons of a bilingual. Thus, the question here is: How does the system produce an imbalance of activation between the two lexicons? One way to do so is to assume that the semantic system activates words in the intended language to a larger extent than words in
the non-response language (Chauncey, Grainger, & Holcomb, 2008). The second solution is to postulate that lexical access in bilingual speakers entails the reactive inhibition of lexical items to the non-response language (Green, 1998).

**Inhibitory Control Model (IC Model)**

The most articulated model of inhibitory control in bilingual speech production is that proposed by Green (1998). Among several assumptions made by this model (IC model – Inhibitory Control model), two are crucial for our present purposes. First, inhibition is reactive and proportional to the level of activation of the words that are to be suppressed. The term reactive means that inhibition is only applied after the lexical nodes of the non-response language are activated from the semantic system. Importantly, the amount of inhibition applied to one language depends on the speaker’s proficiency level in that language. In other words, when speaking in L1, not much inhibition is required for the less dominant language (L2) because it is assumed that the baseline level of activation of L2 lexical items is lower than that of L1 lexical items. However, when speaking in the less dominant language (L2), L1 representations must be strongly inhibited in order to ensure that L2 lexical items are selected.

The second assumption crucial for present purposes refers to the time required for inhibition to be overcome. It is assumed that the suppression (or inhibition) of the activation of a given language may exert an influence on subsequent production events in which words from the suppressed lexicon need to be retrieved (Alvarez, Holcomb, & Grainger, 2003). Accordingly, retrieving words from a lexicon that has just been inhibited would be relatively difficult, since it would take relatively more time for that inhibition to be overcome. Therefore, the more inhibition applied to a given lexicon, the harder it will be to overcome such suppression on a subsequent trial (Jackson, Swainson, Cunnington, & Jackson, 2004). This sort of model can be considered language non-specific, given that the computation responsible for lexical selection considers the activation levels of all lexical nodes, irrespective of the language to which they belong.

**Asymmetrical Switching Cost**

There is one set of results that has been argued to support the two assumptions made by the IC model. Meuter and Allport (1999) conducted a language switching experiment in which bilingual speakers were asked to name aloud series of lists containing Arabic digits (from 1 to 9) either in L1 or in L2. The language in which a given number had to be named was signaled by the background color of the screen (i.e., if blue name the digit in L1, if red name the digit in L2). Experimental trials were divided into switch and non-switch trials. A non-switch trial required a response in the same language as the immediately preceding trial, while a switch trial required a response in a different language. Given that responses were produced in both L1 and L2, there were four different types of trials: Switch to L1, Switch to L2, Non-Switch in L1, Non-Switch in L2. As expected, naming latencies in switch trials were slower than in non-switch trials, revealing that switching between tasks (name in language X, name in language Y) incurred a time cost. However, the magnitude of the switching cost was larger for L1 than for L2. That is, the switching costs were asymmetrical: to switch from L2 to L1 was more costly than vice versa (Moreno, Federmeier, & Kutas, 2002).

The asymmetrical switching cost, which at first glance seems paradoxical, finds a ready explanation in the framework of the IC model and in the Task Set Inertia hypothesis. As Meuter and Allport (1999) argued, the magnitude of inhibition applied to L1 when speaking in L2 must be greater than vice versa in order to allow successful of L2 lexical items (assumption 1 of the IC model). That is, the relative strength
of the two tasks at hand (naming in L1 or in L2) would have an effect on the strength with which each of the two languages is inhibited. The authors further assumed that the inhibition exerted in one language has effects on the subsequent trial. As a consequence, to retrieve L1 words in a switch trial will be relatively hard because the system has to overcome the large inhibition that was applied to that lexicon in the immediately preceding trial (assumption of the IC model). However, to retrieve L2 words in a switch trial will be relatively less difficult since the L2 lexicon was not as strongly suppressed in the preceding trial.

As highly proficient bilinguals, do translators also experience inhibition and switching cost? Costa (2006) reported that the asymmetrical switching cost is not present in balanced Spanish-Catalan bilinguals when they performed the task either in their two dominant languages (L1 and L2) or in one of their dominant languages (L1) and in another much weaker language (L3). This last finding suggests that language selection may be achieved through different mechanisms depending on language proficiency. This modulation based on the bilinguals’ fluency leaves open the question of whether professional translators also trigger different language selection mechanisms either because of their high language proficiency or because of their experience in language switching contexts. In fact, interpreting and translation has been associated with efficient working memory (WM) skills; specific skills to coordinate verbal processes, and high speed accessing lexical-semantic representations (Ibane, & Macizo, 2010).

**Implication and Conclusion**

In summary, bilingual studies suggest that both language access and language selection may depend on a number of modulating factors – the semantic and linguistic context, language proficiency, WM demands and orthographic similarity, seem to play a role on the probability of activation of the non-intended language and on the type of mechanism triggered during language selection. These modulating factors may contribute to the mechanism that permits translators separating their two languages during comprehension and production while continuously switching between them by implementing the lexical selection system in general language processing. Proficiency of L1 and L2 is the prerequisite of a professional translator; therefore, the semantic system activates a translator’s both L1 and L2 lexicons. In translating process, the professional translator tends to activate words in the intended language to a larger extent than words in the non-response language that the semantic system. For experienced professional translators, language selection may be achieved through efficient working memory (WM) skills, specific skills to coordinate verbal processes, and high speed accessing lexical-semantic representations.

**Acknowledgement**

This study was supported by Guangdong Office of Philosophy and Social Science (JD17WXZ07).

**References**


On Prosody and EFL Learners’ Perception of Impolite Utterances

Peng Li
School of Foreign Languages and Cultures, Guangdong University of Finance,
Guangzhou, China
Email address: 15521323216@163.com

[Abstract] This paper examined EFL (English as Foreign Language) learners’ awareness of prosody in the perception of impolite utterances using 5-level Likert scales to rate a statement in response to a trigger: “This utterance is impolite”. The results reveal that a significant difference was found between the two groups. However, the rating distribution for Group 2 is right-biased, showing that Group 2 raters were more inclined to choose “agree” and “strongly agree”. This may be an indication that pronunciation, and especially prosody, may affect their perception of impoliteness, and underlines the need for attention to the role of prosody in teaching EFL learners’ awareness of politeness and impoliteness.

[Keywords] EFL; prosody; perception; impoliteness

Introduction
Studies on pragmatics oriented objectives in EFL classrooms are commonly found online, most of which focus on EFL learners’ language proficiency by evaluating their language use and cultural understanding (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Rose, 2005). They have paid much attention to grammatical errors. However, as Neddar (2011) concluded, language proficiency is essential for pragmatic competence, but not sufficient for its mastery. There are many contributing factors to language performance and comprehension of the pragmatic functions of language, one of which, in addition to grammatical, phonological or morphological factors, is prosody, the rhythms and melodies of language (Gibbon, 2018). One important area of pragmatics concerns politeness and impoliteness, and the function of prosody in this field has been discussed by some researchers (cf. Sperber, & Wilson, 1995; Culpeper, et al., 2003; Vergis, & Pell, 2018). However, in second language studies, investigation of the pragmatics-prosody interface has been much more general and has not focused on this area. It is not uncommon to find that teaching English as a foreign language has been mostly concerned with grammar and vocabulary practice, leaving the relevance between phonological aspects and pragmatic aspects of the language unattended.

The main purpose of this paper is to focus on one aspect of this field: testing EFL learners’ pragmatic awareness of impolite utterances from the perspective of prosody by using a quantitative Likert scale survey method together with quantitative analysis of responses by two groups of students: Group 1 (transcripts of utterances only) and Group 2 (transcripts and audio clips). The null hypothesis H0 states that there is no significant difference between the two groups and the alternative hypothesis H1 claims that a significant difference is found between the two groups due to the influence of pronunciation, especially prosody.

The aim of this article is thus two-fold: first, to examine whether learners of English are affected by prosody in their comprehension of impolite utterances; second, to give teachers an insight into guiding their students to be aware of the functional role of prosody in decoding impoliteness, whether in daily communication or in English classroom.

Literature Review
Pragmatic competence has been claimed to be “the most difficult aspect of language to master in learning a second language” (Blum-Kulka & Sheffer, 1993). As a branch of pragmatics, teaching awareness of
politeness and impoliteness in a foreign language classroom is never an easy task. Broadly speaking, pragmatic competence refers to the ability to communicate appropriately in a social context. Thomas (1983) proposed that pragmatic competence encompasses two sub-categories, pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence in discussing pragmatic failure. Pragmalinguistic competence mainly concerns competence in using language resources to make successful speech acts. Sociopragmatic competence is a much more complicated conception, since it involves not simply the proper use of grammatical rules but the application of socio-linguistic knowledge in the world, which usually constitutes socially appropriate linguistic behavior. In this sense, (im)politeness, commonly discussed linguistic behaviors should concern the EFL classroom. However, most teaching work related to (im)politeness is mainly concerned with forms of address, the use of appropriate greetings, which is more concerned with grammar and idiom training rather than comprehensive pragmatic training. More importantly, the sound of speech, this primary factor in communication, is often neglected in the analysis of (im)politeness in EFL classrooms. The interconnection between sound and meaning, remains a relatively underexplored aspect of learning about (im)politeness.

By examining authentic materials in situations of teasing, Haugh and Chang (2015) find that L2 learners’ sociopragmatic awareness of impoliteness can be enhanced through an interactional approach. They argue that in relational work, the participants’ understanding is the primary focus. By employing the interactional research method, they have mainly analyzed “relational practice” through interpretations and evaluations of teasing banter. As a result, they propose that to raise L2 learners’ sociopragmatic awareness, teachers should provide authentic interactions for analysis, and thus “give learners the tools with which to engage in interaction across cultures in more informed ways”.

In order to provide L2 teachers with effective teaching methods, Bou-Franch and Garcés-Conejos (2003) focus on the promotion of sociopragmatic knowledge in SLA and propose a detailed account of theoretical and methodological means of teaching pragmatics in a second language. Taking a direct approach as a starting point, which mainly concerns the explicit teaching of conversational skills in a program, they highlight the importance of relating the linguistic politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) to the politeness system proposed by Scollon and Scollon (1983). They propose that giving students awareness-raising tasks on the basis of the proposed theories can efficiently provide them with an insight into what really constitutes an appropriate behavior. Their paper is seen as a methodological proposal, but the corresponding outcome is unknown. However, they do emphasize the importance of theory learning, which is viewed as an optimal tool for SLA, both for the learning of pragmalinguistics and sociolinguistics.

Due to “a bias towards developing pragmalinguistic awareness rather than a deeper awareness of sociopragmatic dimensions of politeness” (Haugh & Chang: 2015), this paper aims to test EFL learners’ awareness of impoliteness from the perspective of prosody. Accordingly, the following research questions are addressed with the first to be the focus:

1. Whether EFL learners could notice the role of prosody played in impolite utterances?
2. How could teachers guide learners to realize the role of prosody in decoding utterances effectively?
Methods

Data
The utterances used in this study were extracted from videos of Donald Trump’s presidential election campaign speeches. In order to better illustrate EFL learners’ perception of different kinds of prosody, 10 utterances were chosen which have been identified by 36 English speakers from UK, Australia and Germany as impolite ones through an online survey (Li, 2018). The utterances vary in length from 1 second to about 20 seconds.

Participants
The participants were 110 female sophomores majoring in Business English at Anhui Foreign Language University, without any difficulty in understanding the transcripts provided. They were equally divided into two groups; Group 1 was provided with only the transcripts of the clipped utterances and Group 2 was provided with both the transcripts and the audio clips. The 110 sophomores were asked to do the survey in class during the same period to prevent the duplicate submissions in order to ensure the reliability and validity of the collected data as far as possible.

Instrument and Procedures
Two 5-point Likert scales were designed, with one question for each utterance. The questionnaires were input into an online tool called “Wen Juan Xing”. The administrator was able to observe the data submitted at any time. The addresses of the questionnaires were distributed to students in class before the survey. The format and the questions of the two questionnaires were the same online, but Group 2 was provided with audio clips in class.

The first questionnaire called “Attitude Survey” was distributed to Group 1. They were given 3 minutes to finish all the ten questions. After their submissions, the administrator immediately stopped the questionnaire filling to make sure that every user completed the questionnaire once only.

The second questionnaire named “Attitude Survey with Prosody” was distributed to Group 2. They were asked to choose from different scales after listening to the related audio clips. For Group 2, the audio clips were each played twice, one by one. They were asked to choose the point on the scale that best suited their opinions. Likewise, the questionnaire answering was stopped after the submissions. It needs to be restated that the survey was carried out in class to ensure the relevant validity and reliability of the collected data. To probe the research questions, all the data collected were then imported into SPSS23 for statistical analysis, mainly calculating descriptive statistics and the correlation between the two groups.

Results and Discussion

General Statistical Description
In order to illustrate the first question, concerning EFL learners’ perception of the role of prosody played in the understanding of impoliteness, the overall descriptive statistics of the two groups was calculated. The descriptive statistics for the EFL learners’ perceptions of the politeness and impoliteness for 10 questionnaire items are indicated in Table 1.
Table 1. Mean Scores and SD of Two Groups for 10 Separate Items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Item 1</th>
<th>Item 2</th>
<th>Item 3</th>
<th>Item 4</th>
<th>Item 5</th>
<th>Item 6</th>
<th>Item 7</th>
<th>Item 8</th>
<th>Item 9</th>
<th>Item 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G 1</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G 2</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G 1</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G 2</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated in Table 1, the overall mean score of Group 2 is higher than that of Group 1, except for Item 3, which helps to illustrate that in most cases pronunciation, and particularly prosody, may exert some impact on the student’s perception of impolite utterances. The lowest and highest mean scores indicate that both groups show the ability to perceive the utterances as impolite. Thus, it cannot be denied that the literal meaning is essential for decoding utterances. However, there are many other factors which could contribute to people’s comprehension of the same utterance, like the one mentioned in the paper, such as pronunciation and context.

To verify the hypotheses, firstly, the data distribution is examined which is presented below in Figure 1. Secondly, according to the relevant data distribution, the corresponding verification method is used. Score distributions of both groups for all the 10 items are presented in Figure 1, light blue for Group 1 and light yellow for Group 2. The boxplots indicate the median and the quartiles of the students’ responses. As it is indicated in Figure 1, the score distribution of most items tends to be normally distributed for Group 1, except for item 3 and 4. However, as for Group 2, the score distribution of most items appears to be right-biased, which indicates that most students can detect the role of prosody played in the utterance with a rating scale from 4 to 5 (agree to strongly agree).

![Figure 1. Score Distributions of Group 1 and Group 2 for 10 Questionnaire Items](image)

As indicated in Figure 1, the score distributions of Items 1, 5, 9 and 10 between the two groups are quite different. Especially for Items 5, 9 and 10, the difference between the two groups is large. The score range of Item 10 for students of Group 2 is among 4 (agree) and 5 (strongly agree). However, for students from Group 1, the choices range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The question thus arises as to what contributes to the rating difference between the two groups. Questionnaire item 5 is analyzed here regarding the hypotheses proposed in the previous part.

**Statistical Evaluation of Item 5 with the Help of Instrumental Analysis**

This utterance occurred when Donald Trump talked about Barack Obama’s healthcare website and said: “Five billion dollar website, I have so many websites, I have them all over the place. I hire people, they do a website, it costs me 3 dollars. Five billion dollar website” (see Figure 2). The utterance was annotated with Praat (Boersma, 2001). The distinctive prosodic properties and a repetition strategy are shown in

![Figure 2](image)
Figure 2. When Donald Trump talked about his own website design, the talking was much faster than talking about Barack Obama’s, 7.18s for 30 syllables by comparing to 7s for 14 syllables.

**Figure 2. Instrumental Analysis of Questionnaire Item 5**

On talking about his own website design, his tempo of speed was quite fast. Meanwhile, a downstepping intonation with syllable lengthening and pauses between words was used on talking about Barack Obama’s website design. By emphasizing and repeating “five billion dollar website” twice with the downstepping intonation, Donald Trump is able to create an emotional stage for the audiences to believe that Barack Obama’s healthcare website cost too much and such a big sum spent on website design is a total waste.

As can be seen in Figure 1, the responses of Group 1 illustrate that the score distribution ranges from 1 to 5 indicating that the impolite meaning cannot be clearly identified from the transcripts only. However, from the responses of Group 2, we argue that prosody works. The box plot of item 5 in Figure 1 indicates that with the help of prosody, most respondents from Group 2 are capable of inferring impolite meaning from the utterances with a density between 3 and 4 and median of 4.

**ANOVA Results and Discussion**

The result of separate ANOVA tests of the ratings for each group shows significant differences for within each group with transcript only (p=0.0262<0.05) and for the group with transcript and audio clips (p=0.0003<0.05). In order to get a clearer picture of the differences between the groups, a paired t-test comparison of the average ratings for each utterance showed a significant difference between the two groups (p=0.0005<0.05), clearly refuting the null hypothesis H0, as indicated in Table 2. Meanwhile, the Pearson’s correlation coefficient between the two groups is 0.014, which is relevant weak, indicating that there is nearly no similarity between the two groups.

**Table 2. Paired t-Test between the Two Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 &amp; Group 1</td>
<td>.2509</td>
<td>1.6756</td>
<td>.0715</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.0715</td>
<td>3.512</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>549</td>
<td>.0005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of these analyses of differences within and between the two groups of subjects thus points towards a significant role of pronunciation. Since the essential additional information contributed by the audio clip is provided by the prosody, i.e., the timing and the intonation of the utterances, it may be suggested that prosody plays a role in the ratings.

However, with the method used it is not possible to distinguish between the roles played by the timing and intonation components of prosody. Interestingly, the means of the ratings for each group differ slightly: 3.52 for the group with audio and 3.27 for the group with transcripts only. The difference is small, but it
indicates that the group with transcripts only is more inclined to recognize politeness, while the group with both transcripts and audio tend to be more careful, perhaps realizing that the audio plays a complex role. The difference between the groups is apparently not simply associated with a clear politeness and impoliteness judgment, indicating that further research on other pragmatic parameters is necessary.

Moreover, except for the difference among respondents, which is not controllable, the only variable between the two groups is prosody. Thus, the lack of correlation could help to indicate that prosody does play a role in affecting EFL learners’ perception of impolite utterances.

So, does prosody influence their choices positively or negatively? In other words, do students really understand the impolite meaning or not with the help of prosody? This issue therefore remains open from a quantitative point of view, though the qualitative analyses of the speech signal with the help of Praat show highly distinctive features.

Conclusion and Implications
The present study has investigated the role of prosody played in EFL learners’ perception of impoliteness by using 5-point Likert scales. The results have shown that no significant correlation was found between the two groups. However, from the figures and tables, with help from the qualitative analysis of the speech signal, one conclusion can be drawn: that the pronunciation, and most likely the prosody, does exert some influence on EFL learners’ perception of impoliteness. This indicates that teachers need to pay attention to the role of prosody on cultivating students’ pragmatic awareness by using not only texts but also audios. It also indicates that other methods of testing the function of prosody are needed, such as the use of delexicalized utterances (utterances in which the words are made incomprehensible, but the prosody is preserved).

It is also found that there is audiences’ applause accompanied in some utterances, which may cause students’ distraction thus affecting their judgement. This is one of the deficiencies of the current study but also an implication for further research that EFL learners’ pragmatic competence might also be influenced by other minor contextual facts. Moreover, in order to develop students’ awareness of prosody in the process of decoding utterances, prosody visualization of relevant utterances can be shown to students thus to ensure the teaching efficiency. Many types of online and offline software can meet such demand. The vivid visualizations of sound patterns would be helpful to teachers’ lecturing work on analyzing the intended meaning of relevant utterances.

References
Exploration of English Intensive Reading Teaching Model Based on Cognitive Theory – A Case Study in South China Business College

Wang Jiabao, and Zhang Qunfang
South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China
Email: angelascut@126.com, and qunfang81@aliyun.com

[Abstract] The practical teaching of intensive reading for English majors mostly focuses on language points and translation skills, making the learners mistakenly believe that they will understand the text as long as they can master vocabulary, and henceforth, ignoring the synergistic effect of context knowledge and social background knowledge generated by the text. This paper, based on framework theory and constructivism in cognitive linguistics, with the subjects of 56 freshmen English Majors, explores the relationship between cognitive linguistic theory and the cultivation of reading comprehension ability, in an attempt to find an effective model of intensive reading teaching for English majors.

[Keywords] frame theory; constructivism theory; intensive reading; teaching model

Introduction
In the field of foreign language teaching in China, the cultivation of reading ability is the most important, especially for English majors. This is because reading is not only the main source of language input for English learners, but also the main way for English majors to accurately acquire the required knowledge and enrich their knowledge system. However, English reading ability is one of the most neglected abilities in English teaching. The reason is that some teachers mistakenly believe that as long as students have a certain grasp of vocabulary and grammar knowledge, they are able to read and understand. This is not the case. According to the requirement of Teaching Syllabus for English Majors in Colleges and Universities by the National Foreign Languages Teaching Advisory Board (2000), in the first two academic years, English majors should be able to “understand international news reports and literary works with moderate difficulty, grasp the key points on the basis of understanding, and evaluate the content with correct viewpoints. The reading speed is 120-180 wpm, and the understanding accuracy is not less than 70%”. From this requirement, we can see that vocabulary and grammar can only help students to “be able to read”, but whether they can “understand and use the correct viewpoint to evaluate the text” requires not only the language accumulation, but also the thinking and cognitive ability.

From the teaching perspective, according to a questionnaire survey of 23 teachers with reading teaching experience, about 82% of the teachers mainly focused on the explanation and training of vocabulary, grammar and other language skills; 91% of the teachers provided basic information about the author and topic; 65% assigned tasks of reading reports, and presentations, etc., and these tasks mainly focused on main idea summaries and comments; 21% of the teachers gave timely reading feedback and held reading tests; while only 3 teachers once helped students build a framework of understanding in reading, accounting for 13%.

This shows that the current intensive reading teaching still stays in the traditional teaching model of “background information – language point explanation – task/activity”, and this model has no distinctive difference from the extensive reading teaching model. Besides, the lack of classroom interaction and “all-round” explanation of text will lead to students’ lack of interest in reading and reduced learning motivation,
and as a result, the teaching effect is greatly discounted. Therefore, the exploration of a new teaching model has become an inevitable subject.

**Intensive Reading Teaching Guided by Cognitive Theory**

**Orientation of Intensive Reading Course for English Majors**

The author holds that the ineffectiveness of intensive reading teaching lies in the inaccurate orientation of intensive reading course. Intensive reading, as a foundation course for English majors, is compulsory and serves as the transition from basic education to professional study. The essence of intensive reading does not lie in its wide scope, but in its requirement of quality in the process of learning. To put it more specifically, intensive reading should have two missions: first, in terms of teaching emphasis, teachers should guide students to change from simple language learning to building a professional knowledge system based on the acquisition of cultural and humanistic knowledge. This requires that teachers have a good command of the “degree”. Intensive teaching should not be “all-inclusive” teaching content, nor an “all-round” explanation, but a course that is based on the teaching syllabus and aims to arm the students with the knowledge they need. Secondly, in terms of teaching objectives, this course should enable students to change from depending on teachers to self-learning. This requires teachers to inspire students to recognize the characteristics of English, to understand every step of the English learning process, and to learn language by way of an enhanced comprehension level, so that the improved reading ability can be counteractive at language skills and, in particular, at the formation of language learning habits and methods. In this way, the intensive reading course can contribute to the change from “giving students the fish” to “teaching students how to fish”.

**Frame Theory and Constructivism Theory**

The notion of frame was at first defined by Fillmore as any system of linguistic choices – the easiest cases that not only being collections of words, but also including choices of grammatical rules and of linguistic categories – that can get associated with prototypical instances of scenes (Fillmore, 1975). In 1982, he put forward the systematic framework theory. As a pioneer in introducing the concept of “framework” from the field of psychology to the field of linguistics, he holds that framework is a “cognitive structure”, a “knowledge and concept related to certain frequently repeated situations”, a “stereotype of an object or event”, and an “interface between pure linguistic knowledge and conceptual knowledge” (Fillmore, 1982; Fillmore, & Atkins, 1992). The mechanism of framing is that the learners accumulate a lot of knowledge and experiences from their daily lives, which are stored and organized in their memory banks in an orderly manner. In the process of reading a certain text, when the learners feel that the content in the text is similar to that in his memory, they will automatically and unconsciously connect the current text with stored knowledge in their mind, and at this moment, they initially build a frame for comprehension. Once this frame is activated, it will gradually strengthen, and in turn, indicate the next step of comprehension. The core of this mechanism is the active participation of the readers’ own knowledge and experience. Its essence is not in the use of language knowledge, nor is it limited to the connection between text and context, but in the construction of an extra-textual framing formed by the activation of readers' background knowledge in a specific framing system (Fan, D.S.2005).

Swiss psychologist J. Piage is a representative scholar of constructivism (1984). As a branch of cognitive theory, constructivism holds that reading is the construction of meaning, which is similar to frame theory in that reading is the construction of understanding framework. Constructivism emphasizes the
subjectivity of students and holds that the role of teachers in reading teaching is the helper and promoter of meaning construction. The process of building the understanding framework is the process of realizing students’ subjectivity and cultivating their innovative ability. In this sense, reading is a process in which readers’ knowledge and experience actively participate in meaning construction and understanding framework. The improvement of reading comprehension depends on the degree of understanding framework building and the completeness of meaning construction.

**Experiment Procedures**

Based on the hypothesis that students’ reading comprehension level can be improved through the implementation of teaching methods, this study raises the following two research questions:

1. *Can the new teaching model guided by frame theory improve students' reading comprehension level?*
2. *How to build an effective understanding framework and emphasize meaning construction in intensive reading teaching?*

**Pre-test**

The experiment was conducted, from March to June 2019, in two parallel classes of Grade 2018, with a total of 56 subjects, South China Business College, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. Both classes were taught by the same teacher (one of the researchers of this study). Among the two parallel classes, Class 3 was the Control Group (CG), which received the traditional intensive reading teaching model (focused on language drilling); Class 2 was the Experiment Group (EG), with moderate input of frame theory and practical knowledge of constructivism, which emphasized the building of understanding framework and the significance of meaning construction in text analysis.

The researchers conducted a pre-test on the reading comprehension level of two classes. The questions were from the reading comprehension section in the National College English Test Band 4 (CET-4) from 2015 to 2018. This section included two passages, each with five multiple-choice questions, which aim to check the readers’ comprehension of the author’s purpose of writing, views and attitudes, judgments of the detailed information, logical relations, reasoning and inferring, and other aspects of reading ability. For the validity of data and statistical processes, researchers classify these questions into three categories: summarizing questions, inferring questions and detail questions.

According to the theoretical basis of this study, we can know that summarizing questions and inferring questions can better reflect the students’ reading ability, because these questions require both the students’ understanding of the main idea and their grasp the overall development of the text structure and the logical development of the content. Therefore, this study focuses on examining students’ performance on these two types of questions. In the pre-test and post-test, the researcher selected 6 articles with 30 questions with a total score of 60 points (2 points for each). The time limit is 50 minutes. The distribution of pre-test questions is shown in Table 1 below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Summarizing Qs</th>
<th>Inferring Qs</th>
<th>Qs for Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 1. Distribution of the Questions in Pre-test**
The researchers used SPSS statistical software to analyze the test results. According to Table 2, the average scores of CG and EG are 29.5 and 28.5, respectively, with standard deviations of 8.921 and 9.716. The P value is 0.69 (p > 0.05), which shows that there is no significant difference between the two groups before the experiment, and that the reading comprehension level of the two groups is similar.

Table 2. Comparison of Pre-Test Score of CG and EG

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. D</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CG</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>8.921</td>
<td>0.401</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EG</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>9.716</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Implementation of the New Teaching Model

In this study, the teaching model adopted by the researcher was an intensive English reading teaching model guided by the frame theory, with the building of the understanding framework and the construction of the meaning as emphasis. The new teaching model ran through every teaching unit of intensive reading course. For the convenience of reference, this teaching model is hereinafter referred to as “the new teaching model”. Intensive reading teaching is usually divided into five stages: topic introduction, general analysis of the text, detailed analysis of the text, text-based exercises and further exploration. The new teaching model presents its characteristics different from the traditional teaching model in all five stages. In this paper, the author will illustrate the stage of topic introduction in detail.

In the traditional teaching model, topic introduction is usually designed on the basis of the teaching materials, audio-visual resources or the teacher’s relevant knowledge and experience. According to the researchers’ observation on 12 topic introduction cases, there is a low relevance degree between comprehension questions and the unit theme. This is caused by the asymmetry of the topic comprehension level and topic-related information bank between teachers and students, and the teachers’ misjudgment of the topic familiarity of students. Preparing questions in advance regardless of students’ learning status makes students slightly passive in classroom activities, especially for students with lower learning motivation; the lack of topic interest makes them less involved in activities.

In the new teaching model, the method of “deduction-induction-deduction” was adopted in this stage. Starting from the unit topic, the students can diverge their thinking, work out possible questions for group discussion, and discuss about one question together. For example, in Unit 4 of An Integrated English Course 2 (Student Book), first of all, the students were asked to discuss in groups on the unit theme – “Cultural Encounters”. The teacher sat in and participated in each group discussion, inspiring and making comments, and thus, forming a dynamic and co-constructive topic exploration. During the discussion, each group would narrow down the theme by working on a certain question, such as the performance of cultural differences between China and the West, the coping strategies in cultural conflicts, the causes of cultural estrangement, the reasons for the low international image of Chinese tourists and the solutions, or the embarrassment caused by the language barrier in cultural exchanges. Secondly, based on individual topic discussion and the overall difficulty of the topic, the teacher selected a representative topic to refine the topic scope and sublimate the topic content. In this case, based on the teacher’s knowledge about the students’ learning status, the teacher selected one specific question – “the relationship between culture and language” for the whole class, and therefore conducted an effective and efficient discussion.

The characteristics of the new teaching model at this stage are as follows. First, the students actively construct a cognitive framework based on their own knowledge and experience according to keywords (such as “culture” and “encounter”), explore other elements in this very framework (such as “cultural
characteristics”, “mutual respect”, and “equality”), work out the logical relationship among elements (e.g. “Cultural conflict” originates from “difference” and “estrangement” and therefore, in order to solve the conflict, it is necessary to change the behavior of the “clasher”, so as to realize the “harmonious coexistence” of different cultures), and therefore, build a framework for their understanding of a specific problem. Through this teaching design, the students completed the generalization and refinement of their knowledge and experience, reasoning and inferring the direction and specification of the topic development. When the teacher refined and upgraded the topic, the students’ command of the topic was significantly enhanced, their learning motivation was effectively improved, and their ability to understand the topic had also been exercised.

**Post-Test**

Through a three-month implementation of the new teaching model, the researchers conducted a post-test on the two groups of students to test its effect. Table 3 shows the distribution of questions in the post-test. Table 4 shows the results of the CG in the pre-test and post-test. Table 5 is the comparison of the results of the EG in the pre-test and post-test.

**Table 3. Distribution of the Questions in Post-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Summarizing Qs</th>
<th>Inferring Qs</th>
<th>Qs for Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4. Score Comparison of CG in Pre-test and Post-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. D</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pre-test</td>
<td>29.5</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.921</td>
<td>-0.834</td>
<td>0.411</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8.338</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5. Score Comparison of EG in Pre-test and Post-test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. D</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>9.716</td>
<td>-2.156</td>
<td>0.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>34.21</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7.167</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is shown in the above tables that the average score increased slightly (M value difference is 2) in the CG, which shows that with the accumulation of language learning and the formation of habits, students made some progress in reading comprehension. But its P value is 0.411 (p>0.05), and therefore, there was no significant difference in its grades. By contrast, in the EG where the new teaching model was implemented, the average score increased more (M value difference is 5.17) than that in CG, and the P value was 0.04 (p<0.05), which reflects a significant difference in its score. This shows that the new teaching model was effective in improving students' reading ability.

EG also deserves the researchers’ attention in their performance in the two types of questions – summarizing questions and inferring questions – which can better evaluate the students’ reading ability. Tables 6 and 7 are the score comparisons of the EG’s performance in summarizing questions and inferring questions in the tests. Table 8 is the comparison of the EG’s overall grades in both types of questions.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6. Score Comparison of EG in Summarizing Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7. Score Comparison of EG in Inferring Questions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8. Comparison of EG in Both Question Types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the above tables, in EG’s performance in summarizing questions, the P value is 0.045 (p<0.05), which is significant; in inferring questions, the P value is 0.037 (p<0.05) in the comparison of the reasoning questions; and the P value of both types of questions is 0.009, which is much less than 0.05. This shows that the new teaching model has significantly improved students’ reading ability.

Discussion

Students’ reading ability can be influenced by many factors, such as general knowledge, language skills, etc. This study holds that the most important way to improve reading comprehension is to enhance students’ ability in the exploration and perception of the text, so that students not only “are able to read”, but also “know what the message is”, and in this way, resort to reading experience to guide their language use (speech and writing). This study provides the following implications for intensive reading teaching of English majors in basic grades.

First, teachers should change the teaching focus from language drilling to improving students’ reading ability. Grammar and vocabulary is an indispensable part of reading, but they are not the only focus of intensive reading. Actively guiding students to build a framework for text understanding, analyzing the process of meaning construction, making the text meaningful as a result of interpretation can better serve the purpose of enhancing reading ability. Second, teachers should have a basic judgment of the students’ command of knowledge and life experience. It is on this judgment that all the effective meaning construction and understanding framework are based. In this way, students will neither lose interest in learning because of the low difficulty of teaching content, nor retreat from classroom activities because of the challenging tasks. Finally, teachers should focus on the process rather than the result in teaching. The goal of learning for English majors in the first two academic years is to have a smooth transition from the mastery of knowledge in basic education to the enhancement of skills in higher education. During this transitional period, students do not have a clear recognition of the degree of text interpretation, which sometimes leads to over-interpretation or inadequate comprehension. It is at this moment that the teachers’ guidance is needed. Teachers should elicit students’ logical and reasonable comprehension of the text through careful teaching design and patient illustration.
Conclusion
This study makes an initial exploration of the new teaching model of intensive reading course under the
guidance of frame theory. Through the experiment on 56 freshmen English majors, the researchers conclude
that the framing-based teaching model can effectively improve the students’ reading ability, enhance their
learning enthusiasm and motivation, and therefore, conduct a better text interpretation and appreciation
within the understanding framework co-constructed by teachers and students.

References
Fan, D. S. (2005). The background and value factors of building a framework for cross-cultural
understanding. *Foreign Language and Translation.*
Calm,* (pp. 111-138). Seoul: Hanshin.
The National Foreign Languages Teaching Advisory Board. (2000). *Teaching syllabus for English majors
in colleges and universities.* Beijing: The Ministry of Education.
A Functional Stylistic Analysis of Shakespeare’s Sonnet 29

Li Xueqin
Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: 1090424746@qq.com

[Abstract] Based on Halliday’s systemic functional grammar theory, this paper analyzes Sonnet 29 by William Shakespeare from the perspective of functional stylistics in macro and micro levels. At the macroscopic level, Sonnet 29 will be analyzed from context of situation; and at the microscopic level, three meta-functions on the lexico-grammatical level will be applied into actual analysis. Under the analysis of these two aspects, emotions and intentions of this sonnet will be presented objectively and readers can have a thorough understanding of this sonnet. It turns out that functional stylistics provides a broader perspective to analyze Shakespeare’s sonnets, and it can be further used to analyze various poems.

[Keywords] Sonnet 29; functional stylistics; three meta-functions

Introduction
William Shakespeare, known as one of the greatest playwrights and poets in the world, is famous for his sonnets. His sonnets are profound meditations on the nature of love, sexuality, reproduction, death and time. In total he wrote 154 sonnets, and these sonnets are divided into two parts. The first 126 sonnets were written to express his love towards a young man. The second part were the last 28 sonnets, dedicated to a “Dark Lady”. Sonnet 29 is included in the first part. It impresses readers with its rich images, diction and profound meaning (Dong, 2009). Previous scholars have mainly put their focus on Sonnet 18, the most famous one, but have paid little attention to other sonnets. Searching the China National Knowledge Internet, there are approximately 60 essays on Sonnet 18, while only 9 essays are about Sonnet 29. Five of these appreciated Sonnet 29 from its language and structure, two from its rhetorical devices, one from poet’s desires and one from a translation perspective. All of them analyzed Sonnet 29 from a single perspective, lacking completeness on a theoretic basis. By reconsidering Sonnet 29 from the perspective of functional stylistics, which involves analysis of its language, created images, structure, poet’s desires (intentions), and theme, one can have a more complete understanding. This paper will firstly give a brief introduction of functional stylistics, then put it into actual analysis, and finally, come to a natural conclusion. Actual analysis of this sonnet is the most important part, which is subdivided into analysis of context of situation and meta-functions. Meta-functional analysis contains four factors: transitivity, mood and modality, thematic structure and cohesion.

Functional Stylistics
Stylistics is defined as “the study of style” (Wales, 1989, p. 437), using linguistic knowledge to analyze literary works; functional stylistics (later called FS) is a sub-school of modern stylistics, based on Halliday’s systemic functional linguistics. FS uses all functions of language to explore the style of literary works. FS regards functions as its core, and in accordance with context of situation, writers choose from three meta-functions and form their style of writings; and readers try to recognize the functions used, so that they can understand the writings (Sun, 2011). Generally speaking, linguistic functions bridge linguistic form and context of situation. Context of situation is also called register theory, consisting of field, tenor and mode. And three meta-functions are ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function; all three meta-
functions can be realized by transitivity, mood and modality, thematic structure and cohesion, respectively. According to Zhang Delu (1999), Halliday’s FS made a great contribution, using a linguistic theory to build a stylistic analysis frame. This frame contains three parts: encoding, analyzing and explanation. This paper will focus on analyzing, analyzing emotions and intentions encoded in Sonnet 29.

Practical Analyses of Sonnet 29

This section will analyze Sonnet 29 from the perspective of FS. It will involve practical analysis of context of situation and three meta-functions, through which the sonnet can be understood completely. The sonnet is presented below:

1  When, in disgrace with Fortune and men’s eyes,
2   I all alone beweep my outcast state
3   And trouble deaf heaven with my bootless cries
4   And look upon myself and curse my fate,
5   Wishing me like to one more rich in hope,
6   Featured like him, like him with friends possessed,
7   Desiring this man’s art and that man’s scope,
8   With what I most enjoy contented least:
9   Yet in these thoughts myself almost despising,
10  Haply I think on thee and then my state,
11  Like to the lark at break of day arising,
12  From sullen earth sings hymns at heaven’s gate,
13  For thy sweet love remembered such wealth brings
14  That then I scorn to change my state with kings.

(Shakespeare, 2017, p. 61)

Context of Situation

The context of a situation is realized by three variables: field, tenor and mode. Field usually refers to the theme of the sonnet. In Sonnet 29, the theme is describing the poet’s love towards a young man and the happiness that comes from thinking of that man, despite how miserable his life is. Whenever the poet thinks of the young man, his mood turns from sad to happy immediately. The thesis/plot is the changing of his thoughts, resulting in a mood change from bad to good.

Tenor refers to the relationship between the actors in the poem. In Sonnet 29, tenor is the social relationship between the poet and the young man. The poet adopts the first person ‘I’ to directly describe his love to this man. The actors are ‘I’ and ‘thee’.

Mode refers to how language is used. It is used in a formal way or in an oral way. This sonnet is written to be read as speech, expressing the poet’s ideas. Therefore, its theme is to express the poet’s appreciation and love to his young friend.

Meta-functional Analysis

Transitivity. Thompson defines transitivity as “a system for describing the whole clause rather than just the verbal group” (Thompson, 2000, p. 78). Transitivity mainly deals with the transmission of ideas,
processes, experiences, actions and events. It consists of six processes, namely material, mental, relational, verbal, existential and behavioral.

_lines 1-4_

**Mental process:** *When, in disgrace with Fortune and men's eyes,//I all alone beweep my outcast state*

**Material process:** *And trouble deaf heaven with my bootless cries// And look upon myself and curse my fate,*

_lines 5-6_

**Mental process:** *Wishing me like to one more rich in hope,*

**Relational process:** *Featured like him, like him with friends possessed,*

_lines 7-8_

**Mental process:** *Desiring this man's art and that man's scope,*

**Mental process:** *With what I most enjoy contented least://Yet in these thoughts myself almost despising*

_lines 9-12_

**Mental process:** *Haply I think on thee//*

**Relational process:** *and then my state,//Like to the lark at break of day arising,*

**Material process:** *//From sullen earth sings hymns at heaven's gate:*

_lines 13-14_

**Material process:** *For thy sweet love remembered such wealth brings//That then I scorn to change my state with kings.*

From the above analysis, it is clear that the sonnet contains ten processes, with five mental processes, three material processes and two relational processes. At the start, the poet feels very upset because of his unfortunate and unpleasant life. There are two relational processes, one showing that the poet wants to become a noble man who has many friends, the other showing that the poet compares himself to the happy lark when he thinks of the young man. The two relational processes show a change of his mood from sad to happy. There are three actors: The first actor is heaven, stressing that the poet lives a miserable life which even heaven curses; the second actor is the lark who sings hymns at heaven’s gate happily; and the third actor is ‘I’, describing my action, scorning to change state with kings when the moment ‘I’ thinks of ‘thee’. Through mental, relational and material processes, the poet’s inner world and the change of the poet’s mood are well presented. At first, he compares himself to an ‘outcast’, a man being poor, friendless, lonely and helpless; then, he thinks of ‘thee’, and he compares himself to a happy bird. This simile forms a sharp contrast with his preceding metaphor, which plays an important and conspicuous role in conveying the poet’s feelings (Li, 1996).

**Mood and Modality.** Mood consists of two elements: subject and finite. In this sonnet, there are four different subjects, namely ‘I’, ‘heaven’, ‘my state’, and ‘the sweet love’, of which the subject ‘I’ appears five times; from line 5 to line 8, there are two clauses in which the subject is omitted. According to these subjects, three main pictures are created. The first picture is the poet despising his own miserable life, the second, the lark’s singing hymns at heaven’s gate and the third, is the happiness of the poet’s scorning to change state with kings. They reflect the theme of this sonnet: thinking of ‘thee’ and ‘the sweet love’, ‘I’ am happier even than being a king. The whole sonnet uses present tense to emphasize that the sweet love from his friend is forever. The sonnet uses the first-person narration, describing the whole process of his
mood change in detail and creating scenes and pictures for the readers, so that the readers can understand this sonnet directly and deeply.

According to Halliday, “There are intermediate degrees: various kinds of indeterminacy that fall in between, like ‘sometimes’ or ‘maybe’. These intermediate degrees between the positive and negative poles, are known collectively as Modality” (2000, p. 88). Modality expresses the writer’s attitude or judgement towards a proposition. In this sonnet, there are no such mood adjuncts, which means that the poet holds a positive and affirmative attitude. Regardless, we can infer that the poet wants to highly praise his friend and his sweet love for him.

**Thematic Structure.** Through analyzing theme-rheme structure, readers can have a direct and objective understanding of the subjects. There are two kinds of theme: unmarked theme and marked theme, which is used for the purpose of emphasis.

**Lines 1-2**
Theme (marked): *When, in disgrace with Fortune and men’s eyes,*
Rheme: *I all alone beweep my outcast state*

**Lines 3-4**
Theme (unmarked): *trouble deaf heaven*
Rheme 1: *with my bootless cries*
Rheme 2: *And look upon myself,*
Rheme 3: *and curse my fate,*

**Lines 5-6**
Theme (marked): *Wishing me like to one more rich in hope,*
Rheme 1: *Featured like him,*
Rheme 2: *like him with friends possessed,*

**Lines 7-8**
Theme (marked): *Desiring this man’s art and that man’s scope,*
Rheme: *With what I most enjoy contented least:*

**Lines 9-12**
Theme (marked): *Yet in these thoughts myself almost despising,*
Rheme: *Haply I think on thee*
Theme (unmarked): *and then my state,*
Rheme: *Like to the lark at break of day arising From sullen earth sings hymns at heaven’s gate:*

**Lines 13-14**
Theme (marked): *For thy sweet love remembered*
Rheme: *such wealth brings*
Theme (unmarked): *That then I*
Rheme: *scorn to change my state with kings.*

From the above analysis, there are eight themes, five marked themes and three unmarked themes. The first and fourth marked themes stresses the poet’s miserable life, creating a sad tone for the whole sonnet; the second and third marked themes emphasize the poet’s wish of becoming a noble man and to live a happy
Cohesion. According to Halliday and Hasan (2001), there are grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Later, Zhang Delu and Liu Rushan (2003) broadened the range of cohesion; the whole scope of cohesion values phonological cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is achieved by conjunction, ellipsis and reference; line 2, line 3 and line 4 are connected by two conjunctions ‘and’; the ellipsis of subject ‘I’ contributes to emphasize the marked themes, and thus, highlights the poet’s wish. Personal reference like ‘him’, ‘I’, ‘thee’, and demonstrative references like ‘this’ and ‘that’ in line 7, ‘these’ in line 9 are all used to avoid the same words, increasing readability of the sonnet. Therefore, the sonnet is coherent.

Lexical cohesion is achieved by lexical devices, including reiteration and collocation. Repetition is used in line 6; ‘like him’ is repeated, which stresses the person who the poet wants to be. Synonyms like ‘disgrace’, ‘despising’ and ‘outcast’ describe the miserable life the poet has.

Phonological cohesion of poems is usually achieved by beauty of rhyme and rhythm. In line 10, alliteration in ‘think on thee’ makes the sonnet easy to read; and the sonnet is an iambic pentameter, with the rhyme scheme being ABAB CDCD EFEF GG. In the first stanza, odd rows rhyme [aɪz], even rows [et]; in the second stanza, odd rows rhyme [əʊp], even rows [st]; in the third stanza, odd rows rhyme[əɪzn], even rows [et]; and the last two rows rhyme [ɪ ŋ]. In this way, the sonnet’s readability increases largely and the speech function is well achieved.

Conclusion

From the above detailed analysis, readers will have easier access to thoroughly understand Sonnet 29. The poet explores many mental processes to register how his mood changes when he thinks of ‘thee’; the poet uses relevant words, coherent clauses, beautiful rhythm and positive and affirmative modality to present his theme of praising the beauty in his friend and expressing the sweet love towards him. The theme is highlighted by using marked themes, stressing important points; it is also highlighted by using simile, comparing him to be the lark singing at the heaven’s gate. By using cohesive devices, the sonnet’s contents are cohesive, so that it is easy to understand. So, it is clear that functional stylistics is an operable and practicable theory; and it is proper to apply it into poetry analysis.

References


MALL in a Flipped College EFL Oral Class
Based on Production-Oriented Approach

Lan Zhou
College of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: gzjnuzl@126.com

Fan Peng (Corresponding Author)
College of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: fanpengchina@vip.qq.com

Yajuan Su (Author)
College of Foreign Languages and Cultures, Xiamen University
Email: suyajuan@xmu.edu.cn

[Abstract] With an aim to improve student’s speaking proficiency, this study investigates student’s perceptions and evaluates the effectiveness of mobile technology-enhanced language learning in a flipped college EFL oral class based on Production-Oriented Approach (POA). This research employed a mixed method to analyze multiple sources of data, including a pre-test, mid-test and post-test on subjective oral questions, a questionnaire on participants’ perceptions and semi-structured focus-group interviews. The results indicated that the mobile technology-enhanced flipped learning motivated participants to more active engagement, more confident speaking and more self-regulated learning, thus improving the participants’ oral proficiency.

[Keywords] MALL; flipped learning; POA; Rainclass

Introduction
In recent years, much research has been conducted on mobile learning and on integrating mobile apps into the educational setting (Hirsh-Pasek, et al., 2015) As over 1 billion students are learning the English language worldwide (Beare, 2016), English language teaching (ELT) has been of significant importance and of top priority worldwide (Chen Hsieh, Wu, & Marek, 2017). With distinctive features such as portability, social interactivity, connectivity, reliability, and individuality, mobile technology is widely used to facilitate language teaching and the learning process. However, it is still an intricate and challenging task to integrate mobile technologies into language teaching and learning.

Language acquisition requires time, patience and an effort to practice. However, given limited teaching hours and unsystematic pedagogical course design, students may rush for in-class practice and teachers may be compelled to skip some vital steps of language teaching. How should mobile technology be utilized to construct a class model effectively and appropriately to meet student’s learning needs? Han (2015) proposed that through releasing the instruction outside the classroom and adding opportunities for in-class practices and activities, the flipped classroom method can solve those problems. The authors tentatively designed a flipped classroom teaching model based on production-oriented approach and probed into its effects on college EFL oral class with an attempt to facilitate the implementation of flipped classroom in Chinese college EFL education.
Literature Review

Mobile Technology in Language Learning
Mobile learning, facilitated by mobile devices, is now movable, real-time, collaborative, and seamless (Kukulska-Hulme, 2009; Wong, & Looi, 2011). With the technological and pedagogical affordances of mobile devices (Churchill, & Churchill, 2008; Cochrane, & Bateman, 2010), their utilization in education opens up new windows of opportunities in language teaching and learning. Since Chickering and Ehrmann coined the term MALL (Mobile Assisted Language Learning) in 1996, mobile technology has been widely utilized in language learning, which can be easily seen by the increasing number of studies on MALL.

With the aim to investigate the effectiveness of using mobile technology on language learning, many scholars have conducted series of studies, and these studies found that using mobile technology are beneficial for language learning. (e.g., Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009; Motiwalla, 2007). Mahdi (2017) examined the effect of using mobile devices on vocabulary learning by reviewing 16 studies involving 986 participants and found that mobile devices can have a positive effect on all aspect of vocabulary learning. Thus, this study utilizes Rainclass, a mobile program embedded in WeChat, to examine the language learning process and its effectiveness in supporting language learning procedures among college EFL students.

Rainclass, a newly designed teaching tool, was launched by Tsinghua University in the context of mobile internet and big data. With its unique characteristics and advantages, this software system was explored for blended learning and was used to assist classroom teaching and implement teaching research (Wang, 2017). In China, Rainclass has been used with MOOC to analyze the blended learning, the study indicated that Rainclass was helpful in English teaching, with different degrees of satisfaction from teaching assistants and students. (Yang, Zhang, & Zhang, 2017). In this study, Rainclass is of key importance in delegating all teaching tasks within or out of class, interacting between teachers and students, and statistically recording all student's performance.

Research on Flipped Classroom Abroad
Flipped learning provides an alternative way for integrating technology in language learning, which creates numerous options for students to learn (Chen Hsieh, et al., 2016; Hung, 2015; McLaughlin, et al., 2014). As it provides more advanced learning activities during class, students are given further possibilities to participate in meaningful activities in a way that fully achieve learning outcomes (Boucher, et al., 2013). According to Strayer (2012), the flipped classroom positively promotes students’ capabilities in cooperation and innovation. Enfield (2013) proved that the flipped classroom boosts student’s confidence and their learning autonomy. Millard (2012), Milman (2012) and Westermann (2014) have claimed that the flipped classroom model can positively improve student’s engagement and motivation in class discussion and interaction. Therefore, based on its two vital features: student-centered learning and autonomy, the flipped classroom model is considered to be beneficial in foreign language teaching.

Research on Flipped Classrooms in China
As it is a trend to build a technology-enhanced learning environment, an increasing number of Chinese educators and researchers are working on this field (Zhang, Wang, & Zhang, 2012). Zuo (2016) used a mix-methods action research to prove its effectiveness in Chinese ESL technology-enhanced classroom at the college level for both low-level and advanced level students. In a comparative quasi-experimental design research study, Nile (2015) found that the flipped classroom helped students gain ownership and become
empowered in their learning. By examining the advantages of the flipped classroom within 31 Chinese sophomore students in a digital media technology course, Huan (2016) also discovered that the flipped classroom helped student’s make progress in learning at their own pace.

The current study hopes to design a class model to enable students with more opportunities to practice spoken English. For the benefits of the flipped learning for the EFL, the researcher used flipped learning and Wen’s POA (Production-Oriented Approach) to personalize an oral class for Chinese college EFL learners.

**Methodology**

**Instructional Design**

The aim of the Production-Oriented Approach (POA) is to improve the quality of instruction in the English classroom at the tertiary level within Mainland China (Wen, 2007). It has been developed over ten years to overcome the weaknesses in Chinese English instruction and it tries to integrate the strengths of Western instructional approaches within a Chinese context (Wen, 2018). The reasons for choosing POA are as follows: (1) It is a teaching approach that supports a selective-learning hypothesis (SLH) that the learner chooses to learn only what is useful for the assigned productive activity; (2) It emphasizes the enabling of input materials on leading students to approach their own zones of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygosky 1978); (3) It strengthens Output-Driven Hypothesis (ODH) in which output is placed before input to serve as a driving force for L2 learning (Wen, 2018).

In this production-driven flipped classroom model, learners are highly motivated to fulfill eight-weeks’ of oral tasks before class. The POA flipped class in college oral English class is divided into three phases: pre-class, in-class and after-class. Before class, the researcher sent pre-class oral tasks to all participants via Rainclass. Participants previewed the oral task including a PPT embedded with a sample video clip on the chosen topic and relevant materials enabling participants to prepare their own speeches, and then students posted back personal short speeches through Rainclass. The instructor utilized Rainclass to comment on students’ oral tasks before class. In-class, the instructor provided participants with language expressions and conducted communicative tasks within groups. After-class, Rainclass generated a report on assessing students’ in-class performances, the instructor provided guidance for participants based on their questions.

**Research Purpose and Questions**

This research aims to examine the effectiveness and feasibility of using POA to assist flipped learning designed for college EFL oral class.

1. Were there any differences in the participants’ oral proficiency between the two instructional methods (flipped and conventional learning)?
2. How did students perceive the POA integrated flipped learning model?

**Participants**

The participants were 62 non-English-major freshmen, mostly female aging between 20 and 21. The participants were mainly from Hongkong, Taiwan and Macau, who had passed the entrance exam held by universities in mainland China.
**Data Collection**

This study used multiple resources of data collection to examine the effectiveness and participants’ perceptions of flipped learning, including (1) pre-test, mid-test and post-test of audio recordings; (2) survey on participants’ perspectives on the three phases; and (3) a semi-structured focus-group interviews.

**Quantitative Data Analysis**

This research was conducted within subjects, the instructor implemented two ways of teaching the model during the 16 weeks, for 3 hours a week. As college English aims to improve student’s comprehensive English capabilities, students practiced listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating together. Thus, the estimated time for oral practices was within 45 minutes every week in conventional instruction. In the first eight weeks, the instructor gave a pre-test first and started with conventional instruction which was given with lecture-based oral tasks in class. After eight weeks of teaching, the instructor assessed the students’ oral proficiency with a mid-test. Then the instructor utilized the flipped learning model and monitored the students’ learning performance of pre-class, in-class and after-class via Rainclass, and a post-test was given later. The pre-test, mid-test and post-test were all open-ended questions identical in difficulty. The participants responded orally and were recorded automatically. The instructor and instructor’s assistant evaluated the participants’ pre-tests and post-tests audio recordings by using CET 4 Assessment Criteria. The criteria covered four parts: (1) fluency and coherence, (2) lexical resource, (3) grammatical range and accuracy, and (4) pronunciation and intonation. The overall score of the test was 100 points – 25 points for each part. The study applied the means of the pre-tests, mid-tests and post-tests to compare the differences between flipped and conventional learning. Additionally, a Paired-Samples t-Test was employed to analyze the oral learning outcomes of all participants in two different instructions.

For the second question, a 5-point Likert scale was adopted to investigate participants’ perceptions about the flipped learning model. The Cronbach $\alpha$ coefficient of the questionnaire is 0.968, and the KMO is 0.789, which means the reliability and validity of the questionnaire is good.

**Qualitative Data Analysis**

The researcher conducted semi-structured focus-group interviews on the participants’ overall perceptions of the flipped instruction in the course. The semi-structured focus-group interviews examined participants’ perceptions of: (1) the differences between conventional and flipped ways of learning (e.g. learning outcome, learner’s autonomy, preference, time…); (2) experiences in using Rainclass (e.g. involvement, satisfaction, effectiveness); and (3) improvement on the instruction (learning materials, teaching mode, video contents, communicative tools and activities).

**Results**

The results of the pre-test, mid-test and post-test, the focus-group interviews, the questionnaires and the instructors’ in-class observation all indicated that a flipped class based on POA was better in improving students’ oral proficiency than conventional instruction. It prompted student’s self-paced practices outside class and made participants more engaged in oral tasks. It also cultivated participants’ capability of critical thinking and self-inquiry. The participants were more confident to communicate with partners when prepared. However, participants were still upset when they encountered some new challenges.
RQ1: Were there any Differences in the Participants’ Oral Proficiency between the Two Instructional Methods (Flipped and Conventional learning)?

Descriptive statistics compared the pre-test, mid-test and post-test in the conventional and flipped instructions. The mean score of flipped learning (M=76.71) was much higher than that of conventional instruction (M=71.58). The maximum scores of the pre-tests in both instructions did not differ greatly, but the maximum score of the flipped instruction (M=95) was marginally higher than that in the conventional instruction (M=93).

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Pre-test, Mid-test and Post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Instruction</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td></td>
<td>62</td>
<td>68.7097</td>
<td>8.314</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-test</td>
<td>Conventional</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>71.58</td>
<td>8.14</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Flipped</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>76.71</td>
<td>8.167</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The paired-sample t-Test shown in Table 2 indicated that in both forms of instructions, the participants performed significantly better on the post-test (p<.001) compared to the pre-test and mid-test. Thus, the flipped instruction contributed considerably better learning outcomes than the conventional instruction.

Table 2. Paired-Samples t-Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Std. error mean</th>
<th>95% confidence interval of the difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test to Mid-test (conventional instruction)</td>
<td>-2.87097</td>
<td>2.19899</td>
<td>.27927</td>
<td>-3.42941 to -2.31253</td>
<td>-10.280</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid-test to Post-test (Flipped instruction)</td>
<td>-5.12903</td>
<td>1.92893</td>
<td>.24497</td>
<td>-5.61889 to -4.63917</td>
<td>-20.937</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QS2: How did Students Perceive the Flipped Learning Model?

The questionnaire and semi-structured focus group interviews were employed to evaluate the participants’ perceptions of the flipped instruction used in this study. The types of feedbacks involved in this study were summarized as follows: (1) Pre-class preparation; (2) In-class and after-class interaction and feedback; (3) Self-regulated learning.

Pre-class preparation. Compared with the conventional instruction in which participants had insufficient guidance and time to prepare for the new lesson, the flipped class enabled participants to familiarize themselves with the oral tasks and search for relevant materials based on the topic. One participant noted, “I will be more confident in speaking activities when prepared beforehand.” Another participant said, “I can search for relevant materials readily and practice before class by myself which is quite convenient and efficient.”

In-class and after-class interaction and feedback. In conventional instruction, it’s rare to interact with the instructor after-class, but participants can be more engaged to interact with others and the instructor in a flipped class. One participant commented, “I like group discussion; when I have got my own ideas, I am more willing to talk with my classmates.” Another concluded, “I feel free to communicate in the class, and the feedback from my classmates and the teacher are very helpful for me to practice further after class, especially if I have to complete a writing task.” “More time to share my ideas with others, as I have watched the videos and materials before, I can be clearer about what I am going to talk within my group.”
Self-regulated learning. More preparation, interactions and feedback will progressively guide students’ self-regulated learning. “I like flipped learning because I have enough time to learn autonomously in a way that can be more confident and engaged in speaking English” said one participant. Some participants noted that the Rainclass drove them to be more responsible for learning, since they had to keep reminding themselves to hand in the oral tasks timely.

Conclusion

The findings of the current research showed that the participants’ oral proficiency was significantly improved by the flipped oral class based on POA. Self-regulated, contextual and collaborative pre-class tasks, as well as in-class activities, effectively motivated the participants to be more engaged in learning. The participants expressed their positive perceptions of the flipped learning employed in this study, because the instruction provided them with sufficient time to prepare for the class, effective collaboration with others, and self-regulated learning environment.

Based on previous results, it is recommended that teachers and administrators allocate more resources for teachers’ training on utilization of technological teaching tools and implementation of flipped learning. The flipped learning model requires a careful design which must be front-loaded for the teacher in order to successfully implement a flipped design. In current research, the interactions between participants can be further explored as participants mainly focused on individual tasks instead of sharing ideas with others before completing their own tasks.

Acknowledgements

This essay was the research result of Programme (JD17WXZ07) of Guangdong Office of Philosophy and Social Science and Jinan University’s teaching and research Programme (55611340).

I would like to thank Jinan University, for affording me the unimaginable opportunity to complete my research here. I will not forget to thank my colleague Fan Peng, and her whole team for their relentless support. I also remain grateful for my students who have been very supportive for this whole semester. My special thanks go to Yajuan Su for sharing her ideas for my research. Finally, and most importantly, huge thank you to my family for their full support.

References


Using Mobile Devices and Mosoink to Improve EFL Student Engagement

Lu Leng, and Xuewei Lin
Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: lusophialeng@hotmail.com, and linxueweiashley@163.com

[Abstract] This empirical study reports on the student engagement and learning achievement through classroom practices and teacher instruction while integrating mobile application Mosoink (lanmoyun 蓝墨云) in a university EFL classroom in Southern China. In particular, this study aims to identify the most relevant technical and nontechnical aspects of a mobile learning application that motivates instructors and learners in designing M-learning teaching pedagogy and adopting a learning strategy in an English language classroom. This study proposes the benefits and limitations of the Mosoink app by analyzing student feedback and observation data. Collaborative analysis of our data revealed that students gained confidence in expression and improved their English language proficiency in terms of pronunciation and fluency. The study identified the four most popular classroom practices that motivated their learning, and in the end, summarized students’ positive feedback on the Mosoink application.

[Keywords] mobile learning; Mosoink; EFL; student engagement; English teaching pedagogy

Introduction to Mobile Learning

Mobile learning, which generally refers to learning activities facilitated by the use of mobile devices such as mobile phones, notebooks, and personal digital assistants (PDA), has gradually played a critical role in helping students acquire new knowledge and skills in life (Valk, Rashid, & Elder, 2010). Probably because the applications of mobile devices have become an essential part in students’ lives and our teaching and learning environments (Cavus, & Ibrahim, 2009; Clough, Jones, McAndrew, & Scanlon, 2008), a growing body of research has started to investigate the use, the perceptions and the outcomes of mobile learning (Gheorghiu, & Stefan, 2016; Welsh, Mauchline, Powell, France, & Whalley, 2015; Wang, Wu, & Wang, 2009). M-learning makes it possible for students to learn, collaborate, and share ideas amongst each other with the aid of the internet and technology development. It has become a promising pedagogical technology and practice to be employed in the higher educational environment (Emran, Elsherif, & Shaalan, 2016). Nevertheless, more research is still needed on evaluating mobile learning outcomes (Sung & Mayer, 2013; Uzunboylu, Cavus, & Ercag, 2009).

Purpose of the Study

Although a considerable number of studies have revealed that learning outcomes could be closely related to mobile learning (Ataş & Ömer, 2017; Bertheussen, & Øystein, 2016; Walters, 2012), there is still a paucity of research investigating the psychological effects, particularly cognitive and socio-affective engagement while applying mobile learning in an English language teaching and learning classroom in China. Accordingly, the primary purpose of this study is to investigate and review the usage and benefits of mobile learning from the perspective of student engagement in the context of English language learning in a comprehensive university in Southern China. Drawing upon Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory (1962, 1978) and student engagement theory (Blumenfeld, Kempler, & Krajcik 2006; Patrick, Ryan, & Kaplan, 2007), the focus is to explore the relationship between a popular Chinese designed mobile application – Mosoink (lanmoyun 蓝墨云) and undergraduate EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners’ writing
achievements and oral performance. In addition, the study will explore the benefits and limitations of the implication of Mosoink as perceived by the students.

**Mosoink (lanmoyun 蓝墨云) Mobile Application**

Mosoink is a Chinese mobile software application that is available for free downloading and installing on mobile devices to support user access to different course features. It moves the learning process beyond the traditional classroom, offering a free and safe space where instructors and learners can connect, interact, collaborate, share learning content, get access to the required materials and learners’ work, and make evaluations in an online environment anytime and anywhere. This application can be implemented by a single teacher for their class, with no specialist technical expertise required to get started or sign up. The reason we integrated the mobile app in English language learning is because we want to use it as a facilitator and an incentive for student learning.

**Research Questions**

Since the nature and dynamics of student engagement in a Chinese EFL mobile learning integrated classroom remains largely unexplored, this study, therefore, intends to answer the following questions:

*What is the nature of and relationship between student engagement in EFL mobile learning integrated classrooms? What is the role of mobile learning in learner engagement? What classroom contexts, conditions, discourses, tools and practices promote student engagement in ESL mobile learning integrated classrooms? How is this accomplished?*

**Theoretical Framework**

Researchers have found the sociocultural perspective to be a useful framework to explore students’ academic engagement (Crone, & Dahl, 2012). Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory and engagement theory set a strong foundation to analyze students’ interactions in college English language classrooms and to better understand mobile strategies that encourage cognitive, socio-affective engagement of students.

Vygotsky (1962, 1978) examined how social processes and cultural resources influence human thinking and learning. He argued that learning is socially constructed, takes place through joint productive activity, and occurs in the zone of proximal development (ZPD). The ZPD indicates the distance between a student’s ability to perform a task under adult guidance and/or collaboration with more capable peers and the student’s actual ability to solve problems independently through communication.

Engagement is the student’s psychological investment and effort directed toward learning, understanding, or mastering knowledge, skills, or attitude (Newmann, 1992). Engagement in schoolwork involves both behaviors (e.g. persistence, effort, attention, choice, attendance, and attitude toward subject) and emotions (e.g. enthusiasm, interest, social relationship, making connections to previous knowledge and experience, pride in success, meaningfulness, competence, and growth). Social engagement includes feeling a sense of connectedness with classmates and belongingness to the school.

**Research Design**

This study involved the collection of participant interaction and other ethnographic data from university classrooms in Guangzhou China, in which 96 EFL learners from various departments participated.
Data Source
Data was collected from two classes of students taking the same College English course across two semesters. The first course was College English Elementary and the second was College English Intermediate. The course was arranged based on different themes, such as hobbies, family, jobs and career. From September 2017 to May 2018, 170 activities were implemented for each class (148 for 1st semester, 62 for 2nd semester). Additionally, data of students’ writing and oral performance, as well as class observation were collected and analyzed to uncover perceived benefits and limitations of utilizing mobile learning devices for the class.

The focus of student’s English competences was slightly shifted from the first to the second semester, thus the data of activities changed in form: 1st semester was basically short-text writing with some text-reading recording; 2nd semester had a balance between short-text writing and text-reading recording, as well as oral and spontaneous question-answering.

Data Analysis
To analyze the data from Mosoink application and class observation, we built a speech corpus and drew from the methods of constant comparison (Strauss, & Corbin, 1998).

Functions of the Mosoink Mobile App Used in the Classroom
1. Experience points: Experience points are accumulated automatically when students participate in any activity set by the teacher.
2. Homework & tasks: Group tasks or individual tasks; In written or oral forms; On class or before/after class.
3. Class performance: Students raising hands to participate; Students racing to be the first one to participate; Selecting student(s) to participate; Selecting group(s) to participate.
4. Brainstorming: Every student’s opinion will be shown in the form of a sticker on the same page which allows others to read and give a thumbs-up.
5. Tests: Single or multiple choices.

Mosoink Integrated English Teaching Design and Pedagogy

Students Write Down their Thoughts Before they Speak
Students are asked to write down their answers using the app before they speak in front of the class. This will facilitate students’ learning in two aspects: firstly, it allows students to be better prepared for their speech; secondly, they are given opportunities to organize and pre-check their use of language before they express it again orally. These two aspects work both on their language accumulation and confidence.

Students Record Speech into a Learning Profile
Mosoink allows teachers to assign tasks or homework that require students to answer in both written and spoken forms. By recording their own speeches regularly, students and teachers are able to recognize the problems in students’ learning and, equally importantly, to track the learning process of their learning.

Teacher Designs Activities to Build a Systematic Scaffolding
As an instrumental tool, the app offers a platform for the implementation of systematically designed activities, including preparation activities, main activities, and follow-up activities, etc. From the observation of experimental classes, in which students have difficulties in learning, this app plays an
effective role in scaffolding. For example, when the teacher asks students to answer a question, she can design a series of tasks:

1. Play a short video to contextualize the students with a simple question. This question is designed in a way that will stir students’ concentration, both by asking them to generalize the main idea or to list the points being said, and by assigning the task with the app.

2. Ask the students to pose and discuss a critical question related to the topic of the class as a core activity. With the preparation of the earlier tasks, students have certain understanding of a particular topic, and after a small group discussion, they might reach an agreement on the question and write down their answers on the app.

3. During this time, offer a video and other facilitating materials (preferably of various aspects or of opposite views to a same question) to the students with the app. Students can read the texts or play the videos at each individual’s own pace.

4. Discuss in class. The class performance function of the app helps organize the discussion by letting students raise their hands or race to be the first to respond, or by letting the teacher select a student or a group to answer the question. Since the app makes the accumulation of experience points, which works as an evaluation of students’ performance as well, it improves students’ motivation to speak.

Findings

Collaborative analysis of our data produced four major themes regarding student learning engagement and progress in the class:

Confidence in Expression

One of the supporting data in the improvement of students’ confidence is the overall increase of their volume as collected through the app. It may also be partly due to the fact that they are feeling more at ease when they record their voice. Their revealing of confidence in expression as observed in the class could offer another confirmation.

Improved English Language Proficiency from the Aspect of Pronunciation and Fluency

Some pronunciations of vowels, consonants and words which are easily mistaken by Chinese students are analyzed in the corpus, such as /e/ and /æ/, /ʃ/ and /v/, /ˈækʃjuəli/ and /ˈæʃli/. It was found that some of the mistakes were corrected in the second semester compared to earlier periods. In terms of their fluency, their indications of speech speed and frequency of repetition, regression, hesitation particles were analyzed and it was shown that the students were speaking faster with less disfluency indicators across the time.

Identified Mosoink Practices for Supporting Student Engagement

After the application of class activities with Mosoink, students were observed and interviewed to find out the more effective practices. It was found that four aspects of class practices were more welcomed and effective in drawing students’ engagement: the routine of recording their answers with the app; the preparational time when they wrote down their answers before they were asked to answer in front of the class; being given a thumbs-up by the teacher or their peers after sharing their thoughts; the multiple resources such as videos, PowerPoint slides, listening materials, websites, and Moocs that students could preview before the class.
**Students’ Positive Feedback on the Mosoink Application**

It was shared by the students that the mobile application made the class more interesting because their activities in class were not limited to looking at PowerPoint slides, listening to the teacher and reading the book. They were enriched by using the app to do some exercises and to give a thumbs-up. After all, the young generation likes exploring new learning experiences with their smart phones in the class. Some students mentioned when they used the Mosoink, they were able to find different thoughts, opposite views and learn from multiple perspectives from the class, which became a privilege compared with the traditional learning where they could only get to know several students’ ideas in a large classroom with more than 55 students. Some students explained that when using the smart phone, they were able to preview and review the learning materials without the limitation of time and location. In addition, most of the students believed that the mobile integrated learning promoted student-teacher interactions and relationships.

**Discussion**

Stimulating students’ motivation in traditional classroom settings can be difficult sometimes. Students can easily be distracted and may not pay attention to the course. In this case, they are not engaged in the lesson and their success rates decrease. That being the case, if an instructional designer wants to find solutions to engage students, she may consider integrating mobile learning into the classroom.

In the student qualitative data, the most important reason for students to engage in learning, or the most salient theme that appeared was that the class created an interesting and positive environment that fostered students’ learning and development. Echoing Vygotsky’s theory, the context of a social-historical environment can significantly influence students’ learning. Frankl (1969) stated that “the human being is completely and unavoidably influenced by his surroundings” (p. 99). Maintaining a positive classroom environment is a fundamental condition for students to thrive in learning. It is necessary for students and teachers to create an intellectually safe environment (Jackson, 2013) in the classroom.

Students’ cognitive development occurs with social, emotional, motivational investment during activities (Vygotsky, 1978). The social interaction plays a fundamental and inseparable role in the process of participants’ intellectual development (Oakes & Lipton, 1999). The level of engagement and collaboration, the excitement among the students while participating in the question-driven and inquiry-based activities using smart phone and interesting apps reshaped their learning into an aesthetic experience because it was full of life and its own form of beauty. The students were transformed from passive participants to active agents of thought and change in the language class.

**Conclusion**

Based on this research, authentic interest can be best achieved when teachers are able to find out student preferences, needs, and skills in the subject matter. The teaching and studying activities, as well as the topics chosen in the course of study should be able to enrich students’ lives and take care of their direct interests. Engagement occurs when students engage in activities related to their interests and competence. Thus, the teacher could carefully select topics or questions as stimulus for student thinking. In the beginning of the semester, the teacher could rearrange the textbook into different themes and use multiple resources such as theme-related videos, film clips, research papers, artistic works, student self-directed dramas, and recordings as stimuli to encourage student learning. Students were inspired by the stimulus to raise questions that they thought were interesting, universal, critical or stimulating for the community of inquiry.
to start using the Mosoink. Then the teacher became a facilitator to participate in student discussion and interaction that would promote the communal interest.

**Acknowledgement**

This work was supported by the Humanities and Social Science Foundation of Ministry of Education of China [18YJC880035].

**References**


Facilitation Effect of Time-Space Metaphorical Instruction on English Temporal Words Acquisition

Shuangshuang Pei
School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: suellenpei@163.com

[Abstract] This study aims to examine the benefits of applying TIME-SPACE conceptual metaphor to EFL learners’ acquisition of metaphorical extended English temporal words. Image-schema-based vocabulary instruction method and the translation-based vocabulary instruction method were adopted and compared, with 57 secondary school students chosen as participants. The results showed that both receptive and productive use of metaphorically extended temporal words were greatly strengthened, but the experiment group outperformed the control group. Learners’ metaphoric awareness was enhanced by drawing their attention to the source domain as well as the underlying metaphorical mapping. Helping students recognize the underlying metaphor and systematic organization of words around a common metaphoric theme is beneficial to their memorization and reproduction of the words.

[Keywords] facilitation effect; metaphorical instruction; temporal words acquisition

Introduction

Previous studies have successfully proved the psychological reality of the TIME-SPACE conceptual metaphor. Metaphorical expressions of time in everyday language have their roots in TIME-SPACE metaphorical mapping on conceptual level (Aguirre, & Santiago, 2015). Pedagogical researches also found that raising students metaphor awareness could improve learners’ performance in polysemous word learning (Juchem-Grundmann, 2009). This study will examine the possibility of applying TIME-SPACE metaphorical instruction in EFL teaching and its facilitation effect on temporal word acquisition.

The influence of conceptual metaphor on language can be found in polysemy. Figurative meanings of polysemous words are generated by adding new meanings to the existing expressions through metaphorical mapping of existing concrete relations and structures onto new semantic domains (Lakoff, & Johnson, 1980). Many seemingly arbitrary figurative meanings of polysemous words can be traced back to a common source domain and metaphorical theme (Boers, 2000). The temporal meaning of many English words originates from spatial senses and centers around the underlying TIME-SPACE metaphorical theme. For instance, the English word “advance” was originally used to refer to movement in space but later extended to the change of time to an earlier period (“advance the meeting by three days”). Polysemy forms a large part of English vocabulary and is difficult to acquire for EFL learners. Drawing students’ attention to these metaphorical meanings would be helpful for their understanding of the word meaning.

Studies have found that incorporating image schema in vocabulary teaching can improve comprehension and memorization of polysemous words. Makni (2013) compared the efficiency of two instruction methods in polysemous words teaching: the image-schema-based vocabulary instruction method (ISBM) and the translation-based vocabulary instruction method (TBM). He found the ISBM was more effective than TBW in immediate learning of polysemous words with metaphorically extended meanings, and both were beneficial for long term recall. The use of image schema could prompt deeper cognitive processing of the material and improve later recalling of the words.
Most studies did not distinguish the instructional effect of metaphor on receptive and productive skills of language learning. They focused mainly on receptive knowledge with productive knowledge less researched. Therefore, it could be more convincing if both skills are included in one study. Moreover, tasks adopted by the researchers are various: receptive knowledge is mainly measured through comprehension and gap-filling tasks (Boers, & Lindstromberg, 2008). These methods are effective in measuring the understanding of words, but not productive knowledge, because the tasks explicitly ask for the use of the lexis and provide enough context cues. Grundmann (2009) designed a consecutive writing task to examine the effect on productive use of words. The open format of writing gave students enough freedom to choose target words.

The present study aims to examine the benefits of applying the TIME-SPACE conceptual metaphor to EFL learners’ acquisition of the metaphorical extended English temporal words. Since the existing studies focused mainly on phrasal verbs, prepositions and idioms, specialized study on temporal words originating from space would be insightful.

**Research Procedure**

**Research Question**
Will TIME-SPACE conceptual metaphor teaching facilitate the comprehension and production of metaphorically extended English temporal words for EFL learners? We hypothesize that if the underlying TIME-SPACE conceptual theme is explained and visual image schema is presented, understanding and later retrieval of the temporal words extended from space could be facilitated.

**Participants**
There were 57 secondary school students (34 males and 23 females, average 16) that participated in the experiment. They were randomly assigned to two different English classes at the beginning of the semester. Among them, 30 from Class A were treated as the Experiment Group and 27 from Class B as the Control Group. On average, they had received 10 years’ formal English training at school with a vocabulary of 4000 words. They were lower-intermediate English language learners. English scores in their school final test were taken as a way to test the group difference. Independent sample T test showed that there was no difference between the two groups (M control = 90.4, M experiment = 89.7, t= -0.414, P=0.681>.05).

**Materials**
Eight words were chosen as the teaching materials for the study (ahead, approach, forward, proceed, advance, flash back, set back, and upcoming). These words were motivated by the conceptual TIME-SPACE metaphor, originally used to describe movement in space and later metaphorically extended to describe change of time in a metaphoric sense. They belonged to the first 4000 most frequently used words in spoken and written English according to the *Collin Cobuild Advanced Learners Dictionary* (2014). The metaphorical meanings of the words were new to the participants. Sentences containing metaphorical use of spatial words to describe time were used either for comprehension or production. Frequency of words was controlled so all of them belonged to the frequency scale of 1000 to 4000. To measure participants’ knowledge of the literal and metaphoric meanings of the chosen words, a polysemous word knowledge test was given to them by asking them to write down meanings of as many as possible (see below).
Polysemous Word Knowledge Test
E.g. Please write the meanings of the following words as many as you can.
Approach (vi.):____________, __________, __________, __________, __________

Research Procedure
The whole process of the study lasted for 3 weeks: the first week was used to conduct the pre-test, and the second for classroom teaching, and the third for the post-test. Two different instruction methods were adopted and given, respectively, for the Control Group and the Experiment Group. The performance in the pre-test and the post-test of the two groups were compared to test the effectiveness of the instruction methods.

The pre-test was designed to measure the learners’ receptive and productive knowledge of the target words before the instruction. Part I was a comprehension task requiring students to explain the meaning of the sentence with targeted words. Part II was a gap-filling task asking students to fill in the blank with the given target words. Part I and II measured receptive knowledge of retention and decoding ability. Part III was a translation task asking students to translate sentences from Chinese to English with the words learned. Part IV was a writing task requiring students to describe the change of schedule in the itinerary with the words learned. Part III and IV tested students’ productive knowledge of the target words: whether they could use the words learned to describe time-related topics. The writing task was an open-ended format. Students were instructed to write a letter to a marketing manager, informing him of a change to a schedule. The instruction “please use as many words given in the box as possible” brought the target words into focus. The open writing task provoked the target words but did not necessarily call for the words. The pre-test was one hour, which meant students had to recall and produce the words instantly.

Part I: Please explain the meaning of the following sentences in English or Chinese.
In the sentence “No one proceeded to carry out the experiment after so many failures”, the word “proceed” means __________.

Part II Gap filling: Please fill in the missing information with the words given.
Follow/ahead/proceed/at the corner/approach/forward/advance/flash back/extend/upcoming/set back
Winter is fast ________ when the summer ends.

Part III: Please translate the following sentences into English.
会议的日子越来越近了。

Part IV: Below is the schedule changes of the marketing manager during the week and a new schedule is given. Please describe the changes of the schedule using the words we have learnt as many as you can.
ahead /proceed /approach/set back /forward /advance /upcoming

The post-test was designed to measure learners’ receptive and productive knowledge of the target words after the instruction. The post-test was similar to the pre-test, including the same tasks with the same words and sentences. The differences in performance in the pre-test and post-test test would reflect the effectiveness of the instruction.

Instruction Treatment
The instruction treatment was a one-hour short course teaching 8 polysemous words with two different methods. The TIME-SPACE metaphorical method was used for the Experimental Group and the translation
method was used for the Control Group. The TIME-SPACE Metaphorical Method incorporated the conceptual metaphor theme and image schema in vocabulary teaching. It was supposed to raise learners’ awareness of the relations between the central and extended meaning of words, and the relation among taught words by explaining the underlying conceptual metaphor and image-schema. The specific steps of teaching are as follows:

**Step 1: Explain words meaning and extended meaning through metaphor**
Literal meaning: core, central meaning. e.g. The table is *long*.
Metaphorical meaning: extended meaning, originating from the core meaning by comparing it to another thing. The day is *long*.

**Step 2: Familiarize student with the literal meaning of focused words and their usages.**
*Ahead* adv. Literal meaning: in front. e.g. let’s cut through the woods and get *ahead* of them.

**Step 3: Present the extended meaning of the word by giving examples and explaining the underlying image schema.**
Metaphorical meaning: in future. Image schema: future is before and past is behind.

---
![Image of image schema](image)

---

collocation: e.g. time ahead, year ahead, week ahead. *There are also difficulties ahead for him.*

**Step 4: Consolidate the knowledge of metaphorical use of the words by asking students to distinguish literal usage and metaphorical usage of target words.**
Read the following sentences and see whether the underlined words are used literally or metaphorically. e.g. *She is walking ahead of me.*  *A much bigger battle is ahead for the president.*

**Step 5: Ask students to brainstorm the relations between extended meaning and the original meaning.**
Can you tell the connections between the metaphorically used word meanings with its literal meanings? Observer is present. Future is front and past is back.

**Step 6: Consolidate students’ knowledge through drills.**
Gap filling: Please fill in the missing information with the words given.
We move the meeting ______ from 21 October to 15 October.
Translate: 上周三的会议被提前了两天。

**Step 7: Deepen the understanding of metaphor in meaning extension by asking students to list more words with the same conceptual metaphor.**
Discuss with your partner, and write down other similar temporal words or phrases originally used to describe state or movement in space.
*Long/short/ get close to future/ next/ last/ in/ on/ through/ pass/ beforehand/ later/ before/ behind*

For the Control Group, the translation method was adopted. Words were taught by giving the Chinese equivalents together with the example sentences in which the word were used. Learners were required to remember the words through repetition and memorization. Then, sentences were given for students to translate. Finally, an exercise was given to consolidate their knowledge of the learned words. Compared with the TIME-SPACE metaphorical method, the translation method did not emphasize metaphor but direct usage of the words, with the literal sense and the origin of the words was not mentioned or explained.
**Step 1:** Familiarize students with the focused vocabulary by presenting them with words and their Chinese translation.

*e.g.* Ahead *adv.* 在将来. 今后

**Step 2:** Familiarize students with the usage of words by explaining the usage of words in context:

*e.g.*: collocation :time ahead, year ahead, week ahead. *There are also difficulties ahead for him.*

**Step 3:** Consolidate students’ knowledge of the words by asking them to translate the example sentence.

*A much bigger battle is ahead for the president.* __________________________.

**Step 4:** Consolidate students’ knowledge by doing exercises.

Gap filling: Please fill in the missing information with the words given.

We move the meeting ________ from 21 October to 15 October.

Translation: “上周三的会议被提前了两天。”___________________________.

---

**Results Analysis**

All tests were scored by two assessors, and a consensus was reached between them on the marking criteria. In marking polysemous word tests, interpretations given in *Oxford English Dictionary* were taken as reference, and answers were counted as correct when they were similar to those meanings. In Part I and Part II, answers with appropriate interpretations and appearance of the target words were counted as correct and given one point. In Part III and Part IV, translations with the focused words used correctly were counted as correct without considering the grammatical mistakes of tense, or third person singular, etc. The total scores for Part I, Part II and Part III was 8, respectively. For the writing task of Part IV, students were expected to use as many focused words as possible. The number of the focused words used was counted, one point for each word.

**Pre-Test**

An independent sample T test was conducted to compare the performance of polysemous knowledge tests between the two groups. There was no big difference between them (Mcon.=11.83 Mexp.=12.26, t=0.445 p=0.658>0.05). Students in both groups had some knowledge of both literal and metaphorical meanings of words, but there were misunderstandings and confusion about the word meanings. The temporal meanings given by students were mixed with past and future. There was no significant difference between groups in their use of focused words before the instruction (t=1.447, p= 0.154>0.05). Both groups performed equally in the pre-test and best in the comprehension task (Mcon.=5.43, Mexp.=5.00) and poorest in the writing task (Mcon. =2.00, Mexp.=1.52). They felt it difficult to translate the sentences or use them productively in writing and didn’t know how to apply their receptive knowledge freely to describe time change.

**Performance Differences between the Pre-test and Post-test**

To test the effectiveness of instruction treatment, a paired sample t-test was conducted to compare the mean differences between the pre-test and posttest within the two groups. Students in both groups had significant improvement in receptive knowledge and productive knowledge of the target words (Texp.=−21.383, p=0.000<0.05; Tcon.=−22.249, p=0.000<0.05) (figure 1&2). The total score of post-test was 13 points higher than the pre-test for the Experiment Group and 11 points higher for the Control Group.

The performance in the comprehension question and gap-filling question reflected students’ comprehension ability. Both groups did well in these tasks, with accuracy of 90% above. This indicated
that both methods were effective in improving learners’ receptive knowledge of the taught words. Students in both groups performed well in the translation task, with accuracy of over 90%. Performance in writing also improved greatly, from 1.52 point to 5.59 for the Experiment Group and from 1.77 to 4.81 for the Control Group. Both instruction methods were proved effective in improving students’ productive use of the words.

![Figure 1. Comparison between Pretest and Post-test within Experiment Group](image1)

![Figure 2. Comparison between Pretest and Posttest within control Group](image2)

**Performance Differences between the Control and Experiment Groups**

The T test showed that the Experiment Group tended to perform better than the Control Group (t=-3.933, p=0.000 < 0.05). The difference came mainly from the writing task: the Experiment Group reproduced 1.5 more target words than the Control Group, suggesting that image-schema based methods was more helpful for the memorization and retrieval of the words. Strategies used by the two group were different when they were required to describe the change of schedule: the Experiment Group tended to use more vocabulary with the same metaphorical themes not given in the question but covered in the classroom, such as “the busy month is coming soon”. The Control Group tended to use literal words they knew to describe the change of time, such as “we continue the discussion”. Though the two groups did not differ significantly in the other three tasks, there was still a tendency that the Experiment Group performed better than the Control Group. Students in the Experiment Group comprehended the target words more accurately, especially the words with ambiguous meanings, such as “the school decided to have winter holiday from that day forward”.

**Discussion**

The study found that the TIME-SPACE metaphorical instructional method could facilitate EFL leaners’ comprehension and production of English temporal words. Helping students recognize the underlying metaphor and systematic organization of words around a common metaphoric theme was beneficial to their memorization and reproduction of the words. This facilitating effect was especially obvious in the immediate effect of language learning. This effect was due to three possible reasons: duel coding, extra cognitive efforts and enhanced metaphorical understanding:

Clark and Paivio (1991) pointed out in the Theory of Duel Coding that knowledge is coded and represented in our memory in two forms, both verbal association and visual imagery. Verbal and visual information are processed along different channels and create two different representations in the human mind. If information is coded in two ways, it will increase the possibility of remembering and recalling of it, compared with the information coded in one way (Sternberg, 2003). In our study, the metaphorically extended words were taught both verbally and with underlying image schema, which might create a dual coding for the words and thus, increased the chance of recalling them for later use.
Secondly, extra cognitive efforts taken to identify the source domain promoted deep-level cognitive processing and storage of the words in memory (Sternberg, 2003). The metaphorical method emphasizes the origin and systematic organization of the target words. Learners are involved in a cognitive processing by inferring the relations between central and extended meaning and drawing references. They are guided to process the linguistic expressions explicitly and apply their source domain knowledge to target domain. There is a constant interaction between material and the learners. Strategies of inferring the source domain and meaning through image schema and conceptual metaphor were developed in this process. The information will be stored in long-term memory more deeply and recalled easily if it is processed in depth. metaphor teaching and image schema encourage deep processing, and therefore facilitating later recalling.

Thirdly, teaching lexicon by making clear of the underlying metaphorical themes provides a framework for the lexical organization (Boers, 2000). In our study, semantic networks are constructed by organizing the temporal words around a TIME-SPACE metaphoric theme. Words grouped under common source domain SPACE could be learned more effectively than those randomly and arbitrarily organized.

**Conclusion**

The present study was designed as an empirical exploration into the application of the TIME-SPACE conceptual metaphor in vocabulary teaching for EFL students. It has shown that enhanced metaphor awareness could facilitate vocabulary learning. It provides insightful ideas for the vocabulary teaching in EFL classroom. Future study could be carried out on more extensive topics, such as figurative expressions with transparent or opaque meanings. Continuous explicit awareness raising instruction should be practiced in order to improve long-term effect of it.

**References**


The Application of the Humanistic Approach in College English Class for International Students in China

Fang Wang
School of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: texfww@126.com

[Abstract] This essay introduces one of the mainstream teaching pedagogies, the Humanistic Approach, and discusses its applications in Chinese tertiary language classrooms with international students from different backgrounds. As a counselling method often used in Psychology, the Humanistic Approach has been developed and widely used in 4 specific teaching methods. Communicative Language Learning, the most comprehensive and practical teaching method compared with others, is recommended and used in the design of classroom activities in the largest overseas students universities in China.

[Keywords] humanistic approach; communicative language learning; international students

Introduction
Since the Chinese Ministry of Education enacted the latest ‘Guidance to College English Education’ in 2017, indicating the importance of a humanistic nature of college English courses, English education weighs more on understanding the people and society where languages are used rather than simply skills training (Chinese Ministry of Education, 2017). Instead of being regarded as a communication tool, English emphasizes learner autonomy and students’ interpersonal skills of solving real-life problems. Originated from Psychology in the 1960s, the Humanistic Approach was borrowed and developed by English educators in the 1990s, and hence, formed the present pervasive teaching methods in China, for example Communicative Language Learning, Tasked-Based Learning and Content-Based Learning, etc. They have been serving as a way for Chinese students to liberate themselves from the role of knowledge recipients to dominators of class activities, which largely motivates students’ participation in class and nurtures students’ language learning metacognition. When the new era of online courses dawned, English educators began to use computer technology to assist students’ self-learning. As the largest Chinese overseas university with students from about 123 countries and regions, Jinan University has taken international students’ learning backgrounds and needs into consideration and has tried to apply humanistic concepts and the latest technology into English classrooms to help students realize learner autonomy. This will set a good example in teaching English to international students in China. The essay starts by introducing the basic concepts of the Humanistic Approach and some of its specific English teaching methods. A brief introduction of international students’ learning backgrounds in Jinan University is followed. Finally, concrete lesson plans are laid out in the last part to demonstrate how those teaching ideas are put into practice.

Review of the Development of the Humanistic Approach
As a mainstream teaching approach, the Humanistic Approach is closely related to the concept – Humanism. From the Oxford English Dictionary, it can be defined as the act of being ‘humane’, in other words, being distinguishable from animals. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate what special needs human beings demand in their growing process. According to Erikson (1963), the growth of human beings is divided into eight stages and each one is marked with both its characteristics and the counter consequences from ill-
treatment. They are Trust, Autonomy, Initiative, Industry, Identity, Intimacy, Generativity, and Integrity, where the pursuit of human being’s independence and autonomy are revealed. In order to help learners to achieve those, encouragement, assurance, freedom to make choices and co-operation will be the necessary assisting elements to teachers’ instructions. On the other hand, it is widely accepted that Carl Rogers’ opinions also shed light to effective teachers’ roles. In his opinion, a fully functioning person should be considered as the goal of our education; its characteristics include being open to his experience, self-control and self-trusting (Rogers, 1983). This is consistent with the discovery we have found in the eight stages of a man (Erikson, 1963). Therefore, the objectives of education are not only to teach, but also to facilitate learners to adapt themselves to all kinds of situations. Teaching is regarded as the facilitation of learning and the teacher’s role is a facilitator who provides an optimal environment in which learners are guided to explore their own competence and bring into full play his creativity (Rogers, 1969; Underhill, 1989).

The Application of the Humanistic Approach in ELT
With the development of humanistic approach, different teaching methods have risen from that principle. The four major methods are: Suggestopedia (S), Silent Way (SW), Total Physical Response (TPR) and Community Language Learning (CLL). From the publications of Gattegno (1976), Asher (1977), La Forge (1971), Lozanov (1978) and Richards and Rogers (2000), these pervasive methods are classified and analyzed in five aspects: tools, teacher’s role, learner’s role, theory of language, theory of learning and principles (See the chart below).

Figure 1. Four Major Methods of Humanistic Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Silent Way</th>
<th>Total Physical Response</th>
<th>Community Language Learning</th>
<th>Suggestopedia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teachers’ role</strong></td>
<td>Controlling the process and content of lesson</td>
<td>Active director</td>
<td>Facilitator and optimal environment creator</td>
<td>Situation creator and material selector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Learners’ Role</strong></td>
<td>Being independent and achieving autonomy</td>
<td>Listener and performer</td>
<td>Member of a community</td>
<td>Giving themselves totally to the activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theory of language</strong></td>
<td>Structural approach</td>
<td>Structural or grammar-based view</td>
<td>Social process and international view</td>
<td>Lexical translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theory of learning</strong></td>
<td>‘artificial approach’: going back to the process of L1 acquisition</td>
<td>1. the bio-program; 2. brain lateralization; 3. reduction of stress</td>
<td>Whole-person learning</td>
<td>Suggestions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Principles</strong></td>
<td>Self-exploration</td>
<td>Physical movements stimulating comprehension as well as learning</td>
<td>Self-actualisation and self-esteem</td>
<td>Overcoming the barriers to learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Applying Communicative Language Learning in JNU
Community Language Learning is the method that is more appropriate for adult students who are autonomous, independent and having better social communication abilities. First, Communicative Language Learning advocates establishing an optimal environment where learners’ personal identity will not be threatened and will be free from the threat of self-esteem integrity, learners will develop their
communication competence within the group work (CLL) and try to establish good relationships with other group members. Second, the teachers’ role is not only a dominant figure in the class, but also the facilitator, or monitor, who will provide opportunities for learners to speak without too much criticism on mistakes. To be a facilitator, the teacher will have to give up their role of an authority and listen to the learner (Underhill, 1989). This key concept is especially useful and helpful for international students who found strong motivation to plan and control their own learning process and teachers who would rather be an advisor and monitor in their learning. Finally, the problem is related to the unity of the classroom. In the CLL classroom, although teachers will still guide the class, their main task is to facilitate and assist learners to learn on their own; but excessive freedom will make learners indulge themselves in entertainment and forget the situation of learning in the classroom, so teachers need to seek a balance between freedom and unity. They should constantly remind learners of the situation by taking back control from time to time.

The above discussion shows that Communicative Language Learning requires a careful plan and attention from the teacher. That is also why this method is more suitable to adult students because they are more aware of the learning purpose and can control their behavior appropriately. In the next part, concrete class plans will be outlined to show the detailed application of Communicative Language Learning with adult students in JNU.

The Practice of the Humanistic Approach in the ELT Classroom

Background Introduction of International Students’ English Class in Jinan University (JNU)

Jinan University (JNU) is the oldest and largest overseas Chinese university to recruit students from other countries and special administrative regions of China, such as Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan. Coming from different educational backgrounds, students from Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan, together with other overseas students are named as ‘international students’ to give special attention to their separate learning needs and career preparation requirements. There are over 10,000 international students coming from 123 countries and regions in JNU, most of whom are around 20 years old and take Cantonese as their mother tongue. Having completed their secondary school study and learned English for at least six years, they demonstrate quite diversified levels of English proficiency. There is a small group of advanced English users who can get even 6.5 in IELTS due to the immersed English learning environment in their middle school, but the rest, over 80% of all students, are relatively lower levels of learners than most national college students trained in the conventional way of teaching. Their biggest weakness lies in speaking and listening.

However, on the other hand, international students are avid participators of all kinds of in-class and extra-curriculum activities. They would like to be unique, dominant and autonomous in their learning process. Compared with national students, they are less bound by the Chinese traditional rote-taking way of English learning, and their learning aims are more practical by focusing on problem-solving. With a strong desire of finding their first jobs in overseas countries or special administrative regions of China, such as Hong Kong, Macau or Taiwan, these students’ needs for developing their English communication competence has become quite urgent and keen. As discussed above, Communicative Language Learning emphasizes self-actualization and community work and has an international view. It also requires all kinds of cooperation. The teachers’ role here should be creating an optimal environment and opportunity for students to enlighten their potential abilities and carry on teamwork.
The Practice of Communicative Language Learning in JNU

Activity One: A class debate.

1. Procedure: Class debate on given topic (usually an up-to-date social problem)
2. Teacher’s Role: A monitor and facilitator
3. Learner’s Role: Debaters (with upper or intermediate level of English proficiency)
4. Objective: Improving speaking and listening abilities, enhancing self-exploration and strengthening co-operation

The description is as follows:

• Before class – The teacher will choose a topic that is closely related to learners’ own life. Some examples are: “Can money really buy happiness?”，“Will printed books disappear?” S/He presents the topic to the learner by modern study platforms as it is used in JNU – www.study.jnu.edu.cn, or a small gadget in WeChat – Rainclass, and the form of presenting can be various, an article, a video or a part of a MOOC. They will brainstorm on the useful new words and expressions to illustrate this topic. The ELT guiding principle of JNU is “Flipped Class”, which means providing sufficient materials for students to review and focus on specific difficult points in class, so class preparation is considered really essential. The debating topic also needs to be assigned to students.

• During the class – The teacher will divide the class into two big groups and learners may choose to be affirmative or negative. Each group will work together to find the reasons to support their views. The teacher walks around the classroom and monitors the activities of learners, while giving suggestions. Students will whisper the expressions or ideas he does not know to the teacher in L1 and the teacher will help translate them into L2. Then the learner will repeat them to other group members. When learners get ready for the debate, the teacher will act as the host. His role is to organize the debate as well as to offer help where necessary.

• After the class – Students can be allotted the task of summarizing their ideas into a short 3-minutes oral presentation.

This activity uses three principles of Communicative Language Learning: self-realization, co-operation and optimal environment. Since it is a debate, everyone will think carefully for reasons to defeat their rivals. With the strong desire to win, every learner is forced to explore their own knowledge to persuade people to believe them and their learning potential will be stimulated. This method switches learners’ attention from the teacher to the debate. They will not worry about impoliteness or rage. Learners’ attention is focused on making themselves understood and understanding others. It is a good method for learners to urge themselves into the authentic communication.

Activity Two: News-reports.

1. Procedure: Learners acting as news reporters to present 3 pieces of news with one piece of fake news and listeners are required to pick it out.
2. Teacher’s Role: A monitor and facilitator
3. Learner’s Role: Reporters (students with lower oral English levels) and consultants (students with higher oral English levels)
4. Objective: Improving English presentation skills, enhancing self-exploration by taking care of different language levels

The description is as follows:
Before class – The teacher allots learning tasks to learning groups by asking them to act as news reporters, who need to present 3 pieces of news from international, national and campus resources. Students search for information from websites, newspapers, picture and short video collections to edit them into short presentations. They must make sure one piece of news is fake. Students with secondary English proficiency may take the role of reporters and practice to present the news orally, while students with intermediate or upper English proficiency may prepare to act as consultants to answer their classmates’ questions. Every group is composed of 2 reporters and 2 consultants.

During the class – The teacher allows each group a maximum of 15 minutes. They may use this time to present news with the support of pictures or video and answer questions afterwards. Some groups have 2 reporters, one in class and the other in the video as a distance correspondent. The video is taken before the class. The teacher designates students to ask questions according to what they hear. S/he will control the time and pace of the class, and she will take up the role of asking questions if it is too quiet. The most attractive part of this activity is discovering the secret—the fake news. The teacher may allow students about 5 minutes to comment on the result.

After the class – The teacher may give some feedback to the quality of students’ news report, for example, grammar mistakes, diction, and pronunciation problems, etc.

This activity has the advantage of considering different levels of students’ language abilities. Students with lower levels would not be forced to give impromptu speeches in front of the crowd. Instead, they can take on this task with careful preparations, like reading aloud or video-taking. Students with higher levels can enjoy the freedom of clarifying details of news on the spot after the news report. Students’ cooperation is also expanded from group scope to the whole class, from preparation stage to in-class activities. Guided by the actual task of “guessing a riddle”, the activity elicits questions and comments from students and guarantees class discussion on the right track. The teacher is suggested to give some awards for volunteers to facilitate a smooth progress of the activity.

**Implication and Conclusion**

As JNU holds the largest number of international students who come from all countries and regions, the students represent the general background and educational basis of international students in China. The study in JNU, therefore, accumulates some useful experiences for English education for international students in China. The feedback of students in JNU shows that these methods are popular because it is useful in helping them to express themselves in English, and at the same time, getting to know classmates from other schools. Although linguistic mistakes occur from time to time, the morale of each learning group is high with one unified aim. By keeping secrets or winning a debate, they thought logically and defended themselves actively. They were also encouraged to cooperate with each other to make their statements coherent and convincing. Students were particularly interested in the idea that classroom activities chose real life tasks so that they practiced solving authentic problems in life. The investigation of Moskowitz (1999) on the humanistic exercise, ‘my class and me’, also showed the significance of self-related exercise. Besides debates, there are also other inspiring class activities, like ‘making a short film’, ‘picture-drawing and explaining’, and ‘a good seller’, etc. They all chose authentic life scenarios and encouraged problem-solving and cooperation within a group. This not only helps to improve international students’ English proficiency, but also creates opportunities for them to get to know national students so that they understand each other from different cultural backgrounds.
This essay reviewed the major principles of the Humanistic Approach and introduced the application of this approach to ELT, particularly the Community Language Learning method. In the last part, the application of this approach in Chinese English classrooms was mapped out. Because of the diversity of human personalities and individual differences, the Humanistic Approach should still take into consideration students’ language levels and personality traits. The actual classroom management can be varied with specific learner-centered methods and more students’ feedback after implementing CLL with different cultural backgrounds. As AI technology is commonly seen in every part of social life in China, how technology can further facilitate CLL classroom will continue to trigger a swarm of discussion.

Acknowledgement
This essay was the research result of Programme (JD17WXZ07) of Guangdong Office of Philosophy and Social Science and Jinan University’s Teaching and Research Programme (55611340).

References
A Learning Design Based on Three Motivational Factors

Heng Xu
College of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: thengx@jnu.edu.cn

[Abstract] Motivation is an important predictor of the proficiency that students can achieve in second language learning. Although the three important motivational factors have been discussed thoroughly, the current instructional practice that has been identified in the second or foreign language classroom is demotivating learners instead of engaging students. This paper aims to use English reading as a venue to develop and provide a learning design that is based on autonomy, relatedness and competence. It is also an exemplar of how to use a reading text to direct and motivate students, and hopefully sustain and expand the internal drive while they are not in the classroom.

[Keywords] learning design; motivational factors; English language learners

Introduction
The current classroom practice is still largely focused on lexical and grammatical issues versus teaching for proficiency. The growing dissatisfaction with such demotivating instructional practices undergirded by behavioristic and cognitive approaches to language learning has given rise to the investigation of alternative pedagogical approaches to language teaching practices. Dörnyei (2005) pointed out that motivation changes constantly during the course of language learning at the classroom level. During multiple years of L2 learning, learners can experience varied attitudes and understanding toward language learning. This dynamic feature of motivation is important for the research of how it affects learning and how a learning design triggers and sustains a high level of student motivation. It is crucial to create instructional designs that assist teachers to promote student motivation that improve language performance and eventually create highly motivated lifelong learners in order to gain the level of language proficiency needed to thrive in the 21st century society and workforce. As Wlodkowski stated, “Motivation is not only important because it is a necessary causal factor of learning, but because it mediates learning and is a consequence of learning as well” (1985, p. 4). Any learning activities should maintain and promote student motivation in order to stimulate language development and deeper learning such as applying the acquired language in authentic situations, making references, finding evidence to support generalizations and presenting/defending different standpoints. Therefore, motivation positively impacts learning and reciprocally engaging learning experiences stimulate and maintain motivation. Finding pedagogically engaging ways to foster students’ motivation is, thus, an important issue. Well-designed research informed instructional and pedagogical practices that help students connect their language learning endeavors to their authentic lived lives that offer them choices with regards to what, how, and how well they learn could improve students’ learning motivation, leading to a more satisfactory learning experience. The purpose of this paper is to provide an exemplar for classroom adaption among English as a Second Language (L2) teachers. The learning design demonstrates a type of teaching practice that is designed to build to encourage engagement, motivate students and enhance advanced critical thinking skills.

We are going to use English reading as a venue to develop motivation for building language skills and proficiency and to actively engage learners in the learning process. Reading is still considered and retained as the fundamental language teaching component in classrooms. Dong (2003) supported reading texts as
the main source for language learners to obtain an authentic and rich language exposure. It was believed that while listening can be an alternative source, reading has proved more reliable and efficient. The written text can be reread and studied, with the aid of a dictionary, while spoken language is difficult to capture and retain. Reading comprehension involves complex cognitive interactions between the text and the reader. It is “a process very much determined by what the reader’s brain and emotions and beliefs bring to the reading: the knowledge/information (or misinformation, absence of information), strategies for processing text, moods, fears and joys – all of it” (Weaver, 2009, p. xiii). This interplay between cognitive and motivational factors is especially important in second language (L2) reading. Therefore, it seems necessary to develop effective learning activities to meet the needs of teachers to engage students actively in the learning process. The approaches can assist students to develop autonomy that will extend language learning beyond the classroom, provide teachers with a theoretical framework of motivation to spark and sustain interest in language acquisition and help students develop critical thinking skills.

**Three Motivational Factors**

Motivation has played a pivotal role in this domain (Dörnyei, 2018) and also has been the best friend or the worst enemy for practitioners in language classrooms. Many research have shown that motivation has a direct impact on how often students use L2 learning strategies, what strategies they use in different learning tasks, how much efforts they devote to perform the tasks, how willing students are to want to interact with peers and/or native speakers, how much input they can digest in the target language, which level they can achieve in curriculum-based tests, and how much the attainment of learning outcomes is (Gardner, 2005; Pintrich, 2003; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). Learning a second language is not an overnight work. It takes many hours. According to ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview, students with average aptitude, who enrolled in full-time immersive and proficiency-based language training under the supervision of an instructor and with 1-4 students per class, have to spend 240 class hours, 480 class hours and 720 class hours to reach intermediate mid, advanced low and advanced high, respectively. Learning a language consumes a considerable amount of time. It is a challenge to allot enough class time to one subject while other subjects also need to be delivered. Therefore, the endeavor of learning a language should not begin and end in a language classroom. The notion of learners’ motivation moves into an area where learners can initiate and direct their own learning in and beyond classroom. The role of motivation is to spark that learning so that learners acquire self-regulation skills to pursue options such as web-based data research, information mastery, interactions, and application of language skills in different situations, etc.

Student motivation is very sensitive to various class factors (e.g. teaching pedagogy, teaching materials, teacher attitudes and peer influence) and can fluctuate even within one classroom. However, individual student motivation can move into a state of stability when students are in a learning environment that promotes autonomy, social construction of knowledge, or relatedness and when presented with learning tasks that carefully structure and scaffold learning targets allowing learners to feel competent. Pink (2011) and Ryan & Deci (2000) posited that an individual’s motivation comes from human needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. In a learning process, students desire to be independent agents in their own learning; students have a universal need to be connected and belong to a community; students want to be able to control the outcome of a learning task and experience mastery of a body of knowledge.
Autonomy

Autonomy is defined as freedom of choice. Autonomy is high when individuals feel they are engaging in learning because they choose to do so, not because they feel pressured by external factors. Ideally, students engage in learning because they enjoy discovering the unknown and mastering new knowledge. Despite the importance of intrinsic motivation in learning, it seldom has served as the focal point of pedagogical change in L2 learning and L2 students’ motivations become more extrinsic over time as a result. Traditionally, educators consider intrinsic motivation to be more desirable and to result in better learning outcomes than extrinsic motivation (Deci, et al., 1999). To effectively promote students’ intrinsic motivation to learn, autonomy-supportive behaviors must be coupled with equally effective, well-defined class structures that guide student learning and support their psychological needs (Jang, Reeve & Deci, 2010).

To be autonomous, students are provided with necessary information while being encouraged to be self-initiating and use these data in solving a problem independently. If learners do not see value in a learning task, students will only pursue it reluctantly, or not at all. However, if the task is of interest to students, there are personal interests involved and they have some say about what they can do, they are more likely to engage in the task. Sometimes it is necessary to interpret the rationale of a learning task and its importance and value to explicate the relevance (Reeve, Deci, & Ryan, 2004).

Relatedness

The third innate need is relatedness. Individuals need to relate to each other and develop in interaction rather than in isolation. Relatedness is essential for the internalization process (Ryan, & Deci, 2002). Not all students are intrinsically motivated to learn a new language, even if it is potentially beneficial to them. Students are more likely to internalize and “take ownership” of the practices of those with whom they feel connected and in contexts where they feel a sense of belonging (Niemiec, & Ryan, 2009).

There are two sides which are academic and nonacademic. The nonacademic side is that if students feel close to the teacher and feel that genuine care from the teacher, they are more likely to listen carefully, resonate with the content the teacher choose and even identify with the ones they like (Ryan & Deci, 2000). When the safe and trusty relationship is built, students may value the course more and a loving, trusting and supportive environment also make them feel secure about pursuing the risky learning tasks with the teacher. The academic side is to help students why and how the content or the course relates to their own knowledge and experience and their future development. Teachers should provide relevance for students, which is something interesting and worth knowing even it might not be so clear and visible at the moment. The academic relatedness gives students a context within which they can develop into engaged, motivated and self-regulated learners. It seems so vital for students who are less motivated to learn a foreign language even they know it is beneficial in a long run. The content should be situated in the right level. The comprehensible content and an appropriately challenging task are a prerequisite for any meaningful learning to occur. A good learning design would help learners to be optimally challenged and clearly guided through the learning process.

Competence

Competence is related to a learner's sense of accomplishment. Learners have a need to feel a sense of mastery of new skills or contents. In self-determination theory, competence always refers to individuals' "perceived competence," which can be different from their actual level of ability. It refers to a self-
perception of how good someone perceives they are either globally (e.g., academic) or more specifically (e.g., English). According to self-determination theory, optimal challenge and positive performance feedback support learners’ perceived competence and, in turn, facilitate intrinsic motivation (Deci, & Ryan, 2000). Perceived competence is considered as the underlying common core to other similar concept such as self-efficacy (Hughes, Galbraith, & White, 2011). Thus, it is critical for people to have opportunities to receive positive and informational feedback to enhance their perceived competence, especially in an educational setting.

A Learning Design with a Short Story
The text (See Appendix) I have chosen is short and easy to read for intermediate English language learners who could be high schoolers or freshmen in colleges. Students should not feel intimidated by the length and complexity of the text. The lexical and syntactic barriers are not difficult to overcome. It is a story with an interesting topic and twisted scenarios with detailed description, which allow students to have different anticipations and interpretation while teachers can expand on them. Each line of the text is numbered in order to help the teacher and students to identify the information and evidence to support their ideas and discussion.

Pre-Reading Activity
Activity one (Suggested time: 15 minutes).
The Trap
Gary sat at the bus stop and waited.

- What kind of trap is it?
- What kind of story is it? Happy, sad or frightening?
- Do you think the main character gets out of the trap in the end?
- Have you ever been in a trap or any situations that makes you feel trapped? What have you done to get out of it?

The teacher presents the topic and the first sentence of the text to students and asks them to guess and discuss the following questions. It helps students to predict and anticipate the story and leads them to ponder about what the main character is like. Since the relatedness is an important motivational factor, at the beginning of the learning design, it is preferable to relate the story to students’ personal experience and make them to think about the similar situations. The section of learning aims to trigger students’ curiosity, build a sense of relatedness and strengthen a sense of belonging and connectedness to others while students and the teacher share their own personal experience.
Deep Reading Activities

Activity two (Suggested time: 20 minutes). First of all, the teacher presents the first paragraph of the text to the students. After finishing reading, students will be grouped and see 4 pictures about people waiting for a bus on screen. They will discuss about which image is closer to what they have visualized in their mind after reading the first paragraph and also use reasons to support their prediction. In this part of learning, students would have a chance to feel accomplished, make contribution to the discussion and also see individual perceived competence. It empowers and motivates students to engage in the learning process.

Activity three (Suggested time: 20 minutes). Students are asked to read the rest of the text in class first. Groups of 3 or 4, which depends on the size of class, are formed to highlight the unknown words. They can guess the meanings of the words first and check on them to confirm their meanings while the teacher walks among groups, participates in discussions and assists in building the vocabulary. Once this phrase is completed, the teacher can pick up several words that most groups are not familiar with and play Taboo game with different groups. The teacher uses different clues and words without using the word and groups guess the word. It gives students a relatedness of being a team and enjoys demonstration of their understanding of new words. At the end of the activity, students also make their own vocabulary list, which gives them a sense of “ownership” of their own learning, which is another factor of relatedness. It also respects the differences of each student and spice up their autonomy.

Activity four (Suggested time: 10 minutes). After finishing the vocabulary list of their own, students need to recall the story and arrange the statement based on the sequence of the story. It gives students a big picture of the story and reexam what happened in the story. The teacher also suggests students to think about the timeline of Gary’s life and to compare two different timelines. The mastery of the story will give students a sense of achievement and competence, which encourage them to reach higher and achieve more.

- Gary hopes to get promoted.
- Gary is waiting for his bus to go home.
- Gary is thinking about checking over the boys’ work.
- Gary confused with vacation to Miami.
**After Reading Activity**

**Activity five (Suggested time: 30 minutes).** In this section, students of 3 are grouped to explore students’ attitudes about aging and older people. They will answer these 3 questions below. This part gives students a chance to understand and reflect on themselves and also brings relatedness into the learning task through discussion and reflection on themselves. It is also a phrase that students can express their thoughts and opinions to make a contribution to the group and give suggestions to each other. The competence that they can demonstrate in communicative competence motivates them and sustains the engagement while belonging to a group spurs up the relatedness. It would be preferable if the group member does not change through the whole learning process so that the members would feel more connected as a group.

- What three words would you use to describe an older person?
- Name three good things about getting old.
- Name three bad things about growing old.

After the discussion, students are asked to interview an older friend or family member. They can choose a person at least 65 years old to interview. It might be a family member or friend. Ask questions about his/her experiences as a child, as a young adult, and as an older adult. They will do an oral presentation about the person they interviewed and reflect on what they are surprised and what they don’t know about the elderly. Students can decide who, how, where and what they are going to interview. They will be the person who makes up all the decisions and owns the project.

**Conclusion**

The paper seeks to provide an instructional design focused on reading for L2 practitioners to motivate students to deeply engage with the content while acquiring critical thinking skills. Motivational factors are the most important constructs in this learning design. In order to stimulate and engage students to move forward to a new level of learning, different learning activities are needed to motivate students from lens of relatedness, autonomy and competence. Therefore, as instruction designers and teachers, we want to give students choices on when and how to perform the academic tasks. These choices help students become more independent and self-directed learners. At the same time, the learning activities should give opportunities to students as they need to be effective in interactions with the social environment while experiencing the opportunity to express and implement ones capacities and abilities. Relatedness can be satisfied through providing various opportunities of collaboration and interaction for students. Collaboration is a way to meet the need of relatedness in students and makes it possible for them to discuss an issue, constructively criticize each other and to feel as a whole.

**Acknowledgement**

This research was funded by Guangdong Planning Office of Philosophy and Social Science “thirteen five” project (GD16XWW26).

**References**


Appendix

The Trap

Shawn Campbell

Gary sat at the bus stop and waited. The weather was chilly. It was just cold enough to make being outside uncomfortable without a coat. He had forgotten his coat at the office. The bus was twenty minutes late or at least it seemed that way. Gary would normally know for certain, but he had forgotten his watch, the one his father had given him, on the nightstand that morning. The wind picked up, and he shivered. He considered going back to the office for his coat, but knew as soon as he left the bus would arrive. It didn’t really matter. Soon he would be home.

A plumpish woman in her mid-thirties walked up and sat on the other side of the bench. She wore a jacket over scrubs, suggesting she was a nurse. Gary nodded politely to her and then paid her no mind. Soon the Number 8 bus would arrive and he would ride it five stops and then walk two blocks to his little green house with the blue door. Martha would have dinner ready; she had said it would be pork chops tonight. After dinner, the boys would do their homework while he watched television and read the paper. He’d check over the boys’ work and then read David a bedtime story. David was the only one who still wanted bedtime stories. The other two were too old. Gary wished they were young again. He would miss the ritual when David got too old.

It had been a good day at the office. He had found the problem with the Myers account with little fuss, just a few small bookkeeping mistakes. Everyone had been impressed. Problems with the Myers account usually took days to unravel. Mr. Ricketts had brought Gary into his office to congratulate him and hint that advancement to associate would soon be in the picture. Gary hoped it was true. The extra money would be a nice thing for the family. A new car, no more riding the bus, new kitchen appliances for Martha, vacations to Miami.

Gary’s brain paused mid-thought. Miami didn’t seem right. They already went on annual vacations to Miami. The family had been traveling there since he made associate. Acapulco was the right place. They would go to Acapulco when he made partner. Was that right? Gary was sure he had already been to Acapulco. He could see the blue ocean and white beaches. Something wasn’t right. When was the last time David had wanted a bedtime story? Gary glanced at his hands. The skin looked like paper and the joints were swollen with arthritis. They didn’t look right. They didn’t look like his hands.

“Mr. Daly, would you like to come inside with me?”

Gary looked at the nurse sitting next to him on the bench. She was smiling. She seemed familiar though he’d never seen her before. Gary tried to remember what he was doing on the bench but couldn’t. It was cold, too cold to be out without a coat. He nodded, and the nurse helped him stand and walked him back up the sidewalk to the door of the big brick building behind them. His joints felt stiff and his back would not straighten out all the way. Inside the building it was warm and pleasant.

A second nurse sat behind a desk. She looked up at the first nurse. “Catch another one?”

“Yes.”

The two nurses smiled at each other. Gary smiled, too. It seemed impolite not to.
Academic Expectations in Chinese EFL Research Supervision in a Globalized Context

Peng Hongbing
College of Foreign Studies, Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: tphongbing@jnu.edu.cn

[Abstract] This paper reviews the academic expectations concerning thesis writing in research supervision of Chinese EFL Community of Practices (COP). It has been found that expectation mismatches in China relate to a few factors such as research students, supervisors and the graduate supervisory system. Suggestions for improvement can be found in the graduate supervisory system. Academic expectations regarding thesis writing in ESL Community of Practices are also reviewed as a frame of reference in a global context. The Discourse System (DS) (Scollon & Scollon, 2000) approach is suggested for future study in order to establish collaborative, egalitarian and supportive supervisory communication between supervisors and supervisees in Chinese EFL COP.

[Keywords] academic expectations; supervisory complaints; suggestions; research supervision; Chinese EFL graduate education

Introduction
The student-supervisor relationship is a key element in a research student’s success. This all-important relationship is so crucial that it must be managed well by both parties involved. For this purpose, it is essential to understand mutual academic expectations regarding thesis writing so that both sides will be in a better position to develop the skills to reduce communication barriers and sustain the relationship for mutual benefit. This will, in turn, benefit high quality development of graduate education in the long run.

The previous studies conducted by Peng (2015, 2016a, 2016b, 2018) show the problematic relationship between supervisors and their graduate students in their academic interactions in mainland Chinese higher education. This paper continues the topic, but it intends to explore the current state of academic expectations concerning thesis writing in research supervision of both the Chinese EFL community of practices (COP) and the ESL community of practices (COP) in a globalized context. The paper then points out the strengths and weaknesses of the prior research and offers suggestions for future study.

Research Supervision in Chinese Graduate Education
According to Li & Xu (2006), EFL graduate education started after 1949, but it developed quickly after the 21st century. Admission of students was resumed in 1977, and enrollment restarted in 1978. The degree system was implemented in 1981. Only seven universities and research institutes were qualified for awarding English doctoral degrees, including Beijing University and Beijing University of Foreign Studies. However, by the end of December 2005, as many as 21 doctoral awarding bodies were set up all over China. There were six English graduate programs, including English language and literature, linguistics, applied linguistics, English for specific purposes, comparative literature and translation theory and practice. By the end of 2007, 208 master degree sites and 29 doctoral degree sites were established in the country. Also, there were about 8,100 graduate students and about 300 English-major doctoral students annually (Zhang & Yang, 2009).
Factors that are considered as critical by supervisors in selecting students include knowledge, abilities to find, analyze and solve problems (Hua, 2000; Lu, 2001), language foundation, research competence (Dai, 2000), research interest and creative thinking (Lu, 2001). These research qualities are universally regarded as essential to producing qualified dissertation writing on the part of graduate students upon their graduation.

How to supervise graduate students’ thesis writing has been well-discussed by supervisors. First of all, students are required to have a carefully-selected topic (Hu, 2000; Lu, 2001), extensive knowledge (Hu, 2000; Liu, 2000; Lu, 2001), problem finding abilities (Lu, 2001; Gao, 2012), independent, rigorous, logical thinking abilities, creativity and abilities of understanding and solving problems (Dai, 2000, Lu, 2001; Wen, 2006, 2008), or academic competence (Zhu, 2003; Wang, 2008, 2009, 2010). What’s more, they are encouraged to have academic disagreements (Hu, 2000), extensive reading and regular discussions with their supervisors (Liu, 2000) and more research paper writing (Hu, 2000; Liu, 2000; Zhu, 2003). Finally, it is suggested that a learning community should be built (Wen, 2006) and a collaborative model should be followed in teaching (Wang, 2005) in order to improve the effectiveness of graduate education quality.

Common Complaints

Common complaints in relation to writing that exist in the EFL Chinese research community are related to the areas of research students, supervisors and the graduate supervision system. Firstly, major complaints regarding research students’ thesis writing can be found as follows: they can not distinguish authors’ views from others’ views; some supervisees admired international magazines blindly without ever thinking of questioning them, and logical relations were messy in dissertation writings (Wen, 2008), independent thinking ability was poor, let alone creative and cross-disciplinary research abilities (Wen, 2006; Sun, 2008; Dai, 2009; Wang, 2010); other students were unable to choose what was to be learned and how to develop themselves on their own (Zhang, 2005); their knowledge was not extensive (Sun, 2008; Dai, 2009; Wang, 2010); and some graduate students were poor in language proficiency levels and linguistic knowledge as a result of quality deterioration in the context of graduate expansion (Sun, 2008; Dai, 2009).

Secondly, major complaints with supervisors have been examined. Some supervisors were held to lack supervisory competence while others were short of research competence and academic integrity (Zhang & Yang, 2009). Finally, the graduate supervision system is regarded as responsible. Traditional apprentice-master model limited students to learn from others (Wen, 2002); the supervisory model needed to be improved (Zhu, 2005; Sun, 2008; Dai, 2009); the entrance examination was imperfect, in which scores were emphasized, but interview and comprehensive qualities such as analytical, responsive and expressive abilities were ignored (Dai, 2009); an exit system was not realized in its true sense, as it was just a display (Dai, 2009); students had fewer chances of attending conferences at home and abroad so they were academically narrow-minded and lacked adequate consciousness of the academic frontline (Dai, 2009); there was an emphasis in supervisor team construction, but a lack of inspection of supervisors’ academic integrity (Zhang & Yang, 2009).

Major Suggestions

Major suggestions are proposed to address the above supervisory problems from the perspective of the graduate supervision system. The following are deemed as significant: standardize graduation thesis format by borrowing supervisory styles from foreign countries (Zhu, 2005); finalize supervisory objectives of research quality for different stages of study; reduce time for language skill and strengthen training of thinking in Chinese courses; open thesis writing seminars; redefine supervisees’ role as plan designer,
practitioner, reflector and evaluator, and supervisors’ role as mentor, facilitator, and discipliner (Wang, 2008); replace apprentice-master model with supervisor responsibility system (Wen, 2006); set up supervision committee; invite experts outside school to have a comprehensive evaluation of dissertation by means of blind peer-review (Zhang, & Yang, 2009).

To sum up, prior studies with respect to EFL academic expectations have highlighted mismatches concerning thesis writing between supervisors and their research students in Chinese research communities of practice. Suggestions for addressing the complaints have been raised in terms of the supervision system. No suggestions have been given directly about how to guide effective thesis writing itself.

Moreover, existing studies are mainly based on experience summary and speculations with the exception of one empirical study (Wang, 2010). No specific theoretical framework is employed for analysis and interpretations but one study of integrating related theories of linguistics, second language acquisition, psychology and education into the study of research student’s academic competence (Wang, 2010). At last, the studies largely comprise supervisor’s perceptions, with a few students’ perceptions.

**Research Supervision in ESL Community of Practices**

A significant body of work on the ways ESL graduate students and their advisors interact with one another precedes this study. Researchers have explored the role of good mentors, characteristics of good mentors and mentees, problems in advisor and student interactions and sources of problems in the mentoring process through qualitative studies (Belcher, 1994; Belcher, 1997; Myles & Cheng, 2003; Krase, 2007), ethnographic studies (Casanave, 1995; Dong, 1996; Prior, 1995; Casanave, & Li, 2008) and a mixed methods of qualitative and quantitative studies (Jin, 1992), particularly concerning writing.

**Roles of Graduate Advisors**

Good mentors were expected to have great potential power to influence their students’ academic experiences (Leub, et al., 1998; Bhatia, 1998; Casanave, & Li, 2008) in getting students started in doing research, offering graduate courses regularly, assisting analysis and writing, participating in discursive practice of academic community, creating a relaxed, enjoyable and interesting environment, on-going supervision for students, encouraging individual growth, and working closely with individual graduate students in their academic experience. Graduate advisors also have great potential power to influence their students’ future careers (Leub et al., 1998).

**Characteristics of Good Mentors and Good Mentees**

Liu and her multiple mentor’s reflections of their mentoring process (Casanave, & Li, 2008, pp. 166-181) suggest what good mentors and good mentees look like. In Liu’s view, the traits which a good mentor were expected to have include having regular meetings with mentees, helping mentees start on the right track, being responsive, being willing to share successful work and to admit failure, accelerating growth with “occasional prods or reminders”, especially in unproductive behavior patterns, guiding more in the details of joining the academic community, gaining one’s own voice, getting published and networking, helping understanding of the manuscript review and submission process, boosting confidence, being generous with time, offering new perspectives on being an academic, helping see the pressure to publish in a new light and carrying on an open-ended dialogue about/ concerning questions. Successful and satisfying communication lay with good mentees, who possess those attributes including intelligent, knowledgeable, diligent, innovative, initiative, enthusiastic, task-focused, well-organized, committed to learning and
becoming a member of the discipline, highly motivated, well-prepared, methodically, and easy and fun to work with, as these would contribute to a mutual and collaborative communication.

**Effective Writing’s Strong Relation to Supportive Student and Advisor Communication**

Belcher’ study (1994) pointed to a kind of collaborative, supportive and egalitarian advisor/student collaboration on a research project, allowing the student major responsibility for decision-making, as one means of enabling L2 graduate students to confidently negotiate the demands of some of the most advanced literate practice of their fields. The research also showed that close advisor/student collaboration using an apprenticeship approach to learning could lead to positive outcomes for NNES (Non-native English speakers) graduate students when it came to communication, academic literacy and thesis writing (p.23). Belcher’s later study (1997) investigated the literacy activities of two female ESL graduate students working on extended pieces of scholarship and found that both were successful because they had the linguistic and sociolinguistic ability to articulate their needs in an assertive and effective manner. As a result, both students’ advisors were willing to support their work on academic projects that diverged from conventional models.

Research by Shaw (1991) and Scott (2000), which examined L2 writers’ interactions with those who read their writing, found a strong connection between supportive academic communications between students and their advisors through effective writing. L2 learners’ communications with their advisors dramatically impacted their participation in academic literacy projects and, by extension, their attempts to gain admittance into target research community of practice.

**Problems and Possible Reasons**

Jin’s study (1992) reported the communication barriers between Chinese overseas students and their British tutors in the process of supervision. The former were found to be uncritical, dependent, and not creative, academically less confident, while the latter were found to be insensitive, unsympathetic, unhelpful and unsupportive. Other problems contained mismatches in research writing goals and research reader expectations (Belcher, 1994), language barriers (Blakeslee, 1997; Jenkins, Jordan, & Weiland, 1993), lack of academic literacy, such as cultural adaptation, inadequate communication, intimidation in identifying and negotiating appropriate tasks, influence of personal theories, identity shift, perfectionism, rejection, and diffidence (Hemphil, 1996; Dong, 1998; Braine, 2002; Krase, 2007; Casanave, & Li, 2008). Source of the first problem was discussed. Asymmetric academic expectations arising from contrasting respective cultural influences like collectivism in the east and individualism in the west and resulting difficulties in the second language use (Jin, 1992).

In brief, the research with regard to ESL supervision has indicated the supervisors’ centrality in students’ academic experience, research writing process and future careers mainly concerning writing. It suggests that co-participatory, collaborative, supportive and egalitarian communication is especially needed when students negotiate the demands of advanced academic literacy. In addition, the ESL literature in this line of research moves from language barriers, cultural and social adaptations to learning academic literacy, a tendency from macro to micro dimensions of the difficulties. It also suggests that the major problems are not only linguistic and educational, but also cultural and social.

**Implications and Conclusion**

The preceding review provides a critical evaluation of relevant research, and then it offers a basis and justification for forthcoming study in a globalized context. The review has the following implications:
Firstly, the literature has shown the vital role of positive supervisory relations in graduate education in both Chinese and western academic contexts. It also signals a critical need to handle the academic expectation mismatches in the Chinese academic context. The review indicates that there is reliance upon administrative measures to address the problem in the Chinese academia and a lack of educational and professional methods to systemize supervision process with respect to thesis writing.

Secondly, it is justified to adopt intercultural perspective as an analytical tool to examine and solve mismatches of academic expectations concerning writing with reference to the western supervisory system due to the increasingly globalized world. It is crucial to identify the significant contributing factor that inhibits successful supervisory communication in the Chinese supervisory system. A contractual solution is not fully justified regardless of the fact that it is proposed as one of tentative solutions. This suggests a necessity to conduct further research on supervisory miscommunication by examining communication style at the interpersonal level and institutional level from DS (short for Discourse System) (Scollon & Scollon, 2000) perspective so that supervisor-student academic interactions can be built on bureaucratic basis under Chinese supervisory system. Thirdly, methodologically speaking, there is an absence of systematic qualitative study of supervisory relations in EFL research contexts. The former related studies are quantitative to a considerable extent.

In conclusion, earlier studies afford the justification for the future study to describe and explain academic expectations concerning thesis writing in an era of globalization through perceptions of students and supervisors in terms of their academic interactions in the Chinese EFL research community of practices.

References


The Influence of Reading Experiences on the Mental Representations of Time in Mandarin and Cantonese Speakers

Pan Zhu
Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
Email: 14117119G@connect.polyu.hk

[Abstract] This study investigated whether native speakers’ reading habits influence the way that speakers construct time representations. The results demonstrate that the Cantonese and Mandarin speakers that we sampled construct time differently to some degree. In terms of the transverse axis, both groups responded faster in canonical condition than in non-canonical condition when the key-mapping in the canonical condition is in accordance with writing directions in both Mandarin and Cantonese. However, Cantonese participants made judgments faster in the non-canonical condition than the Mandarin speakers did.

[Keywords] reading experiences; mental representations of time; Mandarin speakers; Cantonese speakers

Introduction
One interesting and important question in linguistics and psychology is to study people’s spatial-temporal conceptualization. How do people think and express concepts of time? Do language systems and cultures influence speakers’ temporal conceptualization (Boroditsky, 2001; 2010; Lai, & Boroditsky, 2013; Fuhrman, & Boroditsky, 2011; Liu, & Zhang, 2009)? One potential factor that may be related to speakers’ temporal conceptualization is speakers’ reading and writing habits. This has been considered as a main factor on temporal conceptualization on the transverse axis. Different from the sagittal spatial terms and vertical spatial terms, the transverse spatial terms (left/right) are extremely less used in temporal expressions cross-linguistically. However, some studies reported that people’s mental representation of timelines are consistent with the writing direction of their native languages (e.g., Fuhrman, & Boroditsky, 2010; Chen, et al., 2015; Tversky, et al., 1991; cf. embodied cognition, see Ye, 2010 for a review). These studies compared two languages with opposite writing directions, such as English/Arabic, and Spanish/Hebrew, etc. Although many official documents used in Hong Kong started to be printed horizontally, the majority of the shop signs, newspapers, books, and formal publications are printed vertically and in the right-to-left order. This led me to wonder whether we can observe different types of temporal conceptualization under different reading contexts. Chinese languages provide us with such a context. According to my survey, no study has paid attention to the comparison between temporal representations among different Chinese languages. In the current study, this potential factor can be nicely controlled between Cantonese and Mandarin readers as well. If the human artifact such as the writing and reading directions can influence readers’ representations of time in their minds, one may expect that Cantonese speakers, especially those who often reading vertical texts, display a different type of mental representation of time, while comparing it with Mandarin speakers, who mostly only read horizontal texts.

Experiment
We adopted an implicit processing task to further testify whether there are indeed differences between a Mandarin group and Cantonese group in terms of temporal conceptualization. We followed the judgement tasks by pressing keys that were used in Fuhrman’s experiment (2011). Fuhrman’s experiments in 2011 contained an experiment on the transverse axis as well as on the vertical axis. The present study merely
dealt with the effects of reading habits on the mental representation of time. Therefore, the experiment on the transverse axis was conducted in the current study.

Participants did the task by pressing the keys on a USB keypad connected to a computer. There were 9 buttons on the keypad. The middle key was masked with a blue sticker. In the canonical condition, the left key was masked with a black sticker and was expressed as a “earlier” conception; the right key was masked a whiter sticker and was expressed as a “later” conception. In the non-canonical condition, the keypad was rotated 180 degrees, and the right key was expressed with the earlier conception and was masked with a black sticker; the left key was expressed the later conception and was masked with a white sticker.

As shown in Figure 1, a picture presenting a middle time point (e.g., an apple being eaten) was present on the screen. And then a picture showing either an earlier time point (e.g., a whole apple) or a later time point (e.g., an apple core) appeared on the screen. Participants needed to press the corresponding key to judge whether the second picture showed an earlier time point or a later conceptual time point than the time point expressed by the first picture.

Figure 1. Example Set of Materials

If people automatically accessed canonical key mapping, it was predicted that their responses should be faster when keys were designated in the canonical condition, correspondingly, their performance would be disrupted or slowed down when keys were designated in a non-canonical condition. In terms of the differences of temporal conceptualization in the two groups, one may expect that Cantonese speakers who mostly read vertical texts may display a different mental representation of time than with Mandarin speakers who mostly read horizontal texts. That is, Cantonese speakers who often read the texts presented from right to left may make a judgment faster in the ‘right-earlier, left-later’ key mapping than Mandarin speakers do.

Participants
In the Mandarin study, 46 native speakers of Beijing Mandarin, aged 18-30, who were students in a college or university in Beijing, participated in our study. None of them had a good command of Cantonese and all of them rarely read vertical texts while free of language understanding and expression barriers. In the Cantonese experiment, 46 native speakers of Hong Kong Cantonese, aged 18-30, who were students in a college or university in Hong Kong, participated in our study. None of them learned Mandarin before 6 years old while free of language understanding and expression barriers.

All participants were asked to fill out a questionnaire of language background and reading habits prior to experiment. The study utilized the seven-point Likert Scale to measure how often the speakers of the two groups read the vertical text that are printed from left to right. All the participants were right-handed.

Materials
The materials comprised 40 triplets of pictures, all describing temporal progressions, similar to the set shown in Figure 1. For example, a picture showing an apple being eaten, the earlier stage would be a picture
showing a whole apple, the middle stage would be a picture showing an apple that has been bitten, and the latter stage would be a picture showing an apple core.

**Procedure**

All participants were tested individually in a quiet language lab and all used the same ThinkPad laptop computer. There were 9 buttons on the keypad. None of the keys were labeled by using verbal forms so that the participants would not be disturbed by the linguistic expressions.

At the beginning of each trial, there was a fixation on the screen. Participants were instructed to press the blue button to start the trial. Then, the fixation was replaced by a picture presenting a middle time point (for example, an apple being eaten). And the picture lasted for 2000ms and then a picture showing an earlier time point (e.g., a whole apple) or a later time point (e.g., an apple core) appeared on the screen. Participants were instructed to press the corresponding key to judge whether the second picture showed an earlier or later conceptual time than the first picture. The second picture was on the screen until participants made judgments. If participants did not press the key, the second picture would display for 4000ms and be followed by another trial.

All participants completed 2 testing blocks, canonical block (“left-earlier, right-later” key mapping) and non-canonical block (“right-earlier, left-later” key mapping), each consisting of 40 trials. The earlier picture or the later picture just appeared once in each block. The order of the blocks was counterbalanced across participants. Before each testing block, participants were instructed to practice 10 trials to get familiar with the task. The items used in practice trails were not used in the following testing blocks.

**Analyses and Results**

**Results of the tests on the Mandarin group and Cantonese group.** Responses of the four participants (two Mandarin speakers and two Cantonese speakers) were not included in the data analysis because their error rates were more than 10%. Accuracy rate for the remaining 88 participants was 99.96%. Error responses were excluded in the analysis. The remaining correct responses data of each group were submitted to 2 (Language) × 2 (Canonicality of key-mapping) mixed ANOVA. The “language” refers to Mandarin and Cantonese. The “Canonicality of key-mapping” refers to canonical conditions when the left key was designated as earlier and the right key was designated as later, and non-canonical conditions when the left key was designated as later and the right key was designated as earlier.

The results of 44 participants in the canonical condition and non-canonical condition in the two groups are shown in Fig. 1, with descriptive statistics in Table 1. The results in the canonical condition and non-canonical condition were both equal variance and distributed normally. The results of the ANOVA revealed main effect of Canonicality of key-mapping, F(1, 86)=18.45, *p*<0.001. There was no significant effect of language, F(1, 86)=0.478, *p*=0.491. There was no interaction between Language and Canonicality of key-mapping, F(1, 86)=0.000, *p*=0.996. Analyses of accuracy confirmed these results were not due to speed-accuracy trade-offs.
Figure 2. Results of Mandarin Group and Cantonese Group. (Y-axis plots mean reaction time in millisecond).

Table 1. The Mean RTs (in msecs) for Canonical Condition and Non-Canonical Condition in the Two Groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mandarin</th>
<th>Cantonese</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canonical</td>
<td>1094.67</td>
<td>1057.82</td>
<td>.389</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-canonical</td>
<td>1224.23</td>
<td>1187.06</td>
<td>.385</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data within participants in each group were also analyzed, aiming to further testifying that the reading habits would influence people's temporal representations. The data in the two groups was submitted to a paired-sample $t$ test. The reaction time in the canonical condition was significantly shorter than that in the non-canonical condition in Mandarin group ($t=3.851, p<0.001$) as well as in Cantonese group ($t=2.674, p=0.01$).

Results of tests on subgroup-M and subgroup-C. As mentioned before, the language background and reading habits were both investigated before the experiments. The study utilized the 7-point Likert Scale to measure how often the two groups of speakers read the vertical text. Some participants in the Cantonese group often read the texts printed from right to left while some others mostly only read horizontal texts, like Mandarin speakers. Also, the results of tests showed that there was no significant difference in the reaction time of the two testing blocks between Mandarin group and Cantonese group, which let me wonder whether inconsistent reading habits in Cantonese group impact on the results of tests on the two groups. If reading habits impact the way of constructing time, the people who often read vertical texts would respond faster than those who mainly read horizontal texts do in the “right-earlier, left-later” key-mapping. Therefore, to compare the differences in the way of reasoning about time between Mandarin speakers and Cantonese speakers better, we selected 30 participants who scored over four-point in the Likert Scale from Cantonese group as subgroup-C and randomly selected 30 participants’ data in Mandarin group as subgroup-M.

The 30 responses of each subgroup were submitted to $2 \times 2$ (Canonicality of key-mapping) mixed ANOVA. The results of interest are displayed in Fig. 2, with descriptive statistics in Table 2. The results in the two conditions of each subgroup were all equal variance and distributed normally. The results
of the ANOVA revealed main effects of Canonicality of key-mapping, \(F(1, 58)=9.189, p=0.004\). There was no interaction between Language and Canonicality of key-mapping, \(F(1, 58)=0.496, p=0.496\). With respect to language groups, the speakers of subgroup-C responded faster than the speakers of subgroup-M overall. The canonical reaction time in subgroup-M was longer than that in subgroup-C \((p=0.096)\), but no significant differences was observed. In the non-canonical condition, the reaction time in subgroup-M was significantly longer than that in subgroup-C \((p=0.01)\).

![Figure 3. Results of Subgroup-M and Subgroup-C. (Y-axis plots mean reaction time in millisecond).](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Subgroup-M</th>
<th>Subgroup-C</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canonical</td>
<td>1100.54</td>
<td>1030.54</td>
<td>0.096</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-canonical</td>
<td>1209.01</td>
<td>1099.27</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The data of each subgroup was also submitted to a paired-sample t test. The reaction time in the canonical condition was significantly shorter than that in the non-canonical condition in subgroup-M \((t=2.439, p=0.021)\). Although the reaction time in the canonical condition was shorter than that in the non-canonical condition in subgroup-C \((t=1.811, p=0.08)\), no significant difference was observed.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

In this study, we investigated whether there were differences in terms of mental representations of time among speakers of Mandarin and Cantonese, aimed to test the implicit association between space and time. If people prefer to represent time in the left-to-right model, then their responses will be disrupted when they are instructed to make the judgment in the reverse key-mapping condition. The results in the experiment confirmed such predictions.

The reaction time in non-canonical condition was significantly longer than that in canonical condition in both language groups when the key-mapping was set in canonical condition. This is in accordance with the major writing direction and reading habits in both Mandarin and Cantonese. Their responses were
accelerated in the ‘left-earlier, right-later’ key mapping and their judgement slowed down in the reverse key-mapping as the non-canonical condition was not in line with their major reading habits.

People would automatically create spatial representations that are consistent with their reading habits when making temporal judgments, therefore one could predict that people who often read the texts printed from right to left would present a different temporal representations with the people who mostly read the texts printed in a reverse pattern. Our results of tests on subgroup-M and subgroup-C revealed that Cantonese speakers who often read vertical texts responded much faster in the “right-earlier, left-later” key mapping than Mandarin speakers who mostly read horizontal texts. These demonstrate that people’s temporal representations are influenced by their reading habits, confirming previous works. Although some Cantonese speakers in the subgroup-C were still faster to make judgement in the canonical condition than that in the non-canonical condition, no significant difference was observed, This suggests that their ways of constructing time are influenced by their two types of reading habits.

In addition, irrespective of reading habits, their performances are faster when keys are mapped in canonical condition rather than non-canonical condition as the key-mapping in canonical condition is in accordance with the way Mandarin speakers and Cantonese speakers’ major reading and writing habits. Therefore, there is no significantly difference in the canonical condition between Mandarin speakers and Cantonese speakers, and same situation appeared between subgroup-M and subgroup-C.

References
A Multidimensional Analysis of Chinese University English Learners’ Genre Knowledge

Chunming Wu
School of Foreign Languages, Hanshan Normal University, Chaozhou, China;

Dechao Li
Department of Chinese and Bilingual Studies, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, China
Email: 18095825g@connect.polyu.hk

[Abstract] Genre knowledge is essential to writing. A good understanding of English learners’ genre knowledge is a sine qua non in writing pedagogy. In this paper, Biber’s 1988 multidimensional analysis is employed to investigate Chinese university English learners within and across genre knowledge of exposition and argumentation through the corpora of LOCNESS and SWECCL 2.0. The results show that in terms of within-genre knowledge, whereas English learners’ exposition are prototypically characterized by abstractness, native English speakers’ exposition are characterized by explicitness, each belonging to a different text type. English learners’ argumentations are more argumentative and involved than native English speakers. Regarding cross-genre knowledge, whereas there is nothing in common between English learners’ exposition and argumentation, native English speakers’ exposition and argumentation share some common grounds. It is concluded that Chinese university English learners do not have solid genre knowledge causing genre transfer in their writings. Therefore, it is suggested that the types of genres in tests should be varied and a genre-based approach should be implemented in writing pedagogy to overcome English learners’ deficiency in genre knowledge.

[Keyword] English learners; exposition; argumentation; genre knowledge; genre transfer

Introduction
Writing is important to Chinese university English learners (henceforth CUELs) for their academic and future professional success. Underachievement in writing will lead to failures in their academic performance at university and deprive them of the opportunities to further their education. In addition, poor writing skills will be detrimental to some basic skills in their future careers such as communicating effectively through writing under different social contexts. A good command of writing skills means that one can use appropriate language under different social contexts. When the correlation of language use and social contexts are taken into consideration, writing can be categorized into various genres characterized by their peculiar rhetorical and linguistic features. Competent writers are aware of these features and draw upon them in writing. Martin (1984) showed that a good native speaker writer is characterized by their mastery of genre knowledge including knowing the steps that characterize a given genre and the appropriate language for realizing each step.

For language teachers, understanding students’ genre knowledge is a prerequisite to take appropriate actions to improve their writing. However, to date, few studies have been conducted to investigate CUELs’ genre knowledge. This study will examine their genre knowledge by using Biber’s (1998) Multidimensional Analysis (henceforth MA). The reason for adopting MA approach in the research is that, by far, the MA approach is the most powerful and comprehensive tool to analyze the lexico-grammatical features of genres. By resorting to the MA approach, this paper aims to comprehensively describe CUELs’ genre knowledge in writing and put forward some appropriate suggestions in teaching.
Literature Review

Defining Genre and Genre Knowledge

The term “genre” is most familiar in literary studies in which it is used to refer to a certain type of literary production such as poems, dramas, novels, and short stories. Genre is extensively studied in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). As writing is a skill of language use and the focus of SFL is on language use, genre will be defined and described from the SFL perspective in this research.

SFL views language as a multi-functional and multi-stratal meaning-making resource in communication. On the one hand, language is structured to convey three metafunctions simultaneously: ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions (Halliday, & Matthiessen, 2014). Ideational function deals with the construction of human experience. Interpersonal function is used to enact personal relations. Textual function relates to the composition of ideational and interpersonal meanings into a text.

On the other hand, language is multi-stratal in that discourse semantics is realized by lexico-grammar which, in turn, is realized by phonology or graphology. Lexico-grammar deals with resources for incorporating ideational, interpersonal and textual meanings as clauses and smaller unit such as phrases, words and morphemes. Discourse semantics “focuses on resources for integrating clauses with one another as cohesive text” (Martin, 1997, p. 388). Therefore, semantics, lexico-grammar and phonology or graphology form three strata in language system.

In addition, there is a direct link between language and social context. Like language, social context is a stratified system “comprising the levels of register and genres” (Martin, 1997, p.389). In the analysis of registers, the three parameters of a situation, i.e. field, tenor, and mode, correlate with the three metafunctions of language. To be specific, field, tenor, and mode condition ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions respectively. Genre is at a higher level of abstraction than register. It comes about as “particular values for field, tenor and mode regularly co-occur and eventually became stabilized in the culture as ‘typical’ situation” (Eggins, 2004, p. 58).

A genre is defined as “a staged purposeful social process – genres, in other words, are goal-oriented, and works to achieve these goals in steps” (Martin, 1984, p. 9). He (2003) further explained that a genre is social because we participate in genres with other people; goal-oriented because we use genres to get thing done; staged because it usually takes us a few steps to reach our goal.

The multi-functional and multi-stratal language model of SFL is represented in Figure 1.

![Image of the Multi-Functional and Multi-Stratal Language Model of SFL (Hao, 2018).]
Figure 1 shows that genres are realized by registers which, in turn, are realized by lexico-grammar (i.e. words and structures). Therefore, texts belonging to different genres have different lexico-grammar choice (Eggins, 2004).

Genres can be grouped into different categories with reference to any of its essential features. According to communicative purpose, genres can be classified into narration, description, exposition and argumentation: the communicative purpose of narration is to tell a story; the purpose of description is to paint a picture in words; the purpose of exposition is to explain, and the purpose of argumentation is to persuade or convince.

**Multidimensional Analysis**

The MA approach was fully developed by Biber (1988) to describe the variation across spoken and written English. He conducted a principal factor analysis to extract seven factors (i.e. dimensions) with 67 linguistic features in the texts taken from Lancaster-Oslo-Bergen Corpus of British English (LOB) and London-Lund Corpus of Spoken English (LLC) corpora together with a collection of professional and personal letters. Because the factorial structure was not strong enough to confirm interpretation, only the first six factors are labelled and investigated. They are: 1. informational versus involved production; 2. narrative versus non-narrative discourse; 3. explicit versus situation-dependent reference; 4. overt expression of argumentation; 5. abstract and non-abstract information; and 6. on-line informational elaboration. Each dimension is realized by a group of linguistic features. The importance of each linguistic feature is measured by its loading ranging from +1 to -1. The larger the loading, the more important a linguistic feature is on a particular dimension. Linguistic features with positive loadings tend to co-occur under a certain dimension, whereas linguistic features with negative loadings tend not to co-occur with those features with positive loadings.

For each text, the dimensional score is calculated by adding all the standardized frequencies (that is, the z score) for those linguistic features having salient loadings (no less than 0.35) on a dimension, including features with negative loadings. In this way, the mean of each dimension score for each genre can be computed to make comparisons between any two texts or genres along a specific dimension as well as across all the dimensions.

On the basis of dimension scores, Biber (1989) was able to identify the major English text types with cluster analysis. In his study, 481 texts taken from 23 major genre categories were grouped into 8 text types based on the similarities with respect to the dimensions in the MA approach: 1. intimate interpersonal; 2. informational interaction; 3. scientific exposition; 4. learned exposition; 5. imaginative narrative; 6. general narrative exposition; 7. situated reportage; and 8. involved persuasion. Each text type has its own linguistic characterization on different dimensions.

The intention of MA is to differentiate speech from writing. However, since the texts used in the MA study include many of the possible discourse types in English, and the linguistic features used in MA cover many of the communicative functions marked by surface features in English, the resulting dimensions are not strictly parameters of variation between speech and writing; rather they are fundamental parameters of linguistic variation among English texts (Biber, 1988). As a result, the MA approach has been applied extensively to fields such as learners’ composition research (Grabe, & Biber, 1987; Connor, 1995; Van Rooy, 2008; Pan, 2012).
Studies of Language Learners’ Genre Knowledge with the MA Approach

Few studies have been made into the application of the MA approach to analyze learners’ genre knowledge. The earliest probe into learners’ genre knowledge with MA approach was conducted by Grabe and Biber (1987, cited in Biber 1988). In the study, they used the MA approach in a pilot study to compare the linguistic features of good and poor essays written by native and non-native writers of English. The result showed that learners’ essays were different linguistically from any of the published genres of English. Learners use the surface form of academic writing like passive structure, but their essays are non-informational and involved, and extremely persuasive.

Pan (2012) used MA approach to investigate Chinese undergraduate and graduate students’ English writing. The results confirmed Biber’s finding that learners’ writings are more non-informative and involved as compared with native speakers. The results also demonstrated that Chinese students’ English writings are more spoken-oriented than native speakers.

Crossley, Allen and McNamara (2014) followed Biber’s MA approach to analyze the functional parameters of L1 argumentative essays from 9th to 11th grades by using 400 linguistic features provided by Coh-Matrix. They first conducted a factor analysis which produced 4 factors (or dimensions): 1. essay quality: interval scale; 2. essay quality: low, middle, high; 3. prompt and assignment; 4. grade level. They then went a step further to conduct Discriminant Function Analysis (DFA) to prove that linguistic features that load onto each dimension can be used to distinguish the essays based on a particular dimension with an accuracy ranging from 38.4% to 69.7%. The results show that high-quality essays are characterized by some linguistic features like longer sentences, more sophisticated lexicon rhetorical elements as well as fewer frequent n-grams, verbs and verb phrases, and second person pronoun.

Previous studies on learners’ genre knowledge with MA approach were subjected to some limitations. The most obvious limitation is that they were all confined to the analysis of argumentative essays. Other kinds of essays like exposition or narration remain unexplored. Another limitation is related to the first one. That is, they only contrasted learners’ essays with native speakers. Never has any study made a contrast across different genres of writing produced by learners.

Operationalizing Genre Knowledge

As mention previously, genre knowledge consists of three elements: particular communicative purposes, different stages, and typical linguistic features. This study will focus on the last element for, according to SFL, linguistic features and genres are mutually predictable: different genres condition different lexico-grammar choice. Therefore, proper linguistic features are a good indicator of learners’ genre knowledge. In the MA approach, linguistic features are grouped into seven dimensions, consequently, if Chinese university English major’s writings are not significantly different from native English speakers’ writings on these dimensions in a particular genre, they are considered to possess the relevant genre knowledge.

Research Questions

Two genres, exposition and argumentation, were selected in the study because they are the most frequent genres of writing. These two genres have distinct communicative purposes. Therefore, the linguistic features of these two genres will differ. As linguistic features are clustered in Biber’s MA approach into seven dimensions among which the first six will be considered in this study, the research questions include:

1) Are there any significant differences in linguistic features of exposition between CUELS and native English speakers (henceforth NESs) on the six dimensions?
(2) Are there any significant differences in linguistic features of argumentation between CUELs and NESs on the six dimensions?

(3) Compared with NESs’ writings, does genre transfer exist in CUELs’ writings on the six dimensions in these two genres?

Research Method

To address the research questions, the MA approaches are employed. According to Biber (2009), there are of MD studies: those that conduct a full MD analysis and those that apply the dimensions in the 1988 approach to new area of research. As the 1988 approach can capture the linguistic features of different genres, it was adopted in this study. The corpora included a native English speakers’ writing corpus and a Chinese university English learners’ writing corpus. The former consisted of two parts: the sub-corpora of brsur1 and A_levels from LOCNESS (The Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays). They represent NESs’ exposition and argumentation, respectively. The latter corpus included essays of exposition and argumentation written by CUELs in Grade 3 in the SWECCCL 2.0 (Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners) (Wen, Liang & Yan, 2008). English learners in Grade 3 are considered to better represent the high level of English proficiency at university than Grade 4 as in China when university students enter into Grade 4, they have to participate in internships and hunt for jobs which will affect their learning to some degree. All the essays to be analyzed were timed, that is, they were finished within specified period time. The composition of the corpora is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Composition of the Studied Corpora

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpora</th>
<th>Size (tokens)</th>
<th>Genres</th>
<th>Timed/Untimed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOCNESS_brsur1</td>
<td>18129</td>
<td>exposition</td>
<td>timed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOCNESS_A_level</td>
<td>347640</td>
<td>argumentation</td>
<td>timed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Exposition</td>
<td>291925</td>
<td>exposition</td>
<td>timed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Argumentation</td>
<td>58144</td>
<td>argumentation</td>
<td>timed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The extraction of the 67 linguistic features of the two corpora and the factor analysis was done automatically with the program the Multidimensional Analysis Tagger (MAT) developed by Nini (2015), which has been tested for reliability on the LOB and on the Brown corpus and the results indicate that it can successfully replicate Biber’s MA approach. All the frequencies of linguistic features were normalized to one count per thousand tokens by the MAT. Therefore, although the corpora are of varying sizes, the results are comparable. In addition, the MAT can automatically assign a nearest text type described by Biber (1989) to the corpus under analysis and compute the scores on the first sixth dimension of the 1988 MA approach.

The four corpora representing both NESs’ and CUELs’ exposition and argumentation were analyzed automatically by the MAT. The statistical significance test applied is independent-sample t-test by SPSS 25.0 and the significant level alpha is set at 0.05.

Results and Discussions

The results included the six sets of dimension scores and z-scores of the 67 linguistic features of each corpus. Texts with the highest z-score on a certain dimension was taken as the typical samples for qualitative analysis. Match or mismatch of the dimension scores between CUELs’ and NESs’ writings within the same genre and across the two different genres was considered as the index to gauge CUELs’ genre knowledge and to detect whether genre transfer exists in their writing.
**CUELs’ Exposition Genre Knowledge**

To investigate CUELs’ exposition genre knowledge, the first step is to outline the native speakers’ linguistic features on the six dimensions of their expository writings so that it can serve as the baseline to which CUELs’ writings can be compared. Table 2 presents the dimension scores of LOCNESS_brusur1 and Student Exposition with t-tests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpora</th>
<th>D1</th>
<th>D2</th>
<th>D3</th>
<th>D4</th>
<th>D5</th>
<th>D6</th>
<th>Closest Text Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOCNESS_brusur1(M)</td>
<td>-10.98</td>
<td>-0.47</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>Scientific exposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Exposition(M)</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>-3.21</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>-6.92</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>General narrative exposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>8.91</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MD</td>
<td>-10.08</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.60</td>
<td>7.04</td>
<td>-1.83</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t (df=286)</td>
<td>-5.78</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>10.65</td>
<td>-2.31</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: D1=dimension 1, D2=dimension 2, D3=dimension 3, D4=dimension 4, D5=dimension 5, D6=dimension 6; M=mean, SD=standard deviation, MD=mean difference, df=degree of freedom

Statistics in Table1 shows that in LOCNESS_brusur1, the highest score is on dimension 3 (M=6.18). This dimension is the opposition between explicit versus situation-dependent reference. A high score on this dimension indicates that NESs’ exposition is explicit and not context-dependent. It means that many linguistic features like nominalization (among other features) are used in these texts. The highest score on this dimension suggests that explicitness is a marked feature of exposition. The second highest score is on dimension 5 (M=4.04) which is the opposition between abstract and non-abstract information. A high score on this dimension shows that NESs present the texts in an abstract and formal way. It also entails that many linguistic features like conjuncts (among other features) are used in NESs’ exposition.

The lowest score lies on dimension 1 (M=-10.98). This dimension deals with the opposition between involved and informational discourse. A low score on this dimension indicates that exposition produced by NESs is informational and many nouns (among other linguistic features) are used.

In conclusion, NESs’ exposition is characterized by high scores on dimension 3 and 5 as well as a low score on dimension 1, which means their expository essays are explicit, abstract and informational. This result fits in with Biber’s (1989, p.29) finding that scientific exposition like academic prose are “extremely informational and explicit in reference”. As a result, the MAT assigns the scientific exposition as the closest text type to LOCNESS_brusur1.

The dimension scores in Student Exposition are different from those in LOCNESS_brusur1. In order to check whether there are significant differences in means among the six dimension scores, independent-sample t tests were conducted and the results showed that there are significant differences in scores on the first fifth dimension (p values of dimension 1 to dimension 5 are all less than 0.05).

In terms of score hierarchy, the highest score in Student Exposition falls on dimension 5, followed by dimension 3, a reverse order vis-a-vis LOCNESS_brusur1. This means that the most typical feature of CUELs’ exposition is abstractness instead of explicitness.

The lowest score is on dimension 4 (M=-6.92) which measures overt expression of persuasion. A low score on this dimension indicates that CUELs fail to state their assessment of likelihood and certainty overtly by means of linguistic features like modal verbs (among other features) in exposition. The biggest absolute mean difference between LOCNESS_brusur1 and Student Exposition is on dimension 1 (MD=-269).
10.08, t <286> = -5.78, p=0.00), indicating that CUELs’ expository writings are far less informative than NESs. This result confirms Biber’s finding (1988) that learners’ compositions are non-informative. In conclusion, CUELs’ exposition is abstract, explicit, non-overtly persuasive, and barely informational.

Because the distribution of dimension scores in Student Exposition is different from that of LOCNESS_brsur1, texts in Student Exposition are assigned to general narrative exposition by MAT as the nearest text type. According to Biber’s (1989), general narrative exposition is a different text type from scientific exposition. Whereas scientific exposition is markedly informational and non-narrative, the distinctive feature of general narrative exposition is the combination of informational and narrative discourses. The discrepancy of the nearest text types assigned to LONCESS_brsur1 and Student exposition by MAT suggests that CUELs do not have good exposition genre knowledge.

**CUELs’ Argumentation Genre Knowledge**

To examine CUELs’ genre knowledge of argumentation, scores on the six dimensions of texts in LOCNESS_A_level and Student Argumentation were calculated with the MAT. The results with independent-sample t tests are presented in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpora</th>
<th>D1</th>
<th>D2</th>
<th>D3</th>
<th>D4</th>
<th>D5</th>
<th>D6</th>
<th>Closest Text Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOCNESS_A_Level (M)</td>
<td>-2.37</td>
<td>-1.85</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>Involved persuasion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Argumentation(M)</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>-1.33</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>7.01</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>Involved persuasion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>7.59</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MD</td>
<td>-8.65</td>
<td>-0.52</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>-1.58</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t(df=287)</td>
<td>-10.63</td>
<td>-1.63</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>-2.43</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 demonstrates that the highest score in LOCNESS_A_level is on dimension 4 (M=5.43) which measures overt expression of persuasion. A high score on this dimension shows that NESs state their points of views explicitly in their argumentative essays by using many linguistic features like modal verbs (among other features), illustrating that the communicative purpose of native English speakers’ argumentative writings is to persuade. This result confirms Biber’s conclusion (1989) that argumentative writings are characterized by high scores on dimension 4. The second highest score is on dimension 5 (M=4.47), suggesting that native English speakers’ argumentative essays are abstract and many linguistic features like passive clauses (among other linguistic features) are used. The lowest score on dimension 1 (M=-2.37), indicating that texts produced by NESs are informational, rather than affective and interactional.

In summary, native English speakers’ argumentation is characterized by overt persuasion, abstractness, and dense information. The closest text type of LOCNESS_A_level is categorized by MAT as involved persuasion.

Texts in Student Argumentation are also assigned to “involved persuasion” by MAT as the closest text type, which means that CUELs’ argumentative essays are similar to NESs’ in the linguistic features on the six dimensions on the whole. However, there are some significant differences. Although like LOCNESS_A_level, the highest score of Student Argumentation is on dimension 4, the score (M=7.01, SD=5.72) is significantly higher than native speakers (M=5.43,SD=4.79, t<287>=-2.42, p=0.02), indicating CUELs overuse the linguistic features like modal verbs (among other features) on dimension 4, thus making
their argumentative writings more persuasive than NESs. This result supports Biber’s (1988) finding that non-native learners’ writings are highly persuasive. The second highest score is on dimension 1 (M=6.28, SD=7.59), significantly higher than that of LOCNESS_A_level (M=-2.37, SD=6.14, t <287> =-10.63, p=0.00). The absolute mean difference on this dimension is the biggest (MD=-8.65) among all the dimensions, indicating that CUEL’s argumentative writings are affective and interactional rather than informational.

The score on dimension 3 in Student Argumentation (M=2.18, SD=5.71) is significantly lower than in LOCNESS_A_level (M=4.37, SD=3.39, t <287>=4.09, p=0.00), which shows CUEL’s argumentative writings are more situation dependent, using more linguistic features like adverbs (among other linguistic features). Dimension 6 (M=0.42, SD=1.82) also has a significantly lower score than LOCNESS_A_level (M=-0.79, SD=1.77, t <286>=5.60, p=0.00). This dimension measures the on-line informational elaboration. A lower score on this dimension indicates that CUEls’ argumentation is not as informational as native English speakers under time constraints. A low slow score on dimension 6 implies the lack of linguistic features like post-modification of nouns (among other linguistic features) in writing.

In conclusion, CUEL’s argumentations are similar to those of NESs to some extent, both belonging to the same text type. This result refutes Biber’s (1988) statement that all non-native learners’ genres are essentially different from native speakers. However, it should be noted that compared with NEC, CUEL’s argumentative texts are more argumentative, more interactional, more situation dependent but less informational.

**CUEL’s Genre Knowledge Across Exposition and Argumentation**

Having good genre knowledge means one knows not only the linguistic norms of a particular genre, but also the differences of linguistic norms between that particular genre and others. The former is referred to as within-genre knowledge and the latter across-genre knowledge. To research into the CUEL’s across-genre knowledge, the first step was to examine the differences of linguistic features on the six dimensions as reflected on the dimension scores across exposition and argumentation of NESs and CUEls, respectively. Then, comparisons were made to see whether the differences of linguistic features on the six dimensions in terms of dimension scores in CUEls’ exposition and argumentation were in the same pattern as those of NESs. If they were in the same pattern, it indicates English learners master the across-genre knowledge between exposition and argumentation, otherwise it indicates that they confuse knowledge of the two genres. The differences of dimension scores across LOCNESS_brsur1 LOCNESS_A_level are shown in Table 4.

### Table 4. Dimension Scores Across LOCNESS_brsur1 and LOCNESS_A_level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpora</th>
<th>D1</th>
<th>D2</th>
<th>D3</th>
<th>D4</th>
<th>D5</th>
<th>D6</th>
<th>Closest Text Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOCNESS_brsur1(M)</td>
<td>-10.98</td>
<td>-0.47</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.09</td>
<td>Scientific exposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>Scientific exposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOCNESS_A_level(M)</td>
<td>-2.37</td>
<td>-1.85</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>5.43</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>Involved persuasion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>6.14</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>4.79</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>Involved persuasion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MD</td>
<td>-8.61</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>-5.31</td>
<td>-0.43</td>
<td>-0.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t (df=128)</td>
<td>-5.67</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>-4.60</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
<td>-0.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that there are no significant differences of mean scores on dimension 5 and 6 between LOCNESS_brsur1 and LOCNESS_A_level which suggests that both exposition and argumentation in NESs’ writing are equally abstract and informational under time constraints.
Scores on other dimensions differ significantly. To be specific, the score on dimension 3 is higher than other dimensions. This score (M=6.18, SD=2.24) is also significantly higher than LOCNESS_A_level (M=4.37, SD=3.38, t <128>, p=0.01), indicating that explicitness is the prototypical feature of exposition. LOCNESS_brsur1 also has a significantly higher score on dimension 2 (M=0.47, SD=2.77, t <128> =2.50, p=0.01), showing that NESs’ exposition is less non-narrative than argumentation.

However, scores on dimension 1 and 4 in LOCNESS_brsur1(M1=-10.98, SD1=4.83; M4=0.12, SD=2.38) are significantly lower than those in LOCNESS_A_level (M1=-2.37, SD1=6.14; M4=5.43, SD4=4.79, t1 <128>=-5.67, p1=0.00; t4 <128>=-4.60, p=0.00), indicating that English exposition is more informational, and less overtly persuasive than argumentation. On the other hand, LOCNESS_A_level has a significantly higher score on dimension 4 (M=5.43, SD=4.79) than LOCNESS_brsur1 (M=0.12, SD=2.38, t <128>=-4.60, p=0.00), showing that overt persuasion is the prototypical feature of English argumentation.

The genre typology distinctions of native English speakers’ exposition and argumentation is generalized with reference to the six dimensions in MA in Table 5.

**Table 5. Genre Typology Distinctions Between LOCNESS_brsur1 and LOCNESS_A_level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>D1</th>
<th>D2</th>
<th>D3</th>
<th>D4</th>
<th>D5</th>
<th>D6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LOCNESS_brsur1</td>
<td>more informational</td>
<td>non-narrative</td>
<td>more explicit</td>
<td>overt persuasive</td>
<td>abstract</td>
<td>Informational under time constraints</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOCNESS_A_level</td>
<td>informational</td>
<td>More non-narrative</td>
<td>explicit</td>
<td>more overt persuasive</td>
<td>abstract</td>
<td>Informational under time constraints</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dimension scores across Student Exposition and Student Argumentation are presented in Table 6 to analyze the genre distinction between the two corpora.

**Table 6. Dimension Scores Across Student Exposition and Student Argumentation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpora</th>
<th>D1</th>
<th>D2</th>
<th>D3</th>
<th>D4</th>
<th>D5</th>
<th>D6</th>
<th>Closest Text Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student Exposition (M)</td>
<td>-0.90</td>
<td>-3.21</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>-6.92</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>General narrative exposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>7.29</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>8.91</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student Argumentation (M)</td>
<td>6.28</td>
<td>-1.33</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>7.01</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>-0.79</td>
<td>Involved persuasion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>7.59</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>4.51</td>
<td>1.77</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MD</td>
<td>-7.18</td>
<td>-1.88</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>-13.93</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T(df=445)</td>
<td>-10.02</td>
<td>-6.08</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>-30.20</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 indicates that all the scores on six dimensions are significantly different across exposition and argumentation in CUEls’ essays which means that there is no overlapping between the two genres. This result is different from NESs’ writing in which exposition and argumentation share similar scores on dimension 5 and 6. This result evidences that genre confusion exists in CUEls’ writing.

To be concrete, on the one hand, scores on dimension 3, 5, and 6 in Student Exposition (M3=4.58, SD=3.69; M5=5.87, SD5=8.91; M6=0.07, SD6=2.90) are significantly higher than those in Student Argumentation (M3=2.18, SD3=5.71; M5=4.21, SD5=4.51; M6=-0.79, SD6=1.77, t3<445>=4.96, p3=0.00; t5<445>=2.59, p5=0.01; t6<445>=3.89, p=0.00), suggesting CUEls’ exposition is more explicit, more abstract and informational under time constraints than their argumentation. The highest scores in this corpus is on dimension 5, signifying that abstractness is the prototypical characteristic of CUEls’ exposition.
On the other hand, scores on dimension 1, 2, and 4 in Student Argumentation (M1=6.28, SD=7.59; M2=1.33, SD2=3.33; M4=7.01, SD4=5.72) are significantly higher than those in Student Exposition (M1=-0.90, SD1=7.29; M2=-3.21, SD2=3.10; M4=-6.92, SD4=2.74, t1<445>=-10.02, p1=0.00; t2<445>=-6.08, p=0.00; t4<445>=-3.02, p4=0.00), indicating that CUELs’ argumentation is more involved, non-narrative and overtly persuasive. The highest score is on dimension 4 (M=7.01), indicating overt persuasion is the prototypical feature of NESs’ argumentation.

The genre typology distinctions of CUELs’ exposition and argumentation are summarized with reference to the six dimensions of the MA approach in Table 7. When Table 7 is contrasted with Table 5, it is easy to pinpoint the discrepancies of exposition and argumentation between CUELs and NESs. These differences are underlined in Table 7.

| Table 7. Genre Typology Distinction Between Student Exposition and Student Argumentation |
|------------------------------------------|-----------------|------|----------|-------------|-----------|-----------------|
| D1                              | D2                | D3          | D4                 | D5                  | D6                  |
| Student Exposition                | informational    | non-narrative | more explicit      | not overtly persuasive | more abstract          | informational under time constraints |
| Student Argumentation              | involved          | more non-narrative | explicit         | too overtly persuasive | abstract              | not informational under time constraints |

When Table 4 and Table 6 are contrasted, it can be seen that CUELs have better genre knowledge in argumentation than in exposition because the text type of their argumentation matches NESs’ corresponding writing while the text type of their exposition does not. This is may be attributable to two possible factors. The first factor is concerned with the washback of tests (Alderson & Wall, 1993), a term referring to the influence of testing on language learning and teaching, because only argumentation writing is required every year in TEM8 (test for English learners, Band 8) which is the most important test for CUELs in China. Many CUELs learn English for tests in order to obtain good jobs. Consequently, their unbalanced genre knowledge between exposition and argumentation may be induced by their test strategies. The second factor is, developmentally speaking, exposition is acquired relatively late by students than other genres (Reppen & Biber, 1994). The sequential acquisition of genres may result in CUELs’ unbalanced knowledge of genres. In addition, knowledge of an early-acquired genre may be transferred onto a late-acquired one.

However, no matter in exposition or in argumentation, CUELs’ writings are more involved and less informational than NESs. In other words, their scores on dimension 1 are higher than NESs in both exposition and argumentation. A high score on this dimension means many linguistic features like private verbs, that deletion, contractions, second person pronouns, first person pronouns are used in the texts. All of these features are typical of spoken English. This result confirms some scholars’ conclusion (Wen, 2009; Pan, 2012) that Chinese English learners confused oral English with written English. However, if we take genre development into account, it would be justifiable to posit that this phenomenon is caused by genre transfer by students. According to Reppen and Biber (1994), genres of oral styles such as narratives are acquired by students relatively earlier. Because all the linguistic feature like first and second person pronouns (among other features) on dimension 1 with positive loadings are frequently used in narratives, it is probable that English learners transfer the genre knowledge of narration which they acquire earlier into exposition and argumentation.
Conclusion and Suggestions

This research investigates CUELs’ genre knowledge in writing regarding exposition and argumentation by making within-genre and cross-genre comparisons between Chinese university English learners and native English speakers. In terms of within-genre knowledge, CUELs’ expositions are less informational, less explicit, and less overtly persuasive than NESs. The text type is relegated to general narrative exposition which is different from NESs. With respect to argumentation, Chinese university English learners’ texts are more argumentative, more involved, more situation dependent, but less informational than native English speakers. However, despite these differences, English learners’ argumentation is grouped into the same text type (that is, involved argumentation) with native speakers. Therefore, despite their deficiency in genre knowledge of both types, CUELs have better genre knowledge in argumentation than in exposition.

When cross-genre contrast is made between NESs and CUELs. The latter fail to detect some common grounds between exposition and argumentation. The common grounds refer to that fact that there are no significant differences in the means of dimension 5 and dimension 6 across the two genres in NESs’ writing. Furthermore, the prototypical feature of CUELs is abstractness instead of explicitness as reflected in native speakers’ writing. The ignorance of common grounds between the two genres and the mismatch of prototypical features of exposition show that CUELs do not have sound cross-genre knowledge of exposition and argumentation.

In light of CUELs’ deficiency in genre knowledge, two suggestions are put forward in EFL teaching. First, English proficiency assessors in China should vary genres in tests including TEM8. A variety of genres in tests will diverge EFL learners’ attention equally to different genres so that their genre knowledge can be developed in a balanced way.

Second, genre-based approach should be encouraged in EFL writing instruction, especially at advanced levels. The genre-based approach maintains that writing instruction should offer students explicit and systematic explanations of the ways that language functions in social contexts (Hyland, 2003). By explaining to EFL learners how a group of co-occurring linguistic features, rather than any single discrete grammatical item, function to realize the communicative purpose under specific social context in writing instruction, EFL teachers can help learners establish the close connection between genres and their typical linguistic features in their minds. Take this research for example, to make up CUELs exposition genre knowledge, EFL teachers can explain explicitly to CUELs that the prototypical feature of exposition is explicitness which can be realized by resorting to those linguistic features on dimension 3 like nominalization and phrasal coordination (among other features) in the MA approach.

It is hoped that a combination of varying writing genres in tests and implementation of genre-based approach in EFL writing pedagogy may help CUELs build up solid genre knowledge so that they can communicate effectively under different social contexts through writing.

References


Abstract
One of the features of Qin’an dialect is plenty of “Er-ending” words, which can be used to combine with nominal, verbal, adjective, numeral, pronominal, adverbial, and auxiliary words, as well as words of quantity. The suffix “Er” in the Qin’an dialect mainly plays a role in word formation, lexical conversion, and meaning change, meanwhile, it can be also used to express a subjectively small amount and indicate a feeling of love and appreciation.

Keywords
Qin’an dialect; suffix Er (儿); meaning

Introduction
The study of er-emerging (儿化) and er-suffixation (儿尾) in Chinese dialects has long been one of the research hotspots and the prominent categories of modern Chinese (Guo, Z., 2018). Currently, the main research issues include the types and the meanings of er-emerging and er-suffixation, as well as the phonetic forms and decline of er-emerging. Research achievements focus on the phonetic forms of er-emerging, such as Danqing Liu (2013), Ming Shen (2003), Yanmei Shao & Qingyang Shi (2019) and Yonghuan Wu (2009). These representative researches mainly deal with some dialects with good attention, without further investigation of Chinese Northwest dialects. At present, there are relatively few studies analyzing the er-suffixation of Northwest dialects, most of which are described in separate works concerned with the phonetics and grammar of local dialects. Since the er-suffixation is abundant in the Qin’an dialect, carrying out a systematic and in-depth research of it not only enables us to better understand the features of the Qin’an dialect, but it enriches the er-suffixation study of Northwest dialects. Moreover, it provides a typological perspective for the study of Chinese dialects and thus, guides the teaching of Chinese as a foreign language. This thesis first introduces the location of Qin’an county and the origin of the Qin’an dialect, explaining its syntactic expression and the types. The thesis then provides a systematic description of the er-suffixation of the Qin’an dialect, including its syntax and exact meaning. This thesis finally concludes the characteristics and semantic functions of the er-suffixation of the Qin’an dialect. Theoretical and application values are also given at the end.

Qin’an is under the jurisdiction of Tianshui City, Gansu Province. It is located in the southeast of Gansu Province, north of Tianshui City. According to the Atlas of Chinese Language, the Qin’an dialect belongs to the Longzhong Section of Central Plains Mandarin. In the Qin’an dialect, “Er 儿” can be used alone or as a root in a word, or as a suffix. At the end of a word, “Er 儿” is not “er-ized (儿化)”, but as a separate syllable, called a combined suffix Er (儿) in Chinese dialects (Yuchi, Z., 1989). The suffix “Er” in the Qin’an dialect can be either a lexical word or a syntactic phenomenon, as it is in the Pingli dialect described by Zheng Zhou (2007). Secondly, the suffix “Er” may be used not only as the marker of numeral phrases, verbal phrases, and adjective phrases, etc. There are so many discussions on the “Er” suffix after a noun, and the suffix “Er” in the Qin’an dialect shows little difference from other northwestern dialects. Due to the limited space, the following words mainly describe the Er-ending words of other parts of speech.
The Suffix “Er” (儿) in Verbal Words

The suffix “Er” (儿) appears less in verbal words, and there are mainly two types:

A + “Er” (儿)

Monosyllable verbs followed by “Er” mainly appear in some specific syntactic structures, which include the following three main categories:

i. When a verb is modified by a numeral such as “一(one), 半(half), 几(few, little), 零(odd)”, several verbs can be followed by a suffix “Er” immediately, such as 一吃儿 (eat only a little food) | 几掸儿 (slight shaking) | 半缠儿下的脚 (feet not completely wrapped) | 零使儿的钱 (pocket money).

ii. When some verbs are modified by the adverb “渐”, they can be followed by “Er”, then “渐” means “slightly”, and “Er” here also means subjectively small amount, such as: 渐吃儿就饱了 (be full as soon as you eat) | 渐走儿就到了 (arrive at the destination as soon as you walk) | 渐学儿就会了 (master the knowledge as soon as you learn).

In the above two syntactic structures, “Er” together with the preceding modifiers indicates a small amount. Without this specific syntax form, these verbs do not have the suffix “Er”.

iii. In the format “连/加 V 带 V “, the latter verb followed by “Er” means that several actions and situations occur with each other, such as: 加饿带冻儿 (hungry and cold) | 连吃带喝儿 (eat while drinking) | 加摘带晒儿 (pick while drying). In spoken expressions, the suffix “Er” can be added or omitted, and “Er” here plays a role in expanding the sound. Meanwhile, the “Er” expresses the station that is easy to do.

AB+er

It is mostly “verb+object” structure. For example: 做伴儿 (accompany somebody) | 搭帮儿 (help) | 起炕儿 (get off from the kangs) | 瞅空儿 (look for favorable opportunities) | 游门儿 (drop in) | 款闲儿 (chat over). Among these examples, 起炕儿 游门儿, “Er” can be added or omitted, but it should be added in the rest of the examples. Here, the suffix “Er” plays a role in forming a word.

Other components can also be inserted between some of the verbs and objects, such as “帮唤忙儿 (help) | 带唤手儿 (do something conveniently) | 耐块脸儿 (have the cheek to do something) | 胀上气儿 (get angry)”. These “Er-ending” structures means subjective diminutive quantity.

The Suffix “Er”(儿) in Adjective Words

There are many types of structures which are adjectives with “Er”, mainly including the following five types:

A+er

There are three main types of monosyllable adjectives with the suffix “Er”:

i. 黄儿 (yellow) | 红儿 (red) | 黑儿 (black) | 绿儿 (green). These types of words are all words of color. When they are followed by “Er”, they often appear in the words with the modifier“沾”, which means “approximate”. The overall meaning is equivalent to “a bit A”.

ii. 壮儿 (thick) | 大儿 (big) | 长儿 (long) | 宽儿 (wide) | 高儿 (high). This type of word indicates the shape of the object. These words mainly appear when modified by such pronouns as “这儿(such)/兀儿(such)” and form the structure of “这儿/兀儿+A儿”. The A in this structure can only be an adjective with positive meaning, and “A+er “means a subjectively small amount”
这喔/兀喔”can be preceded by the adverb of degree “刚 (just)”, such as “那块衣裳刚那喔长
儿哇 (That dress is very short)”. If the speaker thinks that the described object is smaller or
shorter, the suffix “Er” is after A.

iii. 早儿 (early) | 热儿 (hot) | 亮儿 (cool) | 绿儿 (green). When the suffix “Er” appears together
with “趁”, such as “趁早儿上学 (go to school as early as possible) | 趁热儿吃饭(eat while hot)
| 趁亮儿回家(get home before the sky gets dark)”, these A type adjectives themselves are
independent words. The suffix “Er” tends to be used in spoken expressions, and “Er” plays a role
in expanding the sound. Meanwhile, the structure shows a favorite emotion and the certain
condition under which can do certain things.

iv. 昏儿 (dizzy) | 疼儿 (pain). When the suffix “Er” appears in the word that is modified by
“慢、一、几”, it means a slight degree. Examples are: “慢昏儿(a little dizzy) | 慢疼儿(a little
painful)|一疼儿 (slight sting)”.

**AA+er**

There are many adjectives with the suffix “Er” after A reiterated. That is, the word formation with A
reiterated and the suffix “Er” added is mainly used to describe traits and has the effect of increasing the
degree of description (Li, R., 2001; Zhou, Z. 2007). In some other dialects, the suffix “zi” can be added in
this case too, such as Pingli dialect in Shanxi (Zhou, Z., 2007). The role of “Er” is to form words or lexical
conversion.

Most of adjective forms of “AA+er” are adjectives of state, used as predicates in sentences. They often
appear in the form of “AA 儿的”, where “的” here is an auxiliary word. In spoken language, “儿” can be
replaced by “个”. “儿” can be omitted when there is “的” in a sentence. “A” here is a formed morpheme.
Examples are: 好好儿 (well) | 干干儿 (dry) | 软软儿 (soft) | 轻轻儿 (lightly) | 近近儿 (near) 饱饱儿
(full); 满满儿 (brimful); 细细儿 (thin); 亮亮儿 (bright); 湿湿儿 (wet); “A” can also be an unformed
morpheme, such as 悄悄儿 (quiet); 静静儿 (silent); 茸茸儿 (fluffy); and it can be a verb morpheme, like
cui 催催儿 (be in a hurry to do sth), and etc.

Here, 催催儿 is usually used as the adverbial; and 死死儿 (to express a high degree) is used as the
adverbial and complement, but 拿拿儿 (be skillful/good at) and 住住儿 (still, motionless) can only be
used as the complement.

It should be noted that some nominal phrases, “AA+Er”, also have the functions of adjectives. They
can be used as predicates and attributives in sentences to describe the appearance and state of things. For
instance,椭椭儿馍馍 (round bun) | 团团儿线 (sewing-thread); 末末儿盐 (powder salt). These types of
nominal parts should be distinguished in practical analysis.

**AB+er**

This type of word formation mainly has the following categories:

First, the words with the suffix “Er” distinguishing part of speech, such as 头刀儿二刀儿 which
respectively refer to the first harvest and the second. Second, the adjective words with the suffix “Er”,
mainly including 一号儿 (such, like this); 一样儿 (the same); 唯意儿 (slightly); 半大儿 (medium-
sized); 个把儿 (a small handful of); 胆小儿 (cowardly); 半大儿 (medium-sized); 两碰儿 (ambiguous); 上渐儿 (continuous
like water drops); 离根儿 (detachment of the root of an object); 两和儿 (two types of things blend
together). It shows that it mainly attaches to words or morphemes that express a small amount such as “半
(half), 一 (one), 两 (two), and “个把儿 indicating an insufficient amount.
**ABB+er**

According to the difference in word formation, it can be divided into two categories. First, A+BB+er, such as 细根根儿 (thin, slender) | 花点点儿 (colored dots). A is a formed morpheme, and “ABB+er” is used as an attributive or predicate in a sentence to describe the shape or nature of things. The suffix “Er” cannot be omitted and plays a role in word forming. Second, ABB+er here ABB is an adjective, such as “年轻轻儿 (young)”. In the two expressions, whether the suffix “Er” is added or omitted does not change the meaning. These structures are all express subjective quantity of diminutive.

**A+er+B+er**

Examples are 拦儿咣儿 (block) | 捞儿挛儿 (be busying doing) | 舒儿服儿 (comfortable) | 干儿散儿 (come straight to the point without the slightest hesitation) | 利儿享儿 (smoothly) | 轻儿便儿 (light, portable) | 高儿兴儿 (glad, happy) | 丰儿盛儿 (sumptuous) | 准儿确儿 (accurate, exact, precise) | 消儿缓儿 (take it easy). Among these words, “AB” is an independent word; “A” and “B” semantically represent the same or similar meanings and are joint word formations. 拦儿咣儿” can be expressed as”挡挡咣咣”. 捞孪” itself is a verb, which means “set out to do”. 捞儿挛儿” is an adjective, which means doing something in a hurry. “舒服、高兴、轻便” are all adjectives. Each morpheme followed by “Er” is equivalent to the meaning and function of its reiterative form.

In addition, in such examples like “圆年老儿 (a middle-age person with a round face) | 狼汤波儿 (in a mess) | 该齐排儿 (in a certain order) | 猪嘴狗流儿 (to describe a person as ugly ) | 大头小尾儿 (to describe something with big front and small back)”, the suffix “er” plays a role in word formation, but has no practical meaning.

**Words of Quantity with the Suffix “Er”**

The situation “er” after the quantifier is limited to the following two forms:

1. Nominal quantifier with the suffix “Er”. Here are the examples: “尺儿 (a unit of length) | 斤儿 (half kilogram) | 些儿 (few, little) | 天儿 (day) | 包儿 (quantifier for package) | 圈儿 (quantifier for round things) | 椭儿 (quantifier for ellipse things) | 牙儿 (quantifier for lumps, such as moon) | 根儿 (quantifier for things with stick shape) | 层儿 (quantifier for layered things) | 扇儿 (quantifier for fan-shaped things). Among these examples, the words representing the shape like 椭儿 | 牙儿 | 根儿 | 层儿 | 扇儿 can also appear in reiterative form and form the format “AA+er”, such as 一摊摊儿血 (a pool of blood) | 几椭椭儿地 (several fields) | 几扇扇儿门 (several doors) | 几牙牙儿瓜 (several watermelons).

In addition, most of nouns representing containers can be used as quantifiers, such as | 罐罐儿 (jar) | 瓶瓶儿 (bottle) | 罐盏儿 (handle less cup) | 笼笼儿 (basket) | 口袋儿 (pocket) | 桶桶儿 (bucket). The reiterative form “AA+er” can appear in the form of “A+er”, and there is no difference in meaning.

2. Verbal quantifiers with the suffix “Er”, for instance: 歇儿 (a while, quantifier for shoot action) | 回儿 (quantifier for reciprocating movement) | 阵儿 (a while, quantifier for shoot action) | 顿儿 (quantifier for food).

Words of quantity with the suffix “Er”, and in most senses, indicate a subjectively small amount. They mainly appear in the case of being modified by such numerals as “半 (half), 一 (one), 二 (two), 三 (three), 几 (few)”, and “一” can be omitted. If the quantity of the thing described is large or the thing itself is a relatively large, the quantifiers cannot end with the suffix “Er” or “Zi”. In contrast, in the quantifiers with the suffix “zi”, putting a stress on the quantifiers indicates a sufficient or even excessive amount (Wang, T., 2001; Guo, H., 2007). Some examples are as follows:
一包儿饼干 (a packet of biscuits) → 几包儿饼干 (several big bag biscuits)
几颗儿药 (a few pill) → 十几颗儿药 (more than ten pills)
几框儿苹果 (a few small boxes of apples) → 几框儿苹果 (several boxes apples)
下了一阵儿雨 (It rained for a while) → 下了阵子雨 (It rained heavily for a while)
几天儿就吃了咾 (It's over in a few days) → 来咾十几天咾 (I've been home for more than ten days)

The suffix “Er” after some quantifiers has no practical meaning, which mainly plays a role in expanding the sound. For instance:
一盒儿洋火 (a box of matches) → 一盒洋火
半截儿布布儿 (half cloth) → 半截儿布布儿

**Words of Other Part of Speech with the Suffix “Er”**

In addition, “Er” can be used after numerals, pronouns, adverbs, and auxiliary words. And some instances are as follows:

1. **Numerals with the suffix “Er”.** These cases are limited to several examples like 百儿 (one hundred) | 千儿 (thousand) | 万儿 (ten thousand), and the preceding modifiers should be “两 (two), 三 (three), 几 (few)”, which indicates a small amount, such as 几百儿元 (few hundred dollars) | 几千儿斤 (several thousand kilogram). The suffix “Er” after the number indicates a subjectively small amount. If the speaker thinks that “几百、几千” is a subjectively large amount, then “Er” cannot be followed by “百、千”.

2. **Pronouns with the suffix “Er”.** There are three main types of pronouns followed by “Er”. The pronouns refer to a place like “这搭儿 (here) | 兀搭儿 (there) | 哈搭儿 (everywhere) | 阿搭儿 (where)”; and the pronouns refer to anything like “事事么儿 (everything) | 信啥么儿 (anything) | 这儿兀儿 (trifles)”; the pronouns refer to a kind of thing like “捏咾这样儿、忘咾兀样儿 (got this and forgot that)”. For the first type, the suffix “Er” can be deleted without affecting the meaning. It is customary to add “Er” in the spoken language, and it has the function of sound expansion. As for the second and third, the suffix “Er” cannot be deleted as it plays a role in word formation.

3. **Adverbial words with the suffix “Er” are mainly adverbial words that describe the outlook of characters, such as 由性儿 (to ones hearts content) | 尽命儿 (at full split) | 并扁儿 (side by side) | 就地儿 (on the spot) | 仰躺儿 (lie on one’s back) | 顺路儿 (on the way). The adverbial words that describe a continuous state, such as 连连儿 (repeatedly) | 一劲儿 (continuously) | 一渐儿 (continuously) | 上渐儿 (continuously), and other adverbial words like 一心儿 (with complete faith) | 余续儿 (gradually) | 顺路儿 (on the way) | 一便儿 (by the way) | 一手儿 (with one’s own hands) | 一余儿 (generally) | 麻莫儿 (approximately). Among these, 尽命儿 | 余续儿 | 顺路儿 | 一便儿 | 一手儿 tend to end with the suffix “Er” in spoken language. “Er” here has the role of expanding the sound, and the suffix “Er” in other examples cannot be omitted as it plays a role in word formation.

4. **Auxiliary words with the suffix “Er”.** The suffix “Er” can be appended to “唒” like “唒儿、啾啾儿”, where “啾啾” is a combination sound of “一下”. It means a short moment with the suffix “Er” which indicates a subjectively small amount and weak tone, such as 曹谝啾啾再唒儿 (Let’s talk before we go) | 你缓啦啾儿把这一牙儿瓜吃了 (please eat this watermelon after you have a rest) | 你把心上的气消啾啾儿 (please calm down).
Conclusion and Implications

To sum up, the suffix “Er” is one of high-frequency words in the Qin’an dialect and can be used to combine with nominal, verbal, adjective, numeral, pronominal, adverbial, auxiliary words, and words of quantity, most of which are frequently used in nominal morphemes. The “Er” in Qin’an dialect plays a role in word formation, lexical conversion, and meaning change, meanwhile, it can be also used to express a subjectively small amount and indicate a feeling of love and appreciation. However, nowadays, the young generation, compared with the elderly, rarely uses the suffix “Er” in their spoken language, especially when “Er” plays a role in sound expansion.

Danqing Liu (2013) and Zhong Guo (2018) point out the suffix “Er” is the main marking means to express diminutive in Chinese, which mainly is nominal and adjective. “the diminutive quantifiers indicate that the unit of the thing is smaller than similar units”, “the purpose of these diminutive quantifiers is to indicate a smaller amount of the things, that is, the ‘er-ized’ (儿化) and the suffix ‘zi’ are the ways of phrase formation, and the whole additional grammatical meaning belongs to the entire phrase” (Shi, Q., 1997). To see from the above description, in the Qin’an dialect, the verb, numeral, pronoun, adverb, and particle suffix “Er” is a method to form a phrase, and most of the situation of Er-ending words are under the limitation to certain syntactic category. The modifiers in front of the “Er” are less than ten cardinal numerals, the pronoun “this” “that” and the adjectives “small” or “broken”, etc. Or in a certain construction, such as “add…” In other words, syntactic means are a form of strengthening the expression of diminutive, which cannot be counted as a diminutive in the lexical category strictly. It is worth noting that some of the suffix “Er” in the syntactic category have been deposited into the lexicography, such as “事事么儿 (everything), 这儿兀儿 (trifles), 轻儿便儿 (light, portable, handy)”. Here, the suffix “Er” has the function of word formation as well as the symbol of diminutive. The above phenomena are of positive significance for further understanding the types of Er-ending word and clarifying the means of expression of diminutive in Chinese dialects.

The retroflex suffixation is not only a distinctive feature in Mandarin, but also an inevitable teaching content in the TCSOL. The foreign beginners often think it difficult to learn, so that they tend to take an evasive attitude towards it. In combination with Chinese dialects, the evolution of retroflex suffixation is a dynamic process. Some dialects like the Beijing dialect has retroflex suffixation, while others don’t, like the Qin’an dialect. It can also enlighten us that in the process of TCSOL, a teacher can tell her students that “Er” occupies a syllable position in the Chinese dialect. In this way, students’ pronunciation is measured not by right or wrong, but by whether it is standard or not, which can increase students’ confidence in learning, make students understand the differences of Chinese dialects, and stimulate students’ interest in learning. This method plays a more significant role in the TCSOL of northwest region.

In addition, although the retroflex suffixation in the Chinese dialect is complicated, there are some rules to follow. This thesis considers that the meanings of retroflex suffixation, such as diminutive, nickname, conversion of parts of speech and so on, have obvious differences in syntactic meanings among different denotations. For instance, in “小份儿 (smaller portion), 小门儿 (small door)”, the diminutive words will be added before “Er”. According to this rule, the principle of combining syntax with semantics should be implemented in actual Chinese teaching. Teachers should analyze the syntactic conditions of a retroflex suffixation and then summarize its meaning, so as to yield twice the result with half the effort in the future teaching.
References
Projection of Hybridized Destination Images
– A Comparative Study on Hong Kong and Guangzhou’s Promotion Films

Luo Jinru
Nanfang College of Sun Yat-sen University, Guangzhou, China
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong
Email: jin.ru.luo@connect.polyu.hk

[Abstract] This study has compared the destination images between Hong Kong and Guangzhou from a glocalization perspective. This author has combined a framework used in advertising studies and a new conceptualization of destination image to revise a new framework to analyze the multi-modal discourse data in the two cities’ latest promotion films, from value, language and audio-visual perspectives. Through content analysis, it is found that Hong Kong’ promotion films demonstrate a higher degree of globalization features while Guangzhou’ promotion films present more appeals of locality. Although both cities share similar strategies in projecting an image of hybridity between sameness and variation and between globalization and local appeals in their films, different branding is their focus. Hong Kong emphasizes projections in cultural innovation with fashion and pop culture as representatives, while Guangzhou emphasizes projections in Chinese cultural attractions and technology innovation.

[Keywords] media studies, Hong Kong, Guangzhou, destination images, multi-modal discourse

Introduction

Background of the Study
The collaboration between Hong Kong and Guangzhou has always existed. But it was not until 2017 that their collaboration in depth and with multi-dimensions began to be implemented. In 2017, the framework for implementing the Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macau Greater Bay Area (GBA) was signed in Hong Kong, signifying the formal beginning of collaboration between cities in GBA in new and deeper ways, in which Hong Kong, Macau and nine cities in Guangdong, including Guangzhou and Shenzhen cooperate as one urban agglomeration to compete in the world stage. The major task of this framework is to construct Hong Kong, Macau, Guangzhou and Shenzhen together as a first-rate center for technology innovation. As a result of this framework, the cities have adjusted and will continue to adjust their positioning, accordingly, taking their sameness and variations into consideration. Many forums, conferences and discussions have been held with regard to positioning of different member cities. For example, a special session in the Bo’ao Forum (2018) was dedicated to it. Therefore, more comparative studies are needed to reflect on how these cities position and promote themselves.

Theorizing Glocalization
Among the four cities, Hong Kong and Guangzhou have often been compared, because of their closeness both in terms of location and culture. Hong Kong has always been renowned for being where the East meets the West, while Guangzhou has long been regarded as China’s south gate to the outside world. The two cities have provided room for hybridity of cultures and witnessed the push and pull between the global and local elements, thus demonstrating a certain degree of glo-localization.
Although globalization has been widely acknowledged and researched upon for decades, glocalization as a concept derived from globalization has not been widely theorized so as to differentiate itself from globalization and researched upon. The concept was first introduced by Robertson (1995) and focused on particularizing the universal and universalizing the particular. Other scholars have also offered their theorizations from different perspectives. For example, Ritzer (2004) offered a competing theorization of glocalization, in which glocalization refers to cultural heterogeneity in the process of globalization, occupying one pole of the continuum of globalization, whereas the other pole is “grobalization”, referring to cultural diversities being standardized for the sake of profit growth (Ritzer, & Ritzer, 2012, p. 803). In Ritzer’s idea, glocalization is often overwhelmed by grobalization for the sake of profit gaining. From a sociological point of view, Bauman (2013) considered glocalization as local big cities performing as experimental places for resolution of global problems which inevitably involve hybridity between the global and the local, in which localities are becoming more important. Although these scholars have offered different and even competing theorizations of glocalization, they have all converged on the tension between the global and the local elements. Their theories reflect different degrees of this tension, which are analogous to what Wang (2000) proposed for terming different patterns of glocalization: Scenario 1, strong global elements with weak local elements; Scenario 2, a balance between global and local elements; Scenario 3, weak global elements with strong local elements.

**Niche in Research**

Currently, related studies on GBA on phenomena of glocalization can be identified from two fields, in which Hong Kong is a popular research object for its juxtaposition of the West and the East. The first field includes city governance and institution practices. For instance, a comparison between Hong Kong and Singapore as Asian hub port cities (Lee, & Decruet, 2009), and between Hong Kong and Taiwan concerning strategies on building age-friendly cities (Sun, et al., 2017). The other field is cultural hybridity or appropriation, for example, a study on appropriation of the Japanese Kawaii culture in Hong Kong youth culture (Yiu, & Chan, 2013) and quite a few studies on Disney’s appropriation or adaptation in Cultural China (Matusitz, 2009; Tian, & Xiong, 2013). Furthermore, studies on cultural hybridity have also involved researches on advertising (Feng, & Wu, 2007; Lee, & So, 2007), and on the tension between the global/Western and the local/Chinese elements in discourses of Cultural China (Flowerdew, 1997; Wang, 2000; Chen, & Ma, 2001; Gu, 2001; Guo, & Huang, 2002; Wu, 2008b). Most of the studies of the second type have only focused on either cultural contents or discourse; only a few have combined researches on both cultural contents and discourses (Wu, 2008a). Since Bauman (2013) pointed out that big cities are gaining more weight in the process of glocalization, more attention should be given to big cities. Thus, more multi-dimensional and interdisciplinary studies should center around big cities, for example, to combine researches on institution practice in cities with cultural hybridity.

**Research Framework and Methods**

**Concept of Destination Image**

This study compares the destination images of Hong Kong and Guangzhou from a glocalization perspective. The concept of image of a place was first put forward by Kotler and Andreasen (1991) to refer to people’s opinions and impressions of a place. Then the concept was applied in researches of different fields, for example, in city branding (Shen, 2010; Guthrie, 2012; Chan, & Marafa, 2014; 2015; 2016; Ho, & Suen, 2017). Some other researches have focused on destination images. Destination image is a complex concept...
which includes a projected perspective and a perceived perspective (Zavattaro, 2012). For some scholars, it meant individuals’ destination representation (Dolnicar & Grün, 2013). For others, it was a mental construct that was the product of destination imagery and destination affect (Kocka, Josiassena & Assaf, 2016). Recent studies on destination image tend to focus more on the perceived perspective, investigating the cognitive process of how destination image was formed and how destination influenced tourists’ behaviors (Hoque, 2016; Lee, & Bai, 2016; Foroudi, et al., 2018). This study focuses on projected destination images as end products of media representation, for the projected destination image is directly related to city positioning and branding in GBA. It adopts the conceptualization by Foroudi, et al. (2018), who recognized the destination image as people’s “beliefs, feelings, conceptions, knowledge, imaginations, emotional thoughts, ideas, and impressions” about a certain destination, with regard to its “accessibility, quality of accommodation, cultural diversity, cultural and historical attraction, general level of services and exoticness” (Foroudi, et al., 2018, pp. 98, 100), which can be represented as different appeals coded by “organic”, “induced”, or “autonomous agents” in media productions (Lee, & Bai, 2016, p. 161).

Data and Research Questions
The objects for this research include two promotion films in 2017 issued separately by the Hong Kong Tourism Board and Guangzhou’s Tourism Bureau, which can be classified as induced agents according to Lee and Bai (2016). The two short films were chosen firstly because they are the latest films that can reflect the two cities’ latest branding, and secondly, because they are the most widely watched on social media like YouTube and YouKu. They were compared to explore the similar and different patterns of glocalization between these two cities in branding and projecting themselves as destinations in the GBA. Two other films before 2017, the Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2014 and Guangzhou’s promotion film in 2015 were also chosen to compare with the two films in 2017, respectively, so as to investigate how Hong Kong and Guangzhou have changed in projecting their destinations images when facing the social event in 2017. The two previous films were chosen firstly because of their similar time length. Secondly, the Hong Kong promotion film in 2014 was chosen because this was the latest film before the GBA concept was officialized. Guangzhou’s promotion film in 2015 was chosen because there was no official promotion film available in 2014. The focus of this study includes similarities and differences between the two cities’ destination images and similarities and differences between the changes they have made in the promotion films. The research questions are as follows:

**RQ 1:** From a glocalization perspective, in what ways are the two cities similar in their projected destination images in 2017?

**RQ 2:** From a glocalization perspective, in what ways are they different in their projected destination images in 2017?

**RQ 3:** What changes have been made in the two cities’ promotion films in 2017 when compared to their previous ones?

**RQ 4:** What are their key strategies in image projection?

Research Framework
Because this study investigates the destination image projected by induced agents as different appeals in promotion films that are similar to commercials, it borrows from Wu’s (2008a) approach in analyzing advertising appeals, with some revisions according to the conceptualization of destination image by Foroudi,
et al. (2018). Three dimensions of global versus local appeals have been investigated. They are value appeals, linguistic appeals and audio-visual appeals.

In value appeals, the framework by Cheng and Schweitzer (1996) and Zhang and Harwood (2004) have been combined and adapted for analysis of the present data. The global/Western/modern values (hereafter referred as global values appeals) include “individualism”, “competition”, “modernity”, “science/technology”, “beauty/fashion”, “youth”, “pleasure/leisure”, and “materialism”. The traditional Chinese values with Confucianism as its core have been taken as representatives for local/Eastern/traditional value appeals (hereafter referred as local value appeals), including values for “collectivism”, “tradition”, “courtesy”, “respect for the elderly”, “family”, “health”, “naturalness/oneness with nature”, and “education”.

In language appeals, the global/Western/modern appeals (hereafter referred as global appeals) refer to the use of English as lingua franca or standard language across nations, while the use of Chinese as a special or regional medium reflects the local/Eastern/traditional appeals (hereafter referred as local appeals). The language appeals have been displayed in the following ways:
1. in titles and subtitles,
2. in visual signs,
3. in voice over, and
4. utterance by characters.

In audio-visual appeals, the global appeals refer to the use of
1. Western models and celebrities,
2. Western settings and artifacts, including music, and
3. standard international practice.

Standard international practice refers the practice shown via audio or visual means that are related to city destinations and common or standard across nations, for example, a standard reception hall or a lobby café. The local appeals refer to the use of
1. Chinese models and celebrities,
2. Chinese settings and artifacts including Chinese folk or classical music and,
3. unique exoticness.

Unique exoticness refers to the unparalleled nature and specific aspect of a culture or place (excluding music) developed in modern times. It is different from “traditional” in value appeals, for “traditional” denotes a historical perspective.

Content analysis has been applied to analyze the data. The most prominent appeals of each scene have been coded, yet, double coding has also been allowed for scenes bearing strongly relevant features. The numbers of codes have been calculated. Because the promotion films are not equal in time length (about one minute for the two of Hong Kong, five minutes for Guangzhou’s films), the percentages of different appeals based on numbers of codes have been used for analysis.

### Results and Discussion

Although the objects for research are destination images in promotion films, the purpose of these media productions are often multi-fold and tourists are not the only audience, therefore the discussion of results combines interpretations from different dimensions.
**Overall Patterns of Glocalization**

As shown in Table 1, for Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2017, the percentage of overall global appeals is 65.625, while the percentage of overall local appeals is 34.375. The distribution between overall global and local appeals can be classified as Wang’s Scenario 1 (2000), strong global features with weak local elements. In comparison, for Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2014, the percentage of overall global appeals is 44.737, while the percentage of overall local appeals is 55.263. The distribution between overall global and local appeals is close to a balance, which can be roughly classified as Wang’s Scenario 2 (2000), a balance between the global and local elements. In terms of changes from 2014 to 2017, Hong Kong’s promotion films display an overall trend towards globalization.

As for Guangzhou, the percentage of overall global appeals in promotion film in 2017 is 41.818, for local appeals, 58.182. The distribution is relatively close to a balance, so it can be classified as close to Wang’s Scenario 2 (2000), a balance between the global and local elements. For Guangzhou’s promotion film in 2015, the percentage of overall global appeals is 35.052, for local appeals, 64.948. The distribution of overall global and local appeals can be classified as Wang’s Scenario 3 (2000), weak global features with strong local elements. In terms of changes from 2015 to 2017, Guangzhou’s promotion films display a move away from locality towards globalization.

**Table 1. Overall Patterns of Glocalization**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promotion films</th>
<th>Numbers and percentages of global appeals</th>
<th>Numbers and percentages of local appeals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong (2017)</td>
<td>42 (65.625)</td>
<td>22 (34.375)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong (2014)</td>
<td>34 (44.737)</td>
<td>42 (55.263)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guangzhou (2017)</td>
<td>46 (41.818)</td>
<td>64 (58.182)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guangzhou (2015)</td>
<td>68 (35.052)</td>
<td>126 (64.948)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Notes: Figures in parentheses are percentage.*

**Figure 1. Changing Trends of Scenarios**

In general, as shown in Figure 1, both Hong Kong (the green spots) and Guangzhou (the red spots) demonstrate a similar trend moving towards greater degrees of globalization in their promotion films. On the one hand, this could be a reflection of the collaborative basis for the two cities to cooperate as one city cluster. For example, Hong Kong and Guangzhou are often regarded as closely connected destinations, which is shown on both of their official tourism websites. On the other, the similar trend towards globalization could also reflect the two cities’ synchronous efforts to construct one urban agglomeration in which globalized standards serve as an indicator of accessibility and development, not only for tourism but also for other purposes, for example, business. However, from the different patterns of glocalization, it can be seen that Hong Kong demonstrates a higher degree of globalization, while Guangzhou still focuses on...
local features, even though this focus is gradually giving way to global standards. This difference is related to different brandings of the two cities in tradition. Hong Kong has been branded as an “Asian’s World City”, which foregrounds its position as an international cosmopolitan, while Guangzhou has been branded as “China’s south gate to the world”, which foregrounds its position first and foremost as a city in China.

Similarities between Hong Kong and Guangzhou

There are not many similarities between Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2017 and Guangzhou’s promotion film in 2017 in the three different appeals. They share only one feature in common, that is, the presentation of a modern city and transport, for example, skyscrapers (see Figure 2 and Figure 3) and convenient modern transport such as the subway for Hong Kong (see Figure 4) or Young Tram for Guangzhou (see Figure 5).

This presentation of modernity is closely related to destination accessibility, which is an important part of destination image according to Foroudi, et al. (2018). Therefore, it is a must for media projection of destination image, especially for Hong Kong and Guangzhou if they want to promote themselves as one urban agglomeration.

![Figure 2. Skyscraper in Hong Kong](image2.png)

![Figure 3. Skyscraper in Guangzhou](image3.png)

![Figure 4. Subway in Hong Kong](image4.png)

![Figure 5. Young Tram in Guangzhou](image5.png)

However, if the changes made in promotion films are taken into consideration, the two cities share quite a few similarities. To begin with, both cities display an overall trend towards more global appeals, as aforementioned. Secondly, the two cities present an increase in “modernity” in value appeals, both by more than 5%, as reflected in Table 2. Modernity and accessibility in relation to it, are not only important for tourism but also for business and technology innovation. Since the major task of the GBA framework is to construct Hong Kong, Macau, Guangzhou and Shenzhen together as a first-rate center for technology innovation, modernity as a foundation for technology innovation should be highlighted. The increase of projections of modernity in both promotion films in 2017 reflect this feature accordingly. Thirdly, there are increases in appeals of “standard international practice” in both cities’ image projections, by 2% for Hong Kong and 5.6% for Guangzhou, as shown in Table 2. Standard international practice refers to standards or practices in destinations (reflected via audio-visual means) that are common across nations. For similar reasons, this appeal is related to accessibility, quality of accommodation and general level of service, which
are all the makings of a destination image (Foroudi, et al., 2018). Such an increase projects not only a tourist-friendly image, but also a move towards universality. Fourthly, there are more scenes with English in the visual signs, an increase by 7.5% for Hong Kong and 5.45% for Guangzhou as reflected in Table 2, which also reveals a raising level of globalization. In general, these four kinds of increases reflect a trend towards greater degrees of globalization.

Yet, there are not only increases in global appeals. There are also increases in local appeals. Firstly, there are increases in appeals of a “Chinese setting and artifact including music” in both promotion films in 2017, by 2.3% for Hong Kong and 1.3% for Guangzhou, as reflected in Table 2. There is also an increase in “respect for the elderly” in value appeals, by 1.56% for Hong Kong and 2.09% for Guangzhou. These two kinds of increases help reinforce the local/Chinese appeals, which are the regional and cultural sameness shared by the two cities. This sameness serves not only as their cultural attraction and exoticness in their destination images but also as reflection of their closeness and basis for collaboration as a whole.

Table 2. Distribution of Different Appeals (Percentage)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Global Value Appeals</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualism</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.6316</td>
<td>0.5155</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition</td>
<td>2.6316</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modernity</td>
<td>3.9474</td>
<td>9.375</td>
<td>3.0928</td>
<td>8.18182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>science/technology</td>
<td>2.6316</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.0309</td>
<td>8.18182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beauty/fashion</td>
<td>2.6316</td>
<td>17.19</td>
<td>0.5155</td>
<td>0.90909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youth</td>
<td>1.3158</td>
<td>1.563</td>
<td>2.0619</td>
<td>1.81818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasure/Leisure</td>
<td>6.5789</td>
<td>3.125</td>
<td>4.1237</td>
<td>4.54545</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Materialism</td>
<td>1.3158</td>
<td>1.563</td>
<td>1.5464</td>
<td>1.81818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local Value Appeals</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collectivism</td>
<td>6.5789</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.5773</td>
<td>2.72727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tradition</td>
<td>9.2105</td>
<td>1.563</td>
<td>9.7938</td>
<td>11.8182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Courtesy</td>
<td>1.3158</td>
<td>3.125</td>
<td>0.5155</td>
<td>2.72727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect for the elderly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.563</td>
<td>9.7938</td>
<td>11.8182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>1.3158</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.5155</td>
<td>0.90909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Naturalness</td>
<td>5.2632</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>11.856</td>
<td>5.45455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.5155</td>
<td>1.81818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Global Value Appeals</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (subtitles/titles)</td>
<td>2.6316</td>
<td>3.125</td>
<td>18.041</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (in visual signs)</td>
<td>6.5789</td>
<td>14.06</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.45455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (voice over)</td>
<td>1.3158</td>
<td>1.563</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (utterance by characters)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.563</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Local Language Appeals</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese (subtitles/titles)</td>
<td>2.6316</td>
<td>1.563</td>
<td>18.041</td>
<td>3.63636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese (in visual signs)</td>
<td>5.2632</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>1.5464</td>
<td>0.90909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese (voice over)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese (speech by characters)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Global Audio-Visual Appeals</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western models and celebrities</td>
<td>5.2632</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.5464</td>
<td>1.81818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Western setting and artifacts, including music</td>
<td>5.2632</td>
<td>3.125</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.9999</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard international practice</td>
<td>2.6316</td>
<td>4.688</td>
<td>2.5773</td>
<td>8.18182</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Distribution of Different Appeals (Percentage) (continued…)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Local Audio-Visual Appeals</th>
<th>5.2632</th>
<th>3.125</th>
<th>7.2165</th>
<th>10.9091</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese models and celebrities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese setting and artifacts, including music</td>
<td>3.9474</td>
<td>6.25</td>
<td>4.1237</td>
<td>5.45455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unique exoticness</td>
<td>14.474</td>
<td>10.94</td>
<td>6.701</td>
<td>12.7273</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Differences between Hong Kong and Guangzhou**

Although the two cities’ synchronous efforts to project closeness and collaborative sameness in their destination images are quite obvious, there are significant differences in their promotion films in 2017 and also in the changes that have been made in the films.

**Hong Kong: A Global City of Cultural Innovation.** The biggest difference in Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2017 is a strong emphasis on fashion. There are recurrent scenes like fashion brands, clothes, shoes, models, and designs (see Figures 6 and 7), which take up 17.19% of the whole content of the film, as revealed in Table 2. This strong emphasis is partly because Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2017 is featured with a more specialized focus. This specialization proves in return that Hong Kong does have a strength in fashion, which is related to Hong Kong’s reputation and branding as an Asian city of fashion. Fashion is an important part of Hong Kong’s strength in cultural innovation.

Other differences presented in Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2017 include the use of an English voice over, utterances in English by characters (Eason Chan) and fast-paced Western music. These unique features demonstrate a significant degree of dynamic globalization, higher than that of Guangzhou.

In projecting an image of cultural innovation, some changes have been made in the promotion film in 2017. Firstly, the highlight on pop culture has not been touched upon in Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2014. Yet in the one in 2017, the pop singer Eason Chan (see Figure 8), who has a large number of fans all over Asia, has become one part of the strategic projection of Hong Kong’s cultural highlights. Eason is the second most important character in the film in terms of time length. Apart from the voice over, he is the only character who speaks in the film. Using Eason as a cultural icon can help to reinforce positive cultural
experiences. Secondly, there is a decrease of other forms of “pleasure and leisure” appeals in the promotion film in 2017 when compared to the one in 2014, by 3.5% as shown in Table 2. Only pop culture and a pop concert (see Figure 9) have been projected as representations of this part of value appeals in 2017. The projection of pop culture with Eason Chan – the Asian icon as the representative recognizes pop culture’s function as an autonomous agent for destination image promotion (Lee & Bai, 2016). Eason Chan as the representative also speaks to the Asian people figuratively and relates to Hong Kong’s long-standing positioning as an “Asian’s World City” in all of its promotion films. The combination of fashion and pop culture in destination image foregrounds Hong Kong’s image as a city for cultural innovation.

**Guangzhou: a Chinese City of Technology Advancement.** Compared to Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2017, Guangzhou’s promotion film in 2017 has its own unique emphases on health, naturalness and education, which have not been touched upon by the one of Hong Kong. For example, there are scenes like herbal medicine (see Figure 10), Guangzhou Marathon (see Figure 11), flowers and green parkway (see Figure 12), and the traditional Chinese class (see Figure 13), which are all related to Guangzhou’s city development and branding in recent years. Herbal medicine or herbal tea is popular in Guangzhou, which is part of the makings of unique local Canton culture. The Guangzhou Marathon has been an international event for several years, which helps Guangzhou attract global attention. Flowers and green parkway are a reflection of Guangzhou’s long-standing reputation as a “Flower City”. The traditional Chinese class is a form of school-opening ceremony popular among the Guangzhou schools nowadays. These emphases highlight the appeals of local values, probably because Guangzhou is projected first and foremost as a city in China. The interchange of soft and fast-paced Chinese folk music (*Colorful Clouds Chasing the Moon*) as the background music also helps to reinforce the Chinese traditional cultural attractions.

When compared to its previous one in 2015, it is found that changes have also been made in Guangzhou’s promotion film in 2017 to foreground the Chinese feature of the city. There are increasing projections of “tradition” in local value appeals (by about 2%) and “unique exoticness” (by about 6%), as reflected in Table 2.
On the other hand, the biggest difference in the changes made in Guangzhou’s promotion film in 2017 is an increasing projection of “technology” in the global value appeals. As revealed in Table 2, the representation of “technology” has increased by about 7.15% when compared to the previous film in 2015, which ranks the first among all the changes made. Furthermore, the technology-related contents take up the third largest percentage of the whole film in 2017. This projection of “technology” appeals is realized by increasing scenes like unmanned aerial vehicles (see Figure 14), Young Tram (see Figure 5), cloud computing system (see Figure 15), automatic manufacturing machines (see Figure 16), and advanced logistics system (see Figure 17), etc. The increasing scenes of technology reflect Guangzhou’s different branding from Hong Kong in that Guangzhou positions itself as a center for technology innovation, which could be an echo of the major task of the GBA framework.

**Discussion: Projection Strategies**

From the results and discussions above, it can be concluded that both Hong Kong and Guangzhou share similar key projection strategies, that is, to project a hybridized destination image, a hybridization of global modernity and local attractions. In projecting value appeals, both cities’ promotion films in 2017 display an obviously similar technique: presentation of sameness and variation at the same time. The sameness between the two cities is realized by the following facts in the films: significant representations of modernity, especially modern city and transport, and an increasing projection tendency towards greater degrees of globalization, including increasing scenes of standard international practices and English in visual signs. These value appeals are actually encoded by scenes of narrative actions, including a character doing something in the city (see Figures 6, 8, 12 and 13), what is happening in the city (see Figures 13 & 17) and a character or narrator saying something (see Figures 8 & 9). According to Kress and van Leeuwen (1996), these scenes denote meanings that display to readers the representation of the experiential world. Therefore, these scenes in both films in 2017 display a representational image that Hong Kong and Guangzhou share similar modernity and accessibility, which can be perceived as a collaborative basis for the two leading member cities in GBA. On the other hand, the sameness between the two cities is also realized by increasing
projections of local appeals in both films in 2017, even though the increase in local appeals cannot outnumber the increase in global appeals. This part of increase is reflected by more scenes of Chinese setting and artifacts and respect for the elderly. Such increase delivers a message that Hong Kong and Guangzhou share similar cultural origins, which can also function as another collaborative basis.

However, it is not only important for the two cities to project an image of sameness, but also of great significance for them to project their variation and uniqueness. They adopt different strategies for this part. While Guangzhou is still promoting itself from comprehensive aspects, Hong Kong has changed to promote itself with special focuses in promotion films. Hong Kong has been long renowned as an “Asian’s World City”, so it is only natural that the promotion film of the city displays outstanding degrees of globalization, which is already of no eye-catching attractions. Therefore, to highlight its uniqueness, the promotion film makes use of its local cultural specialty, which includes thematic projections of fashion culture and pop culture. There could be two reasons for this strategy. The first one is that there is no need for Hong Kong to promote itself comprehensively now, since it has been branded as a world city for a long time. Secondly, this strategy could be an echo of the ongoing discussion on Hong Kong’s new directions of development, that is, development of exhibition industry and cultural industry (Liu, 2016). As for Guangzhou, overall promotion and Chinese features are still the theme of its promotion film in 2017. To highlight Guangzhou’s uniqueness on the basis of the existing theme, the promotion film makes use of projections of technology innovation. There could also be two reasons. Firstly, it is because technology innovation is a hot issue of global concerns, thus it can be a way of connection between the city and the world. Secondly, such projection can reflect Guangzhou’s rising support for technology innovation and its fruitful achievements in the areas, which can hopefully become a new part of the city’s brand.

In terms of language appeals, using English in multi-dimensions has become Hong Kong’s unique strategy in projecting its image. In its promotion films, English is used in the voice over, spoken by the characters and shown on shop brands and road signs. All of these have become a multi-modal “language landscape” (Landry, & Bourhis 1997: 25), which contribute to construct Hong Kong’s identity as a world city.

In terms of audio-visual appeals, using Chinese folk music (Colorful Clouds Chasing the Moon) as the background soundtrack becomes Guangzhou’s unique strategy in image projection. The different-paced versions of the music serve as a cohesive link going through the whole film and help to reinforce the Chinese cultural attraction.

Conclusion
This study has compared the destination images between Hong Kong and Guangzhou from a glocalization perspective. The first objects of study were Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2017 issued by Hong Kong Tourism Board and Guangzhou’ promotion film in 2017 issued by Guangzhou Tourism Bureau, through which the similarities and differences between the two cities’ destination images have been investigated. Two other films issued officially, the Hong Kong’s promotion film in 2014 and Guangzhou’s promotion film in 2015 were also been chosen to compare with their succeeding films in 2017 respectively to explore the similarities and differences in the changes made in 2017, as this year was when the implementation of the GBA framework began, which may have had an effect on the two cities’ positioning. The author has combined Wu’s (2008a) framework in analyzing global and local appeals in advertising and conceptualization of destination image by Foroudi, et al. (2018) to revise a new framework for analysis of global versus local appeals in three dimensions: value appeals, language appeals and audio-visual appeals.
Through content analysis, it was found that both Hong Kong and Guangzhou display a similar trend towards greater degree of globalization, even though Hong Kong’s promotion films demonstrate higher degrees of globalization than Guangzhou’s. From 2014 to 2017, the glocalization patterns in Hong Kong’s promotion films changed from a balance between the global and local to a pattern of strong global features with weak local features. Guangzhou’ promotion films present more appeals of locality. From 2015 to 2017, the glocalization patterns in its films changed from a pattern of weak global features with strong local features to a close balance between the global and local. This synchronizing trend towards greater degrees of globalization is strengthened with similar changes made by both cities in their promotion films in 2017, including increasing presentation of modernity, standard international practice and English in visual signs, partly because these appeals are related to accessibility, quality of accommodation and general level of service in destination images, which are important not only for tourists but also other types of audiences in their decision making. Synchronous efforts to project closeness in cultural attraction can also be identified by changes made by both cities in their new films, including increases in presentations of Chinese setting and artifact and respect for the elderly.

Although both films in 2017 demonstrated appeals towards sameness and closeness, different branding was the focus of the two cities. The film of Hong Kong emphasizes branding in cultural innovation with fashion and pop culture as representatives, which is related to its new directions of development in exhibition industry and cultural industry. The film of Guangzhou emphasizes branding in Chinese cultural attractions and technology innovation, which is related to its long-standing position as China’s south gate to the world and the major task of GBA framework.

In construction of their images in the promotion films, both cities share a similar projection strategy, which is presentation of a hybridity between sameness and variation and a hybridity between globalization and local appeals. However, they have their unique strategies too. Hong Kong uses English in multi-dimensional ways in its films to present a highly globalized language landscape and construct its identity as a global cosmopolitan, while Guangzhou uses Chinese folk music as the background soundtrack to reinforce its cultural attractions.

This study has combined studies on cultural hybridity with researches on destination images and multi-modal discourses. It contributed to the ongoing studies on city branding among different member cities of the GBA. It can also serve as a potential part of a longitudinal study of city images.

Acknowledgement
Special thanks to the young scholar project (2017WQNCX191) that partly supported this paper.

References


### Appendix 1

**Websites for Promotion Films**

1. [http://www.iqiyi.com/w_19rtwv0mt1.html](http://www.iqiyi.com/w_19rtwv0mt1.html)
   Guangzhou Promotion Film 2017

2. [http://v.youku.com/v_show/id_XMzE4MTUwNTA1Mg==.html?spm=a2h0k.8191407.0.0&from=s1.8-1-1.2](http://v.youku.com/v_show/id_XMzE4MTUwNTA1Mg==.html?spm=a2h0k.8191407.0.0&from=s1.8-1-1.2)
   Guangzhou Promotion Film 2015

3. [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JJa68us2xp4](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=JJa68us2xp4)
   Hong Kong Tourism Board 2017

4. [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=v49yiTmisXI](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=v49yiTmisXI)
   Hong Kong Tourism Board 2014
A Study of Listening Courses for Japanese Majors and Reform of Japanese Teaching

Jin Hua
South China University of Technology, Guangzhou, China
Email: jinhua@scut.edu.cn

[Abstract] For any foreign language education, listening is an extremely important skill in the language learning process. In Japanese communication, the first thing to do is listening. Communication is based on understanding and is the prerequisite to achieve the intended purpose of social intercourse. Therefore, listening teaching occupies a very important position in the entire teaching system. However, in recent years, some universities and foreign language teachers have proposed to cancel the listening courses in the curriculum. This author holds that universities should not cancel the foreign language listening courses, and they should explore various ways to improve the pattern of listening teaching, in particular, the listening course is essential in Japanese teaching from the beginning. The passing rate of the Japanese-Language Proficiency Test (JLPT) is also greatly influenced by students’ listening scores. Based on the current situation of the listening class of Japanese majors in our school and their performance of JLPT in the past two years, this paper analyzes the necessity of the reform of Japanese listening teaching mode.

[Keywords] Japanese listening; reform in teaching; diversification of classroom teaching

Introduction

At present, in the process of foreign language teaching in Chinese colleges and universities, although teachers and students have made a lot of efforts, listening teaching is not satisfactory. In the practice of listening teaching in recent years, this author tries to use “interactive”, “task-based” and other teaching modes in the Japanese listening classroom to make listening teaching in class more effective. This paper will discuss the problems and solutions for in-class listening teaching.

With the emphasis on the internationalization of higher education, higher requirements have been placed on the training plans, curriculum settings, and teaching methods of foreign language teaching in Chinese universities. In recent years, more experts and scholars have had different opinions on the curriculum of foreign language listening courses. There are even voices to cancel the listening courses. As a Japanese learner and professor, this writer reckons that listening lessons are indispensable in Japanese learning. Especially in the Japanese major teaching in universities for beginners, the listening course is a very important course in the basic Japanese curriculum (Han, 2015). In communication, we must first listen and understand, then we can communicate and convey information on the basis of understanding the other party’s speech (Darancik, 2018). That is to say, in daily communication, listening plays a very important role. According to statistics in the U.S., when a normal person is awake, 70% of the time is used for various forms of communication, 11% is used for writing, 15% is used for reading, 32% is used for speaking, and 42% is for listening. But for many language learners, listening has always been an important obstacle in learning a second language. When someone is learning a foreign language, if there are problems in listening, this will inevitably produce fear of difficulties for him or her, leading to the loss of confidence and interest to continue learning. Listening comprehension, as an input skill, also plays a very important role in language acquisition. Mastering and improving the listening skill is the key to language acquisition.
Common Japanese Listening Teaching Models

Many foreign language teachers think that listening classes are easy to teach. Here, “easy to teach” refers to a class that is the easiest to complete teaching tasks. It is also said that many foreign language teachers think that the teaching of listening lessons is not important and can be taught by anyone. Why is there such an idea? Because the current teaching mode is common: In the classroom, teachers often play tapes, and students are just the audience. Teachers occasionally check answers and sometimes ask students to answer questions. The answers are always ambiguous. There are more cases where the teacher plays a recording and checks student answers, then explains part of the content and plays the answer again. The whole process is repeated again and again, and the 45-minute class ends in a blur. In this teaching mode, students always act as recipients and objects, waiting to be infused into. The teaching process is monotonous, and some students even complain that it would be better for them to go back and do the listening. In the author’s opinion, the main reason for this problem is that most of the listening class is controlled by teachers, and students lack interaction and participation. Just as its name implies in Chinese, listening is the ability to listen. The listening class is set to improve students’ ability to listen. If it does not work as it should be, then the curriculum of the listening course and the teaching purposes are completely meaningless. Although most teachers in colleges and universities are using multimedia and other various teaching methods and making great efforts in the form of courseware innovation, they still ignore the initiative stimulation of students’ independent learning in the actual operation process. The interaction in teaching is obviously insufficient. In China, listening classes are generally taught in Language Labs. In such classrooms, both teachers and students are largely restricted by the environment. So, to overcome the limitations of the environment and improve the students’ listening skills, task-based autonomous learning is the key for teachers.

All of the courses for foreign language majors are complementary and inseparable. Especially in the basic stage, listening plays a vital role in further language learning. However, many teachers have the wrong idea that the listening course is an independent course, which leads to the neglect of its importance. In addition, since 2000, most Japanese major teaching in Chinese universities (except Beijing International Studies University, Northeast Normal University, and Yanbian University, etc.) are for beginners, which means that all Japanese majors have zero related language learning experience compared with English majors. In Chinese higher education, students major in different subjects after entering the university. But in the basic stage (the first and the second year in college), basic courses account for a very large proportion, and the course hours are much more than professional courses (generally in the first semester, the course hours of professional courses are 14 to 16 hours or weeks, basic courses are 12 to 14 hours or weeks). As a result, for students who are learning Japanese from the beginning, they are under great pressure. Limited time, heavy tasks, and choosing to do unimportant work are all by-products of pressure. They are also essential factors that lead to weak student subjective initiative in listening class.

As mentioned above, several common traditional listening teaching modes have caused students to pay less attention to listening lessons. Generally, students think that listening lessons are for listening, and they do not have the habit of pre-reading and reviewing after classes. Without preparatory work, most students are unable to answer the posed questions correctly. Even if the answers are correct, while asking students to repeat what they have just heard, very few or even none of the learners can correctly and accurately describe the content. Most of the time, students do not master the most basic vocabulary in the article, and it is meaningless to listen to the same article several times without knowing the vocabulary. Some people will say that if the basic knowledge of words and grammar in the text must also be explained in the listening
class, then listening class may become an intensive reading class, which it should not be. For the Japanese major targeting at beginners, the basic courses teaching should focus on basic knowledge.

Obstacles in Teaching Listening

This author has conducted interviews on listening classes since 2007 (for students majoring in Japanese). The lower-level students think that the listening class is very important, but for the upper-level class, many students think that listening can be learned independently. The lower-level students generally think that the Japanese-listening class is very difficult. They do not know what to do to understand the content and improve their listening ability. Senior students think that it is not necessary to do listening in class, but they admit that their listening level is not high, or may be even poor, and they are anxious to find ways to improve their listening. This shows that not only the lower grades, but also the upper grades have expectations and positive attitudes towards Japanese listening lessons. Facts show that listening class is an important foreign language teaching section, but it is affected by many factors in the implementation process. According to the analysis of the results of various skill tests in lower and higher grades, the weakest part is the listening part. Take the Japanese major of our school as an example. In JLPT (after the reform in 2010, only by passing all sections including listening, characters, vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension could a student be recognized as qualified), the maximum score of N2 listening is 60, but 60% to 70% of the students can not get the certificate of N2 due to the failure in listening. The maximum score of N1 listening is also 60, but 40% to 50% of the students are also unable to get the N1 certificate because their listening scores are not up to standard. In addition, in the advanced stage of college and foreign language teaching, it is generally required to teach all courses in Japanese, but the author has to give up teaching in Japanese because nearly half of the students do not understand it. So, it is difficult to achieve the goal of teaching in Japanese in higher grades. The listening course is an important part of foreign language teaching, but it is influenced by many factors in the process of implementation. From the table below, we can see the JLPT results of grade 2012 (juniors) and grade 2013 (sophomores). The listening score greatly affects the overall pass rate and the total score. The data of Juniors N2 in the table refers to the number of students who took part in the two exams, the listening score and the overall passing rate. There is a big gap between the passing rate of junior students and that of sophomore students. It can also be judged from the table that listening in the basic stage has been affecting Japanese learning and listening in the advanced stage, and the effect is proportional. In other words, in the basic stage, teachers must actively find ways and means to improve students’ listening skills, listening comprehension ability, psychological quality and so on.

Table 1. Students’ Listening Scores and Pass Rate of JLPT N1/N2 in 2013 to 2014

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Qualified</th>
<th>Highest</th>
<th>Lowest</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Pass Rate</th>
<th>Ratio of Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Juniors N1</td>
<td>20 (27)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juniors N2</td>
<td>24 (27)</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomores N2</td>
<td>11 (25)</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>18.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Listening maximum score is 60, one third of the total score. Numbers in the brackets refers to class sizes.

Special Teaching Environment

As we all know, listening lessons are generally conducted in Language Labs. Such an environment in many cases hinders the interaction between teachers and students, and also causes many teachers to ignore the interaction in the classroom and mistakenly believe that listening lessons are unnecessary or very difficult to do interactive teaching. This understanding makes the listening lesson the simplest and most boring through a pattern where the teacher plays the record, students listen, and then answer questions. And the
emphasis of effective and large amounts of language input in the 90-minute classroom instruction is tedious and makes students struggle. As a result, most evaluations of the students’ performance in the listening class are negative. Most students are afraid and nervous when the teacher calls them to answer questions in the classroom instead of trying to understand the content of the material.

**Lack of Students’ Autonomous Learning Ability**

Lower-grade learners have little Japanese knowledge. Most of them still have some feeling of freshness and expect to participate more actively in listening classes. They are willing to interact with teachers, but their autonomous learning ability outside the classroom is not good. They may slowly lose their learning initiative. In many cases, our students focus on the examination results at the end of the semester and ignore the cultivation and improvement of their professional knowledge, skills, and practical ability. As a result, the lack of self-monitoring, self-control of behavioral ability and consciousness cannot adapt to the current talent training model required by higher education. In fact, Japanese is like other foreign languages such as English. Listening is important not only in basic learning, but also in the advanced level. It is one of the sections of learning Japanese well. At present, many Japanese majors mistakenly believe that Japanese listening courses, like other professional courses, can rely on classroom learning only to meet or complete the academic requirements of the university. In fact, what is reflected here is not only students’ wrong understanding of the listening class, but also the disadvantages brought by the exam-oriented education system in China. For college students, it has been difficult to get rid of the exam-oriented education mode for more than ten years. In their consciousness, they expect teachers to arrange 90-minute classroom teaching. As long as the answer is right, they think that they have completed the classroom learning task and can also get good grades in the final exam. The classroom studies differ from the examination, both teacher and the student should make clear the goal of teaching and studying in-class. It should be understood that one of the very important parts of the higher education is the student independent study.

In other words, at present, the learning plans and learning goals of many college students are unclear, which prevents them from performing or completing autonomous learning tasks. Learning ability needs to be cultivated, and the cultivation of ability require students to establish a correct outlook on learning and values, and scientifically and reasonably arranged plans, goals, and correctly and actively implement and practice them.

According to the author’s own experience in foreign language learning and teaching, 70% of foreign language learning for adults (college students in China are basically older than 18) should rely on independent learning, 20% on teachers’ guidance and 10% on learning subsidy tools. That is to say, independent learning is the key to mastering a certain professional ability. Because most people have their own learning methods in adulthood, especially college students who have mastered one or more foreign languages. In essence, foreign language learning is similar in learning methods and mastering methods. The biggest difference lies in whether the difference with the mother tongue is large and the gap in thinking mode. In foreign language teaching in higher education, the most important thing is to guide students to learn by themselves correctly and scientifically (Salem, 2017).

**Textbook**

When studying things or getting knowledge, people always have the concept that there must be teaching materials. The author believes that while learning knowledge, the teaching materials cannot take the leading role but only the auxiliary role. Many colleges and universities will evaluate teachers every semester. The evaluation criteria are divided into two parts. One is the teaching of teachers and the other is the teaching
materials used by teachers in class. Whether the selected teaching materials are scientific and suitable for the training of talents in today’s society is of course important, but don’t mistakenly believe that only by using scientific and reasonable teaching materials can outstanding talents be cultivated (Deardorff, 2011). In teaching and learning, we often think that mastering or understanding all the content of the teaching material completes the teaching task or learning task, and even think that all the knowledge has been passed on. In fact, the teaching material is a tool for teaching and learning. By using tools, the teaching and learning process can be correct.

**Disadvantages of Multimedia Teaching Methods**

With the popularization of multimedia teaching, many people think that teaching should follow such a new trend to meet the needs of modern development. But the author thinks not all course teaching should catch up with this kind of vogue. There are definitely advantages and disadvantages. Multimedia teaching can be used appropriately and in line with the actual situation, but it cannot be used blindly. Especially in foreign language teaching, the traditional blackboard teaching is sometimes more suitable and effective compared to the flash of multimedia teaching. Foreign language teaching is the input of language, which cannot be mastered with a glance. The best way to master the language is by listening and writing. Through the process of listening and writing, students can gradually master the language step by step. Besides, multimedia teaching reduces the opportunities for interaction and communication between teachers and students, which affects the students’ interest in listening and the teacher’s passion for teaching. These factors greatly affect the teaching and the role of listening in classroom.

**Multimedia teaching is not conducive to emotional communication between teachers and students in the classroom.** The application of multimedia has relatively reduced or almost replaced blackboard writing, which is an important teaching method. Both teachers and students are busy with the dazzling courseware. Students have no time to think, and teachers will be busy paying close attention to the smooth connection of the courseware. These hinder the emotional exchange between teachers and students. The class was originally controlled by teacher, but now it is completely controlled by the multimedia courseware. The situation has changed from one extreme to another. Actually, teaching should not be teacher’s speeches only, but a two-way cooperation of teacher-student interaction. Teachers should not be just manipulators of multimedia, but regulators of emotional communication. After multimedia is used in teaching, the bilateral activities of teaching have become the phenomenon of teacher operating courseware and students staring at the screen. “Media” is at best a “lively” tool, and it makes communication difficult between teachers and students. Sometimes students do not concentrate in class. They try to copy the teacher’s courseware for the final exam. This phenomenon is becoming increasingly common in these days.

**Multimedia teaching methods eliminate the vividness of the classroom.** On the surface, the use of multimedia-assisted teaching can fully mobilize students’ various sensory functions, and inspire students’ enthusiasm for learning. In fact, the formatting, defining, and procedural characteristics of multimedia teaching make the entire classroom only work in steps according to the program designed by the teacher in advance. Each text is also divided into a number of fragmented sections for regular learning. Students can only receive it passively, and it is difficult to see the lively scene of “a hundred schools of thought” in the classroom. There is a loss of vivid bilateral activities between teachers and students, students and students. This teaching situation and spoon feeding of education can only bring negative effects to the teaching.
Production of multimedia consumes great time and effort. It takes a lot of time and energy to make gorgeous and lively courseware, but teachers will ignore the function of courseware to transfer knowledge. Teachers rely on multimedia and ignore traditional basic skills.

Multimedia courseware makes students inert. In the classroom, students also start not to take notebooks or pens. They just hold mobile phones in their hands or ask for courseware from teachers after class. In the class, students lose their dominant position. They become passive recipients who cannot, or do not want to, take notes.

The Necessity of Teaching Reflection and Reform of the Listening Course
The low listening ability directly affects oral Japanese, and it is difficult to achieve the purpose of teaching and learning Japanese. The application of foreign languages starts with listening. Without listening, one cannot understand the other party correctly and respond accordingly, so communication cannot continue normally. Without communication, the meaning and function of learning foreign languages are lost. Listening is often ignored in Japanese teaching, which is an important reason for students’ low comprehensive language ability. Emphasizing and strengthening Japanese listening teaching, arranging the curriculum more reasonably, and focusing on implementation strategies not only improves students’ comprehensive Japanese language ability, but also greatly promotes the interaction between other professional courses. To make full use of listening lesson, we should do the following:

1. Make listening lessons run through each specialized Japanese class. In order to achieve the purpose and requirements of teaching and learning, not only Japanese, any foreign language lesson should take the form of pre-listening, follow-up reading, and repeated dictation, etc.
2. Identify issues that should be addressed in the listening lesson. Teachers should guide and help students solve important problems in the teaching process.
3. Select and use listening textbooks.
4. Allocate listening class time. Cultivation of listening ability is inseparable from “repetition”. Dictation should be repeated.
5. Apply different teaching methods in listening lessons. According to the content of the teaching materials and the level of Japanese students at different stages, the teacher can arrange the course based on tasks, interaction, groups, and seminars to improve students’ listening ability.

Conclusion
In foreign language listening teaching, we must overcome and change the passive positioning mode that regards students as bystanders, and we must guide and promote learners’ initiative (Zhang, & Li, 2019). The most important thing is to change the understanding of listening lessons. There are all kinds of resistance and disadvantages in the listening teaching process, but the connotation, effect and meaning of listening lessons should be reflected in the classroom teaching to truly realize the practicality of the Japanese listening lesson. When teaching listening, teachers should always implement the combination of listening and writing and the combination of listening and speaking. Also, teachers should improve teaching models, explore effective teaching methods, analyze students’ specific problems, effectively adapt to individual differences of students, and cultivate students to learn autonomously, which can change the wrong understanding of ignoring the listening course and improve the effectiveness of Japanese listening teaching (Wu, 2019).
References
A Corpus-Based Study of Ideological Manipulation from Appraisal Theory in Hong Kong Political Interpreting Discourse

Lei Sha

Binzhou University, Binzhou, China
Email: lei.sha@connect.polyu.hk

[Abstract] It is noticeable that there are three principles in evaluating interpreting quality: interpreters’ professional skills, real-time epistemic competences and interpreting norms. This study focuses on interpreter’s manipulative strategies from appraisal theory developed by Jeremy Munday as a major target in the political translation task and explores how governmental statements and reports are interpreted bilingually in Hong Kong. There is a chosen interpreting corpus of 10 transcribed HKSAR policy addresses delivered by two Hong Kong chief executives from 2007 to 2016, indicating the norms of source and target texts. High frequency keywords were selected, identified and analyzed within the corpus. The framework of ideological manipulation was used to describe the interpreting tasks and to exhibit the process where ideology is often taken for granted. This research aims to find that there are lexical preferences by interpreters in the speech full of political, social and ideological issues. The study also employs empirical approaches in both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

[Keywords] corpus-based study; ideological manipulation; appraisal theory; Hong Kong; political discourse interpreting

Introduction

It is widely acknowledged that interpreting action across different languages is never simply seen as a neutral standpoint and ideological manipulation may play as a double-edged sword in building the linkage in this process. In social cultural and ideological domains, emerging research interests can be found with more social sciences methodological approaches as mentioned by Maria Tymoczko: “Indeed, the elements of translation viewed by early writers as a matter of common sense are often merely a reflection of idées reçues associated with particular cultural situations or ideological positions of their own times” (2014, p. 19).

In the meanwhile, a prominent characteristic in translation and interpreting studies can be observed as the latest trend in the past two decades. There are also increasing concerns in relevant interpreting studies for its sensitive role in the process with excursive processing characteristics (Bielsa, 2009, p. 4). Things are similar in the scope of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and Chilton (2004, p. 12) implies that infinite potentiality of interpreting “poses more intriguing, and politically urgent.” From the perspective of ideological manipulation in the political discourse, it is enlightening to retrospect studies on this topic, including the study by Wang Dongfeng (2003) with his descriptive observation on the macroscopic development of ideological manipulation in Chinese history, by Goulding and Domic (2009), who delve into a case study in Croatia by taking into consideration with a mono-cultural heritage and its ideological impact in a multi-ethnic society, as well as by Díaz-Cintas (2012) who has focused on power, dominance and ideology through “unmasking the rationale behind ideologically motivated changes and by contextualizing them within a wider socio-cultural environment” (2012, p. 279).

The starting point of this paper will be a corpus-based study on the ideological manipulation manifested from appraisal theory in Hong Kong political discourse interpreting practices to exhibit how the lexical
choices and political stances are related with interdependency and decontextualized in the medium of English. The linguistic and ideological analysis will be focused on and discussed in relation to the political stand of the discourse.

**Research Questions and Methodology**

**Research Questions**

Aiming at “faithful” occurrences and explanations (Pöchhacker, 2018, p. 46) in the proposed research, there are several questions to be considered as follows:

1. What are the value-inserted keywords in Hong Kong political discourse on the lexical level?
2. How do these keywords influence interpreters with various collocated decisions?
3. How does the attitude of appraisal theory manifest the implied meanings by the interpreters?

**Appraisal Theory in Interpreting**

Martin and White (2005) provided a new framework to analyze the textual meanings from the appraisal perspective to observe whether they are positive or negative, where there are changes of attitudinal expressions with their power or directness. In this research, the methodology was inspired by the modified analysis from Jeremy Munday (2012, p. 24) on his adaptation of appraisal resources for evaluating the lexicalization. Munday stated that attitude is regarded as the most basic form of evaluation, most typically seen in attitudinally loaded adjectives as ‘evaluative or interpersonal epithets’ in systemic functional linguistics (2012, p. 23). These choices could be either conscious or not, but it is certain that they lead to the value orientations under various ideological manipulation forms. In this way, there are notable evaluative discourse of ideology (ideas and beliefs) and axiology (values) (Schäffner, 2013).

In political contexts, Hatim and Mason (2014) claim that even though there are high standards and expectations for the interpreters to obey, feelings and emotions can be still detected from the source speeches of the speakers, or reflections of the interpreters. By comparison, judgment and appreciation have more possibilities of variations by individuals, presuppose “a basis of shared community values which may even be institutionalized” (Martin, & White 2005, p. 57).

**Research Data**

As mandated under Article 64 of the Basic Law, HKSAR policy addresses are delivered annually by the Chief Executive of Hong Kong. In the paper, the Chinese/English Political Interpreting Corpus (CEPIC) developed by Hong Kong Baptist University. The corpus is composed of 10 annual HKSAR Policy Addresses hosted by Donald Tsang Yam-kuen during his term in office from 2007 to 2012 and Leung Chun-ying from 2013 to 2016 (Pan, 2019). For the addresses in the decades, they are all approximately equal to each other in terms of topics and contents by focusing on civil affairs as well as political and economic issues in simultaneous interpreting mode. The word count of 103,394 Chinese words and 129,703 English words.

**Analysis**

In the analytical procedures of the research, there are three approaches for identifying the word frequency data and value-inserted keywords, top collocates and collocated preferences by the interpreter.
**Identification of Word Frequency Data and Value-Inserted Keyword**

As provided in the corpus, there are existing data of for researcher’s reference, Figure 1 clearly shows that the 100 most frequent words in the subset of HKSAR Policy Addresses (Putonghua). To further narrow it down, a closer look will be focused at the frequencies of the top 10 words on the list. According to the previous framework suggested by Munday, content words should be given more priority when critical points are considered. Among the ten words, “政府” (zhengfu, literally means government), “香港” (Hong Kong) and “发展” (fazhan, literally means development) are preliminarily chosen as three alternatives.

According to their frequency rankings in Figure 2, there are prominent distinctions of frequencies and collocates. The keyword “发展 (development)” is a notional verb with high variability in meanings and collocates (see Figure 3). Thus, there is a proper assumption that this word is related with more ideological manipulation of attitude. Based on the appraisal theory, this word variation may lead interpreters with immediate decisions in accordance with different lexical outputs, which as Munday claims that “where the most obvious distortions are to be found” (2012, p. 17).

**Top Collocates and Collocated Preferences by the Interpreter**

To implement “发展 (development)” as the key term in the research, this term was examined in the corpus with the source and target transcriptions. It is clear to observe the patterns by the collocates suggested by the corpus automatically.

As the top 20 collocates of “发展 (development)” in Figure 4, five types of collocation are searched in the corpus: “发展+产业 (literally means industry)”, “发展+土地 (literally means land)”, “发展+推动 (literally means promote or promotion)”, “发展+政府 (literally means government)” and “发展+经济 (literally means economy)”. After the narrow-down search of four collocates, 394(50+50+76+74+144) eligible sentences are preliminarily chosen. By removing the repetitive results manually, 327(42+40+61+65+119) sentences are the final research extracts (see Figure 4).
Figure 2. Comparison Among Three Keywords and their Allocates

Figure 3. Top 20 Collocates of “发展 (development)” Based on this Search

Figure 4 illustrates the lexical preferences by the interpreters in the HKPA practices. There are 36% of the collocates that belong to the camp of 经济 (economy), which indicates the main target of Hong Kong people’s livelihood is the top concern in the addresses. The second word, 政府 (government), is a general subject of the Hong Kong political addresses by showing that self-reference is also frequently repeated in the practice. The third term, 推动 (promote), is the positive attribute adjective, noun or verb used in the collocate, which is the most variable amongst the five chosen collocates. The last two terms rank at the bottom share some similarities: both as the specific issues in Hong Kong development and parts of economic clusters.

There are some extracted examples from the collocates listed below:

Example 1. 发展 (development) + 经济 (economy)
Tsang Yam-kuen (2008-10-15): 务使金融业作为香港经济发展重要支柱的地位更加稳健。
Interpreter: We will tap into emerging markets to consolidate financial sector as an important economic pillar.
Figure 4. Percentage of Collocates and Frequency with “发展 (development)”

Example 2. 发展 (development) + 政府 (government)
Tsang Yam-kuen (2011-10-12): 为配合西九文化区发展, 政府一直发展艺术节目和拓展观众群。
Interpreter: To tie in with the development of the West Kowloon Cultural District, the Government has made continuous efforts to develop programs and build audience base.

Example 3. 发展 (development) + 推动 (promote)
Leung Chun-ying (2013-1-6): 来年, 我们必须再接再厉, 推动创科发展。
Interpreter: In the year ahead, we must maintain our efforts to promote innovation and technology.

Example 4. 发展 (development) + 产业 (industry)
Leung Chun-ying (2013-1-6): 经济发展委员会将检讨产业发展策略和政策, 订出建议。
Interpreter: The EDC will review the overall industrial development strategies and policies in order to draw up proposals.

Example 5. 发展 (development) + 土地 (land)
Leung Chun-ying (2015-1-14): 香港缺的不是土地, 缺的是可供开发利用的土地。
Interpreter: What Hong Kong lacks is not land, but land that is developable.

It is universal in the corpus that the word 发展 (development) is quite neutral in most cases while in other contexts it remains the positive meanings. There are two critical points made by interpreters in Example 1 and 3. In the collocate of 发展 (development) + 经济 (economy), it is common to apply the “verb+object” structure as “develop the economy”. While in Example 1, the interpreter employed the connotative meaning of “pillar” in the source speech to avoid semantic overlapping in the case. For the other example, 推动 (promote) and 发展 (development) in Chinese somehow shares similar contextual
meaning and function from case to case, thus, it is replaceable with either of them when they both play as verbs in a sentence.

**Discussion Based on the Attitude of Appraisal Theory**

Previously the domains of appraisal theory were introduced and the following discussion will mainly focus on how ideology manipulates the interpreting process and decision with the examples from three typical parameters: affect, judgement and appreciation. As a revulsive manipulation against external interferences from the speaker or the government, political interpreting practices have evolved by promoting the active involvement of the wording. As for affect parameter, the keyword 发展 (development) mainly manifests the positive development or the trend according to the extracted examples and interpreting clusters above. On the other hand, there are evidences to reveal feelings and emotional reactions of the spokesman, who is the representative of the Government. Among the parameters suggested by Jeremy Munday, satisfaction and happiness are on the top of the list and both of them are interpreted with quite positive meanings. For example, when Tsang Yam-kuen talks about the emerging creative industry, the interpreter uses 对于创新产业的发展至关重要 (prime importance of creative industry development) to indicate the expectancy from the leading body that Hong Kong could find its new growth pole. This positive attitude of expectation could be spread to the target audience with the implied meaning from the speaker.

Another notable feature of ideological manipulation in judgment is the mood rendering between the source and target language for government image building. For instance, housing issues have been the most representative pain spot for Hong Kong people. The interpreter claims that the Government should make breakthrough in this issue when the speaker emphasizes 大力发展住房 (housing development). In this way, a bravery judgment is conveyed from an elite group of high contexts to the target audience of relative low context for better attitudinal information dissemination. Negative and neutral tenacity can be observed in some parts of the corpus with projects lagging behind in Hong Kong, such as unfinished Cyberport and construction sites in Kai Tak.

It is also important to discuss the conflict caused by power struggle between different interpreting process participants since appreciation is two-way process, either in a positive or negative manner. To be specific, positive cases are more prevalent in the corpus when it comes to the topic of value while some opposing tones may be seen in reactive speeches. Donald Tsang speaks highly of the development of Hong Kong public transportation and hopes the impetus could go on. Compared with the brevity of Chinese expression, the interpreter captures this glorification and employs the term “help drive of” to vividly depict the emotion of “发展交通 (help drive of transportation)” and the specific diction of “drive” even fits the occasion of the exclusive behavior in public transportation. For negative issues, cases like “Shanzhai development” just mean the opposite of healthy development thus urgently calls upon curbing strategies by the government.

In a word, the discussion above can be summarized and manifested in the following table with parameters in the attitudinal framework (See Table 1). Interpreters of political discourse interpreting tasks should adjust their measures to local conditions under the disciplinary requirements of the Hong Kong Government. It is sometimes they reveal their stance to represent identities of the Chief Executives, who speaks on behalf of the authority with the consideration of public opinions. In view of the internal interests and external expectation, the interpreters should balance the two parties with no intentional use of sensitive words, disputable issues and prejudicial stances. When there are people’s livelihood issues of Hong Kong, it is common to apply an open tone with possible proposals instead of mandatory policies to reveal the
democratic characteristics of “one country, two systems” are distinctive in Hong Kong and provide different packages of policies in terms of urgency, by repeating the key issues and industries in Hong Kong as well as encourage the emerging industries for the aim of a diversified development target.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Tendency Parameter</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>Happiness</td>
<td>289</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Judgement</td>
<td>Capacity</td>
<td>314</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tenacity</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appreciation</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>301</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reaction</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

In this paper there is a corpus-driven study conducted to analyze the interpreting of Hong Kong Policy Addresses over a decade time-span. Through methodological penetration into the research with appraisal theory, the attitudinal domain reveals the manifestation of collocated preferences according to value-inserted keywords. After analytical process of the online corpus, the keyword “发展 (development)” was selected and discussed in a synthesis of quantitative and qualitative approaches. In the quantitative method, there are findings of collocated preferences based on interpreting clusters in English. This research also categorizes attitudinal meanings with the top five frequented words in the HKPA. In the qualitative method, there was a discursive discussion on the attitude of appraisal theory to reveal the implied ideological manipulation of the government and interpreter’s political awareness from positive, negative and neutral stances from the ideological manipulative parameters of active involvement, mood rendering and power struggle.

**References**


310


Classroom Reading Speech Assessment from a Phonetic Perspective

Xuewei Lin, and Dafydd Gibbon
Jinan University, Guangzhou, China
Email: linxueweiashley@163.com

[Abstract] In large classes (n > 50) of adult learners with low to moderate proficiency, incremental assessment of proficiency improvement with particular attention to fluency is non-trivial, due to class size, inherent difficulties in holistic, analytic and item assessment, and to the very small improvements which are generally found. In order to support the teacher in providing ongoing quick feedback to classes, a strategy for objective assessment of selected prosodic aspects of fluency based directly on quantitative temporal properties of the speech signal was investigated, with the long-term aim of automating feedback about these criteria. The results indicate that automatic language-independent assessment of some fluency features is feasible, but only relative to prior assessments with the same method, not against an absolute standard.

[Keywords] fluency; speech proficiency assessment; quantitative analysis; phonetics

Introduction
In large classes (n > 50) of adult learners with low to moderate proficiency, incremental assessment of proficiency improvement with particular attention to fluency is non-trivial, due to class size, inherent difficulties in holistic, analytic and item assessment, and to the very small improvements which are generally found. Usual solutions include holistic assessment by expert raters and analytic assessment by either expert raters or by software for phonetic (or other) features. The present approach investigates the potential of similarities between proficiency assessment in foreign language teaching and acceptability assessment in speech technology, with the long-term aim of improving assessment efficiency in large foreign language (FL) classes: the assessment of reading aloud is comparable with the assessment of text-to-speech computer systems. Based on this comparison, we investigate language-independent quantitative phonetic methods for providing feedback to FL teachers and students using computer-aided automatic analysis.

Prosody encompasses the rhythms and melodies of speech. There are already many studies on the manual analysis of the two prosodic features analyzed in the present contribution, speech rate and speech-pause ratio, and some on automatic feature extraction (e.g. Wang, et al., 2012) and automatic word recognition (e.g. Cucchiarini, et al., 2000). The present approach takes these approaches a step further in analyzing not only features, but longitudinal change in timing patterns while reading aloud. Reading aloud is a complex activity and many other factors are involved, but proficiency in FL speech timing is an essential component of fluency. The goal of positive or negative proficiency change measurement does not aim for an absolute standard of proficiency, but for a relative measure of improvement of prosodic aspects of reading by a particular student or class over a period of one year in relation to a model provided by a native speaker.

A quantitative phonetic method for the language-independent and automatic objective assessment of fluency in terms of speech timing and rhythm are investigated by annotation analysis and automatic pause detection. Problems which are inherent in analytic assessment, such as oversimplification, are recognized: there are far more factors involved in reading aloud than are usually considered in the literature, for example, specific disabilities, distractions, complex communicative functions and context. The dangers of
reductionism when describing speech performance in physical terms, and the temptation to look for unicausal one-to-one correspondences between form and function are recognized: prosodic features are context-dependent and multifunctional, have many grammatical, rhetorical disfluency-marking and idiosyncratic personal functions, and cannot be described by physical features alone.

Views on Classification of Assessment Criteria

Prosody is the domain of speech rhythms and melodies and their functions. Prosody, including expression, phrasing and tone is the main focus in Chambers’ (1997) concept of fluency, along with accuracy and rate. Thomson (2015) distinguishes four criteria of proficiency:

1. Fluency: An automatic procedural skill on the part of the speaker and a perceptual phenomenon in the listener, and covers features such as speech rate, phonation time ratio, pruned syllables, articulation rate, mean length of run (meaning the length of interpausal units), silent pause ratio, and filled pause ratio.

2. Accentedness: Operationalized using impressionistic judgments of how far FL speakers’ pronunciation diverges from a native speaker target.

3. Intelligibility: Operationalized in terms of how accurately listeners are able to identify spoken language relative to an L2 speaker’s intended utterance

4. Comprehensibility: Operationalized as how easy speech is for a listener to understand, referring to how much effort is involved (see Munro & Derwing, 1995; Munro, Derwing, & Morton, 2006).

These four variables overlap. For example, the category of pronunciation evidently involves phonetic features noted under the category of fluency. Likewise, intelligibility and comprehensibility are closely related. Consequently, the use of such categories as analytic criteria must be in doubt.

According to the ACTFL Oral Proficiency Interview Tester Training Manual by (Swender, 1999), fluency is included in performance accuracy, along with grammar, pragmatic competence, pronunciation, sociolinguistic competence and vocabulary. Xiong, et al. (2002) viewed proficiency as the combination of pronunciation, intonation, fluency, accuracy, expression and comprehensibility. These criteria also overlap, and thus, also have limited analytic value.

Bergmann, et al. (2015) saw the lack of fluency as incomplete acquisition (smaller, less broad vocabulary and slower) and disfluency (hesitation phenomena such as unfilled and filled pauses, repetitions, and self-corrections). We suggest that a useful way to understand the deceptively complex and multidimensional meanings of ambiguous and polysemous concepts such as fluency is in terms of antonyms.

For fluency, we suggest distinguishing between non-fluency (proficiency issues due to lack of knowledge, such as low speech rate, incorrect pronunciation, poor intonation, poor phrasing, deviation from the text), disfluency (lexical access and formulation issues due to lack of practice, such as repetition, regression and self-correction, restarts, word or phrase interruption, hesitation particles, and word-lengthening), impediment (such as stuttering, stammering) and the broad domain of aphasia (such as medical issues after stroke or accident).

A Pilot Experiment on Speech Timing

An exploratory pilot experiment was carried out to investigate objective fluency assessment methods based directly on quantitative temporal properties of the speech signal. The aim was to test the method rather than to arrive at definitive large-scale conclusions. The subjects were relatively low performing Chinese university students from various disciplines at Jinan University, Guangzhou, who were taking additional
English courses. The data included reading of an English language story text by a Native Speaker (NS) and readings of the same text by six non-Native Speaker (NS) students. The students recorded the text on their mobile phones; the recordings were collected via an on-line teaching and learning app, Moso Teach. Relatively robust signal processing methods were needed because of the inhomogeneous non-studio recording scenario.

The genre of read-aloud text was selected because first, reading aloud is relevant for many professional activities; second, it is adequate for relatively low-performing students concerned in being less demanding than dialogue or spontaneous speech tasks; third, the structural regularity of narrative texts provided a relatively clear case for analysis. Recordings were made by 6 students in 2 groups of differing proficiencies, in 2 successive years (2017, 2018), yielding a total of 24 recordings.

The recordings were initially assessed by an experienced rater, providing scores for pronunciation, intonation and fluency. Then a core set of recordings for detailed phonetic analysis was selected, including that of the NS and of two NNS students rated at higher and lower proficiency levels, for 2017 and 2018.

There were two steps in the phonetic analysis: Step 1, manual annotation and phonetic analysis, and Step 2, automatic phonetic feature identification.

**Step 1**

The speech processing workbench Praat (Boersma, 2001) was used for manual annotation of the recordings (Figure 1) and the online annotation analysis tool TGA (Time Group Analyzer, Gibbon, & Yu, 2016) was used for automatic analysis of timing relations in annotations and for speech: pause ratio (S:P) calculation.

![Figure 1. Syllable and Word Annotation of Story Excerpt Showing Pauses.](image)

Timing measures familiar from the FL assessment literature (cf. Thomson, 2015; Ordin, et al., 2015) include pause ratio for both syllable and word tiers in speech and the general measures such as mean unit length (and, inversely, unit rate, i.e. tempo) and duration irregularity measures such as standard deviation or the normalized Pairwise Variability Index (nPVI).

These measures can be extracted from the Praat annotations, which contain time-stamped syllable labels, and the TGA online annotation-mining tool, which extracts the labels and the timestamps from the annotations, and uses the Praat timestamps to calculate measurements and descriptive statistics (Table 1) for the durations and duration patterns of the syllables, including average syllable duration and its inverse, syllable rate per second, and the nPVI measure of regularity of syllable durations. The nPVI measures duration regularity by averaging differences between durations of neighboring items. The significance of the regularity of syllable duration, which is, along with alternation or oscillation, one component of speech
rhythm, is that it is very different in Chinese, which has syllables of relatively even duration, and English, which has not only lexically long and short syllables, but also stress patterns which affect syllable duration.

The TGA analysis shows typical results for fluency differences: overall story length is longer, median syllable length is longer (and rate is slower) for NNS than NS, as expected.

Table 1. *TGA Annotation-Based Syllable Timing Measurements for NS and NNS.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NA</th>
<th>NNS A01 2017</th>
<th>NNS A01 2018</th>
<th>NNS B06 2017</th>
<th>NNS B06 2018</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>678</td>
<td>646</td>
<td>643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>min ms</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>max ms</td>
<td>634</td>
<td>837</td>
<td>889</td>
<td>1051</td>
<td>755</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>median ms</td>
<td>215.5</td>
<td>260</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>median rate</td>
<td>4.64</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>total ms</td>
<td>154360</td>
<td>189348</td>
<td>188464</td>
<td>211574</td>
<td>174301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nPVI</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S:P</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.94012</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Step 2**

A voice activity detector tool was developed for measuring S:P and the variation of S:P in the course of the story (Figure 2), and applied to the recordings by each of NNS groups as well as to the NS recording. The tool applied low and high pass filters to the speech signal and extracted the positive amplitude envelope (the outline of the rectified or absolute values of the speech signal) by identifying positive peaks in the signal. Center-clipping and peak-clipping were applied, amplitude differences were calculated. A threshold was set for the largest difference, which was taken as a transition point between speech and silence.

![Figure 2. Speech-Silence tool for Approximating S:P.](image)

In the second year (2018), both NNS groups showed a general (but not exceptionless) increase in S:P, which in an actual proficiency test would be a gratifying result for both teacher and students (Figure 3). It is noticeable that the lower proficiency group (the “B” group) had more S:P increases than the higher proficiency group. In view of the exploratory nature of the study, and the small data set, far-reaching conclusions cannot be drawn, but the differences are a helpful pointer to the direction to take in a larger scale study.
A more detailed S:P analysis for just one NNS from each group, along with the NS, was made: the higher the ratio, the more speech and the less silence. S:P is, as very similar for the NNS, and higher for NS than for NNS (Figure 4).

**Figure 3.** S:P for All Subjects, 2017 and 2018.

**Figure 4.** S:P per Speaker and Year for Entire Text, with 3rd Degree Polynomial Model.

Moreover, in addition to the overall speech: silence ratio, speech: silence variability during the course of the story reading was also measured and visualized with a third degree polynomial smoothing model in
order to bring out overall trends. S:P variation during the reading not only shows similarity between the NNS and similarity of both from the NS, but also acts as a warning not to oversimplify these ‘objective’ measures, but to find an evaluation method in which valid results for more complex variation patterns can be obtained.

**Conclusion and Outlook**

A new strategy for objective assessment of fluency was investigated, based directly on quantitative temporal properties of the speech signal, with the long-term aim of automatizing feedback about these criteria. It was found that automatic rating provides some support for the expert rater in specific analytic details: expert rating corresponds to rating by annotation and TGA. Automatic analysis shows that fluency markers vary during the reading so the data must be selected very carefully. Expert raters cannot be replaced by automatic rating. First, there is no holistic judgment in automatic rating (but cf. Cucchiarini, et al., 2000, who use a speech recognizer as an objective test criterion). Second, complex features such as phrasing, grammar, vocabulary are too complex for current analytic methods. Third, the values of analytic features are not constant during a recording. But automatic analytic rating of specific features can provide potentially useful ancillary feedback for teachers and students.

**Acknowledgement**

This work was supported by the Curriculum and Teaching Reform Foundation of Sihai College of Jinan University [55611113].

**References**


An Ecological Reading of *Blue Planet II*

Luo Yunyi  
*Jinan University, Guangzhou, China*  
Email: luoluo77@stu2018.jnu.edu.cn

**Abstract**  
The nature documentary series *Blue Planet II* expresses its ecological concept, a harmonious relationship between nature and humans. This paper takes an ecological discourse approach to analyze the representation of oceans and life beings from the perspective of salience realized transitivity and lexical choice. The ecological analysis will reveal how the ecological concept is conveyed to the audience.

**Keywords**  
*Blue Planet II*, salience; transitivity; lexical choice; ecological analysis

**Introduction**  
Nowadays, scientific and technological development has brought tremendous convenience to human beings. However, environmental issues such as water pollution and global warming have arisen and even have been exacerbating. In this context, ecology has turned into a hot topic attracting extensive attention among people from all walks of life. *Blue Planet II*, the BBC nature documentary on marine life, brings the audience a new understanding of life beneath oceans. It aims at raising the ecological awareness for environmental protection among human beings. But how does it work? In academia, ecolinguistics, eco-translatology, ecological aesthetics and other emerging subjects all combining with ecology, spring up. Ecological discourse analysis, one research scope of ecolinguistics, mainly focuses on how discourse affects human beings from the ecological perspective (Xin, & Huang, 2013). This paper begins with the studies of ecolinguistics in both western countries and China, and then introduces the concept of salience by which something important can be foregrounded. Finally, it makes an ecological analysis of *Blue Planet II* to examine how the documentary arouses the ecological awareness.

**Ecolinguistics at Home and Abroad**  
Ecolinguistics, an interdiscipline of linguistics and ecology, reveals the interaction between language and environment through the study of their relationship. In western countries, it has appealed to numerous scholars since it was established. Some influential scholars and their works include *Ecolinguistics: Language, Ecology and the Stories We Live By* (2015) written by Stibbe, and “Ecolinguistics: The state of the art and future horizons” (2014) by Steffensen and Fill, and so forth. Ecolinguistics also achieved remarkable results in China, although it developed later than the West. Professor Huang Guowen, taking the lead in setting up the Center for Ecolinguistics, has devoted himself to study ecolinguistics. He has written quite a few articles such as “On the origin, aims, principles and methodology of eco-discourse analysis” (2017) and “Ecolinguistics as a New Discipline” (2017).

Generally, ecolinguistics has two major approaches – ecology of language(s) and environmental linguistics (Fill, 2001, p. 43). The former lays emphasis on how a certain language and its environment interact (Haugen, 1972, p. 325), just like the ecological relations between species and the environment. One of its research objectives lies in how to preserve language diversity through the investigation and protection efforts to endangered languages. The latter indicates that language affecting how humans think and behave can cause environmental problems. In this sense, possible solutions can resort to linguistic research. What
linguists can do is make people realize how ecological issues are built by language from the perspective of Systemic Functional Linguistics. This paper will analyze the ecological elements of the nature documentary series *Blue Planet II*, based on environmental linguistics.

**A Linguistic Means of Activation**

Salience refers to a cognitive structure in people’s minds that an area of life is important or worthy of attention (Stibbe, 2015, p. 162). It can be built by individualization and foregrounding in language by activation. Individualization emphasizes the unique quality of each individual with their own values. These two devices can be found in Emily Dickinson’s “A Burdock—clawed my Gown”. In this poem, it seems as if “Burdoc”, “Bog”, “Elephant” and “Minnows”, whose initial letters are in capital forms, have their own name. They are viewed as independent life beings rather than indistinguishable groups, enacting individualization. In addition, these nonhuman species are expressed as humanlike by activation in language. They have been foregrounded through employing a series of active verbs. For example, the emotive verb “despise” indicates “Minnows” as a sentient species.

*A Burdock – clawed my Gown –
Not Burdock’s – blame –
Who went too near
The Burdock’s Den –
A Bog – affronts my shoe –
What else have Bogs – to do –
The only Trade they know –
The splashing Men!
Ah, pity – then!
’Tis Minnows can despise!
The Elephant’s – calm eyes
Look further on!*

– (Dickenson, 1996)

In contrast with salience, erasure means a cognitive structure in people’s minds that an area of life is unimportant or unworthy of consideration without mentioning (Stibbe, 2015, p. 146). In the poster below, the sentence *YOU ARE A PRODUCT* indicates the cow and the woman are objectified as tools controlled by the powerful social class. In this sense, they cannot perform any action, nor possess any emotions and feelings. Deprived of their own rights, they cannot choose how they live a life.
Both salience and erasure can be realized by transitivity including material, mental, behavioural, verbal, relational, and existential methods. In a material process, two participants are the Actor who does something and the Goal that undergoes the action. In a mental process, the Senser is endowed with consciousness and emotion while the Phenomenon is what is felt. In a behavioral process, the Behaver with consciousness can perform a behavior. In a verbal process, the Sayer is someone who says something, the Verbiage which is said, and the Receiver at whom the saying is targeted. In a relational process, the relationship between two entities is set up – one entity is another entity. An existential process means what exists or what happens, and the word there is the distinctive symbol of existence.

By virtue of transitivity, nonhuman species can be foregrounded as active beings or backgrounded as objects (Stibbe, 2015, p. 154). Active participants are able to do things and to think, sense and feel the world by themselves, while backgrounded or erased ones have to undergo something done to them. In general, the latter can not act as the Actor, the Behaver, the Senser, nor the Sayer. The analysis of a descriptive object across a certain discourse can reflect how the object is regarded – active or passive, by which human ideology can be shaped unconsciously.

A Case Study: Blue Planet II

Blue Planet II, recording creatures that live beneath waters from the Tropics to the poles, can provide a new understanding of life on the earth. It invokes in us a sense of appreciation and awe, especially the responsibility for protecting our beautiful home – the earth. This part will analyze how linguistic features are used to convey ecological elements in Blue Planet II and to spread its ecological concept.

Extract 1.

And you can see why it gets its name. / He does something few would have believed a fish could do. [Material process] / Every morning he travels to the edge of the reef. [Material process] / He is searching for something special to eat amongst the coral rubble and sand. [Material process] / Here is one. A small clam. / But how to crack it open and get to the meat? / He takes it all the way back to his special kitchen. [Material process] / A bowl-shaped coral that has a particular bump on the inside that he always uses. / It’s not easy if you have no hands. / Whoops, there he goes again. [Material process]

Extract 1 (from the first episode) introduces a tusk fish who is foraging. Clearly, each member of fish family, dynamic and active, can perform a series of activities, and are the Actors in the material clauses.
Those marine creatures have no longer acted as the Goal (also called the Affected) who are doomed to be controlled by others. Rather, they are their own protagonists who possess the rights and freedom to do what they want, rather than accept everything befalling them. The tusk fish is taken as an active life being using the verbs “travel”, “search for”, “take” and “go”, just like a person. In addition, it seems reasonable that the clause “how to crack it open and get to the meat” can be regarded as the soliloquy of the tusk fish who is thinking how to open that clam.

**Extract 2.**

| Their calf seems **reluctant** to do so. | **Mental state** | / By watching his elders, he may be **realizing** that this is something he ought to do. **Mental process** |

Conventionally, non-human species have been seen as ones who have no thoughts and emotions. However, those marine residents in the documentary also own thinking capability. Extract 2 (from the first episode) talks about how the adult dolphins teach their children survival skills. The sentence “he may be realizing that…”, a mental clause, indicates the little dolphin has cognition of what he needs to do. Strictly, the sentence “Their calf seems reluctant to do so” is a relational clause, but the word “reluctant” can reflect the mental status of this calf (a dolphin) who is unwilling to follow what his parents have been doing.

**Extract 3.**

| … **there** are creatures beyond our imagination. | **Verbal process** | … / The dolphins turn, as if to **greet** their pursuers. **Verbal process** |
| | | / They seem to change their course. / Could it be that they are attempting to **communicate**? **Verbal process** |
| | | … / But there are now worrying signs that …

In the Extract 3 (from the first episode), the false killer whales (their pursuers) have been hunting for the bottlenose dolphins. Language seems to be exclusive to human beings, so some words such as talk and communicate are not used to describe non-human life beings. Nevertheless, those personated creatures in the documentary can perform the activity of saying. Conversation occurs among the bottlenose dolphins, and even between the bottlenose dolphins and their pursuers, employing relevant verbs “chatter”, “greet”, and “communicate”.

**Extract 4.**

| … **there** are creatures beyond our imagination. | **Existential process** | …/ And here the adults **behave** rather strangely. **Behavioral process** |
| | | …/ Some fish are much cleverer than you might suppose. **Relational process** |
| | | …/ Whilst the more advanced chicks take to the air, others aren’t quite ready yet. **Relational process** |
| | | …/ But there are now worrying signs that… **Existential process** |

The first episode begins with the existential clause “there are creatures beyond our imagination”, revealing how mysterious oceans are. The ocean species in the relational clauses are described as intelligent and cognitive, indicating that they are equal to human beings. But another existential clause “there are now worrying signs that…” warns us that environmental problems have been posing a serious threat to oceans and their life being residing there.
Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Clauses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>One creature on Australia’s Great Barrier Reef is challenging our understanding of fish intelligence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They (bottlenose dolphins) are extremely intelligent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>And with this intelligence comes playfulness.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youngster</td>
<td>For the youngsters, there are things to be learnt here.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elder</td>
<td>By watching his elders, he may be realising that ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Character</td>
<td>But to properly appreciate their true character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determination &amp; accuracy</td>
<td>But he’s got great determination and surprising accuracy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.

| youngster | a young person or a child |
| elder     | a person older than me, etc. |

(cited from the Oxford English Dictionary, 2009)

In addition to transitivity, the ecological concept is realized by vocabulary choice. The selected words in the Table 1 are mainly used to describe human beings. Instead, they are applied to the description of the non-human species in the documentary. It proves that all species should be treated equally. For example, the words “youngster” and “elder” refer to dolphins, though they are used for humans according to the English dictionary (see the Table 2 above). There are words which describe marine creatures as individuals with their own character, instead of unfeeling objects or indistinguishable groups. The fish family has intelligence, and each of its members has their own personality, just like the smart tusk fish with determination and accuracy to open the hard shell of the clam. All of these words suggest the use of personification to foreground marine creatures. The pronoun “it” usually refers to non-human species and inanimate objects. But things are different in this documentary. The personal pronouns “he” or “she” frequently appear in each episode though this paper mainly cites the first episode. In other words, these creatures are seen as persons.

In short, Blue Planet II conveys its ecological concept by means of salience realized by transitivity and vocabulary choice, which depicts the ocean creatures as independent beings. On the other hand, backgrounded humans have less intervention in the story narration. If any, they perform as beholders rather than “invader” in the ocean world, as seen in such as sentences “…we can enter new worlds…” and “…you (humans) have to travel with them…”.

Conclusion

Nature and all species including human and non-human are equal and harmonious. In Blue Planet II, ocean creatures are never represented as powerless to humans. And human imprints appear less lest the ocean world and its presentation would be hampered. What Blue Planet II presents arouses in us the celebration of the spectacular ocean scenery and marvelous creatures beyond our imagination and enter into their world to experience how they behave and think. It can attract us to pay more attention to ecological issues and take measures to address them. This paper analyzed how the nature documentary spreads its ecological concept to the audience from the perspective of salience. It can show that how human thinking pattern and behavior are shaped by language.
References


Reconstructing Image through Translation:
A Semantic Prosody Approach to Characterization in Weicheng

Minru Zhao
School of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou College of South China University of Technology,
Guangzhou, China
Email: min-ru.zhao@connect.polyu.hk

Dechao Li
Department of Chinese & Bilingual Studies, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University,
Hong Kong, China

[Abstract] Qian Zhongshu, a well-known scholar and writer, successfully created the image of a twentieth-century Chinese intellectual – Fang Hung-chien – in his novel Weicheng. The book, which is known for its vivid descriptions of Chinese intellectuals during the early twentieth century, has been praised by C. T. Hisa as one of the best novels in modern Chinese literature. First introduced to America in 1979, the translated novel was recently reprinted by Penguin Classics (2014). This paper investigates the shifts of the characterization of Fang Hung-chien in translation by drawing on theories from descriptive translation studies, semantic prosody and narratology. The data under examination was collected from an online English-Chinese parallel concordancer. It is found that 1) only slight translation shifts occur in the target text; 2) the image of Fang Hung-chien is not as negative as that in the source text. The study attempts to inform the semantic prosody approach to translation studies. While semantic prosody has been widely studied in monolingual context, it does not receive much attention in translation studies, especially for the characterization in literary translation. The application of semantic prosody to corpus-based translation studies provides a new perspective to examine characters in literary translation.

[Keywords] Weicheng; semantic prosody; characterization; translation shifts

Introduction
Set on the eve of the Sino-Japanese war, Weicheng (first published in 1947 in China) is considered as “the most delightful and carefully wrought novel in modern Chinese literature” (C. T. Hsia, 2016, p. 365). In 1979, Jeanne Kelly and Nathan K. Mao undertook the translation task commissioned by the Indiana University Press through a cooperative effort. Jeanne Kelly did the first draft of the translation, while Nathan K. Mao wrote the introduction, revised the text and prepared it for publication. Since then, the translation has been republished three times in America by New Direction in 2004, Penguin Books in 2005 and Penguin Classics in 2006. The greatest success of the novel is the creation of the character Fang Hung-chien, whose frustrating experiences represent the condition of average educated men in modern China, when old and new ideas clash. Bumptious, indecisive, self-contradictory, passive and self-pitying, the Chinese intellectual is always disappointed on his way to seek spiritual attachment. Through translation, the character becomes a Chinese intellectual containing Chinese cultural features fused with Western cultural elements.

Extensive studies have been made on the translation of Weicheng in terms of translation strategies of humor, metaphor and culture-loaded words (e.g. Ge, & He, 2012; Lu, 2016; Lv, 2007; Tan, 2009; Wang,
However, few studies have carried out analysis of the semantic prosody in the translation of characterization. To compensate for the deficit, this study aims to examine the shifts of characterization in the translated novel via an interdisciplinary, semantic prosody approach.

In the present study, the author conducts a corpus-based analysis based on descriptive translation studies, semantic prosody and narratology. The translation shifts will be discussed in relation to context.

Research Questions and Methodology

Research Questions
The present study explores the following questions:

(1) Does the image of Fang Hung-chien in the target text deviate from that in the source text?
(2) In what ways do the translation shifts occur?
(3) What translational norms contribute to these shifts?

Focus of Analysis: Semantic Prosody in Translation
Semantic prosody was proposed by John Sinclair in 1987 and first appeared in full elaboration in Bill Louw’s article (1993). It refers to a unit of meaning which arises from the interaction between node and collocates (see Louw, 2000; Sinclair, 2004). The main function of semantic prosody is to express the writer’s attitude and evaluation. It dictates the general environment which constrains the preferential choices of the node (Partington, 2004). Generally, it is divided into three types: positive, negative and neutral prosody. Positive prosody is judged to have favorable or pleasant affective meaning, while negative prosody has unfavorable or unpleasant meaning (Xiao, & McEnery, 2006). Neutral prosody is labeled when the context provides no evidence of any semantic prosody. While semantic prosody has been widely studied in monolingual context, it does not receive much attention in translation studies. As Partington (2001) argued, the significance of semantic prosody for translation studies as one of its major research areas has to be recognized.

Drawing upon the concept of semantic prosody, this analysis will be conducted through the following steps: firstly, a quantitative analysis of the semantic prosody in the source text (ST) and target text (TT) will be conducted based on an online English-Chinese parallel concordancer. The collocates of Fang Hung-chien will be grouped according to the taxonomy of semantic prosody (positive, negative and neutral) and means of characterization (direct definition and indirect presentation). This latter classification is based on Li’s (2007) narrative framework: direct definition, which states the traits of a character explicitly, and indirect presentation, which includes description of action, speech, external appearance and thoughts. In the present study, the description of action and external appearance will be left out as they appear with a very low frequency through observation of the collected data; secondly, a qualitative analysis of parallel concordances will be carried out to identify translation shifts; thirdly, the translational norms underlying these shifts are sought.

Interpretation within the Framework of Descriptive Translation Studies
The translation shifts will be interpreted drawing on the framework of descriptive translation studies proposed by Toury (1995). Toury (2012) states that norms exert prescriptive forces at every stage in translation activities, from selecting texts for translation to adopting strategies in the solution of particular problems.
Norms can be extracted from two sources: textual and extratextual. The former refers to translation product, while the latter involves “prescriptive ‘theories’ of translation, statements made by translators, editors, publishers, and other persons involved in or connected with the event, critical appraisals of individual translators” (Toury, 2012, pp. 87-88).

Specifically, it can be reconstructed as follows: first, the translator’s linguistic choices will be analyzed with a view to identify translation shifts; second, the choices will be placed in the target culture system to understand their relations to dominant ideology and poetics; third, the patterns of choices will be generalized as whether it is source-text oriented or target-text oriented.

**Research Data**

The data under examination is extracted from an online English-Chinese parallel concordancer built by the Department of English from the Hong Kong Polytechnic University. This concordancer contains the ST and TT of *Wei Cheng*. The size of the two texts are 219,996 and 220,000 tokens, respectively.

The processing of the data takes the following procedures: first, the collected texts are stored in TXT format and edited with EmEditor; second, the ST is word segmented with Corpus Word Parser; third, the ST and TT are aligned at the sentential level using ParaConc; fourth, the collocates of “方鸿渐” in the ST and “Fang Hung-chien” in the TT are extracted simultaneously from the corpus; fifth, a parallel search is conducted for all the concordances.

**Analysis of the Translation Shifts**

*General Shifts*

The search in the corpus presents 472 collocates which occur with the node “方鸿渐” and 462 collocates with its English counterpart. After screening irrelevant ones, there remains 184 and 171 ones respectively. The occurrence and percentage of collocates with different semantic prosody are shown in Table 1 and Figure 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collocates extracted from the parallel corpus</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>40 (21.7%)</td>
<td>109 (59.2%)</td>
<td>35 (19%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT</td>
<td>44 (25.7%)</td>
<td>92 (53.2%)</td>
<td>35 (20.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log-likelihood</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-value</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Distribution of Semantic Prosody for the Collocates in the ST and TT](image-url)

*Figure 1. Distribution of the Semantic Prosody for the Collocates in the ST and TT*
From the above statistics, the character demonstrates a mixed semantic prosody, but it is more negative oriented. Through translation, the collocates with negative meaning decreases, while the ones with positive one increases. Although there is no significant difference between the ST and TT, the translated image of Fang Hung-chien has been improved.

**Shifts in Thoughts Description of Fang Hung-chien**

As a means of characterization, thoughts description of the character helps to reveal the inner qualities (Rimmon-Kenan, 2002). This description is most prevalent in this novel. In the ST, the author demonstrates great subtlety and sophistication in depicting the inner contradiction of Fang Hung-chien. In the TT, this trait is weakened. Statistics of the semantic prosody of the first type can be observed in the Table 2 and Figure 2.

Table 2. The Semantic Prosody of Thoughts Description in the ST and TT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collocates extracted from the parallel corpus</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>12 (12.2%)</td>
<td>64 (65.3%)</td>
<td>22 (22.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT</td>
<td>15 (18.8%)</td>
<td>43 (53.8%)</td>
<td>22 (27.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log-likelihood</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-value</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Distribution of the Semantic Prosody of Thoughts Description in the ST and TT

The statistics show that the thoughts description of the character has a strong negative preference in both ST (69.3%) and TT (65.9%). Through translation, the positive semantic prosody increases, while the negative one decreases. As it can be seen, the translators attempt to diminish the negative traits of the character.

To identify how the shifts of negative prosody occur, the author extracts all concordances from the parallel corpus. Two examples are listed below.

1. **ST**: 方鸿渐吓矮了半截, 想不到老头子竟这样精明。
   **TT**: Fang Hung-chien was shaken to the core, never expecting his father to be quite so shrewd.

   In Example (1), “吓矮了半截” is translated into “was shaken to the core”. Although the translation conveys that Fang Hung-chien is very shocked, it leaves the original meaning “feel inferior to others” untranslated. In this sense, the inferior mentality of the character is effaced.
2. ST: “你不听我话，要吃西菜。” 方鸿渐正满肚子委屈，听到这话，心里作恶。
   TT: ‘You wanted to eat Western food.’

In Example (2), the terms “满肚子委屈”，“心里作恶” are omitted in translation. In this way, it fails to show the grievance on Fang Hung-chien’s mind.

In these examples, strategies such as modification and omission are adopted by the translator. In this sense, the nuances affective meaning of inferiority and helpless are lost in translation.

**Shifts in Speech Description of Fang Hung-chien**
The opinions and feelings of the character can be manifested by what he says and how he says it (Bousfield, 2014). Compared with thoughts description, the use of this technique is less frequent in the novel. The statistics are presented below.

Table 3. *The Semantic Prosody of Speech Description in the ST and TT*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collocates extracted from the parallel corpus</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>15 (32.6%)</td>
<td>24 (52.2%)</td>
<td>7 (15.2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT</td>
<td>21 (33.9%)</td>
<td>32 (51.6%)</td>
<td>9 (14.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log-likelihood</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-value</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. Distribution of the Semantic Prosody of Speech Description in the ST and TT

The statistics indicate that most of the speech description of Fang Hung-chien has a negative preference. However, the negative expressions tend to decrease in the target text. It seems that translators try to improve the image of the character.

To identify how the shifts occur, the author observes the collocates in context. Two translation examples are presented below.

3. ST: 方鸿渐恨不能说：“怪不得阁下的大作也是那样斑驳陆离。”
   TT: Fang Hung-chien wished he could have said, No wonder your honorable work is such a hodgepodge.

In Example (3), “恨不能说” is translated as “wished he could have said”. The implications of self-blame and deep resignation are not translated.
4. ST: 方鸿渐谈得高兴，又要劝唐小姐吃，自己反吃得很少。
   TT: Fang Hung-chien babbled on happily, urging Miss T’ang to eat from time to time.

   In Example (4), “谈” simply means “talk”, while “babble” means talking quickly and continuously. In
   the example, “谈得高兴” is translated into “babbled on happily”. The translators not only convey the basic
   meaning of talk, but also exemplify Fang Hung-chien’s initiative in the conversation. Therefore, the
   character presents a more proactive image in the TT. In this case, the procedure of explication is adopted
   through substituting a specific word for a general one.

   **Shifts in Direct Definition of Fang Hung-chien**

   Although direct definition is less frequently adopted compared with the above means of characterization in
   the novel, it is explicit and economical in guiding the reader’s response (Rimmon-Kenan, 2002). Such
   definition, with evaluative triggers such as adjectives or nouns, are direct signs of the author’s attitude.
   Statistics of the third type can be observed in the following Table 4 and Figure 4.

   **Table 4. The Semantic Prosody of Direct Definition in the ST and TT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Collocates extracted from the parallel corpus</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ST</td>
<td>13 (32.5%)</td>
<td>21 (52.5%)</td>
<td>6 (20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TT</td>
<td>8 (27.6%)</td>
<td>17 (58.6%)</td>
<td>4 (13.8%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Log-likelihood</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P-value</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

   **Figure 4. Distribution of the Semantic Prosody of Direct Definition in the ST and TT**

   The statistics show an attitude of disapproval towards the character. It is interesting to note that through
   translation, the negative evaluation increases, while the positive and neutral ones decrease. To identify how
   the shifts are made, the author takes a closer look at the concordances in the parallel corpus. A translation
   example is listed below.

   5. ST: 人家看方鸿渐又客气，又有耐心，不知道我受你多少气。
       TT: They don't know how much I have to put up with from you.

   In Example (5), “客气” and “耐心” which have positive meanings of politeness and patience are
   omitted in the TT. Meanwhile, “受气” is translated into “put up with”, adding a negative meaning of
   intolerability. Through translation procedures of omission and modulation, the arrogance and rudeness of
   Fang Hung-chien are exemplified.
Discussion
From the above analysis, two phenomena are found: the translation shifts are small; the translators tend to efface some negative feature of the character such as cowardice and passiveness. In the TT, the negative semantic prosody is not as strong as that in the ST, for several negative collocates are omitted or replaced by neutral ones. Through translation procedures such as explication, modulation and omission, the character appears to be more proactive and aggressive in the target text. To reveal the factors contributing to the shifts, the author further investigates the ideological and poetological factors of the translation. According to Lefevere (1992), translation strategy and the solution to specific problems are dictated by ideology and poetics dominant at a certain time in a certain society. These elements provide possible explanation for the two phenomena identified in the study.

Ideology in Translation
As Munday (2001) points out, the ideology of society and the ideology of translator may constrain the choice of subject and the form of its presentation. According to a Gallup poll carried out in 1966, Americans regarded the Chinese people as hardworking, ignorant, warlike, sly and treacherous (Mackerras, 1989). To meet the American’s imagination of Chinese people, such traits of character such as cowardice and passiveness was likely to be toned down.

As to why the degree of translation shifts is small, the paratexts may provide a useful source of information. In the preface, the translators demonstrated a great appreciation of the novel *Wei Cheng*. They praised that the novel is one of the greatest in twentieth-century China. In the blurb, the editor also comments that the author is China’s most renowned author. What’s more, the translation was supported and endorsed by the author. With this view, the translators may leave the writer in peace as much as possible and move the reader toward the writer (Schleiermacher, 1813).

Poetics in Translation
According to Doorslaer (2015), the image of a nation or literature is greatly influenced by the textual dissemination history of a given trope or commonplace concerning a given nation’s character. *Weicheng* was translated against the backdrop when another Chinese novel *Rickshaw Boy* was a best seller in America. This novel, which successfully depicts the perseverance and courage of Chinese people, was considered as a representative of Chinese novels at that time. This may explain why Fang Hung-chien was rendered as more masculine and proactive in the TT.

Regarding the slight degree of translation shifts, the paratexts may provide possible explanations. In the blurb, the novel is compared to a famous English proverb, which speaks to the readers of the way they live. It indicates that the original work shares views with Western readers. In addition, the quotation from American literary canon *A History of Modern Chinese Fiction* (2016) shows that it meets the criteria of the professionals within the target literary system. In this sense, the original work can be introduced to the target readership without much adaptation.

To sum up, influenced by ideology and poetics in the target culture, the image of the character has been slightly improved in the TT.

Conclusion
This study has investigated the shifts of characterization of Fang Hung-chien in the translation of *Weicheng*. The research results demonstrate that ideology and poetics in the target culture work together to rebuild the image of the character. Although only slight translation shifts occur, the image is not as negative as that in
the ST. In addition, this work shows that semantic prosody can be combined with translation studies and narratology to help us better understand the translation shifts behind the image of a character. In recent years, greater significance has been attached to characterization in literary translation, for it is through characterization that the images of the characters are shaped and developed. This interdisciplinary study aims to contribute to the use of a new perspective to examine translation shifts of characterization via semantic prosody and help readers better understand the implicit cultural context behind them.

References


