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Raising Children to Speak Their Heritage Language in the USA: Roles of Korean Parents

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Abstract—Parents play a significant role in fostering Korean-American children’s heritage language learning. This qualitative inquiry investigates Korean immigrant parents’ beliefs and the language practices they engage in to raise their children to speak Korean. Based on questionnaires completed by 40 parents and in-depth, open-ended interviews with 5 parents, this study specifically focuses on Korean parents residing in an area with a low Korean immigrant population and how they perceive, foster, and advocate for their children’s Heritage Language (HL) learning. The findings show that parents play crucial roles as active advocates of their children’s HL learning and positive belief in HL maintenance, making best efforts to help their children see the value of learning. In addition, the findings show that parents serve as HL educators, who create an HL learning environment, instruct HL reading and writing, and incorporate digital tools and popular culture for HL learning.

Index Terms—immigrant families, heritage language, bilingual learning, biliteracy development, Korean immigrant parents

I. INTRODUCTION

Children who have an opportunity to maintain their heritage language while growing up, become bilingual and biliterate which in turn can impact positively on their cognitive, intellectual, and identity development (Choi, Lee, & Oh, 2018; Jia, Chen, Kim, Chan, & Jeung, 2014; Park & Sarkar, 2007; Yang, Yang & Lust, 2011). However, current research shows that there is an increasing number of Heritage Language (HL) learners from linguistically minoritized families, who experienced first-language loss. The narrow conception of the term, HL learner, refers to a child who is “raised in a home where a non-English language is spoken by one who speaks or merely understands the heritage language, and who is to some degree bilingual in English and the heritage language” (Valdés, 2001, p. 38). Considering a great variation in the level of language proficiency among heritage language learners (Polinsky & Kagan, 2007), we will employ a broad concept of HL learner. In this paper, HL learners refer to children who have Korean heritage and speak Korean with at least one of the parents regardless of their proficiency in Korean.

Korean-American families tend to experience their language shift from Korean to English despite the fact that they are predominantly recent immigrants and largely a Korean-speaking group (Cho 2000). Language attrition and eventual loss of heritage language can have negative consequences for HL learners, including identity crisis and diminished cultural awareness and knowledge (Law, 2015). Furthermore, loss of the heritage language has a profound effect on immigrant children’s relationships with their families and communities, and children who experience first-language loss often experience a fear of rejection from their ethnic community which can cause educational difficulties (Budiyana, 2017; Sánchez-Muñoz, 2016; Wong Fillmore,1991).

Similar to HL learners from other ethnic backgrounds, many school-aged Korean HL learners lack HL proficiency (Law, 2015; Shin, 2005; Shin, 2002). Upon entering English dominant school and society, these children feel more pressured to focus on developing English than maintaining HL (de Jong, 2011; Jia et al., 2014; Shin, 2005; Wong Fillmore, 1991). Local heritage language school can help immigrant children learn and develop their HL, share their cultural identities, and maintain their culture (Cho, 2000; Cho et al., 1997; Fishman, 2001; Lee, 2002; Lu, 2001; Shibata, 2000). However, areas in the United States with a low Korean population have few HL learning resources or educational programs available for Korean HL learners. It is therefore essential that immigrant parents, as the first HL contact and main source of HL, support their children’s HL development and maintenance at home (Brown, 2011).

As previous studies have shown, home is where bilingual learning and biliteracy development begin (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2009; Li, 2006; García & Kleifgen, 2018; Ro & Cheatham, 2009). As Lee and Wright (2014) argue, teaching heritage language starts at home with parents. While there are a number of studies that discovered immigrant parents’ positive perspectives on teaching HL to their children, little is known about how they help their children understand the value of learning and maintaining HL. This study contributes to the field of HL education by showing how Korean immigrant parents’ advocate for HL teaching and enact different teaching strategies to promote their children’s HL learning.
Since many prior studies on HL learning have focused on metropolitan cities with a higher Korean population (Jo & Lee, 2016; You, 2005), it is significant that this study pays close attention to Korean parents in the southeastern region of Virginia, United States, which has a low Korean immigrant population, limited need for Korean usage, and unavailability of HL resources for HL instruction. Much of the existing research on Korean heritage language learners focuses on Koreans living in metropolitan areas with a high density of Korean ethnic communities (You, 2005). In contrast, participants in the present study, living in an area with a very low Korean population, have little exposure to Korean ethnic communities or Korean literacy resources. By exploring beliefs and specific strategies that Korean immigrant parents engage their children at home, we strive to push back on the deficit views on immigrant parents and argue that it is essential to examine how immigrant parents support their children’s bilingualism and biliteracy in and out of the school setting.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Fostering Korean-American Children’s Heritage Language Learning at Home

The home environment is extremely important for children’s language and literacy learning because there, children engage in a wide range of effective activities, such as shared reading, play-based activities, and writing (Han & Neuharth-Pritchett, 2014). In an immigrant household, family plays a crucial role in developing their children’s HL and supporting bilingualism (De Houwer, 2007; Kang, 2013; Zhang & Slaughter-Defore, 2009) because how a family communicates, and what they do at home impacts children’s language use and proficiency.

To foster children’s HL, immigrant families engage in a wide range of practices (García & Kleifgen, 2018; Law, 2015), which are tied to the families’ past experiences, history, and culture. For example, Li (2002)’s ethnographic research on home literacy practices of four Chinese immigrant families in Canada demonstrated that parent-child interactions, parental support for literacy learning, and family activities played important roles in Chinese immigrant children’s heritage language learning. In the study, Li (2002) described a variety of home literacy practices that fostered the children’s maintenance of heritage language, including creating a bilingual wordlist, writing letters to family members, and reciting poems in Chinese.

Similarly, Song (2016a) investigated language practices that Korean immigrant families employ at home for their children’s HL learning and found that their practices were used purposefully by parents in support of their children’s HL development. In another study (Song, 2016b), hybrid language practices, such as translanguaging practices encouraged by Korean parents at home were presented as a way to foster children’s heritage language maintenance. Understanding these home language and literacy practices is important as it can inform educators of specific ways to support children’s bilingualism through strategies and resources that are utilized successfully in the home (Li, 2006; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992). Often, educators do not have opportunities to learn about and understand the home practices of linguistically and culturally diverse learners. Some educators view family practices, particularly home language practices of immigrant children, through a deficit perspective and consider them as barriers to the students’ success. Some even consider these children as in need of being “linguistically fixed or repaired” (García & Kleifgen, 2018, p. 137). Hence, it is important that we pay close attention to specific strategies and practices that immigrant parents employ at home and inform educational researchers to understand effective ways of supporting children’s biliteracy development through fostering their heritage language.

B. Korean Immigrant Parents’ Beliefs toward Heritage Language Learning

Immigrant parents’ perception toward their children’s heritage learning are significant factors for their children’s HL maintenance and learning because, as Tse (2001) asserts, parents play important roles as HL gatekeepers for their children:

Parents are in many ways “gatekeepers” to the heritage language: whether parents speak to their children in the native language; the attitudes parents hold about maintenance of the language; whether opportunities are sought out for the child to be exposed to or to formally study the language; and whether parents provide reading materials in the home or model uses of literacy (…); all may have an impact on whether and to what extent the language is retained by children (Tse, 2001, p. 37).

Previous studies demonstrate that for a number of reasons, Korean immigrant parents have a strong desire to develop and maintain their children’s heritage language proficiency (Lee, 2013; Park & Sarkar, 2007; Song, 2016a). Many Korean immigrants pursue their children’s heritage language maintenance because they believe it plays a crucial role in their children’s identity formation and understanding of their ethnic culture (Kang, 2013; Lee, 2013; You, 2005). Given that language, culture, and identity are intertwined, heritage language proficiency can indeed lead to a strong sense of ethnic identity in children. Moreover, children who are fluent in their heritage language tend to maintain close relationships with both intergenerational families and members of their ethnic minority group (Cho, 2000; Kang, 2013). In addition, Korean parents perceive bilingual competency in both Korean and English to be a key asset for their children’s future. They believe it will lead to more educational and career opportunities than those available to their children’s monolingual counterparts (Kwon, 2017; Lee, 2013). While these studies highlight the desire among Korean parents to pass down their HL to subsequent generations, little is known about the specific strategies and teaching
methods they use at home, or the barriers they face in fostering their children’s bilingual learning and biliteracy development.

C. Korean Immigrant Parents’ Practices to Maintain Heritage Language

As a result of the numerous sociocultural and personal benefits that HL brings to children, many Korean immigrant parents strive to support their children’s heritage language development and maintenance. Previous studies (Park & Sarkar, 2007) demonstrate how Korean immigrant parents are actively engaged in the local ethnic community or ethnic church in order to provide their children with opportunities to interact with Koreans and improve their Korean in a natural setting. Enrolling children in a local heritage language school is another common practice to foster their children’s heritage language learning (Kang, 2013; Kim, 2011). Many Korean immigrant parents rely on heritage language school not just for teaching language and culture, but also for supporting their children’s integration into society. For example, in a study with seven Korean mothers, Kim (2011) found that the mothers see heritage language school as an important learning space that serves as a social and emotional support system, a way to reduce detachment anxiety from parents, and a safety net for their children’s challenging immigrant lives. While some studies have been carried out in heritage language school settings (Kim, 2011; You, 2005), there is a paucity of research on how heritage language learning takes place at home. More to the point, literacy practices and the environments of Korean families are a relatively underexplored area.

III. Methodology

A. Context and Participants

In the southern region of Virginia where the study was conducted, the percentage of ethnic Koreans is less than .02% of the 1.6 million regional population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2017). It is estimated that there are about 800 Korean language speaking households in this area. As a member of the community, the first author has identified and observed a variety of educational practices used by Korean immigrant parents at home in support of their children’s HL learning, despite the limited ethnic cultural resources available in the community. Therefore, this location was intentionally chosen to examine how Korean immigrant parents raise their children learning Korean in a community with limited Korean ethnic and cultural resources.

This study used convenience subjects of 45 Korean mothers or fathers who were easily accessible and joined this study voluntarily. Data for this study were collected from 40 mothers or fathers representing 40 households residing in southeastern Virginia, omitting data from 5 households who returned incomplete questionnaires.

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<th>TABLE 1. DEMOGRAPHICS OF PARTICIPATING HOUSEHOLDS (N = 40)</th>
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<td><strong>N</strong></td>
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<td>Nationality</td>
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<tr>
<td>South Korea</td>
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<tr>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
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<tr>
<td>Parents’ First Language</td>
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<td>Korean</td>
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<td>English</td>
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<td>Korean and English</td>
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<td>Dominant Language at Home</td>
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<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
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<tr>
<td>English</td>
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<tr>
<td>Korean and English</td>
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Table 1 shows demographic data of the 40 Korean households where one or both parents are immigrants from South Korea. Either the mother or father of each of the 40 households completed the questionnaire. The participants were recruited through local Korean community networks, including Korean heritage language schools, small businesses, and Korean churches located in the region. The majority of mothers (34 out of 40) and fathers (29 out of 40) in this study, apart from a few who were born in the U.S. or other countries, are originally from Korea and immigrated to the United States for reasons including family migration, study abroad, work, or marriage.

Mean length of residence in the USA was 18 years for mothers and 24 years for fathers. The mothers’ age ranged from 37 to 55, and the fathers’ age was between 37 and 63. Most of the participants (31 out of 40) identified themselves as middle SES. Most of the participants (30 out of 40) indicated that they hold bachelors or higher degree (9 doctoral degree, 5 master’s, and 16 bachelor’s degrees) with an annual income of more than $60,000. Their education level and income can be served as an indicator of the middle-class households.
The majority (52.5%) of the participant parents have two children, while 35% have one, and 12.5% have three. The mean age of first and second children was 12.26 (SD = 3.74) and 9.46 (SD = 3.77), respectively. While 17 out of 40 parents responded that they use both Korean and English flexibly at home, 15 out of 40 parents said they use Korean as their dominant language at home. This data indicated that the children of the majority (32 out of 40) have the opportunity to speak Korean. Eight parents indicated a preference for using only English at home. Parents who expressed an interest in participating in further in-depth, semi-structured interviews were contacted for interviews. Table 2 shows demographics of five interview participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Hayoung</th>
<th>Jinah</th>
<th>Minju</th>
<th>Yunha</th>
<th>Eunjoo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth Place</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Korea</td>
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<tr>
<td>Profession</td>
<td>Housewife</td>
<td>Realtor</td>
<td>Housewife</td>
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<td>Immigration History</td>
<td>6 years ago</td>
<td>20 years ago</td>
<td>18 years ago</td>
<td>9 years ago</td>
<td>12 years ago</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Spoken at Home</td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>Korean</td>
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<tr>
<td>Age and Gender of Child(ren)</td>
<td>15-year-old (female) and 8-year-old (female)</td>
<td>18-year-old (male) and 15-year-old (female)</td>
<td>16-year-old (female) and 12-year-old (male)</td>
<td>7-year-old (male)</td>
<td>10-year-old (male)</td>
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B. Data Collection

To understand Korean immigrant parents’ perspectives and practices for children’s HL maintenance, we collected responses from open-ended questionnaires and in-depth face-to-face interviews with the Korean immigrant parents. The questionnaires in appendix 1 consisted of three sections, including family demographics (e.g., age, migration history, level of education, etc.), bilingual education beliefs, and heritage language and literacy practices used at home. Each section, aside from the demographic section, included open-ended questions that guided the parents to think about their beliefs and practices. The questionnaires were drawn from review of the literature and verified with several bilingual education experts who are fluent in both Korean and English using a recursive process. The questionnaires were provided in dual language and responses were also collected either Korean or English. While collecting the written responses to the questionnaires, we took field notes to document any qualifying statements from authentic conversations with the participants.

Appendix 2 lists the specific questions that guided our semi-structured interviews. The majority of our interview questions were “grand tour” questions that focused on the parents’ perceptions and practices (Spradley, 1979, p. 88). All names of interview participants used in the paper are pseudonyms to protect confidentiality. Each interview was conducted in Korean for better communication in person and lasted approximately one hour. All interviews were audio-recorded and later transcribed verbatim. Interviewees were asked about their beliefs regarding the importance of teaching Korean to their children and specific strategies they use for teaching HL to their children at home.

C. Data Analysis

This qualitative study analyzed multiple data sources including responses to an open-ended questionnaire, interview transcripts, and field notes. After organizing the data, we identified repeatedly used phrases and recurring patterns. We then immersed ourselves in interview data, reading carefully the participants’ responses to our in-depth, open-ended questions (Marshall & Rossman, 2006), and wrote down comments, ideas, and questions during the iterative reading process (Cresswell, 2007). After discussing and comparing similarities and differences in the themes and sub-themes identified, we arrived at a consensus for the final themes. We used open coding (Miles & Huberman, 1994) and assigned codes based on our research questions and review of the literature. After developing a list of initial codes, we matched them again with questionnaire data and identified categories and themes across multiple sources of data. To enhance trustworthiness of the analysis, data triangulation was completed by member checking (Cresswell & Miller, 2000; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). We discussed the themes and sub-themes identified through careful readings of the content of the multiple sources of data until we arrived at a consensus for the final themes.

IV. FINDINGS

In this section, we discuss several themes and sub-themes we identified across multiple sources of data. The first section, Parents as HL Advocates, highlights parents’ strong beliefs in heritage language maintenance and helping
Children see the value of learning HL. In the second section, Parents as Heritage Language Teachers, we address how Korean immigrant parents create an HL learning environment, teach HL reading and writing, and use popular culture and digital media as mediums of instruction.

A. Parents as Heritage Language Advocates

Parents’ Beliefs toward Heritage Language Maintenance. With respect to Korean immigrant parents’ beliefs about bilingual education, the vast majority (38 out of 40 participant parents) shared their firm belief in the importance of developing their children’s HL. This is consistent with previous studies (Kang 2013; Kwon, 2017) that illustrated Korean immigrant parents’ emphasis on heritage language development. The participants believed that HL is beneficial for the practical purpose of increased job opportunities. More importantly, the parents also emphasized close ties with family members and a strong ethnic identity as important benefits of HL maintenance.

When asked the reasons for their positive views on heritage language maintenance, 15 parents responded that learning Korean allows their children to better communicate with their parents, grandparents, and extended families in Korea. They also shared their concerns that the loss of HL can have a disruptive impact on family relations and communication between parents and children. This concern was more frequently brought up by first-generation immigrant mothers born in Korea, and mothers who are not fluent in English. For example, Hayoung, an immigrant mother who moved to the United States 6 years ago, shared her fear of being unable to communicate with her children as she notices her second child, an 8-year-old daughter, becoming more comfortable speaking in English:

My daughters listen and obey me now. When they grow up and become rebellious, what will happen? I am scared that if my children refuse to learn Korean as they grow up. I will not understand their inner thoughts and not be a capable problem-solving partner and thinking partner for my daughters.

Her concern was shared by other focal parents who are strong proponents of teaching HL, as illustrated in the following quote. Jinah, noted:

Honesty, I teach Korean to my children for a selfish reason. I want my children to speak Korean with me for my own needs. I never had a chance to learn English, and my English is not fluent. For my own communication needs, my children should not lose Korean.

Minju who emigrated to the U.S. 18 years ago, stated there were many occasions where she found it difficult to communicate with her two children, a 16-year-old daughter and 12-year-old son. She had to ask her children to repeat things they said in English or ask them questions for clarification. She was concerned about not being able to communicate with her children in the future due to language barriers. She also mentioned that the loss of HL would “disrupt the emotional connection” with them. Her concern has motivated her to teach her child Korean and she has told her child, “You have to learn Korean because my English is not fluent.”

Parents who are not comfortable and lack confidence in using English tend to rely more on their children’s acquisition of Korean than their own acquisition of English, especially in an area with a limited number of Korean speakers. This finding shows how immigrant parents share the belief that children’s HL fluency is primarily what helps the families maintain a close intergenerational relationship and engage in effective familial communication.

Helping Children See the Value of Heritage Language Learning. We found that the majority of Korean parents (38 out of 40) believe that they are responsible for their children’s HL learning. Two of the interviewees interestingly stated that HL teaching is “a mother’s” responsibility. Korean parents’ strong belief that they are the most influential teacher who can help children see the value of learning HL may stem from their view that “home is the only environment where a child can learn Korean,” especially in a community where English is seen as standard language and Korean as a nonfunctional language without use. Previous studies corroborate this belief by showing that parents play an important role as key agents in developing children’s bilingualism (Kang, 2013).

Some parents (11 out of 40) express to their children how important it is to know their heritage culture and establish their Korean identity. They reported that a primary motivation for teaching heritage language to their children is the building of a strong sense of ethnic identity in their children. All five interview participants commented that maintaining their heritage culture and traditions is one of the ways to build an ethnic identity for their children. One of the mothers, Yunha, said her 7-year-old son considers himself “American” rather than “Korean.” However, both she and her husband believe that teaching him the Korean language is “not an option, but mandatory” because it will help their child to have pride in his culture and grow with a stronger ethnic identity. She said, “I tell him that he must learn Korean because the fact that he is Korean does not change although he was born in the U.S.” These parents’ beliefs align with assertions that children, through learning a heritage language, can gain a better understanding of their heritage culture and therefore preserve their heritage identity (Brown, 2011; Park & Sarkar, 2007; Cavallaro, 2005). Our findings indicate the parents believe HL maintenance enhances not only ethnic identity construction, but also bicultural understanding and positive views on bicultural identities (Cho & Krashen, 1998; Lee, 2002).

Challenges of Heritage Language Maintenance. Parents in this study shared that they encounter many barriers in supporting their children’s heritage language maintenance and learning. Parents (11 out of 40) agreed that living in a region where English is considered the norm places pressure on their children to focus on achieving English proficiency over Korean language. These parents pointed out their children’s limited exposure to heritage language environment in their school and community, as the city has a low population of Korean immigrants. The parents stated that “they (children) are predominantly exposed to the environment where speaking in English is required,” and “there is no
of opportunity to use Korean.” One of the interview participants, a mother of a 7-year-old son, commented, “living in the U.S. itself makes it difficult to teach heritage language. Once you step outside your door, everyone you meet speaks English.” Another mother pointed out that it would have greatly benefited her child if the school had offered Korean as a foreign language and said, “My son’s school offers a lot of different options for foreign language class such as Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, and French; but Korean is not an option.” Another mother echoed this opinion, stating that her child spends most of her day using English, as she does so when socializing with her friends. For these reasons, interview participants indicated that they feel a stronger sense of responsibility to teach HL at home. They added that this is the reason they enroll their children in a local heritage language school, a place where children will be exposed to the Korean language and culture. The four heritage language schools in the local community were highly valued by participant parents and described as “well-structured” and “educative.” However, given that the schools offer classes only once a week, parents felt the need for additional HL programs.

Furthermore, the participants pointed out that lack of motivation is primarily what hinders their children from maintaining Korean. Given that the children are predominantly exposed to an all-English environment and have little time to study Korean, they often feel like giving up on learning their HL. Two parents explained that it is difficult for their children to maintain their motivation when there is “excessive homework,” “busy school work,” and “no time to work on Korean.” Korean-American children tend to stop using their HL and become unmotivated as they feel pressure to learn English in an all-English environment. Considering the challenges that mothers in this study described, it is important that parents play an active role at home as HL educators by exposing their children to greater numbers of HL materials and opportunities to use and learn Korean.

B. Parents as Heritage Language Educators

The results reveal that Korean parents, residing in a region with a small Korean population, participate and engage in a wide range of educational practices at home to foster their children’s heritage language development just as actively as their counterparts living in a large Korean community. These practices include practicing HL reading and writing, utilizing HL popular culture and media, and creating an HL learning environment. It is noteworthy that Korean parents engage their children in shared reading activities and journal writing for HL learning purposes. The findings of this study urge educators to view immigrant parents as essential partners in their children’s bilingual and bicultural learning. It also highlights the need for encouraging parents to continue to engage their children in these language and literacy activities at home.

Creating an HL Learning Environment to Use Korean Consistently. Of the 40 participants, 8 parents reported that they use English only when communicating with their children. Others stated that they either speak only Korean or use both Korean and English with their children. They indicated that their purposeful use of Korean for casual conversation is to naturally expose their children to their HL. All five interview participants also stated that they intentionally speak Korean at home to create a positive learning environment. For instance, Jinah, who strongly believes “family conversation always need to be in Korean,” remarked that she and her husband intentionally use the Korean language at home in order to encourage their children to use the HL. Several parents explained that they had established the use of a family language policy (King, Fogle, & Logan-Terrey, 2008) where they explicitly and implicitly plan language use in home settings. Yunha, for example, mentioned that her family has “basic rules” not only to speak just Korean, but also to follow Korean customs, such as bowing to their elders to show respect. A few mothers explained that they alternate between English and Korean when communicating with their children. Minju, for example, stated that she uses English when helping her child with homework and explaining difficult concepts, such as fractions. In another context such as casual conversations and text messaging, she intentionally uses Korean to expose her child to an HL learning environment. While Korean was used as a primary language for communication, English also was incorporated to scaffold children’s academic learning.

HL Reading and Writing Instruction at Home. Parents in this study acknowledged the necessity of developing HL reading and writing of their child or children. A majority (32 out of 40) reported that they engage in an array of practices at home for fostering their children’s reading and writing in Korean. One of the parents noted that reading and writing in HL is “a basic skill” that her child needs. When parents were asked how they teach HL to their children, a majority of participants confirmed that they either regularly encourage their children to read Korean books (12 out of 40) or read books to them (13 out of 40). The participants also explained that they purchase and read Korean books to their children. A majority of participants shared that they have more than 30 books at home that are either written in Korean or about Korean culture. Because there is a limited number of HL materials (e.g., children’s books, teaching materials) available in public and school libraries, several parents stated that they share and rotate books with other Korean families in the community.

Interview participants noted that the books they have about Korean language and culture written in Korean were either purchased during their trips to Korea or brought back by their relatives. One of the mothers, Eunju, had more than 100 books written in Korean, which exceeds the number of English books she has for her son. She explained that she purchases picture books and chapter books whenever she visits Korea. Yunha, who does not have many chances to visit Korea, shared that whenever her extended family visits the U.S., she asks them to bring some children’s books, which she reads to her child two or three times a week.
One of the mothers explained that she encourages her child to write journal entries in Korean on a regular basis, which she believes is an effective way to develop her child’s HL writing skills. Her strategy stemmed from her own experiences of learning and maintaining Korean when she lived in the U.S. for a few years as a child. She described her experience as follows:

My parents used to make me write journal entries in Korean when I was young. Then my family moved back to Korea when I was in the 3rd grade. Because I practiced writing in Korean a lot, I soon adapted to the new environment when I returned to Korea.

Other mothers also echoed that parent-guided HL writing activities help their children develop good HL writing habits as well as their HL writing skills.

Participants also noted that they intentionally use media to expose their children to Korean movies and television programs. In the questionnaires, the majority of Korean parents (35 out of 40) reported that they frequently encourage their children to watch or listen to Korean popular culture and media channels such as music videos on YouTube, comedies, documentary shows, and cartoons. During the in-depth interviews, all five mothers noted that heritage popular culture and media is a great resource for their children to learn Korean. One of the mothers, Yunha, emphasized that her family routinely watch Korean television programs two or three times a week to ensure her son’s Korean learning. She said, “I try to watch Korean television with my child as much as possible because it motivates him to learn Korean. He asks us questions about words and expressions to understand the TV shows.” Similarly, Eunju explained that her family “tries to watch Korean television programs regularly” because it motivates her child to learn Korean. Just as for these two families, exposure to Korean media stimulated children’s curiosity leading them to raise questions about vocabulary and expressions in order to understand meaning within context.

V. DISCUSSION & IMPLEMENTATIONS

We investigated Korean immigrant parents’ beliefs and the home practices they engage in to raise bilingual and biliterate children. Specifically, we examined Korean immigrants’ perspectives concerning their children’s HL development and explored their experiences of teaching their heritage language at home. The participating parents believe that in addition to acquiring the English language naturally, their children need to learn their heritage language, at least at home, simultaneously. This finding reflects results reported by previous studies (Cho, 2000; Han, 2012; Li, 2002; Kwon, 2017; Park & Sarkar, 2007) which revealed the strong tendency of immigrant parents to raise their children to be bilingual and bicultural.

Parents in this study highlighted that learning Korean can help a child better communicate with parents as well as relatives in Korea. This finding mirrors results reported by (Brown, 2011; Kwon, 2017; Park & Sarkar, 2007) which found that heritage language is a necessary conduit between parents and children, and an important medium of communication among immigrants in an adopted country. It is important to urge that parents with limited English proficiency invest more in cultivating their children’s HL skills so that they can communicate with their children in Korean. Immigrant parents should understand the importance of speaking HL with their children at home to increase the chance of successfully teaching their HL (De Houwer, 2007). Immigrant parents should use whichever language they are proficient with when teaching HL which will support their children maintaining their HL currently and for many generations to come.

Korean parents take responsibility for their children’s HL learning. Participant parents explained that the scarcity of resources on Korean and their children’s limited exposure to Korean, Korean books, and learning opportunities make their roles as HL educators much more imperative. This can be explained in part by the lack of HL support from mainstream public schools, which leads immigrant parents to assume sole responsibility for their children’s HL maintenance (Hinton, 1999 cited in Park & Sarkar, 2007; Lao, 2004, Li, 1999), especially in a region with a small Korean population. The participants shared that they face many challenges as they support and maintain their children’s heritage language (DeCapua & Wintergerst, 2009). Living in an English-dominant society gives few opportunities for language minority children to be exposed to HL or learning materials. Moreover, as English is the only language of critical use and heavily emphasized in school and society, children easily lose motivation to develop their HL. Hence, it is important that schools and communities work collaboratively with parents in supporting children’s HL development (Cummins, 2001; Kondo, 1998).

This qualitative study has significance as it contributes to the ongoing conversation about immigrant children’s bilingualism and suggests implications for practice and research. Our study provides several implications to teachers and administrators of heritage language schools. Given that immigrant parents play significant roles as their children’s HL teachers and advocates, it is important that heritage language schools partner with immigrant families who possess broad knowledge and effective strategies useful for cultivating children’s bilingualism and biliteracy. For instance, gathering parents’ perspectives, strategies, and practices concerning children’s HL through questionnaires at the beginning of each semester will allow teachers to create a HL curriculum that is linguistically and culturally responsive. We also suggest HL school administrators organize events and groups where immigrant parents can share literacy materials and advice for children’s heritage language learning. The findings also imply that it is important for teachers in mainstream schools to encourage immigrant children and their families to continue supporting HL learning at home.
VI. CONCLUSION

Parents who speak a language other than English can enrich their immigrant children’s language and literacy experiences by providing them with extensive exposure to multiple languages and cultures and utilizing an array of HL teaching practices at home. This study is significant as it examines an area with a low density of Koreans, yet a relatively large number of families participated in the study that paid close attention specific HL teaching strategies they use at home. Participants in this study have shown that Korean parents are advocates for their children learning and maintaining their HL despite the fact that they reside in an English dominant community with a small Korean population, limited HL resources, and schools with very little HL support.

We illustrated Korean parents’ efforts to raise their children to be bilingual and bicultural. This includes: enforcing home language policy, exposing children to Korean media, and instructing reading and writing at home. The parent’s conscious efforts to develop simultaneous bilingualism can help children maintain their HL and cultural heritage as well as increase intergenerational dialog within the immigrant family and between the extended families overseas. It is, therefore, important that parents continue to enrich children’s heritage language learning by using reading and writing strategies, creating an HL environment, and introducing children to their ethnic culture. In addition, we argue that mere exposure to Korean at home or HL school is not enough for children to maintain their HL and acquire high Korean proficiency. This study confirms that “context collaboration” (Li & Wen, 2015) is imperative, where families, mainstream schools, and local ethnic communities collaboratively support immigrant children’s heritage language learning and create a positive environment where linguistic diversity is valued.

APPENDIX I. OPEN-ENDED KOREAN HOME BILINGUAL EDUCATION QUESTIONNAIRES

A. Family Demographic Information

Number of people in the family: 가족 구성원 수
Number of children in the family: 가족 중 자녀 수
Household gross annual income (combine all income): 가족 총 수입
What is the native language of the mother? 어머니의 모국어는 무엇입니까?
What is the native language of the father? 아버지의 모국어는 무엇입니까?
Father’s and Mother’s age: 아버지, 어머니 나이
Father’s reason for coming to the U.S.: 아버지, 어머니의 미국에 온 이유
Father’s Highest Level of Education: 아버지, 어머니의 최고 학력
Father’s number of years living in USA: 아버지, 어머니의 미국 생활 년 수
Child’s dominant language(s) at home: 집에서 주로 쓰는 언어
Age of child (children): 자녀 나이
Birth place of child (children): 자녀 출생지

B. Bilingual Education Beliefs:

(1) Why or why not do you believe it is important for your child(ren) to learn Korean?
자녀가 한국어를 배우는 것이 중요하다고 믿는다면 또는 반대로 중요하지 않다고 생각한다면 각각 그 이유를 밝혀 주십시오.
(2) How do you help your child(ren) understand your beliefs regarding the value of learning Korean? What do you tell your children to help them believe in the value of learning Korean?
자녀들이 한국어를 배우는 가치에 관한 당신의 믿음을 어떻게 이해하시니까? 자녀에게 한국어를 배우는 것이 가치 있다고 믿을 수 있도록 어떤 방식을 주십시오?
(3) How do you and your spouse agree or disagree about your child(ren)’s learning Korean? Explain with an example.
당신과 배우자는 자녀가 한국어를 배우는 것에 동의하십니까? 반대하십니까? 예를 하나 들어 설명하십시오.
(4) Who is primarily responsible for teaching Korean to your child(ren)?
자녀에게 한국어를 가르치는 사람은 주로 누가 책임있습니까?

C. Heritage Language and Literacy Practices:

(1) How do you support your child(ren)’s learning Korean? List any teaching activities you have used to teach the heritage language?
당신의 자녀가 한국어를 배우는 것을 어떻게 지원하십니까? 가르치는 방법을 나열하십시오.
(2) What obstacles do you have in encouraging your child(ren) to learn Korean? How do you overcome those obstacles?
자녀들이 한국어를 배우는 것을 돕는 일에 방해되는 일이 있습니까? 있다면 어떻게 극복하십니까?
Do you have any specific strategies you have adopted to help your children to learn Korean?

How frequently did your family visit your home country in a year and for what period?

How types of Korean books and media do you expose your children to?

What difficulties have you had supporting your children’s Korean learning?

How do you help your child(ren) read Korean books at home?

What do you do to support your child(ren) learning Korean?

How important is it for your children to learn and maintain their Korean?

Is there another person who teach Korean to your children at home?

APPENDIX II. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

REFERENCES


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Guang-Lea Lee came to the United States of America in 1988 from her native country, South Korea and earned a Master’s degree from Chicago State University, Chicago, Illinois in 1990 and a Ph. D. degree from the University of Minnesota, Twin Cities, Minnesota in 1993 in the area of literacy education.

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Dr. Gupta has been an active member of the International Literacy Association (ILA), having served on its multiple special interest groups as well as on the National Commission on Urban Diversity, the National Title One Committee of ILA, and the National Commission on Urban Initiatives in Education. Dr. Gupta has also co-chaired the Diversity Learning Committee and the Diversity Learning and Multiculturalism Committee of ILA.
Writing in Arabic as a Foreign Language (AFL): Towards Finding a Balance between Translation Dependency and Creative Writing

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Abstract—The main objective of the paper is to assess the effect of Google translation and other software applications on the students’ writing in Arabic as a Foreign Language (AFL). Its central hypothesis hinges on the possibility that some students’ errors are attributable to translation mishaps. The research is based on three main areas of enquiry: first; it seeks to establish patterned input when writing in Arabic, such as a semantic transfer from English to Arabic and literal translation. Second, the paper discusses those areas of the Arabic language that challenge the students’ inability to provide a correct TL (Target Language) output on the levels of morpho-syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Third, the paper argues for the importance of teaching the rudiments of translation at the early stages of language learning. Hence, it proposes solutions and empirical strategies to reducing the students’ reliance on translation by, for instance, educating them about the translation process, and by designing guided writing tasks with rehearsed structures, and without discouraging creativity.

Index Terms—Arabic as a foreign language, translation, google translation, second language acquisition, language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

With the advance in technology, non-native speakers of Arabic rely heavily on various online tools and computer applications (such as translation through Word) to assist them with their writing tasks. For this study, the paper uses the term ‘machine translation’ (MT) to refer to any non-human translation. The students’ motivation behind relying on ‘machine’ translation is predictable because either they aim at reducing errors in their writing or, they lack the linguistic skills in the target language (Arabic). However, since these students are not familiar with the complexities of the Arabic language in terms of sentential structures and rhetoric, they may fall in the trap of literal translation.

The productive skill of writing is inherently difficult to a non-native speaker of Arabic. Writing can cause anxiety among students of L2, as it is “an emotional as well as cognitive activity” (Cheng, 2002, p. 647). The writer, in this case the student, needs not only possess the grammatical rules in the text’s production but also he/she needs to be familiar with the subtleties and nuances of language. Writing differs from spoken discourse. These differ on several fronts, and among these: ‘permanence’, ‘explicitness’, ‘density’, ‘detachment’, ‘organization’, and the use of standard language (Ur, 1991, p. 161).

Probably the most relevant of these to the translation process is ‘detachment’ and ‘explicitness’. Detachment is understood in terms of ‘time’ and ‘space’ where the writer or translator might know his/her reader. By explicitness, the writer needs “to make clear the contexts and all references” (Ur, 1991, p. 161).

Writing in Arabic for a student whose English is a first language presents many challenges. Linguistically, the sentence in Arabic has more flexibility than its English counterpart, one finds possible structures such as VSO, SVO, VOS, and OVS, but this structural ‘freedom’ is bound by grammatical notions of ‘case’ and topicalization. Though case or the marking of the last letter in nouns in not shown when writing MSA, it does not lead to misunderstanding (Holes, 2004, p. 251). This is because there is a normal word order for MSA that is determined primarily by a principle organization: what is already “known” from the previous text or context) and is usually grammatically definite) precedes what is “new” (and is usually indefinite), regardless of whether what is known /definite is the grammatical subject or object.

A close analysis of the students’ writing in Arabic reveals both grammatical and lexical problems. And the complex nature of the pronouns system in Arabic (12 against 8), the Idhafa structure (annexation), subject-verb agreement, and case present some of the main challenges when writing in Arabic. Even lexically, students overlook the variance between words and overgeneralise its uses. Translation through MT does not constellate word meanings compared to dictionaries.

Writing in Arabic becomes even a more challenging task when the student uses online tools for the translating of words, sentences, or even chunks of texts. In the translation process from English to Arabic, the student or ‘amateur’
translator is unaware of the imperfections of online translation tools, which provide mainly decontextualized translations with no consideration of audience or purpose in mind.

Hence, inevitably writing and its link with translation should be considered when designing language programs such as in SLA (Second Language Acquisition) and the teaching of foreign languages.

The paper aims to answer three critical questions; first, what grammatical and stylistic aspects of students’ reliance on MT can be evidenced in their writing? Second, how the skill of translation can be fused into language pedagogy and theories of language acquisition? Third, what strategies do teachers should follow to reduce students’ dependency on translation?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The relationship between language teaching and translation goes back a long time. The grammar-translation methodology forms one part of the other two macro-methodological approaches, namely Audiolingual/audio-visual, and Communicative language teaching (Funk, 2012). The hegemony of grammar-translation “emphasised the written medium and the study of explicit grammar rules, gave way to new methods based on scientific accounts of language and well-established learning theory (i.e. behaviourism)” (Ellis, 2002, p. 4). The methodologies mentioned above have been proven of little benefit to the students, and the constant correction of errors has proven to play a role in demotivating the learners (Ellis, 2002, p. 4). These methods have been superseded by the communicative approach; the communicative approach itself has been challenged by ‘blended learning’, where online learning espouses face to face learning. These changes and challenges in language teaching methodologies have instigated the birth of TAF (Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language) and TASL (Teaching Arabic as a Second Language) studies. While TAF has been conceptualised and developed mainly outside Arab lands, the TASL is treated in the Arab-speaking world and focus more on the learner and learning process (Alhawary, 2009).

It is significant to stress the difference between these two approaches, particularly with Arabic, as learning Arabic as a foreign language has strong implication to the significance of the students’ exposure to the language. According to Stevens (2006), AFL students need more additional teaching hours to attain proficiency. Students often comment on the lack of opportunity to use their language skills in the community.

The term SLA, when applied to Arabic, presents numerous problems, as Arab scholars are divided in defining it because of the existence of various Arabic varieties and the perennial problem of diglossia. Some scholars consider MSA as a mother tongue, while others see it as second language because of the wide gap between the colloquial form and the standard (Facchin, 2017). However, SLA studies in its ‘pure’ form follow three tendencies:

1. a general move from description to explanation of L2 acquisition, (2) the widening of the frame of reference from the study of how learners acquire grammatical competence to how they acquire a knowledge of the pragmatic rules of an L2, and (3) the establishment of SLA as a relatively autonomous subdiscipline of applied linguistics and a concurrent lessening of interest in its application to language teaching (Ellis, 2002, p. 5).

SLA studies and theories have helped improve language teaching methodology through a move from “research then theory” to “theory then research” (Reynolds 1971, cited in Long (1985). This shift has generated significant theories in SLA such as the role of input in Krashen’s Monitor Model, and Pienemann’s (1989; 1998; 2005) Processability Theory (PT) where the latter stresses that teaching should be based only on those language structures the student can process, and are produced “according to a particular developmental hierarchy in which learners are unable to produce a structure belonging to a particular stage if they cannot produce structures belonging to a lower stage in the hierarchy” (Al Shatter, 2011, p. 128). Other SLA theories such as the focus on the needs of the learner (Doughty 2003), and what the learner observes or notices in the target language under the umbrella of “Noticing Hypothesis” (Al Shatter, 2011, p. 128).

However, the changes in language teaching and learning methodologies become closely related to the language learner’s needs and aspirations. Besides the four macro-skills of speaking, reading, listening and writing, the language learner needs to possess the pragmatic skills of language and intercultural competence. Lack of these latter skills is evidenced through various examples of students’ mishaps in their writing exercises. Though some elements of the pragmatic aspect of language are found in several resource books in Arabic such as Alosh and Clark’s (2013) Ahlan Wa Sahlan, the variety and authenticity of these examples found in the book are still lacking depth and authenticity.

The teaching of Arabic always had its challenges. The Arabic language was classified by the USA Department of State in Category III or IV as “super hard languages” (Ryding, 2006, p. 15). Several substantial volumes have discussed the hurdles of teaching learning Arabic, such as the edited work of Wahba et al. (2006). Though the handbook covers a range of issues in the teaching of Arabic language such as ‘diglossia’, it fails to address the problems associated with the need to reconsider how translation should be introduced in creating Arabic resources. However, there is a consensus in several works in the volume, such as by Ditters (2006), Madhany (2006), and Stevens (2006) that using technology is inevitable in language acquisition. For instance, Ditters (2006, p. 242) points out that ‘man-machine’ communication has made giant leaps in both software and hardware development from ‘terminals linked to mainframes’ in the 70s to personal computers in the 80s and the internet in the 90s. This development has helped to produce Arabic graphics and fonts to facilitate CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning). Today, numerous software firms offer the teaching of Arabic online such as Declan, Rosetta, Aramedia, Quest, and Sakhr (Ditters, 2006, p. 245). However, Stevens (2006, p. 254) believes that “access in technology does not guarantee its use in language learning.” For instance,
overreliance on technology in text production may increase instances of plagiarism.

Conversely, Madhany (2006, p. 295-296) advocates that teachers should use computer software such as Office Word, e-mail and the Internet in Arabic. He supports these because:

These three prevailing applications is [sic] encouraged because they have currency in the general marketplace and face little threat of being supplanted (as opposed to being continually updated) by new technologies. All three have persisted for well over a decade now and even as they continue to improve in functionality and efficacy, they will grow to provide more and more options for the end user.

However, Madhany’s claim that by the sheer learning of word processing skills in Arabic improves competency and proficiency is a far-fetched proposition. He asserts that through Word features such as the correction of spelling and the provision of synonyms can help students’ language acquisition. Even though his findings are based on research that harks back to the 1990s and early 2000s, they still need to be re-qualified today, primarily when AFL students rely on online translations instead of word processing software.

However, about the teaching of Arabic, the reliance on the grammar-translation methodology is still ubiquitous today in Arabic textbooks. This is because “less commonly taught and researched languages are still basically taught and learned with an emphasis on grammar, while internationally more frequently taught languages such as English, German and French have progressed to a communicative approach with an emphasis on language production and a more implicit approach in the teaching of grammatical structures” (Funk, 2012, p.298).

One of the language’s macro-skills is writing. It is a productive skill, which is one of the most challenging skills a student of AFL may experience. In terms of difficulty, according to Davies (1976), writing along with speaking belongs to ‘stage 3’ of knowledge of the foreign language. It is preceded by stage 1 (the receptive skill of reading) and stage 2 (the receptive aural skills) (Davies 1976). Davies (1976) advocates a push towards teaching the receptive skills more than the productive skills as he criticizes language courses which after three years of study, students lack reading skills.

In their book on pragmatics Thinking Arabic Translation: Course in Translation Method:Arabic to English, Dickins et al. (2002) have treated translation as a process engendered by the translator’s ‘strategic decisions’ and ‘decisions of details’ (Dickins et al. 2002, p. 6-7). By strategic decisions, the authors propose that the translator considers both linguistic and extra-linguistic characteristics of the ST, effect and genre. These ‘decisions details’ refer to the translator’s reasoning when encountering translation problems with the ST’s lexico-grammar. These translation problems have attracted a plethora of studies trying to account for the translator’s ‘pitfalls or ‘errors’. A few researchers have provided criticism of the current practices in assessing the translator’s performance, such as Hatim (2013) and Nord (1991). Hatim (2013) questions the validity and reliability of the assessment and performance tools utilized in assessing translation. The ‘yard-stick’ used to assess performance “becomes an all-or-nothing category, applied against some undefined absolute standard instead of responses being judged in terms of degrees of acceptability for particular purposes” (Hatim and Mason, 1997, p. 165). There is also a distinction between “translation quality assessment” and “translator performance assessment”, where the focus should be on the skills taught such as how to handle a specific task and “audience design” (Hatim and Mason, 1997, p. 170).

However, the discussion thus far is based on the observations and inferences from students of translation viewpoint, who are learning about translation methodologies, not from the amateur translator’s perspective.

The analysis of amateur translations alludes to Izwaini’s (2012) work which examined amateur translations on Social Media. His findings indicate that the translations are generally poor in quality. Sometimes, he points out that these translations can be ‘fake’ aiming at amusement and are generally conducted in the colloquial form of Arabic (2012, p. 98). What complicates assessing the quality of translation, especially in social media and particularly with subtitling, is what Izwaini (2012) calls “relay subtitling” when the amateur translator does not mention the ST when translated to the ‘first’ TT (Target Text) and then into Arabic.

Parallel to amateur translations as discussed by Izwaini (2012), lack of quality of translation is found in MT. MT refers to the “process that utilizes computer software to translate text from one natural language to another. This definition involves accounting for the grammatical structure of each language and using rules, examples and grammars to transfer the grammatical structure of the source language into the target language (TL)” (Alawneh et al. 2011, p. 95). Alwaneh et al.’s research of MT from English into Arabic is based on the sentential level. The problem areas in MT include and not restricted to the adjective-noun agreement, verb-subject agreement, and pronouns. These grammatical areas always cause a problem for non-native speakers of Arabic.

Correct translation hinges heavily on the students’ awareness of the significance of morpho-syntax in Semitic languages where there is an intimate relationship between morphology and semantics. According to Almanna (2016, p. 38), “translators need to pay extra attention to these semantically related Arabic words to avoid confusion that they may cause as they sometimes lend themselves to morphologically unrelated words.” For instance, kataba ‘he wrote’ vs. kataba ‘he corresponds’, qattala ‘to kill’ vs. qattala ‘to massacre’.

The few instances when the students learn about the link between morphology and meaning, it was like a revelation, as confirmed by Almanna (2016, p. 38). This is because only a few resources in Arabic offer explanations about the subtleties of the Arabic language, let alone translation.

This paper identifies areas of difficulty in learning AFL on both lexical and sentential levels. It argues for the teaching of essential skills of translation as evidence suggests students’ overreliance on translation through MT and
other software applications.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The significance of translation in academic discourses has produced a plethora of studies in all aspects of translation theories and practices. However, the connection between language teaching and translation is still understudied. Perhaps, the areas that both disciplines share are error analysis in both translation and writing, as a productive skill in language learning acquisition. Since the paper focuses on the translation mishaps when writing in Arabic, it is of relevance to the study to conceptualise the underpinnings of these errors.

One of the significant criticisms of testing translation performance is that “all the skills are tested at once and errors do not necessarily show which skill is deficient” (Hatim and Mason, 1997, p. 165). Few researchers have analysed translation errors, including Gouadec (1981) and Sager (1983).

In the present paper the source text (ST) is not available, as the students produce a text in Arabic with or without the assistance of MT, which is one difficulty of error analysis. However, based on Sager’s (1983) work, errors are classified in these areas, namely inversion of meaning, omission, addition, deviation, and modification. This is summarized into three macro-levels, which are linguistic, semantic, and pragmatic (as cited in Hatim and Mason, 1997, p. 168). The most essential part of translation is reflecting on the message intended by the original text producer. Therefore, changing the verbs used in the original text, or adding, deleting, or changing the semantic roles filled by these arguments, will create slightly or different mental images and messages.

Theoretical considerations are part of the makeups of language teaching pedagogy. These are viewed from different perspectives. The focus can be guided by three approaches, namely focus on ‘forms’, ‘meaning, and ‘form’ (Long, 1997). Focus on forms occurs when the teacher or course syllabus introduces the grammatical aspects of language in terms of ‘frequency’, ‘valency’, and ‘difficulty’. With these in place, the learner navigates intuitively through the syllabus to take in those aspects used for the communicative purpose. Conversely, focus on meaning deals with the learner and learning process and not the language per se, and the focus is “purely communicative” (Long, 1997, para. 11). Under this model, the teaching of grammar is taught implicitly (Long, 1997, p.11). As for the ‘focus on form’, it refers to how attentional resources are allocated, and involves briefly drawing students’ attention to linguistic elements (words, collocations, grammatical structures, pragmatic patterns, and so on), in context, as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication, the temporary shifts in focal attention being triggered by students’ comprehension or production problems (Long, 1997, para. 17).

Reliance on translation methods used to be part of teaching methodology, but the new move to the communicative approach to languages has reduced the place of translation in language teaching methodologies. Translation, like other disciplines, can be taught and “is no different from aptitude for any other activity: teaching and practice help anyone, including the most gifted, to perform at a higher level” (Dickins et al., 2002, p. 1).

The theoretical considerations that apply to the current study are interlinear and literal translations, free translation, communicative translation and equivalence. Interlinear translation refers to those grammatical units that correspond closely to every grammatical unit of the ST (Dickins et al. 2002, p. 15). Interlinear translation is an extreme form of the much more common literal translation (p. 16). Free translation refers to the maximum TL bias (p. 16). The following chart adapted from Dickins et al. (2002) summarises the continuum of translation as it contains the degrees of freedom in translation. It embodies ‘bias’ towards the SL text in its extreme literal adaptation or bias toward the SL text in its most free aspect of translation, as shown below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SL bias</th>
<th>Faithful</th>
<th>Balanced (SL/TL)</th>
<th>Idiomizing</th>
<th>TL bias</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Literal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Free</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faithful</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanced</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idiomizing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Translation continuum (based on dickins et al., 2002, p. 16)

As for idiomizing translation, it follows the principle of free translation because it favours the naturalness’ over ‘faithfulness’ to the TL. Under this strategy, idiomizing translation uses idioms with rhythmic patterns to enhance or ameliorate the readability of the text even if the translation “sacrifices nuances of meaning or tone” (Dickins et al., 2002, p. 18).

The following example from Dickins et al., (2002, p. 18) illustrates the above-mentioned translation strategies:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interlinear</td>
<td>Like these things to them demand much now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Literal</td>
<td>The likes of these things have much demand now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faithful</td>
<td>Things like these are in great demand now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Balanced</td>
<td>This kind of thing’s in great demand at the moment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idiomizing</td>
<td>This type’s all the rage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free</td>
<td>This one’s dead trendy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for ‘equivalence in translation’, it can have two interpretations: descriptive and prescriptive. With descriptive
equivalence, it “denotes the relationship between ST features and TT features that are seen as directly corresponding to one another, regardless of the quality of the TT” (Dickins et al., 2002, p. 19). For instance:

- **ممنوع الدخول** (mamnūʿ al-dukhūl)  
  Forbidden is the entrance

- **مع السلامة** (maʿ a al-salāmah)  
  With the well-being

In contrast with descriptive equivalence, prescriptive equivalence “denotes the relationship between an SL expression and the canonic TL rendering of it as required, for example by a teacher” (Dickins et al., 2002, p. 19). So the following are equivalents:

- ممنوع الدخول  
  no entry

- مع السلامة  
  goodbye

As for ‘dynamic equivalence’ or ‘prescriptive equivalence’, it hinges on the promise of ‘the equivalent effect’. It is related to the communicative translation where “that is just the way we would say it” (Nida, 1964, p. 159).

Linguistic competence is not the only criteria to characterize an effective communicator or translator Galloway (as cited in Al-Batal, 1988, p. 443) stresses that “the ability to communicate in another language requires not only knowledge of the grammatical system of a language but knowledge of the patterns of living, acting, reacting, seeing, and explaining the world of the target country as well.” Hewson (1995) complements good translation with ‘cultural competence’, which is a significant element in achieving quality translation. This is supplemented by the work of Nord (1991) who proposes ‘transfer' and ‘factual and research’ competence as significant criteria of a good translator.

One of the most encompassing approaches in the theory of a good translation is put forward by Bachman (1990) who devised a taxonomy of competence into ‘organizational competence’ which incorporates grammatical and textual competence, pragmatic competence, and strategic competence where the translator assesses suitability and efficacy of the translation.

Curbing translation mishaps can only occur if efforts are made to re-think about how to fuse good translation practices as not only an integral part of the productive skill of writing, but as an additional skill that links reading, writing and other language skills such as pragmatic and cultural competence. This is conceptualized in the following figure:

![Figure 2. Relationship of translation with other skills](image)

This above-mentioned theoretical précis of translation emphasizes the significance of reflecting on the possibilities and constraints of translation in text production. The students’ lack of knowledge on the complexities and subtleties of translation needs to be considered by implementing the teaching the rudiments of translation theory so students are not fettered by the biased end of the translation spectrum; their familiarity with much translation gives them the freedom of choice. This paper adopts a fresh approach to translation by advocating the marriage between theories of language teaching methodologies and translation studies.

**IV. METHODOLOGY**

The analysis is based on both primary data and secondary data and uses quantitative and qualitative methods. The primary data consists of the students’ writing tasks stored on the University cloud system. Around 10-20 texts will be downloaded from twenty students.

The informants are non-native speakers of Arabic at an Australian university. For ethical clearance purposes, the selected students have completed their studies in Arabic to avoid issues of conflict of interest. Students have answered a brief questionnaire detailing their use of online translation tools when writing in Arabic (see appendix A). The questionnaire comprises four questions, one of which is an open-ended question: How do you think the translation online tools have helped or hindered your acquisition of Arabic? Any personal reflections about the translation process in language learning.
Each student contributes one or two texts (written assignments). The texts’ content varies in themes. One of the main
texts used in the analysis requires the students to write a narrative on a short video and with no sound entitled ‘The
Black Hole’ about greed. All submitted texts will be analysed for errors. Identified errors will be judged whether
Google translation has been used in the writing process by back translation (translated back into English) using Google
translation, and compare the translation with the students’ texts.

The findings of this research will directly affect the teaching methodology of Arabic and other languages. If the
findings indicate that Google translation is extensively being used in the students’ writing, then it is vital to integrate
translation methodologies as part of the teaching process. One cannot follow the proverbial ostrich of burying one’s
head in the sand and pretend that the problem does not exist, or that students would follow the teacher’s advice by not
relying on MT. Notwithstanding its perils, MT is immediate, practical and a quick fix. However, students need to
understand that the translation process is not just mechanical; but requires understanding and appreciation of language
complexities and subtleties in morpho-syntax, semantics, stylistics, pragmatics, and rhetoric.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of the students’ translations confirms the survey findings that online translation has been used in writing.
A close examination of the texts reveals translation problems on most levels of language: grammatically, lexically, and
pragmatically. In this section, the students’ surveys will be first analysed, followed by error analysis found in their
translations. This section is followed by a discussion on the feasibility of translation in acquiring AFL.

VI. THE STUDENTS’ SURVEY RESULTS

The survey shows that all students have confirmed using MT as a strategy in the writing process. More than half the
students (60%) use sentence level-translation with 40% of students use lexical or dictionary level based translations. In
terms of how helpful these practices are, most agree that they find it helpful with (80%) and only (20%) of respondents
found it as ‘least helpful’. However, the open-ended question reveals interesting responses. Some students express
regret relying almost too heavily on translation as candidly expressed by Peter that:

In the past I have been used Google Translate as a shortcut to mastering [the] grammatical structure and doing so has
hindered my language acquisition. Online translation tools provide instant results at the expense of accuracy, and
genuine linguistic competency. There is no substitute for the traditional method of paced mastery through exposure,
repetition, and systematic rehearsal.

This student’s ‘regret’ also echoes other respondents such as by this female student “I regret not accessing
dictionaries instead of online translation for chunks of text.”

Other students have expressed that they resort to translation when they feel rushed, but they know the imperfections
of the online translation services.

What is more revealing is provided by the following student whose ‘honest’ input show that relying on online
translation hinders learning, and even when students acquire new vocabulary via the translation process is forgotten in a
matter of hours, as stated by Peter:

I often read my previous assignments and find sometimes I don’t even understand a quarter of what I have written in
Arabic. I think this is because when you use Google translate you can add as many new words to your assignment as
possible. The result is that you overloaded yourself with new vocabulary and you simply forget many of this in a matter
days or even hours. It also hinders to remember how certain words are spelt in Arabic, as I simply type a word in
English and copy the Arabic spelling into my assignment without thinking about how the word sounds or spelt.
Therefore, you have not given yourself the opportunity to sit down, reflect and understand what you’re writing about
whether that is sentence construction or spelling.

VII. ANALYSIS OF THE STUDENTS’ TRANSLATIONS

The analysis of the students’ translation reveals interesting findings on both lexical and sentential levels. There are
instances of stylistic errors; errors that are not ungrammatical but those that rarely make sense in the TL.

Lexical Level

There are many instances of incorrect lexical translation from English to Arabic. Because most students use MT
instead of dictionaries, they are satisfied with the first translations offered by MT. One good example of an incorrect
translation is the word ‘busy’. It is probably the most common error in the students’ translations from English to Arabic.
In Arabic, its use depends on sentential contexts. Here is an example of a student translation (StT) followed by a Google
translation (GT):

(1) kāna Lubnān maṣghūl wa mulawwan
(GT) Lubnān machghūl wa mulawwan

A pseudonym.

For more examples, see Appendix B.
rdctives used to modify countries
us’ appearance’; however, both translations are inaccurate with the term
ithl al-lawl al-
ithla al-akh was chosen as a plural masculine; it should have been singular feminine as it modifies a singular inanimate noun.
translation. In example (4), the student made a grammatical error in the noun + adjective agreement where the adjective
uses of the word ‘old’.
accepted in English, in Arabic the
is contextual in GT.
In the example (2) above, the student might have used Google translation. Besides the verb-subject agreement error
‘I liked the nice streets and
in the following sentence:
Another word is (قدمية qadimah), which is misused in the following sentence:
Here are examples taken from the students’ work, which demonstrates the students’ reliance on Interlineal and Literal translations:
(ST) ‘asnaʿ u mawāqiʿ an wa taṭbiq hāṭif
(GT) aqīm biʿ anal mawāqiʿ wa taṭbiqīyat hatifiyyah
(ST) ‘I create websites and phone applications’
In example (3) and (4), GT has performed better than the student’s work. The student may not have used Google translation. In example (4), the student made a grammatical error in the noun + adjective agreement where the adjective
was chosen as a plural masculine; it should have been singular feminine as it modifies a singular inanimate noun.
(ST) ‘a malu maʿa šarīkāt kibār wa šarīkāt šīgār
(GT) anaʿ a mal maʿe al-šarīkāt al-kabīrīh w al-šarīkāt al-saqīrah
(ST) ‘I work in big and small companies’
In example (5), there are similarities between the two versions except the word zāhiyah ‘colourful’, which is unexpected use knowing the level of this particular student. However, both translations are inaccurate with the term ‘appearance’; it should be translated as ‘al-madāihar al-khārijī’.
(ST) hatta dhahart fikra fi 3aqlihi
(GT) jā at fikrat ilā dhīhihi
[jālat biḥārihi fikrahi]
(ST) ‘An idea came to his mind’
(ST) machā al-qīṭ jamīl
(GT) mašā al-qīṭ latīf
[machāa al-qīṭt birašāqatin]
(ST) ‘The cat walked nicely’
(ST) jābna al-šawārī al-jumālah wa al-aklu hunāka kāna ladhīdh
(GT) ṣhabt al-šawārī al-jumālah w al-taʿā kāna hunāka lattif
[ajabhat al-šawārī al-jumālah wa al-aklu hunāka kāna latffan]
(ST) ‘I liked the nice streets and the food there was nice’
(ST) al-dākhilī jamiilatun jiddan wa al-akbar tharāʾ fil al-ālam
(GT) al-dākhilī jamīl jiddan wa mutrif fi al-ālam
In the following section, I propose some writing strategies that have worked with my students of Arabic. Before outlining these strategies, it is essential to emphasise that the writing tasks should find a balance between ‘guided’ tasks and ‘creativity’. Here are four strategies:

**Strategy 1.**
From the very beginning of the course, the teacher should outline both the advantages and disadvantages of relying on translation such as Google translation. The teacher should provide examples of incorrect translations.

**Strategy 2.**
The teacher should outline some rudiments of the translation practices and strategies, by explaining the differences, such as between literal and semantic translation.

**Strategy 3.**
While it is important to encourage creative writing, it is important to encourage students to use the learned structures first before moving to use complex structures, which are beyond their level of language acquisition.

**Strategy 4.**
As discussed earlier many students desire to jump stages of language learning to either impress the teacher or to score a higher mark. Teachers need to clarify to the students that committing errors is part of the learning process.

In summary, the strategies mentioned above may not work with every language practitioner. However, educating the students about the translation process plays a significant role in raising awareness about the perils of ‘bad’ translation. Translation remains a pedagogical tool that cannot be overlooked, especially when it is equipped with an appealing technology at the fingertips of the language learners.

**IX. CONCLUSION**

The paper demonstrates through numerous instances that Google translation and possibly other software applications, grouped under the rubric of MT, are used in the productive skill of writing. The AFL students’ overreliance on MT is symptomatic of a deeper problem in the teaching pedagogy and methodology.

Notwithstanding the theoretical and empirical studies in both AFL and SLA in framing how languages should be taught, these face challenges against technological challenges, such as the ubiquitous software applications. The dilemma arises when a student, say at stage 1 of language learning can, by a mere mouse click, jump into higher levels, and hence ignores all language learning models such as developmental and comprehensible input theories.

In attenuating the negative side of MT, the paper suggests that the teaching of AFL should include the teaching of the rudiments of translation. This does not suggest that the communicative approach should be abandoned to embrace the grammar-translation method. It is not all or nothing, far from it. However, teaching methodologies should renew itself by being more pragmatic and in-tune with technological advances. The students should be educated about translation, and hence symbiotically making it related to learning. Failure to do so would cause the students’ reliance on the biased literal interpretation of the ST, which may expose them or others to the ‘dangers’ of loss in translation. The paper remains a child-first-step into rethinking translation in the teaching of languages, and research in this area should continue to face the challenges of today’s technological advances.

**APPENDIX A. SURVEY QUESTIONS (TRANSLATION)**

1. Have you ever used Google translation or any other software for your writing tasks in Arabic?
   (Please circle)
   YES                         NO
   If YES, how often:
   Always                        Often                                Sometimes                                   Never

2. If you use Google translation or other software/word/phone applications, how do you use it?
   (Please circle what relevant to you)
   As a dictionary (word level)               Translating (sentence level)       Translating (paragraph level)

3. How helpful do you find the translation overall?
   Least helpful            unsure               helpful                         very helpful

4. Open-ended question: How do you think the translation online tools have helped or hindered YOUR acquisition of Arabic? Any personal reflections about the translation process in language learning.
### APPENDIX B. LEXICAL/SEMANTIC TRANSFER/INCORRECT TRANSLATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source Text (ST)</th>
<th>St.T (Student translation)</th>
<th>Commentary/Correction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My suburb</td>
<td>بلدتي الضاحية</td>
<td>Incorrect use of the word ‘suburb’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is too late</td>
<td>بات الوقت متأخرًا</td>
<td>Incorrect use of the verb bāta ‘became’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soon after having tea at (sic.) about noon</td>
<td>قريبًا بعد أن تناولت الشاي عند الظهر تقريرًا</td>
<td>Structural issue with the adverb uses of garīban ‘nearby’ and ba da ‘after’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pale blue</td>
<td>زرقاء شمالة</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My imagination should fill in the holes in the guide’s story</td>
<td>على حالي أن يملأ أيقظ في حكاية المرشد وز خيالي أكملت ما لم يتحدث عنه المرشد</td>
<td>This sentence does not make sense. It is a literal translation from English. The correct sentence is: ‘My imagination should fill in the holes in the guide’s story’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big jobs</td>
<td>وظائف كبيرة</td>
<td>Incorrect use of wadhā if 'professions', the correct alternative is: (الشاغرات الكبرى).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the museum interior</td>
<td>في داخله</td>
<td>Incorrect contextualised use of the word bātun ‘inside’, the alternative is: (في داخله).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The taxi left me at the bus stop</td>
<td>تركتني سيارة الأجرة في محطة الباص</td>
<td>In these two examples, both the sayyāra ‘car’ and riḥta ‘trip’ were given human qualities, as these two sentences are semantically unacceptable in Arabic. Here the student uses semantic transfer from L1 (English) into L2 (Arabic).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The trip took me all day</td>
<td>اختمت الرحلة طوال اليوم</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### REFERENCES


Zouhir Gabsi is a Senior Lecturer in Arabic and Islamic Studies at Deakin University, Melbourne, Australia. He has wide interests in research including language teaching, Berber Studies, and more recently Islamophobia, Arab Spring, youth identity and Islamic discourse. He has published several research articles on discourse and the Arab Spring. The most recent one being Rap and Mizowid music: Claiming a space for dissent and protest in post-Arab Spring Tunisia published by Sociological Research Online.
Motivational Factors that Influence English as a Foreign Language Learners at Quality Leadership University, Panama City, Panama

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Abstract—Research in second language acquisition took off in the early 1970s. This study on integrative and instrumental motivation examined the correlation between the two forms in terms of second language acquisition, and the interest it has generated through continued research efforts in language learning. Research to date suggests a possible relationship between motivation and second language learning. The results obtained by this research were determined by two basic types of motivation which play a relevant role in second language acquisition, it also revealed which was the most prevalent motivational factor that influences students in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) at Quality Leadership University, Panama. Our objective was to prove that instrumental motivation is more prevalent among students learning English as a Foreign Language in Panama. Although cultural awareness is very much present in the EFL classroom, it too plays a major role with English Language Learners (ELLs). This is a quantitative research study which includes a questionnaire classifying twenty motivational statements into two types of motivation, integrative and instrumental. The study revealed that instrumental motivation was more prevalent among English language learners at Quality Leadership University, Panama. Albiet learning about new cultures has been the driving force with which students approach language learning and students in Panama are not the exception. We can thus conclude that instrumental motivation has been acknowledged as the significant factor by students surveyed and the interest in specific language learning for career advancement, whereas integrative motivation is linked to more general second language acquisition for the benefit of cultural integration.

Index Terms—instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, Second Language (L2), English as a Second Language (ESL), English as a Foreign Language (EFL), English Language Learners (ELL)

I. INTRODUCTION

According to Dörnyei (1998), the framework of Second Language (L2) learning motivation and Gardner’s educational model posits learner level and learner situation levels. In the 1990s, the arguments about the validity of Gardner and Lambert’s (1959) claim that integrative motivation is more facilitative for L2 acquisition in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom environment than that of instrumental motivation. Motivation could be best defined as a process that initiates, guides, and maintains goal-oriented behavior. This is true in the business world, and could also apply in an EFL setting. We will provide an overview of what motivates students in learning English. The hope is to provide a brief guide to the most common types of motivation involved in the learning of English under an EFL setting in Panama. Upon referring to the most prevalent scholars in the field of linguistics, and taking their input into consideration, we have determined that additional research is required to validate the true motivational factors that influence EFL students in Panama. Some argue that the theory on motivation to learn a Second Language (L2) requires a positive attitude towards the L2 community and a desire to become a member of that community (Gardner and Lambert, 1959). We will entertain this theory in our summary, considering the prospect that EFL learners in Panama feel the same way as other English as a Second Language (ESL) learners in the United States and abroad.

The main purpose of this research was to determine what motivates EFL learners in Panama to learn English, and what kind of motivation (integrative or instrumental) prevails among EFL students in Panama. We have made an unbiased attempt to answer the following questions:

1. What motivates EFL learners in Panama to learn English?
2. What kind of motivation (integrative or instrumental) prevails among EFL students in Panama?

This research focuses its attention to one prime factor, motivation. Motivation is a significant factor when it comes to doing anything, let alone the role in learning English as a foreign language. Humans are motivated by different things at different times throughout their lives. We can all relate to motivation, which relates to a person’s intrinsic goals and desires. Students learning a foreign language know their preferences, limitations, strengths and weaknesses. It can be
said that there is some correlation between intrinsic and extrinsic versus instrumental and integrative motivation. They possess cognitive and social theories of motivation respectively. Successful language learning is directly linked to the passion from within. Our intent was to focus on integrative and instrumental motivation and how it impacts foreign language learners. This research will make a significant contribution to the practice of teaching and learning English as a foreign language by setting a president on what really motivates EFL learners in Panama, and how to best address student motivation and future teaching methodologies. A thorough understanding of this topic should allow us to identify the integrative and instrumental factors in learning English.

We have justified this research based the concern as to what role integrative and instrumental motivational factors play in learning English and which competences in terms of language learning are most effective. Our intent was to help resolve the issue of why students are motivated more in either of the integrative or instrumental capacities. Students who are highly motivated achieve greater success than students who are not as motivated. For example, learning a second language in the United States of America, or English as a Second Language is critical for participating in a global community. English language learners in this area are more inclined to learn English under integrative motivation. We are facing a growing need to learn other languages at an unprecedented pace.

The United States promotes and strengthens the language skills of immigrants and their children and builds on second language mastery among non-native English speakers. The same can be said about learning English in Panama, albeit in an EFL setting. Motivation is defined differently according to its’ different perspectives. We all draw different conclusions when it comes to motivation and in line with the behaviorist theory on motivation, it rewards those whom acquire positive reinforcement. In cognitive terms of behavior, it draws on the conclusions as to what types of motivation, integrative or instrumental students react to. We will shed some light on which one will be most beneficial for the student as well as for the facilitator providing instruction. In conducting this research, we hope to benefit not only the students, but the teachers as well. The results have enabled us to help diversify teaching methodology and incorporate new teaching strategies that will improve the students learning of English as a foreign language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the years, motivation has been the focal point on what and how people do things. There is an old saying that goes “You can lead a horse to water, but you cannot make it drink it”. In that sense, human beings also possess that chip in where they choose to do or not do things with enthusiasm. So it can be said that motivation holds no boundaries, and is not reminiscent to any particular social standing. The main motivator in this scenario is usually monetary and or promotion, which also work as motivators in the business field. Regardless of the cognitive rewards through extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, or social rewards through integrative and instrumental motivation. Students, like employees, never fail to recognize the importance of both and always strive to benefit from it. Along the same lines, motivation in education is not alone, its respective parts also work as with incentives. Students must be motivated to learn just as quickly; otherwise the learning process may not reach fruition. We all acquire language in much the same way. We would be remiss if we did not mention one of the leading experts in the field of linguistics. Dr. Noam Chomsky is one of the most influential linguists-social activists of the twentieth century. Through his insights, he highlights the Innateness Hypothesis as the main theory underlying first language acquisition. He is most famous for his unique linguistic theory on the Language Acquisition Device (Barman, 2012).

In terms of motivation, for many it comes naturally more so than for others. Ryan and Deci (2000) pp.69, argue that motivation is often treated as a singular construct, and even a shallow reproduction of this phenomenon proposes that people are moved to act differently depending on the types of factors which can be diverse experiences and consequences. This study will submit to these conclusions as well. We firmly believe that people and students are as equally motivated for various reasons under integrative and instrumental factors.

By conducting this research study, we anticipated that instrumental motivation was more prevalent among the EFL learners in Panama. Although we were certain that the participants would reflect to some degree both instrumental and integrative motivation, we also believed that we would find that instrumental motivation would be the major driver among the majority of the EFL learners in Panama. Our intent, therefore, is to prove that the tendencies of EFL learners in Panama would lean more towards instrumental motivation in nature as opposed to integrative motivation. This study seeks to answer some fundamental questions as to what kind of motivation do EFL students in Panama have regarding motivation and which is most prevalent (integrative or instrumental). Gardner and Lambert (1959) founded the premise of motivation and argue that integrative and instrumental motivation are the main factors, in which the first is defined as the learning a second language for the interest of learning more about the target language’s culture and more in line with social interaction with the same, basically wanting to integrate into the target language. Whereas, instrumental motivation is more in line with students wanting to expand their careers or professional enterprise by improving their English prose. By incorporating instrumental motivational factors students may do just that, which differs from students learning a second language in the U.S.A., in where most may emphasize on integrative motivational factors to develop language skills seeking acceptance into a new culture.

In the field of education, motivation has been widely discussed by teachers, and scholars reference the workings that impact the success or failure of learning a second or foreign language. Without a doubt, both instrumental and integrative motivations are fundamentals of success in this learning process. Several studies on the relationship between
learning and student motivation have been carried out by different researchers, and have all drawn on similar conclusions which reflect its positive results.

It is under these conditions that we established our hypothesis that instrumental motivation is predominant amongst EFL students in Panama. English as a Second Language (ESL) is more prevalent in countries like the United States of America, among others. The premise however, is that students in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting tend to learn English better through integrative motivational lesson plans. We believe this is important to note that given the conclusions by Gardner and Lambert (1959) on learning a second language or (L2) in this case, and considering instrumental or integrative motivation as a primary factor, we cannot shy away from the premise of learning a second language that is directly tied to motivation. How and why students learn a second language relies solely on their own motivations of course, with the guidance of an EFL/ESL instructor. The premise that ESL students learn English better under integrative motivational tendencies may be true in certain settings, which is not the issue here. The argument of which is most effective in Panama is the question we will entertain.

Which motivational factor is more predominant? There are more studies to be done in this field of motivational research. There is “food for thought” here for researchers to focus their theoretical insight, and more methodologists interested in classroom implications and applications based on results of future motivational research studies, all of which will open the door to improved EFL learning Dörnyei (1998).

Research studies on motivation in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) have been conducted by Dörnyei (2012). Traditionally, the focus of many motivational studies has been on describing motivational patterns of English language learners and finding a relationship between motivation and other variables in learning English as a foreign language. A major discovery made throughout this research was that the majority of studies analyzed the motivational component factors of integrative and instrumental tendencies in the United States as well as other countries. However, very few studies have been made in Latina America, or Panama, concerning this type of research. The intent of this research is to explore the motivational tendencies that Panamanian students have while they are learning English under the title of English as a Foreign Language.

The study seeks to answer some fundamental questions about what kind of motivation do EFL students have in Panama and what type of motivation is most prevalent (integrative or instrumental) among students in Panama? Instrumental is defined as learning the language in order to achieve some practical skills and objectives that are more indicative with the orientation or progress of the work that someone is undertaking, or career advancement. Research on motivation in SLA has led to the identification of potential similarities in terms of research questions, contexts, and research frameworks. This theme is not isolated; several studies have been done which have yielded varied results. Ahmadi (2011, p.12), stipulates that male students learning English in Iran have more tendencies towards the instrumental factor, and women have tendencies of the integrative factors. Several studies have been conducted on motivation. Dörnyei (2012) focuses on motivation to describe the motivational patterns of English learners.

It is important to note that there is an important theoretical shift that has recently been transforming the landscape of motivational research: the shift from the traditional conceptualization of motivation in terms of an integrative/instrumental dichotomy (Dörnyei, 2010). Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning (L2) and the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process; in fact, all other factors involved in the acquisition of L2 presuppose motivation to some extent Dörnyei (1998, p.117). Gardner and Lambert (1959) also indicated that in some cases and in certain settings, many people seem to dominate an L2, regardless of their differences in aptitude. Dörnyei (1998, p. 131), presented an overview of the different aspects and studies of motivation. Its main conclusion from this general view is that the motivation is actually multifaceted rather than a uniform factor and no available theory has managed to represent it in its total complexity. Dörnyei suggests that researchers should be very careful in developing and determining motivational variables in their studies. They need to be aware that specific motivational measures or concepts are being focused on higher-level segments related to motivation. As Williams (1994) briefly states: “there is no place for simplistic approaches to such complex issues as motivation”.

Our research is based on a study conducted by Shahid Abrar-Ul-Hassan (2014, pp. 42-44) on the analysis of motivation types and degrees to reveal learners’ expectations and learning objectives. His study classified a total of 14 statements into two types of motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic) and the degrees of motivation were identified as low, medium, or high. In conclusion, the study revealed students presented both types of motivational constructs and their motivation degree was at a medium level at the time the study was conducted.

Gardner and Tremblay (1994, pp.10) define L2 motivation as “the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of the desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity.” The first language refers to the mother tongue that an individual learns; also, it is known as the main language or L1. Second language or (L2) target language refers to any language learned after the mother tongue or first language (L1).

According to Webster (2020) motivation is defined as:

1. The act or an instance of motivating, or providing with a reason to act in a certain way.
2. The state or condition of being motivated or having a strong reason to act or accomplish something.
Motivational factors can be categorized as cognitive and social terms respectively:

1. Intrinsic Motivation – The individual learns language without any outside incentive.
2. Extrinsic Motivation – The individual learns a language because he believes that participation will result in promising results, such as rewards.
3. Instrumental Motivation – The individual learns a language with a more practical purpose, such achieving a higher social status, or moving up the business ladder.
4. Integrative Motivation – The individual learns a language because of positive ways to target language group and wishes to integrate into the target language.

Although intrinsic and extrinsic motivations have cognitive paradigms, they are closely related to integrative and instrumental motivation. Ryan and Deci (2000, p. 69) suggests that Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) specifies the factors in social contexts that produce variability in intrinsic motivation. CET, which is considered a sub-theory of self-determination theory, argues that interpersonal events and structures (e.g., rewards, communications, feedback) that conduce toward feelings of competence during action can enhance intrinsic motivation for that action because they allow satisfaction of the basic psychological need for competence. This is no doubt tied directly to integrative and instrumental motivation paradigms. Both draw on similar conclusions of competence towards a specific goal, in this case it is learning a second language. Although intrinsic and extrinsic motivations are not being considered in this study, we feel that they are directly linked to integrative and instrumental motivation.

III. METHODOLOGY

The expectation is to provide the most common stages of integrative and instrumental motivation involved in learning English as a foreign language and to develop viable research to complement the study. Taking into account their contribution, we have determined that much more research is required to validate the true motivational factors that influence EFL students in Panama. What kind of motivation do EFL students have in Panama? It is obvious that the level of motivation to want to learn a foreign language in Panama is important. Some students are motivated to varying degrees. We intend to analyze the results on integrative and instrumental motivation, and which is most prevalent for EFL learners in Panama. The hypothesis for this study is that instrumental motivation is prevalent among EFL learners in Panama. The key variables we have selected are instrumental and integrative motivation for learning English. Second language learners with instrumental motivation learn a language for reasons such as wanting to apply for college, obtain a better paid job or achieve a higher social status. On the other hand, learners with integrative motivation study a second language because they want to learn about the culture associated with that language. In most cases, they may want to integrate into the target language community.

The participants responded with genuine interest toward both instrumental and integrative motivation. The findings revealed that instrumental motivation was a major driver among the majority of the EFL learners in Panama. Our intent, therefore, was to prove that the tendencies of EFL learners in Panama would lean more towards instrumental motivation in nature as opposed to integrative motivation. Laying claim to the notion that most EFL students in this region hope to expand their careers by improving their English prose.

The study is quantitative, descriptive and non-experimental. Our research is mainly based on the study by Shahid Abrar-UL-Hassan (2014, pp. 42-44). A Study of the Motivational Patterns of Learners of English for Academic and Professional Purposes. We have adapted his study and have addressed twenty statements of which ten statements are related to instrumental motivation and ten statements are related to integrative motivation, respectively. The primary focus of motivation that was studied illustrated instrumental and integrative motivation tendencies. The instrument for data collection was a self report questionnaire consisting of two sections through the use of the Survey Monkey Application (Appendix A). The questionnaire consisted of two sections, of which participants were asked to respond to a series of statements related to their motivation. Section I solicits demographic information such as age, gender, nationality and income, etc. Section II was more specific, it was comprised of 20 statements identifying the two types of motivation factors involving (instrumental and integrative motivation formats).

The first ten statements (Items 1-10) focused on instrumental motivational tendencies and the next ten statements (Items 11-20) were related to integrative motivational tendencies. A 5-point Likert type rating scale was used in Section II where the rating ranged from 1 being Strongly Disagree and 5 being Strongly Agree. The participants were allowed five to ten minutes to fill out the questionnaire. The questionnaire was anonymous in order to maintain the confidentiality of responses made. The researchers personally administered the questionnaire in the classrooms after a brief introduction on the purpose of the survey.

A reliability analysis was conducted to measure the reliability of this study. A Cronbach's alpha analysis was employed to determine the internal consistency or average correlation of items in a survey instrument and to gauge its reliability. The results confirm that the instrument is highly reliable and falls within an acceptable value range as depicted on Table 1. We surveyed a sample size of 30 students to attain the results. Only twenty-six were valid at a 86.7% and four were excluded at 13.3%.
Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was implemented to test the proportion of observed variance with in the proposed survey. The alpha coefficient of .953 was sufficient enough to validate the survey implemented. The results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2.
Cronbach’s Alpha Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reliability Statistics</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>N of elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N of elements</td>
<td>.953</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The population of 300 students was contemplated for this study, comprising of students enrolled in the English Program for Professional Development at Quality Leadership University (QLU) in Panama City, Panama. The sample for this investigation included 101 students, both male and female from QLU. This study was conducted during the month of January 2018 at the beginning of the first term. Table 3 reflects gender statistics, 66.3% female participants versus 33.7% male. This is a reflection on how the EFL classroom female participation has increased.

Table 3.
Demographic Information (Gender)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>33.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>66.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 reflects the age groups of the participants in the survey. The ages were divided into seven groups. Group-1 (18-22 years) had 22 participants, Group-2 (23-27 years) had 28, Group-3 (28-32 years) had 21, Group-4 (33-37 years) had 18, and Group-5 (38-42) had 9, Group-6 (43-47) had 2 and Group-7 (48-52) had 1. The results of the first three age groups account for 70.3% of the respondents. The majority of the respondents fell between 23 and 27 years of age, 27.7% of the total participants.

Table 4.
Demographic Information (Age)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Groups</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18-22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23-27</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28-32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33-37</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38-42</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43-47</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48-52</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is also important to recognize that many of the respondents hold higher education level degrees. Those having a Bachelor’s and Master’s degree account for 80.2% of all respondents. Table 5 identifies the distribution of the educational level of the EFL population surveyed. A total of 57 or 56.4% of the respondents have a Bachelor’s Degree, and a total of 24 respondents or 23.8% have a Master’s Degree. Students know that by attaining a higher education level follows the same patterns of wanting to learn or improve their English as a Foreign Language for further career advancement.

Table 5.
Demographic Information (Education)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical School</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>56.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s Degree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>23.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Demographic information on nationalities captured in this survey was to depict international student participation. Table 6 reflects the cultural diversity we have in Panama. Results show that students from eight different countries, most of them from Central and South America, were part of the research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 6. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (NATIONALITY)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Indicate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panamanian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuelan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Other)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazilian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraguayan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The student population at QLU is formed by different income levels within the labor market. A student’s culture and professional aspirations are directly tied to their motivation to want to learn English to improve their careers. Table 7 illustrates the income level of the students surveyed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 7. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION (INCOME)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Count</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$500 a $800</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$801 a $1000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$1001 a $1500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$1501 a $2000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$2000 o más</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this analysis and discussion is to interpret and describe the significance of our findings. This study reports the findings based on a 5-point Likert Scale survey on instrumental and integrative motivation that was administered to students in the English for Professional Success (EPS) at QLU. The results proved that the majority of students had higher instrumental motivation (mean 4.2822), while the number of students with integrative motivation (mean 4.1756) was a slight lower. Table 8 below reflects the measurement results on instrumental motivation. The mean value of responses for each statement ranged between 3.45 and 4.69, (see statements 7 and 3 respectively). This is in direct combination with the 5-point Likert Scale, where 3 is (neutral) and 5 (strongly agree). Statement 3 “Better English proficiency will be useful in getting a good job” got the strongest agreement (M = 4.6931, SD = .717). In terms of agreement, statement (3) was followed by statement (6) and (1) (M = 4.6535 and 4.3941, respectively, SD=.639 and .763 respectively). The data clearly indicates that the participants' orientation is more towards instrumental motivation. However, statements (5) and (7) did not perform consistently with the rest of the items in the table. Statement 5 could be attributed to describing integrative motivational properties as discussed in earlier sections because world travel and learning about other cultures is directly related to integrative motivational objectives.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am learning English to improve my reading and writing in English for technical and professional purposes.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.5941</td>
<td>.76391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Learning English will enable me to further my education.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.4257</td>
<td>.87575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Better English proficiency will be useful in getting a good job.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.6931</td>
<td>.71753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Learning English will enable me to keep up with development of world economy, science and technology (globalization).</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.0891</td>
<td>.98081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am learning English because I want to learn about various cultures and people of the world.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.8317</td>
<td>1.07768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. English will be helpful in my professional growth and moving to higher positions in my profession.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.6535</td>
<td>.63931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I need the language in order to take a test in the future. (E.g. TEFL, TOEIC, TOEFL, etc.)</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.4554</td>
<td>1.18764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. English will enable me to seek better job opportunities abroad.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.3564</td>
<td>.91197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. English will enable me to involve or go into an international business.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.4851</td>
<td>.78248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. If I become a good speaker of English, I can travel all over the world.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2376</td>
<td>.87348</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9 presents data results for the integrative motivation measurement statements. The mean value ranges between statements 17 and 20, $M=3.8317$ and $4.6832$, $SD=.9172$ and $.6622$ respectively. Therefore, the data indicates that the participants also showed a level of integrative motivation. Statement 20, “The objective of learning English will help on trips abroad” received the strongest agreement, whereas Statement 17, “Learning English will enable me to understand better and appreciate more English art as well as literature” got the weakest agreement in the data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. I would like to learn as many languages as possible, and English is one of them.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.9703</td>
<td>.93226</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I find English language learning to be an exciting activity.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.0594</td>
<td>.84643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Learning English will enable me to understand the English life style and culture.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.8416</td>
<td>.88014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I learn English to be better educated and feel confident.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2178</td>
<td>.90115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I think everybody should learn English up to an intermediate proficiency level.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2871</td>
<td>.85249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I believe that I have the right attitude and am talented enough to be highly proficient in English.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.4059</td>
<td>.76391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Learning English will enable me to understand better and appreciate more English art as well as literature.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.8317</td>
<td>.91727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am interested in English movies or songs.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.3700</td>
<td>.84871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I would like to make friends with people from other countries, especially those from English-speaking countries.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.0891</td>
<td>.96020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Learning English will help on trips abroad.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.6832</td>
<td>.66228</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 reflects the top ten rated responses related to Integrative and Instrumental motivation. Six of the ten responses were directly related to Instrumental Motivation, thus reflecting the majority interests of the students for
wanting to learn English in Panama. We can observe that out of the top ten factors, 60% fell within the range of instrumental motivational factors (statements in bold) and 40% were related to integrative motivational factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3. Better English proficiency will be useful in getting a good job.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.6931</td>
<td>.71753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.6832</td>
<td>.66228</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. English will be helpful in my professional growth and moving to higher positions in my profession.</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.6535</td>
<td>.63931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I am learning English to improve my reading and writing in English for technical and professional purposes.</td>
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<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.5941</td>
<td>.76391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. English will enable me to involve or go into an international business.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.4851</td>
<td>.78248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Learning English will enable me to further my education.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.4257</td>
<td>.87575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I believe that I have the right attitude and am talented enough to be highly proficient in English.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.4059</td>
<td>.76391</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am interested in English movies or songs.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.3700</td>
<td>.84871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. English will enable me to seek better job opportunities abroad.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.3564</td>
<td>.91197</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I think everybody should learn English up to an intermediate proficiency level.</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2871</td>
<td>.85249</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While entertaining the notion of what motivates EFL students in Panama, we drew on some conclusions early on regarding this hypothesis. Our intent was to prove that a higher number of the respondents surveyed would reveal that instrumental motivation was more prevalent among EFL learners in Panama. The results based on the survey provided some interesting data in that a little over half of the respondents were interested in improving their English skills for better job opportunities and career advancement (instrumental), while a slightly lower number showed an interest in the cultural aspect of learning the language (integrative).

From a pedagogical perspective, we have come a long way from Grammar Translation in teaching methods, albeit some of these facets are still being used today. Teachers must make every effort to motivate students. By designing up activities conducive to instrumental and integrative motivational factors simultaneously. Although the results favor instrumental learner biases, we cannot forget the integrative aspect of acquiring a second language, and the basis for its ease of learning. The challenge then is to persuade students accordingly and tap into what motivates each student specifically and design course content to reach that goal. These results are beneficial to both English course instructors and administrators. By identifying and understanding the different motivational patterns of EFL learners in Panama, educators will be in a better position to reengineer, redesign and enhance their lesson plans in the different English programs. Additionally, this type of information is important in prioritizing objectives in the different English programs.

The fact remains that the English language has become the world’s most spoken language, mostly in terms of business. Several countries speak their own language and have made English their second language. Since globalization has adopted one single language for business, so there is a huge demand. Academic institutions and business organizations are looking to reinforce English language learning to succeed in education and in business. The Republic of Panama is among those countries which has adopted English as the official second language. Law No. 2 of January 14, 2003, Alvarado, (2003) mandates the provision of English as a second language throughout the country as per the Ministry of Education (Meduca). Article one (1) of sixteen (16) establishes that the English language is compulsory as the official language in the public and private educational centers at the elementary and high school grade levels, with the aim of contributing to the modernization of Panamanian education.

The study has unveiled what we had been hypothesizing. Students are primarily focused on instrumental motivation to acquire a new language, although integrative motivation also interests EFL student learning. The findings of this study on the influence of motivational factors on EFL learners demonstrated that specific motivation significantly determines the attitude to want to learn the language. The study reinforces the hypothesis that students want to learn English mainly for professional reasons. However, the fact remains that learners who identify with integrative motivational factors tend to assimilate English much faster than those inclined towards instrumental motivation (Gardner and Lamber, 1994). How well students learn or acquire English is not the question, but what motivates them to learn English is the question.

V. PITFALLS
The study was met with much optimism and anticipation. However, it was hampered by some limitations beginning with the small sample size of participants obtained due to time and travel constraints. The study focused on patterns of motivation of learners at only one institution providing English language programs in Panama City, thus the results were not generalizable to other programs or courses at other language institutions offered throughout the country.

Although the sample represented a small portion of the QLU population, it rendered positive results. The sample size of 101 students from the English for Professional Success (EPS) Program at QLU is only a small fraction of the whole population; therefore, the generalization from the findings should be made with forethought. Learners have different motivational attitudes toward different courses in an English program. Thus, patterns of motivation in the English programs surveyed and other programs or courses may not be the same. As Abrar-Ul-Hassan (2014) points out in his study, research on motivation faces this challenge, and our study is not an exception. The study, however, reiterates that a vast majority of the participants surveyed had both instrumental and integrative motivational characteristics. Additional research is needed to survey other learner population throughout the different provinces in Panama and different types of English program institutions. Also, we consider increasing the sample size to at least 300 or more for future research. Another limitation encountered was the time line, the time line given was two months. We undertook this study as participants in a research module program offered by QLU. We should, therefore, consider these results only as common and mutual finding of this investigation considering the time frame. The time to conduct the study was approximately two months to develop the survey, distribute, conduct and finalize it accordingly. Our hypothesis was based on the idea that EFL students’ instrumental motivation could be higher than their integrative motivation.

VI. CONCLUSION

The results of this study was to determine which of the two motivations, whether instrumental motivation or integrative motivation had greater influence on English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Panama. The results clearly indicate that EFL learners in Panama have a stronger instrumental motivation compared to integrative motivation. This was the basis of our investigation, to prove this hypothesis. The study revealed that EFL students learn English to fulfill academic and professional milestones (instrumental). There were students that showed interest in learning English for integrative motivational purposes; albeit in the slight minority of this study, they prove to be significant in the data results.

The results of this research coincide with the study from Shahid Abrar-ul-Hassan (2014) on Motivation in learning English as a second and foreign language of Iranian students. His research proved that instrumental motivation is more vital in learning a second language, especially the English language among Middle Eastern students. It is important to note that although instrumental motivation had been acknowledged as a significant factor among male students interested in specific language learning for career purposes. Integrative motivation was linked to general second language acquisition for the benefit of cultural awareness, females in his study were more attracted to this area. In this study, the majority of the EFL students in Panama realize the need for English language learning in their daily conversations with friends and family, and or in business. For them, English is primarily important and used as a principal tool for business and academic purposes. The study of instrumental and integrative motivation was interesting in that it pointed out that EFL students want to learn English for professional purposes, such as doing assignments, presentations, talking to lecturers or to score well on examinations. They feel that it is not as important for them to master the language for cultural or interpersonal relations, more so than it is for career advancement.

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS

This research suggests that there is a significant relationship between the success of second language learning and the kind of motivation among EFL students in learning the second language in Panama and instrumental motivation had a greater influence towards this achievement. It is recommended that expanding the sample size in further studies will strengthen this type of research. This study will contribute to aid teachers of EFL in that they can modify their teaching styles to better facilitate student motivation and learning practices. Students interact with language activities that are relevant to integrative and instrumental motivation as long-term goals of professional and cultural awareness, directly related to the target language. Both integrative and instrumental motivations are essential elements of language learning success. Instrumental motivation has been found to sustain long-term success when learning English as a second language. It is recommended that additional research on instrumental and integrative motivation towards English language learning be conducted in the region.
APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EFL STUDENTS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EFL STUDENTS

Quality Leadership University (QLU)

This study aims at analyzing the motivational patterns (for English language learning) of the students enrolled in English Programs for Professional Development programs at Quality Leadership University in Panama City, Republic of Panama. The study cannot be accomplished without your input. I would appreciate it if you could respond to the items in this questionnaire as honestly as possible to ensure the success of the study. I also assure you that data will be treated confidentially.

Kindly fill out this questionnaire by responding to all items with your first response. Please feel free to ask questions or seek clarification. The estimated time to fill out this questionnaire is 10 to 15 minutes.

Thank you!
Researcher

SECTION I
Please circle or write your responses.

1) Gender: Male Female

2) Age (in years): 18-22; 23-27; 28-32; 33-37; 38-42; 43-47; 48-52

3) Level of Education: High School Technical School Undergraduate Degree Master’s Degree

4) Nationality: Panamanian Colombian Venezuelan Other _____

5) Level of Income $500-$800 $801-$1000 $1001-$1500 $1501-$2000 $2000 or more

SECTION II

Read the following statements carefully and record your response to each statement on the given 5-point scale. Please circle the number which most closely matches your opinion toward each statement, (ONE response only) (e.g., “Strongly Agree,” “Agree,” “Disagree,” “Neutral,” or “Strongly Disagree”)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I am learning English to improve my reading and writing in English for technical and professional purposes.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Learning English will enable me to further education.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Better English proficiency will be useful in getting a good job.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Learning English will enable me to keep up with development of world economy, science and technology (globalization).</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am learning English because I want to learn about various cultures and people of the world.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. English will be helpful in my professional English growth and moving into high positions in my profession.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I need the language in order to take a test in the future. (E.g. TEFL, TOEIC, TOEFL, etc.).</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. English will enable me to seek better job opportunities abroad.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. English will enable me to involve or go into an international business.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. If I become a good speaker of English, I can travel all over the world.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I would like to learn as many languages as possible, and English is one of them.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I find English language learning to be an exciting activity.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Learning English will enable me to understand the English life style and culture.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I learn English to be better educated and feel confident.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I think everybody should learn English up to an intermediate proficiency level.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I believe that I have the right attitude and am talented enough to be highly proficient in English.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Learning English will enable me to understand better and appreciate more English art as well as literature.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am interested in English movies or songs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I would like to make friends with people from other countries, especially those from English-speaking countries.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Learning English will help on trips abroad.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Many thanks for your participation in this study. (Adapted from Shahid Abrar-Ut Hassan, 2014 and Dornyei, 1990)
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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REFERENCES


Ricardo Roman Jr. was born on November 4, 1958. He is originally from Chicago Illinois. He holds a Bachelor of Arts degree in Latin American and Caribbean Studies (LACS) from Florida State University (1998), a Master of Science Degree in Business Administration (MBA) from NOVA Southeastern University (2001), and a Master of Arts degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) from the College of Notre Dame of Maryland (2009).

He is a veteran of the U. S. Army having served for 16+ years as a Combat and Combat Heavy Engineer. As a Non-Commissioned Officer he served on numerous deployments to Central and South America, including South Korea. He has been teaching English and business courses for various universities in Panama, e.g. Latina University, International University of Panama, and Quality Leadership University, for the past 18 years. He has been residing in Panama since 1995 with his family. He is currently conducting action research on motivation factors that influence students in the Bachelor’s degree program at QLU in Panama, as well as continued research in first and second language acquisition of EFL students in Panama.

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Mrs. Aixa M. Núñez additionally obtained her license as an Authorized Official Translator/Interpreter in the languages of English/Spanish in 2015. She became a member of the Asociación Panameña de Traductores e Interpretes (APTI) in 2016.
Performing Arts and Embodied Designs: An Analysis of Sam Ukala’s *The Slave Wife*

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**Abstract**—Contextually, the theatre is an avenue where various artistic personnel of different professional backgrounds converge with their respective works, with the aim of assessing, evaluating and creating a befitting piece. With Fredrick Hegel’s statement as spring board, this study explicates the various developmental stages involved in the apparent discovery and identification of an art work in most appropriate manner. Thus, reflecting the transformational order and discovery process involved in the realization of an art piece. It is widely believed that performing arts encompass artistry that is expressed either through dance, drama or musical performances among others. However, the realization of what is particularly artistic has several shapes, forms and perhaps stages. This paper analyses Hegel’s philosophical submission on “the rational being rendered sensible” in relation to appearance, form and content. From the stage of conception and performance, we focused on the aesthetics of production in Sam Ukula’s *The Slave Wife*. It then submit that it’s of great necessity to re-establish the importance of thoughtful coordination among performance arts vendors on professional grounds as gateway to having a good work of arts at the end of the day.

**Index Terms**—performing arts, culture, artistic personnel, organogram, The Slave Wife

## I. INTRODUCTION

**CONCEPTUALIZATION OF ARTS**

There are divergent definitions of what constitute Art. Plato, Aristotle and Plotinus saw art as an imitation of reality. For Plotinus, art should be beautiful. In their respective works, Abiola Christopher (2013) informs that, Joshua Reynolds opines that art was an enlargement, not an imitation of nature; while Ernst Cassier proposed art to be a symbolic form. (p.47) Barclays Ayakoromah (2016) submits that “Art is an interpretation of reality expressed in a distinctive way” (p.13). From the various assertions on arts, Rudolf (1974) has quickly observed that “Art is the most concrete thing in the world” (p. 37). Throughout the ages, art has played a crucial role in life. Believably, culture certainly comprises more than art, but art has played a dominant role in sustenance and propagation of culture. Art is powerful, because it can convey so much information, through a self-created language. From the foregoing, it is apt to say that art is essential to human survival because it provides guidance and support to the mind which is the mechanism essential to survival. On a more philosophical, deep and critical note. Harold Williams notes that:

> It is difficult to imagine a society without the arts. What dark and empty souls would populate an environment without paintings, statues, architecture, drama, music, dances, or poems. The arts define what is meant by civilization. They are part of the foundation and the framework of culture. There is no better time to discuss and foreground the virtues of the arts to civilization than this age. The arts are a major avenue of refining our humanity, (Harold Williams, 1995 in Ackley Anne, 2000, p. 171)

Harold Williams’ submission implies that Art could be said to be truly universal as it primarily reaffirms one’s values and being. Its practice then implies the selective recreation of reality according to an artist’s metaphysical disposition. Thus, for the sole fact that the mind responds to the dictates of its nature, reason and logic, the artist must equally reciprocate by presenting his message in an intelligible format. Naturally, art must be appreciable without the aid of the artist or guide book. This makes art intelligible – an art must speak for itself.

Objectively, any work of art tends to define or redefine life in utmost sincerity. It should be noted that, one of the significant goals of arts is the contribution to knowledge and growth of humanity by extension. A kind of knowledge that virtually cuts across creative understanding to the totality of man’s existence. Simply, the world becomes fertile through the embrace and appreciation of art by humans. It should be noted that, art, especially in Africa is not a mere expression of efforts or fulfillment of art for art’s sake; rather, when an artist perceives and interprets reality, he does acquire and transmit knowledge simultaneously and this has intrinsic connotation. Art then further modifies one’s knowledge of interpretation.

Furthermore, in as much as art requires an artist to have credible sense to absorb; to carve; to transform; and ability to think fast in every situation; he is bound by the notion of experience. To a large extent, experience determines the foresight which an artist can ever attain. As a result, this experience could be in two forms— Environmental factor and
Psychological imperative.

Environmental factor being a form of artistic experience implies that, the expressive work of an artist is a revelation of the environment that has moulded him. On a peculiar note, all works of art contain subject-matter, which is reflected by the world as the artist has gradually assimilated in the development of self-personality. Thus, “no artist can create on their own, apart from any outside stimuli, a work of art” (Saidu, 2016, p. 54).

On the other hand, unlike the environmental factor which is general in nature, the psychological imperative particularly dwells on the artist’s ability to reconcile his experience with self and others (especially at a most personal and reflective level); thereby creating a piece through it. This thought could be well understood along the lines of naturalism as it actually relates to theatre, which maintains that, an artist is expected to pay attention to very accurate and precise details, and portrays things as they are.

II. METHODOLOGY

This paper employs the qualitative method using content analysis in its reaction to the raised issues in the study. In employing this method, researchers made a radical departure from the interpretation of numerical data but subject the paper to thorough investigation and lucid explanation of the text. The primary source of data is *The Slave Wife* written by Sam Ukala and published by Ibadan University Press. Also, journals, on-line articles and other scholarly materials are equally used as additional source aimed at having deeper discourse of the issues raised.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The Theatre: Components and Elements of Activity.

As it has been noted at the prefatory stage of this paper that the theatre is an avenue where various artistic personnel of different professional backgrounds converge to produce a work of art, it becomes clear that art is a work in process or a process within a process. The concerned personnel may include “the actor, director, managers, carpenter, tailor, technician, light designer and audience among others (Olawummi, 2009, p. iv). In this regard, the collective essence of art is required to be fully deployed. As an integral mechanism for the actualization of an art work, purposeful collaboration should not be in any way compromised. This is because “the art of the theatre in its manifold possibilities can be most absorbing not only in the years of learning the basics but in the arena of performance and production” (Adelugba, 2010, p. 9). This could be observed through critical analysis of the role of the playwright (stage of conceiving) through to the audience (stage of consumption).

Playwriting is said to be a personal, emotional and subjective art. As such, a playwright writes to fill a vacuum. Just as Achebe (1986, p vi) metaphorically refers that “playwriting is like filling the open gap in a book shelf”. Relatively, the book shelf is the society; the open gap is the social vice; while the play is a correctional statement. “Playwriting is an investigative immersion into the human psyche and environment to harvest and represent the human condition for critical evaluation directed to edify the human soul” (Binebai, 2013, p. 427).

Often times, the playwright may choose to be essentially original or think upon an existing work, thereby creating an insight from such work. As a raw creative material, “a play is a letter from the playwright to the director, actors and other members of the production informing them of a particular vision of his or hers (Yerima, 2003, p. 15). Here, the playwright becomes an ideologist and (creative) designer – set, lights, properties, make-up, costume and more. This is because, before or during the process of writing, the playwright has consciously buried his creative prowess in the grave of constructive illumination. Here, he creates in his mind, a particular type of stage for his work; his inner sight designs character/characterization; he pictures the scenic requirements. These and some more performance requirements are what the playwright usually stipulates on the opening leaves of his work or at the beginning of each scene/situation/movement. In some cases, especially in African context, the playwright adopts the eclectic artistic nature, by infusing songs and dances in his creative piece. This paper shall therefore make a reference to a particular performance, and attempt a critical review of Sam Ukala’s *The Slave Wife*.

IV. DISCUSSION

SYNOPSIS OF *THE SLAVE WIFE*

*The Slave Wife* tells the story of a jealous wife, who struggles to maintain her privileged position in a polygamous royal home through overt and covert means. Ogiso, the Oba of Idu, is anxious to sire a male child who will inherit the throne from him. He enlists the support of his chiefs, and most especially that of Obi, the one-eyed oraclist, who after consulting his oracles, tells Oba Ogiso to marry one of his slaves. Apparently, this has not solved the problem, because as Oba Ogiso tells Obu:

The slave you asked me to marry, I have married. The blood of my body has fattened her buttocks not her belly.

No heir has been born, and this kingdom will be deceived no more. (Ukala, 1982, p.5)

Thereafter, Obu consults his oracles and instructs Oba Ogiso to feed his ancestors and his wives with “mashed yams”, and that the wife who eats the alligator pepper, which the Oba hides in the yam, shall give him a son. Hence, the necessary ritual is performed, and after sometime, the Oba’s wives indeed become pregnant, and as it is the tradition, they are sent out of the palace to give birth. The enslaved wife, Igbon, suffers all forms of humiliation and deprivation in
the palace. Her elevation from slavery to the status of a wife of the Oba does not lessen her yoke. The entire palace and the people of Idu see her as a slave and treat her as such. The Oba and his chiefs mock her elevation to the status of a wife, which in reality she is not. Igbon’s composure and action are condescending, however, in the end; the enslaved wife gives birth to a son, who Alahin attempts to destroy. And it is not until the miraculous arrival of her son and her subsequent elevation does Igbon exert her position as a royal wife. She warns Alahin, her major prosecutor, with confidence and a sense of authority in the trial scene. After the chiefs have pronounced the judgment of guilt on Alahin to the effect that nothing short of her blood will cleanse the land. In this dramatic situation, the contempt is unmistakable, but in the end, Igbon is indeed, the Oba’s wife.

**DIRECTORIAL RESPONSIBILITIES: NEXUS WITH PRODUCTION TEAM**

There is pleasure in viewing art; pleasure that should be enjoyed and encouraged. Performance art comes with a special aura for all parties involved in the build-up: the playwright, Director, actors, technical crew members and of course, audience. To a large extent, it is believed that performance of plays bring out the beauty of what the playwright has courteously imagined on paper coupled with the relative creative weight of the handlers of the given play. In essence, it is like bringing life to the play-text. Brunch (1990, p.1) states that the theatre on premium note “needs three elements: actors, play and audience. But for theatre to actualize its potentials, a person needs to impose a point of view that would penetrate all aspects of the production”. That is why Musa (2001) contributes that “the art of performance whether; social, cultural, improvisational, scripted, commissioned or religious can only become reality through the creative endeavor of theatre director in his complex and tasking art of play directing”(P.2). At this level of creative interpretation, various factors are put into keen consideration – Artistic, technical and administrative possibilities. As a re-affirmation of theatrical value, its actualization requires the concerted effort of a team to be ably led by an artistic director. “It is the fact, the complexity of his role in the theatre entails that he must be at the apex of theatre productions” (Arinde, 2012, p. 99). Little wonder Dean and Carra (1980,) submit that, Director’s work “is to convey to the audience every segment and quality of a play in its fullest dramatic value” (P.17). Shedding more light on this subject-matter, we cannot but acknowledge Emesealu, when he submits that:

directorial art involves the ability to peruse a playwright’s script (where there is one) thoroughly, discover the intended message for the audience and be able to communicate such a message to the actors and actresses who, ultimately, constitute the conduct between the text and the audience… involves the harmonization of the efforts of the lighting personnel, the set-designer and executants, the make-up person, and the costume and wardrobe workers, among others (Emesealu, 2010, p. 72).

The reality of interpreting Sam Ukala’s *The Slave Wife* is indeed a great experience. This is because, the director, to a large extent, carefully brings together all the required performance tools— tangible (costumes, set, lights, props etc.) and intangible (sound, dialogue, acting, tempo/mood etc). The theatrical experience indicates that the director maintained professional relationship with the musicologist and choreographer, who are also members of the group. The way at which the orchestra was conducted added much aesthetical credence to the performance of Sam Ukala’s *The Slave Wife*. This was skillfully implemented by the prompt alertness of the orchestra at every point of call. Hence, making sure that the tempo of performance doesn’t drop. The modulation of voice and mood gave a clearer picture of situations being enacted on stage, with laudable conformity. Basically, the orchestra played an important role not by only spicing up the mood of the audience, but by also contributing to the flow of performance delivery at all levels of production.

Costume, being an occasional robe reserved for a specific purpose at specific occasions. For the theatre, Douglas (1993, p. 9) submits that costume includes “all the accessories he (the performer) carries as part of his character, all the items related to his hair, dressing and everything associated with his face, body, make-up (including mask if they are substitutes for facial make-up” Wilson (1991, p. 357) in Inegbe and Markson (2013, p. 73) states that:

of the various elements in the theatre, the most personal are costumes because they are actually worn by the performers themselves. Closely related to costumes are other elements or accessories worn by performers such as make-up hairstyles, masks and personal items like bracelets, and necklaces. At the same time, costumes have a value of their own, adding colour, shape and symbolism to the overall effect that is created on stage. (Wilson, 1991, p. 357)

Elsewhere, Roberts (2002, rightly puts that “costume functions not only as a disguise but also as an aid to the wearer in assuming the identity of the character he is impersonating” (p.13). To corroborate the several assertions on costume, Utoh-Ezeajugh (2010) postulates that costumes are “the items of clothing, accessories and ornamentation worn by the actor or actress for the purpose defining character and establishing the circumstances of the character’s existence, by situating him/her in time and space”. (p.130)

Meanwhile, the issue of costume was appropriately attended to in the performance of Sam Ukala’s *The Slave Wife*. Costumes in the performance reflect the visual style of the production as it also helped actors portray their characters on their creative engagement through the play’s action. The use of costumes in the performance enabled the audience to identify each character through appearance, thereby possessing visual potentials of information that convey more meaning to the audience. Thus, we cannot discount the fact that costumes in the play added spectacles to the entire creative piece of work. Notably, the rich royal regalia worn by the king presented Ogiso as an Edo king indeed. Also, the use of neck beads and wrist-beads by the queens complimented their social status thereby giving credence to the submission of Ndu-Udeji (2017) that “costumes are designed to highlight the roles played by a character and are used to
establish mood and to enhance the physical appearance of the character” (p.189). Symbolically, the entire costumes and props used in the play largely project the cultural identity of Benin people. Another element of performance that enhanced rational manifestation is the technical responsibilities. The technical director did well in combining theories such as naturalism, realism and symbolism to somehow crash into eclecticism. This then informs us of the essence of design to a performance. Design in the theatre transcends mere strokes and lines (Nasir 2000, p.28). The designs in the theatre compliment the director’s effort to make a dramatic presentation appropriate and pleasing. Scenery and lighting to a performance. Cassady (1997) stressed that “even when the director has definite ideas about how a setting or lights or props should appear, the designers in carrying out the director’s wishes, add their own personalities, their way of viewing the world to their work” (p.318). Thus, Nasir (2011) opines that “it is necessary because apart from the designers providing a channel, they equally assist the director to convey the theme and provide information essential to the understanding and overall success of the play” (p.93). Design often necessitates the consideration and functionality of aesthetics, with keen observation for its economic and socio-political dimensions for both design object and the process. These designs are basically scenic and light designs. Scenic design concerns itself with the way a stage is composed, constructed and built for a particular production. To a meaningful extent, scenic design describes the setting of a play through visual language. As a result of this importance, any theatrical session may be unrealistic without a stage (theatre) just as there cannot be a performance without the actor. In the same vein, the actor in a vacuum in environment of same sort, is at least required. This environment includes the stage its set and properties (Akoh and Musa, 2006, p. 125)

On the twin note, lights corroborate the aesthetic dexterity of a production. Through appropriate colour; mode; variety and shape, light performs prominent role in “aiding a lasting, but pleasant theatrical experience” (Oni, 2004, p. 63 – 4). This informs Nwadigwe’s (2002) submission that “in addition to enhancing visual and auditory effectiveness, light and sound design give a performance its unique living quality which cannot be obtained from the plastic arts” (p.12). Hence, the significance of set and light design cannot be relegated in any theatrical exhibition. In the performance of Ukala’s The Slave Wife, the relevance of set and light was well utilized. (Bello, Idaevbor; 2013)

V. Conclusion

Despite the numerous scholarly assertions on arts, one could come to a concise deduction that, art is life and vice-versa. Its emergence and sustenance cannot be divorced from man’s rational decision to think, imagine, carve, create and appreciate. Art perhaps in its conception emanates from subjective consciousness, it is regarded as a “dreamer’s idle fancy” (Bamidele, 2000, p. 27). Atanda (2013) in his view, submits that:

Art is a specific expression like poetry, novel, play, film, music, painting, sculpture and architecture of social consciousness to narrate or present human activity. In other words, art is an application of skill, in creative imagination, to the production of any form of work of art. From the fore-going, art is biocentricism; that is the human being is the focus of every form of genre of art. (Atanda, 2013, p. 453)

Atanda and Bamidele’s respective submissions serve fundamental purpose in our ability to understand the rational existence of art, as well as the transformational garment it procures during the process of creation, interpretation and reception. In relation to the performing arts, this paper made close reference to the performance of Sam Ukala’s The Slave Wife. Here, a cursory analysis has been made on the procedures and factors that enhanced the successful interpretation of the play-text to performance. It then comes to our worrying observation that if truly the purposeful beauty of rendering a rational art piece sensible relies mostly on collaborative acknowledgement, there should be deserving credit to all personnel involved in such exercise. Thus, this raises our interrogative mind towards the relegation of a playwright in the play-production process. How come do we construct the theatre organogram without creating a space, even if not apparent, for the playwright; we then place the artistic director at the superlative top?. As such, this paper strongly disagrees with Peter Brook, who refers director as “God”. Brook (1968) submits that:

He does not ask to be God and yet his role implies it. He wants to be fallible, and yet an instinctive conspiracy of the actors is to make him the arbiter, because an arbiter is so desperately wanted all the time. In a sense, the director is always an impostor, a guide at night who does not know the territory and yet he has no choice – he must guide, learning the route as he goes (Brook, 1968, p. 38).

By this, the implication of Brook’s submission super-imposes the director on every other personnel involved in a play production, even the playwright. But it remains obvious that, for a director to work, he needs a material; such material is the play. How then do we revere the creator of such play? In submission, the concern at this point is that, in rendering an ideology*y; a creative thought sensible, one should do a sincere and critical identification of all elements and contributors, who in their respective disciplines, commit their expertise for such artistic reality.

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Taofiq Olaide Nasir was born in Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria on the 27th of September. He is a product of the prestigious University of Ibadan where he earned his M.A in Theatre Arts and Ph.D in theatre Arts after his B.A degree in Dramatic Arts from Obafemi Awolowo University, Ille-Ife.

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Using Educational Technology to Enhance Teaching and Learning EFL (A Case Study of English Language Teachers- KKU- Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Assir)

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Abstract—This paper aims at investigating the method of applying educational technology to enhance TEFL in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Assir. The researcher uses close-ended questions interview and direct observation as instruments for collecting the data, and then he uses the descriptive method to analyse them. He chooses these two instruments as most appropriate for exchanging and evaluating ideas about using educational technology to enhance teaching EFL in the prescribed faculty. He, also, uses the observational method to study classroom events. The interview was held with 20 teachers of the English Department in order to get valuable information for the study. Furthermore, the researcher uses the SPSS programme to compute the data. The following are the study findings: Firstly; the usage of mere traditional devices in instruction has a poor efficiency on LEFL at the above-mentioned faculty. Secondly; there is effectiveness in using educational technology in teaching. Thirdly; it seems that the Faculty of Sciences and Arts provides training for the English language teachers with regard to educational technology, but in vain. The researcher recommends that English language teachers, of Faculty of Sciences and Arts, should facilitate and enhance learning via using educational technology- in their teaching- in order to keep students more interested and more engaged with the topic which is presented.

Index Terms—educational technology, integration, enhances learning, English as a Foreign Language (EFL), close-ended questions interview

I. INTRODUCTION

The researcher believes that the proficiency in foreign languages, at least two of them, opens wide doors for work and knowledge, and gives the person who masters some foreign languages great acceptance among different peoples almost in all countries around the world. Being that the case, the researcher calls for the development of foreign languages education in Saudi Arabia, in particular the English language which is treated as a foreign language since it is not used as a medium of instruction in schools or universities and not used as a means of communication in the daily life speech. Alrabai, F. (2016) asserted that, “despite the enormous efforts of the Saudi government to improve English teaching and learning in the country, students’ English proficiency remains unsatisfactory and far below expectations... According to the statistics released in the third edition of The Official Guide to the TOEFL Test (2009), the average TOEFL result in Saudi Arabia is 57 out of 120, which is the second lowest in the entire Middle East and among the lowest average TOEFL scores in the world. The low competence in EFL among Saudi learners can be attributed to a variety of multidimensional factors.” (p. 21).

Teachers cannot depend completely on their students’ interests and needs of learning a FL, yet they should motivate learning whenever they find a chance to do that. Seeking for motivating their students, most teachers use various devices of technology and online computer programmes in teaching. But it is not an easy process, as evidenced by Laura Turner, (2005, p.1) who stated that "whether you are involved in higher education, secondary education, elementary education, or special education all of us find it difficult to cope with fast-developing computer-based technology. " However, in the field of teaching and learning EFL there is a universal trend that in order to make learning an effective process you have to use technology in your teaching. Ibrahim M. A. & Khalid A. (2014) contended that “the introduction of new technology into schools has determined changes in pedagogy where teachers are adopting new methods of teaching facilitated by the new technology. Technology offers powerful learning and teaching tools that demand new skills and understandings both from learners and teachers. This may provide better results of teaching effectiveness compared to traditional teaching methods.” (p. 105).

Ontario Ministry of Education (2000) presents the role of technology in the curriculum as follows: “Increasing reliance on computers, telecommunication networks, and information technologies in society and the workplace makes it essential for students to become computer literate and to develop ‘information literacy’ skills. Information literacy is the ability to access, select, gather, critically evaluate, create, and communicate information, and to use the information obtained to solve problems and make decisions. In preparation for further education, employment, citizenship, and
lifelong learning, students must be capable of deriving meaning from information by using a wide variety of information literacy skills.” (p.9).

Moreover, the term ‘Technology Enhanced Learning’ (TEL) is increasingly being used worldwide. To bear the above mentioned piece of information in mind, it is no longer agreed to or approved by any teacher to be technology illiterate. Interested in educational technology after he has utilised it in teaching EFL- in some universities in the Sudan and the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia- for almost seven years, the researcher felt certain of the benefits of it. Hence, the idea that this area of knowledge is expected to be exciting- especially in the Kingdom- has encouraged the researcher to make a research on it.

A. Statement of the Problem

This part of the study submits the cause of the research paper and generates the questions which the research aims to answer. For asserting this fact, the researcher states that the questions to be examined in this paper are interrelated and therefore, can be summarized and assembled in one question as follows: ‘How utilisation of educational technologies enhances teaching and learning EFL?’

Alrabai, F. (2016) emphasized that “low achievement in the foreign language learning is the result of a complex interaction of both internal and external factors. For example, a controlling, aggressive teacher is an external factor that negatively affects learners’ motivations, while the anxiety that such teachers instil in their students is an internal factor that negatively affects students’ learning outcomes.” (p. 22). He took the same issue further when he said that “learners come to school with motivation and enthusiasm, but when they begin to encounter certain external practices, such as responding to their teachers’ questions, completing their assignments, taking tests, and having their performances monitored, graded, and reported to their parents, learners may begin to find school anxiety-provoking and psychologically threatening.” (Alrabai F., 2016, p. 22).

English Language Teachers of Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Assir- cannot depend on traditional type of teaching and on their students’ interests for learning a FL, yet should motivate learning by using modern methods rather than traditional ones. Therefore, this research paper is an attempt to give those teachers confidence to use educational technology in their teaching in order to improve the quality of students’ participation in learning English as a Foreign Language.

B. Questions of the Study

1. Does traditional type of teaching enhance learning EFL in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Aassir?
2. Does utilisation of educational technology in teaching EFL, in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Aassir, encourage broader students’ participation and collaboration?
3. Will learning become fun for students by utilising educational technology in teaching EFL in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Aassir?

C. Hypotheses of the Study

1. Traditional type of teaching does not improve the quality of learning EFL, in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Aassir, since it lacks effective interaction between English as Foreign Language teachers and their students.
2. There will not be broader students’ participation and collaboration without utilising educational technology in teaching EFL in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Aassir.
3. Learning EFL, in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Aassir, will become fun for students by utilising educational technology in teaching.

D. Significance of the Study

The significance of this research paper is determined by how we benefit from it and how the specific audience will be helped by its findings. Considering this piece of information, the researcher expects some advantages of this study because it will be of importance to community as it is about a universal area of interest. Moreover, it may help in providing teachers with academic information about their career. Then, the researcher is longing for this paper to be an attempt by which he can help the interested readers in the field- teachers who are concerned with English as a Foreign Language, and those who work in the field of LT and applied linguistics- to carry on further researches in this area of knowledge.

E. Limitations and Delimitations

In this research paper the concentration will be on utilising educational technology in teaching EFL in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Aassir - in the second semester of the academic year 2018-2019. In other words, this paper will examine the quality of making use of educational technology in TEFL at the above setting.

Technology is quite expensive to implement. Some areas have no power and internet, so it becomes very difficult to use educational technology. Teachers will have to be trained on how technology works. We are used to teachers who are teaching students, in spite of the fact that not themselves getting taught. Some students will find it difficult to deal with these technologies without a guide from their teachers.
II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Keep in his mind that the standards of English language four main skills have declined a lot especially speaking which is considered as the most important skill of the four ones, the researcher thinks very carefully about sharing in solving such a problem. In connection with the development of foreign languages education, the researcher offers a possible opinion of utilising educational technology to enhance Teaching English as a Foreign Language in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Aassir.

A. What is Educational Technology?

Adam Bellow (2016) said, “I think to define technology integration; it’s really using whatever resources you have to the best of your ability. Technology is a tool. It’s what you do with that tool, what you can make, what you allow the students to make. That’s really what technology is all about.” (From the blog-Edutopia). In accordance with his own experience and continuous observations the researcher thinks that educational technology is an area of study that uses the processes of analyzing, designing, developing, implementing and evaluating the learning materials with their all types in order to improve and elevate teaching and learning or to achieve instructional objectives. The usage of physical hardware, software, and educational theories comprise educational technology which is- at the present time- used to facilitate learning and improving teachers and students’ performance by creating, using and managing suitable technological processes and resources. This is done in particular for increasing performance within the educational system. According to U.S. Department of Education, (2017) “Technology can empower educators to become co-learners with their students by building new experiences for deeper exploration of content. This enhanced learning experience embodies John Dewey’s notion of creating ‘more mature learners.’ Side-by-side, students and teachers can become engineers of collaboration, designers of learning experiences, leaders, guides, and catalysts of change.” (p.28)

B. Educational Technology versus Traditional Type of Teaching

The researcher wonders how his own classroom was looked like round about thirty-five years ago. He claims that his teachers; instead of using computers they used books, instead of having videos they used cassette tapes and recorders, and instead of having interactive white boards they used chalkboards / blackboards. “Education is evolving due to the impact of the Internet. We cannot teach our students in the same manner in which we were taught. Change is necessary to engage students not in the curriculum we are responsible for teaching, but in school. Period.” (Chamberlain, 2016). John Dewey (2011) once said, "If we teach today as we taught yesterday, we rob our children of tomorrow.” (Press release). As it is presented in the introduction, teachers should not depend completely on the involvements and needs of their students for learning English as a Foreign Language, yet they should stimulate learning whenever they find a chance to do that. Fortunately, through his continuous observations, the researcher notices that students have enchanted with technology devices and that they know how to operate them efficiently, especially their smart phones. According to David W. (2016) ”We need technology in every classroom and in every student and teacher's hand, because it is the pen and paper of our time, and it is the lens through which we experience much of our world.” (Search Quotes). Hence, the researcher is interested in the things teachers should do in order to make learning exciting with mixing technology with traditional means.

Aziz, H. (2010) stated that “educational technology is the implementation of appropriate tools, techniques, or processes that facilitate the application of senses, memory, and cognition to enhance teaching practices and improve learning outcomes.” (p.1). As far as senses are concerned, Amy B. (2018) provides an ancient Chinese proverb: “I hear and I forget. I see and I remember. I do and I understand.” (Search twitter). Accordingly, the five senses are of great value in the process of learning. Hence, EFL teachers can make use of them to stimulate their students while they are learning. These teachers should know that the more you use senses while you are using educational devices in teaching your students the more those students understand you.

All of us- as EFL teachers- find it very difficult to catch up, keep up, and put up with fast-developing computer-based technology. Therefore, it is no longer acceptable for us to be technology illiterate, while the others are longing for keeping pace with technology accelerating development. Cindy G.& Karuri M. (2015) wrote “Everyone agrees that technology can be used in the classroom to the benefit of the students, and there is no stopping the advancement of technology. The challenge is in how the technology is implemented, utilized, and monitored.” (p.1141).

C. How to Make TEFL Lively and Fun?

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) claimed that ”EFL, as much as any good teaching, needs to be intrinsically motivating. It may, still, need to be sweetened with the sugar of enjoyment, fun, creativity, and a sense of achievement.” (Cited in Al-Haj, A. M., 2011, p.526). It is thought by most EFL teachers that, educational technologies are tools that, when used correctly, helps teachers to make their teaching more versatile, modern, and engaging for students. Adam Bellow (2016) said, “If you can do a lesson without technology, that’s great but knowing that you can do it better with technology, that’s why you use tools.” (From the blog-Edutopia). With regard to applying educational technology into teaching EFL, the most important goal is to enable teachers and students to gather, access, analyse, present and transmit information in a new and different manner. In this particular way, teachers of EFL can make information available in classrooms as well as can make the teaching of students with special needs interesting and attractive or special in some way.

Surely, technology is one of the means and incentives by which teachers can arouse their students’ interest while they
are teaching. Today, technology has the ability to enhance relationships between teachers and students since there are portable and easy to use devices like; Smartphone, personal digital assistants, eBook readers and laptops, etc. “When technology is effectively integrated into subject areas, teachers grow into roles of advisers, content experts, and coaches. Technology helps make teaching and learning more meaningful and fun”. (Kenneth T. Henson, 2015, p.22). Al-Haj, A. M. (2011) asserted that “activities carried out in groups may help to motivate and encourage the more diffident students and those who are evasive, or afraid to ask or speak for fear of making errors, that is because activities carried out in groups will transfer the process of learning from getting the skill of the language to using it.” (p. 526).

From a set of papers in the issue of CITE, Mouza, C. (2018) provides the following piece of information about integrating technology; “new approaches to integrating technology in teacher education that move beyond stand-alone courses to explicitly address content and pedagogy in methods courses and field experiences. These papers address teacher education and professional development practices that not only familiarize teachers with new technologies but help them acquire firsthand experiences of what it means to learn with technology.” (p. 491).

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The researcher used the descriptive method to describe, organize and summarize the data by making use of two instruments: direct observation and closed-ended questions interview held with 20 teachers of the English Department in order to give their views on the points below which were contained in the interview as guides (i.e. domains):

- professional development,
- traditional classroom activities,
- resources to integrate technology,
- teachers’ workload, and
- teachers’ attitudes towards integration of technology.

The interview schedule contained 20 questions each five of them were set under one of the above guides (domains).

The researcher also, used an observational method to study classroom events. He chose these two tools as most appropriate for exchanging and evaluating ideas about using educational technology to enhance teaching EFL in the prescribed setting. Furthermore, the researcher used the SPSS programme in order to compute the data. Then, for the collection of relevant data, the interview was held and observations of teachers’ classroom behavior were conducted.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The technique of presenting the results is that the researcher organized them around the hypotheses of the study. Then, he discovers that the easiest way is to report the study results and frame them around the research questions or hypotheses which he has formulated already. To do this job, he uses only the results of the following eight questions out of the 20 questions of the interview schedule.

A. The First Hypothesis

The result of table (1) presents that English language teachers of the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Assir do not prefer traditional type of teaching. To take full advantage of this result, the researcher asked them about the reason, and then almost all of them said that their students would collaborate and engage in learning EFL whenever they used modern technology devices in their teaching. Analyzing qualitative data is difficult, however, the researcher did his best to attend three lectures, and then collected detailed qualitative data – from inside the lecture rooms – about whether English language teachers utilize traditional type of teaching or not and whether they integrate educational technology in teaching EFL or not. Ultimately, the researcher noticed that some of the English language teachers did not use pure traditional type of teaching, yet on the contrary they used blended type of instruction.

Considering these results, the researcher states that they agree with the first hypothesis (that) “Traditional type of teaching does not improve the quality of learning EFL, in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Aassir, since it lacks effective interaction between English as Foreign Language teachers and their students.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q1. DO YOU PREFER TRADITIONAL TYPE OF TEACHING?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid yes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This result of table (2) does not oppose the above result of table (1) which shows that English language teachers stand for the viewpoint of integrating traditional devices with modern technology ones in order to utilise blended teaching. But, what is surprising is that most of those teachers did not use educational technology in their teaching in spite of the fact that they were convinced of its effectiveness.
B. The Second Hypothesis

These three tables from (3) – (5), which are exactly 100 %, show that English language lecturers of Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Assir, officially, agree to the idea of using educational technology in their teaching. The observational results- which are discussed above in detail- agreed with the results of the interviews, and at the very same time they are supported by them. This is being the case; the researcher claims that all these results reflect the second hypothesis that “There will not be broader students’ participation and collaboration without utilising educational technology in teaching EFL in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Assir.” Unfortunately, most of the English language teachers in this faculty did not use educational technology in their teaching, although they are certain of its effectiveness.

C. The Third Hypothesis

Results of tables (6) – (8), which are 90% and above indicate that the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Assir provides training for the English language teachers with regard to utilizing educational technology in their teaching. Considering the preceding findings the researcher claims that the study has operated since there is an agreement between the results of the interviews and the observational comments. Thus, these results supported the third hypothesis of the study which read: “Learning EFL, in the Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Assir, will become fun for students by utilising educational technology in teaching”. They are also corresponding to the former opinion of Kenneth T. Henson (2015) “When teachers effectively integrate technology into subject areas, teachers grow into roles of advisers, content experts, and coaches. Technology helps make teaching and learning more meaningful and fun.” (p. 75)
V. CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

As it shown above from the previous studies, technology has a vivid effect on university education. But, there is still much to be learned about its contribution in teaching English as a foreign language. The researcher hopes that the findings below will be considered by English Language teachers:

- Traditional type of teaching lacks proper communication between teachers and their students, as it is not an effective means by which students can master the main skills of learning EFL.
- Technology is motivating and stimulating for students:
  - Students feel much more motivated.
  - Students can use interactive multimedia exercises.
  - Technology changes students from being passive to active learners.
- Technology is the best complementary tool for teachers in the classroom:
  - Teachers can motivate their students.
  - Classes can be much richer in content.
  - It helps in implementing a blended learning method.
- Technology assists in managing and monitoring student progress:
  - Provides the most effective control over activities.
  - Create a unique experience as much for the teacher as the students.
  - Promote interactivity and collaboration within learning.
- Technology provides teachers with attractive resources.
- Through educational technology teaching is more effective.
- Using educational technology in teaching EFL generates great need for knowledge, information and skills which encourage the present day generation to collaborate as one team in order to live a fruitful life.
- Utilisation of educational technology in teaching EFL encourages broader students’ participation and collaboration.
- Learning EFL will become lively and fun for students by utilizing educational technology in teaching.

To make the process of learning EFL in KKU University- Faculty of Sciences and Arts at Muhayle Assir a more motivating and effective experience, the researcher submits the following recommendations to the English Language teachers:

- Be knowledgeable and competent to operate educational devices.
- Be aware, appreciative and equipped on using these educational devices.
- Establish guidelines.
- Adopt variations of technology.
- Provide access to your students.
- Encourage student interaction.
- keep a backup plan.
- Avoid over use educational technology devices.

Moreover, because of their importance, what if we combined technology and past educational materials? I think the present day learners will enjoy it. In addition to that, it will develop teaching-learning interaction. Then, everything will be balanced when using traditional and modern learning environment.

The researcher longs that this study to be as a real contribution to debates in its field and to enrich subsequent research activities by teachers and academic developers. In other words, he claims that three advantages can be gained from this study. First, the study will be of importance as it is on an issue of the field of education. Second, may help in giving teachers academic information that concerning their career. Third, the researcher has good reasons to think that this paper will be a test to discover how effective or suitable to utilize educational technology in teaching EFL or an attempt by which the researcher can help the specialized audiences particularly in the countries in which English language is treated as a foreign language- audiences such as; interested readers, teachers who are concerned with EFL, and those who work in the field of LT and applied linguistics- to carry on further researches in this area of knowledge. Kirkwood and Price (2013) declared that, “Academics and managers need a clear articulation of what is meant by Technology Enhanced Learning (TEL) in higher education to develop a better understanding of achievements. This is vital if research is to inform future practices in teaching and learning with technology to maximum effect.” (p.20).

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A Comparison Study of Curriculum between TESOL in the United Kingdom and TCSOL in China

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Abstract—this research analyses 10 universities from the United Kingdom and China respectively to make a comparison between TESOL and TCSOL curriculum. Based on the analysis, the compulsory courses, and optional courses, some similarities and differences have been analyzed. By referring to the curriculum of TESOL, some suggestions have been put forward. This research aims to inject broader approaches to the study of Master of Teaching Chinese to Speakers of Other Language (TCSOL), which would result in an enhanced understanding and enlargement of the subject matter, provide new thinking direction, promote the development of TCSOL, and reduce the possible confusion on the future development.

Index Terms—TCSOL, TESOL, curriculum, comparison

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Language (TESOL) has over 70 years of history; which can be seen to have been founded after the completion of the Second World War, with the establishment of an English college at the University of Michigan. With the rapid economic development and technological strength of British and American, English is frequently used, and the demand for English teachers grows with changing. To meet this demand, more and more universities recruit the Postgraduate students in the TESOL in the U.K. As the origin of English, the U.K. set up the TESOL as major earlier than other countries. Until now, there are more than 50 colleges, universities have TESOL, and the related majors in the U.K.

TESOL is mainly to study and explore how to carry out English teaching, to get the theoretical methods of English teaching, and to enhance the overall level of English teaching through the practice of theory. Universities in the U.K. are developing with their TESOL curriculum based on the analysis of the students’ situation and employment rate. Through these analyses, it can make more supplements to the contents of TESOL major, so that make TESOL become more international and meet the market demand. However, with the alteration of educational intuitions becoming more focused on the aspects of international education, has allowed for TESOL to become widely accepted within Western countries such as the UK, US, Australia, New Zealand and many others. Students can obtain the certificate related to TESOL upon graduation.

In recent years, with the rapid development of China’s economy and the steady improvement of national strength, more and more people begin to learn Chinese in the world. In 1985, Teaching Chinese to Speakers of other languages (TCSOL) for undergraduate students was established. Until 2007, the master’s degree in TCSOL was established. Subsequently, more than 20 universities within China began to establish doctoral degrees successively. The establishment of these degrees at different levels has made an irreplaceable contribution for TESOL to internationalisation. However, some Chinese scholars still have varying degrees of “anxiety and uneasy” about the vision and mission of TCSOL, curriculum setting, development directions, and other essential issues of TCSOL (Ning, 2018).

On the other hand, some Chinese researchers and scholars have done some research on the curriculum of TCSOL for referring to the TESOL curriculum research to solve these issues. For instance, Li (2014) in her comprehensive examination of TESOL showed that the proportion of courses in “research methodology” in the TESOL master’s degree program in the United Kingdom is far higher than that in American universities by the comparison of TESOL courses in
ten universities in the United States and five universities in the United Kingdom. However, both countries have something in common, which puts "English teaching theory and practice" courses in the most critical position, followed by "Second Language Teaching Theory" and "English Language" courses (Wen, 2019). Add as Tian and Teng (2018) pointed out that the curriculum system of TESOL in the United Kingdom is divided into two categories, which are regular courses and special courses by analyzing 12 universities of TESOL. In addition suggest putting forward the emphasis on the development of special programs for the Master of TCSOL in China. It is necessary to expand setting the optional courses, focus on the intersection and penetration of knowledge; respect the individual differences of learners, and Increase the flexibility of student choice, with due consideration given to courses in research methods, linguistics, international topics, etc. This evidence has been able to provide a strong value for the curriculum within educational settings in China.

Zhang (2012) referred to the TECOL curriculum and proposed some suggestions. Similarly, Zhang (2015) found that TCSOL needs to have a high requirement and standard and should diversify the course setting and strong learning and managing system, and clear version and mission to meet the learners' needs. Su (2012) emphasized that the assessment of TESOL is diversified, not limited to the examination. TESOL focused on the difficult tasks of self-learning and comprehensive analysis; motivate learners' metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Tian and Teng (2018) gave a detailed analysis of core courses, elective courses and specialized courses in the TESOL in the United Kingdom. They also made an overview of the required courses, optional courses, and practical courses in the U.S. It is concluded that the TESOL for Master Program in the United Kingdom has in-depth characteristics, and the TESOL for master Program in the United States is practical and personalized.

Chen (2008) clarified that the master's degree of TCSOL is not only an emerging discipline but also a cross-disciplinary discipline, as well as an open and international discipline. Zhou (2015) pointed out that the training mode determines the training direction of the master of TCSOL, and curriculum setting plays an essential role in the training mode.

Cao and Qin (2017) indicated that the TCSOL curriculum for master students usually has problems that emphasize the cultivation of teaching skills and neglect the teaching of language knowledge. In their research suggested that the content of TCSOL curriculum should meet the training objectives of the TCSOL, adhere to the principle of combining theory with practice, the combination of knowledge transfer and skill training, and optimize the current curriculum setting for TCSOL. Liu and Pan (2018) proposed that TCSOL should pay more attention to curriculum to achieve teaching achievement. Although these experts all emphasize the importance of the curriculum, however, they have put forward different opinions on the TCSOL curriculum.

Compare to the TESOL, it is a short development history for TCSOL of master students. However, as a similar major, there must be some universal or standard courses in the course setting. Therefore, this study mainly studies the following issues:

1. Is there any difference between TESOL major in the U.K. and TSCOL in China in terms of compulsory courses?
2. Is there any difference between TESOL major in the U.K. and TSCOL in China in terms of optional courses?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. PARTICIPANTS

This study is a comparison of the curriculum of TESOL in the U.K. and TCSOL in China. Ten representative universities in the U.K. were selected for analysis, which are the University of Edinburgh, the University of Leeds, University College London, University of Surrey, University of Bath, the University of Exeter, Oxford Brooks University, Lancaster University, University of Leicester, and the University of Sheffield. The selected Chinese universities are Peking University, Beijing Language and Culture University, Renmin University of China, Northeast Normal University, Communication University of China, Liaoning University, Dalian University of Foreign Languages, Zhejiang Normal University, Zhejiang University of Science and Technology, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. All of these Chinese universities offer master’s degrees in teaching Chinese to speakers of other languages.

B. DATA COLLECTION AND PROCEDURES

Firstly, the curriculum data from the website of British universities are got, after the network search and investigation, the researcher had a general understanding of TESOL of 10 universities in the U.K. Nonetheless it has been pointed out by scholars showing that the majority of literature materials about the curriculum setting of TCSOL in the U.K. and TESOL in China for master's degree students were collected based on some databases. Finally, the collected data are sorted out, compared and studied.

C. DATA ANALYSIS

The Comparison of Compulsory Courses between TESOL and TCSOL

(1) Compulsory courses of TESOL in the U.K. universities

The TESOL for master degree students in the U.K. is divided into ‘full research’ and ‘part-time’ study. The “full-time” research is one-year-learning, while the “part-time” study is two-year-learning. This research only focuses on the “full-time” study. The TESOL curriculum can be divided into compulsory modules and optional modules.
According to Figure 1, the average number of compulsory courses is 3 for opening the TESOL master students. These courses mainly cover “linguistics,” “second language acquisition and theory,” and “language teaching and practice.”

![Figure 1 The Number of Compulsory Courses of TESOL in the U.K. universities](image)

According to Figure 2, it shows the proportions of “linguistics”, “second language acquisition and theory”, “language teaching and practice” in the total number of courses. From figure 2, universities in the U.K. pay more attention to the “language teaching and practice” course of TESOL because it covers 38% of the total courses. “Linguistics” course followed is 34%, and the lowest percentage is the “second language acquisition and theory” course, which is only 28%. Meanwhile, in these 10 British universities, only the University of Edinburgh has covered all of these three fields of courses. However, the "language teaching and practice" courses account for the most significant proportion in the University of Leeds. The “second language acquisition and theory” course at the University of Bath is only for 60%. University College London does not offer compulsory courses of "second language acquisition and theory."

Additionally, among the ten universities, the University of Leeds, the University of Surrey, the University of Exeter, Lancaster University, University of Leicester, and the University of Sheffield all set the graduation thesis course as a compulsory course. It reflected the significance of the graduation thesis and emphasized putting theory into practice. By setting the graduation thesis, it would help students to reflect their research direction at the beginning of studying and make proper preparations in advance. Meanwhile, it also built a good bridge into further study.

![Figure 2 The Percentage of Compulsory Courses of TESOL in the U.K.](image)

(2) Compulsory courses of TCSOL in the Chinese universities

With the rapid development of the major of TCSOL in China, the students of this major are not only Chinese students but also international students start to join TCSOL. This study mainly discusses the TCSOL course, which only offered to Chinese master students. In China, TCSOL divided into three types, which are core courses, elective courses, and training courses.

Most of the universities have set the core courses are 24 credits, the training courses are 4 credits and 6 credits for teaching practice in TCSOL. The total credits required for all courses of TCSOL should not be less than 38 credits. Five core courses are included in TCSOL major. There is second language acquisition (second language acquisition and theory field), teaching Chinese as a second language (language teaching and practice field), Chinese class teaching cases (language teaching and practice field), communication of Chinese culture and intercultural communication and international education of Chinese language.

Due to there is no “linguistics” course is included in the compulsory course of master of TCSOL. Hence, the proportion of language teaching and practice courses is 40% in the main courses. Moreover, the proportion of second language teaching and acquisition courses is 20%. The proportion of other courses is 40%, which covers cross-cultural communication and cultural communication courses filed. According to the proportion of all kinds of courses, it reflects that the curriculum of TESOL for master degree students mainly pays more attention to “how to teach Chinese well” rather than linguistics learning. The reason why it does not set the “linguistics” course might be most of the master students of TESOL have known the theoretical knowledge during their undergraduate period. Hence, during the TCSOL
master’s period, practical teaching raises more attention. Besides, cross-culture and communication are set as a master of TCSOL, most of them will teach overseas Chinese learners after graduation. Therefore, these courses can help them to overcome cross-cultural communication problems.

The Comparison of Optional courses between TESOL and TCSOL
(1) The optional courses in the U.K. universities
There is a wide range of optional courses for TESOL major in British universities according to Figure 3, however, it no needs every course to be selected. A large number of elective courses in the U.K. can be roughly divided into nine categories, which are linguistics courses, pedagogy courses, international perspective courses, advanced educational technology courses, teacher development courses, second language learning courses, cultural courses, materials analysis and evaluation courses, and other courses. It can be illustrated in Figure 3.

![Figure 3 The category of the optional courses in the U.K. universities](image)

Based on Figure 3, the average number of optional courses in 10 British universities is 10.7 courses. However, the different university has different curriculum policy and attitudes for opening optional courses. For instance, the University of Bath does not open any optional courses for TESOL master students. While, there are more than ten optional courses in the University of Leeds, University College London, University of Surrey, the University of Exeter and Lancaster University. Besides, not all of the British universities offered the optional courses every year. The optional course setting based on the TESOL students’ choice and department resources.

Through analysis of the arrangement of optional courses of TESOL, it indicated that each university has autonomy mainly in offering elective courses of TESOL. The setting of optional courses is not the same and based on the characteristics of TESOL of each university. For instance, although the University of Bath has no optional course, however, the other 9 universities all consider the basic needs of master students of TESOL when setting up their curriculum.

Related to Figure 2, all universities open the optional courses about linguistic except the University of Edinburgh. Despite linguistics courses have a large proportion in compulsory courses, British universities still offer relevant courses in optional courses for TESOL. For instance, Lancaster University has the most significant proportion of linguistics courses. Opening linguistic courses as optional course indicate that the universities realized the great importance to linguistics courses and focuses on consolidating TESOL students’ basic knowledge.

On the other hand, eight universities provide pedagogical courses as optional courses. The pedagogical courses are in line with the characteristics of TESOL, which is conducive to change the learners’ roles and learn the pedagogy related knowledge from the perspective of TCSOL teachers. The curriculum of pedagogy plays an essential role in training foreign English teachers. However, in terms of the curriculum of internationalization, four universities do not provide the courses of this type. These include the University of Leeds, the University of Surrey, the University of Exeter, and the University of Leicester. TESOL is aimed at non-native English speaking students, and the setting of internationalization is conducive to establishing an international perspective in the teaching process. However, the courses offered by University College London and Oxford Brooks University account for a large proportion, reflecting that these two universities have a wide range of enrollment from all kinds of backgrounds.

Besides, the Oxford Brooks University, University of Leicester and the University of Sheffield do not offer advanced educational technology courses. Using ICT into the foreign language teaching is advancing with the development of the times. Hence, applying science and technology to teaching should make the class more attractive to students.

Four universities offer to teach development courses that aim at training the quality and ability of teachers. Although only four universities provide relevant optional courses, it can also be explained that colleges and universities pay attention to the development of teachers and focus on cultivating teachers’ abilities.

Five universities offer second language learning courses. It could promote the development of TESOL students' language ability and improve their knowledge level by learning the second language. As a leading TESOL major, the University of Sheffield offers a large number of courses related to second language learning. It indicates that universities set up elective courses according to the actual situation of the university.

There are no cultural courses in the core courses of ten universities in Britain, but five universities offer cultural courses in the optional courses. Cultural and intercultural communication courses could avoid the occurrence of cultural conflicts and help teachers to carry out teaching work smoothly.

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As a TESOL teacher, he or she should have not only rich knowledge and teaching skills but also make thoughtful analysis and evaluation of textbooks and students. Only in this way, can he or she consider various factors in the preparation of lessons and make the right judgment on different teaching objects and textbooks in time. Except for the University College London, University of Bath and the University of Sheffield, the other seven universities all offer the educational management courses. It shows that the courses have educational significance in the process of cultivating students.

(2) The optional courses of TCSOL in the Chinese universities

According to Figure 3, it indicated that the elective courses training program of TCSOL for master students are divided into three fields, which are teaching Chinese as a foreign language, Chinese cultural and cross-cultural, education and education management.

![Figure 4 The percentage of optional courses in TCSOL](image)

From the above Figure 4, it shows that there are a large number of universities provide teaching Chinese as foreign language courses and education and teaching management courses among the 10 universities in China. These courses could help students to transform their identity in the course of the class, learn to be a qualified Chinese teacher, and learn how to teach Chinese better. The TCSOL for master students would be engaged in the work of Chinese teaching after graduation. However, they are also the ambassadors of communication between China and foreign countries. Therefore, the proportion of Chinese culture and cross-cultural courses is set at 25%. Overseas Chinese language learners only familiar with Chinese culture so that they can master Chinese language learning well. In the process of Chinese teaching, TCSOL teachers will inevitably encounter difficulties in Chinese teaching management. Hence, the curriculum of education and teaching management can help TCSOL master students learn the skills of classroom management, serve the teaching better, and carry out teaching activities better. Besides, the course of Chinese cultural and cross-cultural are recognized as the supplement of the compulsory courses. The proportion is at the low level.

III. DISCUSSION

A. The Compulsory Comparison Courses between TESOL and TCSOL

According to Figure 5, both TESOL and TCSOL attach importance to second language teaching and theoretical courses to improve TCSOL students’ teaching awareness. The “linguistics” courses of TESOL account for 34.4% of the compulsory courses, the highest proportion, which indicates that TESOL in British universities focuses on the training TESOL students’ knowledge of the language. However, TCSOL does not provide linguistics courses in the compulsory courses and pay more attention to the training of teaching practice. Therefore, the “language teaching and practice” courses in TESOL and TCSOL respectively are 28.1% and 40% in the compulsory courses. In terms of other courses, the major in the two countries also focuses on different curriculum types. TESOL pays emphasized on training students’ methodology competency, while TCSOL focuses on the cross-cultural training competency.

![Figure 5 The Comparison between TESOL and TCSOL in the Compulsory courses](image)
B. The Optional Comparison Courses between TESOL and TCSOL.

There are more optional courses for TESOL than for TCSOL. It means that students of TESOL have a wide choice of optional courses, and they are high autonomous. TESOL in British universities does not require every student to choose all of the optional courses. Generally, TESOL students only choose three or four courses to learn. Meanwhile, the proportion of pedagogy courses in the elective courses is the largest, which proves that the major of TESOL is based on language education. There are also a lot of international courses in TESOL for meeting the standard of "internationalization." While opening new education technology courses shows that the TESOL tightly keeps pace with the times.

In the optional courses of TCSOL, Chinese as a foreign language course is a significant proportion. It reflects that the TCSOL for master students attaches great importance to teaching methods and teaching management to make students change from "how to learn" to "how to teach." Although the TCSOL for master students will be engaged in the work of Chinese teaching after graduation, they also take responsibility for cultural communication between China and foreign countries. Therefore, the proportion of Chinese culture and cross-cultural courses is 25%. Chinese language learners could learn the Chinese language better when they know the Chinese culture well.

By analyzing and comparing the curriculum of TESOL and TCSOL in the U.K. and China, some discussions are followed. No matter what TESOL and TCSOL, the universities should set up courses that are useful to students, continuously improve students' professionalism. Meanwhile, teaching skills courses of TCSOL should be coordinated with the proportion of Chinese basic knowledge courses, which can provide TCSOL students with a better learning environment. Additionally, the proportion of theory courses should be increased in TCSOL. Although Linguistics courses are the basic theory of teaching Chinese as a second language, the second language acquisition theory, and the teaching theory are the core of the major.

Meanwhile, the practical course is the specific utilization of the underlying theory. Although most curriculums of TCSOL are practical courses, however, students need teaching practice based on a more profound knowledge of linguistics. Lacking theory, they cannot use ontological knowledge to solve problems in class. Therefore, it should emphasize not only practicality but also language theory. On the other hand, it can be seen that not only professional courses but also psychology and research courses are all included in the TESOL curriculum. On the other hand, the short of development time compared to TESOL, the TCSOL more stress on the relations each course to extend the width and the depth in terms of curriculum. Although the setting of optional courses of TCSOL is not as good as that of TESOL in British universities, TCSOL also has its characteristics, such as Chinese culture courses. Concerning it, TCSOL can learn from the TESOL of British universities to make the best use of the university resources, effectively integrate the resources of the universities, and offer courses related to internationalization or teacher development, so that TCSOL students could get a more comprehensive development. More importantly, the optional courses should conform to the characteristics of TCSOL. For instance, the universities must offer Taiji, Chinese painting, Chinese kungfu, cooking, and other courses that are popular with international students. So that students with different backgrounds can make multiple choices.

Additionally, from the curriculum setting of TESOL in British universities, it reflects that British universities pay more attention to students' individual needs. That is why TESOL offers so many optional courses for students to choose from. In the process of professional development, curriculum setting is essential. However, in the teaching process, teachers should focus on the content of the course, which is suitable for the students. Therefore, the classroom setting should not only meet the training requirements, but also respect the individual differences of students, understand the actual needs of each student, and teach students by their aptitude so that students’ knowledge level and teaching skills can be improved. Hence, teachers should design some reasonable and scientific training programs and courses based on understanding the actual needs of students. The universities should combine the development of contemporary society and employment factors with improving the content of the course according to students’ needs.

IV. CONCLUSION

Through the comparison and analysis of TESOL and TCSOL, this study found some similarities and differences in compulsory and optional courses. This research helps to find out the advantages of TESOL and TCSOL, and provide some reference for TCSOL to improve the curriculum. Besides, it also provides some suggestions to the experts to guide the cultivation of TCSOL in theory and help to train the teachers who meet the requirements of internationalization and genuinely serve students and the society.

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Establishing Disciplinary English in the Curriculum for English Majors in Chinese Tertiary Education

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Abstract—Despite several reforms in English language teaching (ELT) for English majors at university level in China over the past decades, few studies have paid attention to how the curriculum for English majors needs modifying. The article calls for the establishment of disciplinary English as an important component in the English major curriculum in Chinese tertiary education. Focusing specifically on the development of ELT for English majors, this article discusses how disciplinary English might help solve literacy problems faced by English majors and clarifies the need for disciplinary English and its position in the English major curriculum. Disciplinary English is the research and teaching of English used in disciplines in higher education context and it can be further classified in line with different types of disciplines and fields of practice. Disciplinary English is related to English for academic purposes (EAP) and disciplinary literacy in six aspects: context, students, nature, syllabus, aim, and focus. The establishment of disciplinary English in the English major curriculum has important implications for the future development of ELT for English majors in China.

Index Terms—disciplinary English, ELT, English major, Chinese tertiary education

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the opening up in the late 1970s, there has been a rapid growth in English language teaching (ELT) in China, as evidenced by both the popularity of English learning at all levels of schooling and an ever-increasing population of English learners of different ages (Bolton & Graddol, 2012; Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Accordingly, learning English has been a trend for more than three decades (Lam, 2002), and China now is said to have the largest population of English learners in the world, amounting to as much as more than 400 million (Wei & Su, 2012).

Among this large population, English learners at the university level are of particular interest to researchers (Bolton & Botha, 2015; Heng Hartse & Jiang, 2015; Lam, 2002). They are generally divided into two groups—English majors and non-English majors. In the past decades, there have been several attempts at reform in ELT for English majors, such as the proposal to cultivate ‘interdisciplinary talents’ (Hu, 2002; Zhang, 1996), or ‘general talents’ (Hu & Sun, 2006; Zhou & Fan, 2010), and later some other approaches (Dai & Wu, 2010; Wen, 2014). Despite these efforts, there is a dearth of literature investigating how the curriculum for English majors should change, particularly in the context of the explosive spread of English for academic purposes (EAP) courses for non-English majors in China’s universities on the one hand, and on the other, of the increasing popularity of disciplinary literacy in US secondary schools. Indeed, to the best of my knowledge, no study so far has tried to draw on research on EAP and disciplinary literacy to improve the curriculum design for English majors in China’s universities.

The present study addresses these gaps by reviewing ELT for English majors at the university level in China and by making the case for establishing disciplinary English as an essential component in the curriculum for English majors.

II. ELT FOR ENGLISH MAJORS IN CHINESE TERTIARY EDUCATION

ELT in Chinese tertiary education dates to the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, when some English-medium universities and colleges were established in China by US missionary organizations to teach ‘modern knowledge’ as well as Christianity (Bolton & Botha, 2015). Since then, ELT at the university level in China has experienced drastic fluctuations, with the place of English in the Chinese educational system being taken by Russian in the early period of the founding of People’s Republic of China and then even removed during the Cultural Revolution. At the start of the ‘reform and opening up’ period in the late 1970s, English regained its dominant role and has retained a central place in foreign language education in China’s universities ever since (Heng Hartse & Jiang, 2015: 8).

There are two ELT systems in China’s universities, one for English majors and the other for non-English majors. In the case of ELT for English majors, with the rapid development of the Chinese economy in the 1980s and 1990s, there was an urgent need for graduates with a high level of English proficiency in the job market. Consequently, ELT for English majors experienced an explosive development. By 2013, English major had become the largest undergraduate program in China’s universities, registering more than 578,000 students in 2,531 universities and colleges (Dai & Wang, 2014).
More recently, however, this rapid development has slowed down, and two problems are beginning to loom large. First, ELT for English majors is becoming increasingly homogeneous. Although English major programs can be found in more than two thousand universities in China, the curriculum design is more or less the same, and this fails to manifest features specific to different schools, consequently hindering the development of ELT for English majors and making it difficult for them to meet the demanding needs of society and the market (Feng, 2016; Jiang, 2019).

Second, English as a major is gradually losing its appeal and advantages compared with other majors. Over the past decade, general English proficiency in China has been significantly improved due to several factors, such as globalization (Fang, 2011), internationalization in China’s universities (Shu, 2015), and the new English education policy set by Ministry of Education in China in 2001, which requires that English should be taught as early as the 3rd grade in primary schools (Bolton & Graddol, 2012). However, ELT for English majors in most universities in China still focuses on the development of students’ language skills, especially listening and speaking. Since English training organizations offer better services in this respect, there is widespread uncertainty as to what the purpose is for the English major. Consequently, English major graduates are facing increasing challenges in the job market and have lost their advantages over graduates of other majors (Shu, 2015).

Over the past decades two major reforms have taken place in ELT for English majors to cope with the above problems. The first reform, which began in 1980 and culminated in 2000, featured the cultivation of ‘interdisciplinary talents’. With the greater demand of graduates of high English proficiency and appropriate content-area knowledge, particularly in finance and economics in the 1980s, many universities in China began to modify the curriculum for English majors, adding subjects from other content areas or fields of practice, notably journalism, economics, and business management. In this context, some scholars (Hu, 2002; Zhang, 1996) then put forward the idea of ‘interdisciplinary talent’ and stressed that the goal of ELT for English majors in China was to cultivate talents capable of undertaking work in different fields through the medium of English. This idea was gradually accepted in many China’s universities and interdisciplinary programs for English majors began to emerge in large numbers, making this reform ‘the most widespread and the most influential reform in China’s foreign language education in the past decades’ (Hu, 2008).

The second reform came when some scholars started to question the feasibility of interdisciplinary programs and put forward the idea of ‘general talent’ in ELT for English majors (Hu & Sun, 2006). Realizing that the cultivation of interdisciplinary talents in the English major program is probably a step too far for both students and teachers, researchers (e.g. Hu, 2008; Zhou & Fan, 2010) called for a return for the humanistic nature of the English major on the ground that the English major inherently belongs with the arts and humanities and that the goal of an English major program should be directed to the cultivation of ‘general talents’, that is, graduates with wide knowledge in different fields, rather than knowledge specifically orientated towards certain disciplines or content areas.

From ‘interdisciplinary talents’ to ‘general talents’, ELT for English majors in China seems to have gone from one extreme to the other. Uncertainties remain as to how to develop ELT for English majors in the future. Nevertheless, the two reforms and some later endeavors suggest that ELT for English majors in China’s universities might need to learn from EAP studies in non-English major programs in China and pay attention to changes taking place in the educational system in other countries in order to find a way out for its future development.

III. THE NEED FOR DISCIPLINARY ENGLISH IN THE CURRICULUM

The seemingly abrupt shift of focus in the two reforms of ELT for English majors has generated much discussion among scholars and educators. Over the past decade, great interest has been shown in reconciling the goals of the two reforms and in drawing on EAP studies in ELT for non-English majors. As Chang (2007) demonstrated in his large-scale survey, interdisciplinary programs have positive effects on English majors, including changing their learning methods and improving their English learning. Therefore, it is necessary to add to the English major curriculum some content-based instruction (CBI) courses. In this vein, some studies (Dai & Wu, 2010; Wen, 2014) have tried to take an eclectic approach to reform. These studies advocate the re-orientation toward the cultivation of ‘general talents’ in the English major program, and at the same time argue for equal emphasis to be placed on the development of students’ discipline-specific knowledge in different content areas.

In recent years, there has been a growing consensus that ELT for English majors in China might learn from ELT for non-English majors and benefit from the setting up of English for special purposes (ESP) or EAP courses in the curriculum. As Liang, Chen, & Lu (2006) pointed out, the effectiveness of ESP/EAP courses for English majors are closely related to the cultivation of interdisciplinary talents, and these courses might provide the major channel through which English majors equip themselves with appropriate discipline-specific knowledge. Li (2011) went further and argued that the distinction between English for general purposes (EGP) and ESP/EAP courses is the driving force for the potential reforms taking place in ELT for English majors and that ESP/EAP courses might point to the general direction of development of ELT for English majors in China. Similarly, Shu (2015) discussed existing ESP/EAP courses in English major programs and argues that the setting up of ESP/EAP courses is essential to ‘revive English as a major’ in China’s universities.

In connection with this, it is noticeable that a convergence of courses is developing in English and non-English major curriculums in China’s universities. On the one hand, ESP/EAP courses, which now proliferate in non-English major
curriculum in Chinese tertiary education, are focusing more on language features and practices specifically found in different disciplines, highlighting the feature of ‘disciplinary specificity’ and rendering the traditional distinction between English for general academic purposes (EGAP) and English for specific academic purposes (ESAP) almost unnecessary (Bruce, 2011; Hyland 2002, 2006). On the other, as stated above, ELT for English majors in China’s universities during recent years has responded to the literacy demands of professional careers and has gradually shifted to uncovering and teaching discipline-specific routines, skills, language, and practices by establishing ESP/EAP courses in the curriculum. This trend in ELT in Chinese tertiary education, described as ‘specialization of English for non-English majors and publicization of English for English majors’ (Zhang, 2005), indicates that there are some common grounds between ESP/EAP courses in English and non-English major curriculums. However, as ELT for English majors and ELT for non-English majors are inherently two different systems, differing from each other in such aspects as students, teaching purposes, and contents, ESP/EAP courses in English and non-English major programs are not the same. It is important that we tease apart the distinctions between the two and clarify the different aspects of ESP/EAP courses in the curriculum for English majors.

Another factor that needs to take into consideration is the rapid development of disciplinary literacy in US secondary education. In the past decade, disciplinary literacy has emerged as a response to find a solution to literacy problems experienced by adolescents in US middle and secondary schools (Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008; Moje, 2008, 2015; Rainey, 2016; Schanahan & Shanahan, 2008). Likewise, in China’s universities, the English major is now also experiencing a ‘literacy crisis’, which shows that most of English-major students have great difficulty in reading and writing in English, particularly the texts they encounter as part of learning CBI courses in the program (Peng, 2019; Zhang, 2012). Therefore, the future development of ELT for English majors in China’s universities also calls for an ‘advanced literacy instruction’ (Shanahan & Shanahan, 2008), focusing on the specialised practices of literacy inherent in certain disciplines, just like the situation in US middle and secondary school settings.

IV. THE POSITION OF DISCIPLINARY ENGLISH

As shown in Figure 1, there are four basic categories of courses in the English major curriculum and their importance may vary in accordance with the goals of English major programs in different universities. The first category consists of EGP courses, specifically those that are designed to improve students’ language skills. They are usually timetabled early on, in the first and second years of college education. Through these courses, English majors are expected to develop a good mastery of the English language and be able to cope with situations which require basic communication skills in English.

![Figure 1. Four categories of courses in the English major curriculum](image)

The second category consists of courses about English culture. These are usually provided at the intermediate stage of English major program, in the second or third year. Together with the first category, these are usually regarded as the basic courses in the traditional English major curriculum.

The third category consists of courses of English knowledge per se. These are the courses that are particularly unique to the English major program. They are designed to help students research English as a subject and develop their professional knowledge of the English language. Such courses are usually set in the junior and senior years at college and they focus on different aspects of the study of the English language, such as linguistics, etymology, literature, and translation studies. In recent years, researchers has shown a resurgence of interest in putting greater emphasis on these courses on the grounds that ELT for English majors in past decades has given too much attention to EGP courses, thus reducing English majors to students without their own academic specialty (Feng, 2016; Zhang, 2012).

The fourth category of courses are courses of disciplinary English. As the name suggests, these courses help English majors grasp basic discipline-specific knowledge and understand the features of English in different disciplines. These are the courses that are designed to integrate content and language learning in different academic disciplines or fields of practice. They have sometimes been called ‘courses on relevant professional knowledge’ (Chang, 2007; Dai & Zhang, 2007; Zhou & Fan, 2010), or ‘courses on professional education’ (Dai & Wang, 2014; Wen, 2014), or ‘courses on
professional orientations’ (Feng, 2016). It is these courses that enable English majors to meet career demands with discipline-specific strategies within academic disciplines or fields of practice.

The four categories comprise the core courses in the English major curriculum. In addition, there might be other peripheral courses or components that are believed to work together to contribute to the development of ELT for English majors. First, as shown in Figure 1, training and internship is an important component. Whatever types of talents the English major program seeks to cultivate, training and internship is essential for English majors to put into practice what they have learnt in class and so develop various skills essential for their future jobs in terms of organization, communication, problem-solving and teamwork. Second, as the English major is a program in the arts and humanities, there has been an urgent call to reinstate courses of ‘general education’ (Wen, 2014), or ‘public basic courses’ (Feng, 2017; Jiang, 2014) in recent years, with an aim of developing students’ general knowledge in such fields as literature, philosophy, history, and critical thinking.

V. DISCIPLINARY ENGLISH, EAP, AND DISCIPLINARY LITERACY

A. Definition of Disciplinary English

In many respects, disciplinary English is related to EAP and disciplinary literacy. It can be said to be an interface between EAP and disciplinary literacy. In this section we try to further clarify the aspects of disciplinary English, and then explore the connections and relations between disciplinary English, EAP, and disciplinary literacy.

Disciplinary English, simply put, refers to the research and teaching of English used in disciplines in higher education. It is concerned with the exploration and instruction of linguistic features, skills, and routine practices that are used for the construction and building of knowledge specific to certain academic disciplines or fields of practice. Like EAP and disciplinary literacy, disciplinary English is the ‘co-existence of teaching and research’ (Hamp-Lyons, 2011). It is not just an approach to ELT specifically oriented to English majors at the university level in China, but also an important area of research for linguists and educators. As detailed below, much of the work in disciplinary English is to focus on the analysis and description of routine practices and text features inherent in different disciplines.

B. Taxonomy of Disciplinary English

As disciplinary English focuses on the linguistic features and practices specific to different disciplines or fields of practice, the taxonomy of disciplinary English involves classification in line with the taxonomy of other disciplines. In the Chinese educational system, there are 13 categories of disciplines, including philosophy, economics, law, education, literature, history, science, engineering, agriculture, medical science, military science, management, and art. Each category may include several primary and secondary disciplines. In addition, disciplinary English also encompasses English oriented to some important fields of practice, such as business English, legal English, and journalistic English. With all this in mind, the taxonomy of disciplinary English can be depicted in Figure 2.

![Figure 2. The taxonomy of disciplinary English](image-url)

C. Disciplinary English in the Language-content Continuum

The taxonomy of disciplinary English answers the call for more emphasis on content in ELT at the university level as English majors in China’s universities are expected to perform tasks in different content areas or fields of practice. Like the ‘literacy-content dualism’ in US secondary schools (Draper et al., 2005), there is a language-content dualism in ELT in China. Teachers of English in China generally agree that ELT at different levels revolves around two inseparable elements, namely language and content, and that there are different degrees of emphasis on each of them at different stages of education.
Taking an overall view of ELT in China, we can see that the various approaches to ELT are in effect located in different positions along the language-content continuum, which places different degrees of emphasis on either language or content. As shown in Figure 3, at the left end of the language-content continuum, we have EGP, which largely focuses on learning language, and at the right end we have English as medium of instruction (EMI), which is mainly concerned with the learning of different content areas with English as a medium of instruction. In between, there are various approaches to ELT, including the two subtypes of EAP, namely EGAP and ESAP, and disciplinary English.

The language-content continuum indicates that as Chinese learners of English progress in their English learning, they have a greater need to use English as a medium to navigate discipline-specific texts and perform tasks in different content areas. As shown in Figure 2, at the preliminary stage of English learning in China, in elementary and secondary schools, and probably in the first one or two years of college, learners are largely learning EGP courses, which mainly focus on the improvement of learners’ language proficiency. As learners move up to the later stage of college-level English learning, non-English learners and English learners take different routes in their English education. Specifically, non-English learners usually proceed through EGAP to ESAP, then to English-medium instruction (EMI), while English majors go through disciplinary English to EMI.

The ELT routes for English and non-English major students in China’s universities are also indicative of the trend to convergence in content in ELT for English and non-English majors, and of the inherent relatedness between disciplinary English and EAP, particularly ESAP. For non-English majors, at the initial stage, their EAP learning largely focuses on EGAP, that is, the skills and language features thought to be common to all disciplines. At a later stage, however, ESAP takes over and ELT for them usually centers on ‘the teaching of skills and language which are related to the demands of a particular discipline or department’ (Hyland, 2006: 9). However, as stated above, in recent years, there is a general agreement that EAP should focus more on an understanding of the social, cognitive, and linguistic demands specific to academic disciplines. This trend, in a way, points in the same direction as disciplinary English in ELT for English majors, which also demands more focus on content of academic disciplines. The common ground here is that learning academic language cannot be separated from content areas. In other contexts, learning a discipline largely involves the learning how to use language in ‘disciplinarily approved ways’ (Hyland, 2006: 38).

D. Disciplinary English in Comparison with EAP and Disciplinary Literacy

Next, we consider the major differences and relationships between disciplinary English, EAP, and disciplinary literacy. As shown in Table 1, disciplinary English is mainly different from and related to EAP and disciplinary literacy in six aspects: context, students, nature, syllabus, purpose, and focus.

In terms of context, both EAP and disciplinary English reside in higher education. Disciplinary English may be more region-specific, referring specifically to higher education settings in China. However, as Blaj-Ward (2014: 53) pointed out, although located in the higher education context, EAP and disciplinary English practitioners do not necessarily need to be ‘insiders’ in the disciplines on which they focus, although collaboration between experts from these disciplines and teachers of English is much to be anticipated and desired. On the other hand, disciplinary literacy is largely located in US secondary education. It starts in middle and secondary schools in the US, and by now its popularity and importance has been largely confined to this context.

| Table 1 | DISCIPLINARY ENGLISH IN COMPARISON WITH EAP AND DISCIPLINARY LITERACY |
|---------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **EAP** | **Disciplinary English** | **Disciplinary Literacy** |
| **Context** | Higher education | Higher education in China | Secondary education in the US |
| **Students** | College students, non-English majors | College students, English majors | students in middle and secondary schools |
| **Nature** | English language teaching, English as a second/foreign language | English language teaching, English as a foreign language | Teaching methodology in content areas, English as the native language |
| **Syllabus** | Needs-driven | Needs-driven | Goal-driven, problem-based |
| **Aim** | Reconstructing discipline-specific knowledge | Building discipline-specific knowledge | Building discipline-specific knowledge |
| **Focus** | Academic language | Academic language, discipline-specific skills and routine practices | Discipline-specific linguistic features, skills, routine practices, and culture |

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Next, EAP and disciplinary English students are all adult learners. Specifically, EAP students are non-English majors at college, while disciplinary English students are English majors. Disciplinary literacy students, however, are adolescents in US middle and secondary schools. In other words, learners of EAP and disciplinary English are non-native speakers, while learners of disciplinary literacy are English native speakers. This aspect, as detailed below, has an important influence on the nature and focus of the three.

In terms of nature, EAP and disciplinary English are both approaches to ELT, while disciplinary literacy is largely a teaching methodology in content areas. Specifically, in EAP and disciplinary English teaching and research, English is a foreign language. Therefore, much of the work in EAP and disciplinary English involves the learning of English used in different academic disciplines and fields of practice. By contrast, English in disciplinary literacy is the native language for learners, and much of the work focuses on uncovering the linguistic features, skills and practices specific to content areas.

With respect to syllabus, both EAP and disciplinary English are needs-driven activities. Needs analysis underlies the syllabus design, materials development, organization of class activities and evaluation of students’ performance in EAP and disciplinary English, with an aim of addressing the needs of college students at an advanced stage of English learning to use English in academic contexts or fields of practice. Disciplinary literacy, however, is more a goal-driven and problem-based activity. In other words, disciplinary literacy sets out to help solve literacy problems for students in secondary education (Moje, 2008), and it has a fundamentally ‘social and problem-based nature’ (Rainey, 2016).

As for purpose, as EAP students have their own majors or academic areas in their college education, they are largely reconstructing discipline-specific knowledge when taking EAP courses. Conversely, since disciplinary English students, namely English majors in China’s universities, are not yet involved in learning other content areas, they are, in fact, building discipline-specific knowledge when taking disciplinary English courses. Similarly, for students in US middle and secondary schools, learning disciplinary literacy is also a process of learning the specialized language and practices inherent in certain content areas and forming ‘big ideas’ about different disciplines. Therefore, in this respect, both disciplinary English and disciplinary literacy are more focused on teaching students to become ‘well-informed amateurs’ (Heller, 2010), preparing them to acquire discipline-specific knowledge in their further studies.

Lastly, since EAP and disciplinary English are approaches to ELT, they both focus on academic language used in different disciplines. As Alexander et al. (2008: 9) pointed out, academic language is the most important component of EAP. Likewise, in disciplinary English, academic language is also the focus. Just as in EAP, much of the work in a disciplinary English class focuses on the input and uncovering of discipline-specific vocabulary, grammar and other aspects of language. Consequently, a central role should be reserved for language description in the study of EAP and disciplinary English. On the other hand, the focus in disciplinary literacy is much more complicated. As Moje (2015) proposes, disciplinary literacy involves a number of elements that contribute to the production of knowledge and critical thinking, including not only discipline-specific linguistic codes, technical vocabulary, and discourse practices, but also cultures ‘in which certain kinds of texts are read and written for certain purposes and with or to certain audiences’. Therefore, the focus in disciplinary literacy might be discipline-specific language, or practices and expertise, or cultures, depending on the researcher’s perspective.

Overall, disciplinary English is located between EAP and disciplinary literacy, displaying features of EAP at one point, and features of disciplinary literacy at another. In most cases, disciplinary English shows features of both EAP and disciplinary literacy. Therefore, as shown in Figure 4, disciplinary English can be regarded as an interface between EAP and disciplinary literacy, interwoven with them in many respects.

VI. CONCLUSION

This article reviews ELT for English majors in China’s universities and argues for the establishment of disciplinary English as an important component in the curriculum for English major programs by drawing on ideas and constructs from EAP and disciplinary literacy studies. Several factors, including the need for ‘interdisciplinary talents’ in the job market, the trend towards convergence between courses in English and non-English curriculums, and the literacy problems faced by English majors, call for the establishment of disciplinary English in the English major curriculum in China’s universities. Disciplinary English is concerned with the teaching and research of English used in different disciplines in the higher education context and can be divided into different subtypes according to the classification of disciplines and fields of practice. In many respects, disciplinary English shares features with EAP and disciplinary
literacy and is an interface study between the two, requiring scholars and educators to draw on both for the studies of disciplinary English.

The design and implementation of disciplinary English courses in the curriculum for English majors poses several difficulties and challenges for the different parties involved. First, as disciplinary English largely revolves around the academic language of specific disciplines, the implementation of disciplinary English needs to attach great importance to the language description of English used in different academic disciplines or fields of practice. Second, the implementation of disciplinary English courses requires collaboration between teachers of English and experts in evidence-based academic disciplines, such as science, engineering, and business studies. The implementation of disciplinary English courses will pose great challenges to teachers of English in particular. They need to work with scholars or teachers in different academic disciplines to uncover and examine the different tools used for building knowledge in those disciplines (Fang, 2014). Nevertheless, disciplinary English offers an approach to solving problems in current ELT for English majors in China’s universities. By establishing disciplinary English courses in the curriculum for English majors in Chinese tertiary education, teachers can help English majors better engage with interdisciplinary work and develop their ‘advanced literacies’ in different academic disciplines.

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On the Relationship between EFL Learners’ Grammar Learning Strategy Use and Their Grammar Performance: Learners’ Gender in Focus

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Abstract—This study sought to investigate the interplay between grammar strategies employed by intermediate EFL learner and their performance on a grammar test. To undertake the study, eighty homogenized intermediate students, comprising 37 males and 29 females, took part in the study. Having been homogenized via quick placement test (QPT), the participants were asked to respond to Oxford’s (1990) grammar learning strategies questionnaire (hereafter, GLSQ). Next, the participants were asked to take a grammar test. The findings revealed a significant relationship among six subscales of GLSs and EFL learners’ performance on the grammar test. In addition, the results indicated a significant difference between male and female students in term of their performance on the grammar test. More precisely, female students outperformed the male counterpart as far as their performance on grammar test was concerned. In addition, the results attested that cognitive strategy and compensation learning strategy were the most and the least strategy types employed by the participants. The findings have pedagogical implication for both English as a foreign or second language.

Index Terms—gender, grammar, grammar performance, language learning strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, the focus of teacher-oriented standpoint has yielded to learner-centered perspective. New learning strategies are presented to the learners to extend their own personal achievements in language learning process. Learning strategies are comprised of mental processes- thoughts or behaviors- which help learners perceive, learn, or maintain new information. The concept of learning strategies plays a crucial role in second or foreign language learning studies. Although a great number of studies have been conducted to put learning strategies in practice, the idea of learning strategies is still unclear.

Dörnyei (2005) also claim that the theory behind the learning strategies has not been dealt with in a critical manner since the concepts and definitions have been contradictory up to now. Learning strategies are “operations or steps used by a learner to facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information” (Aslan, 2009, p.99).Successful target language learners are enthusiastic guessers, enjoying from a motif to start out communication, are not nervous to make errors, bind attention to forms on the basis of analogy and analysis, focus on meaning and take advantage of chances to develop something and continue controlling the other’s speech (Rubin, 1975).

Brumfit and Johnson (1987) stated that although language learners are presented with formal English teaching for many years in developing countries, they lack enough communication abilities to use language in real contexts either in spoken or written language. Most scholars (Anderson, 2005; Chamot, 2004; Ehrman, Leaver & Oxford, 2003; Oxford, 1990; 2003; Rubin, 1975) believe that the problem is lack of effective use of grammar learning strategies in the long run.

Also, there is a deficiency in research on using grammar learning strategies by students since grammar has a crucial role in almost all educational activities. By acquiring grammar knowledge, learners are able to understand how to use words to make complex meanings and specific literary effects help them to be more efficient readers. As Cornwall (2010) mentions, if learners acquire sufficient grammatical knowledge, they will be able to write more systematically.

Oxford (1990) claimed that there was a lack of enough research on the social/affective strategies. He identified the reasons and added that learners have not been accustomed to focus their attention on their own feelings and social behaviors during the target language processing. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) claimed that cognitive (translating and analyzing) and metacognitive (planning and organizing) strategies often cooperate with each other and follow one another since applying two kinds of strategies are often more effective than one single strategy.
If learners do not have a deep and good knowledge of grammar, they will certainly commit many mistakes in writing or speaking. The knowledge of grammar for foreign learners is the main framework to construct sentences which can be used for communication in English. Therefore, if the students do not know how to make and build sentence, they will not be able to communicate well in English. Additionally, knowing grammar is very essential because it is a way of attaining linguistic accuracy; the more correctly and accurately a message is conveyed, the lesser the chances for misapprehension and misunderstanding in communication. If there is no grammatical competence, communicators do not take part willingly and completely and communication tends to be failure. There are some factors which could affect language learning strategies by learners. According to some researchers, different variables such as age, gender, language proficiency, motivation, anxiety, aptitude and cultural background affect using language learning strategies by students (Ahmadi & Mahmoodi, 2012; Aslan, 2009; Ghavamnia, Kassaiian&Dabaghi, 2011; Gurata, 2008; Hong-Nam &Leavell, 2006; Li, 2005; Rahimi, Riazi, &Safi, 2008; Salahshour, Sharifi, &Salahshour, 2013). However, this research intended to discover the impact of gender on using learning strategies.

It is worth mentioning that findings of this research could assist teachers to be aware of learners’ strategies in learning grammar in addition to gender differences, help their students to be responsive to using learning strategies in their learning process, and create a satisfactory learning context for using learning strategies of both genders. Therefore, learners were able to become independent and feel responsibility for their own learning. The present study could also help solve the problems of EFL teachers and learners in decreasing the amount of affective factors and increasing the level of cognitive and meta-cognitive abilities. The outcomes could inform instructors that helping learners enhance their level of analysis and monitoring will be of great significance in learning.

There has been a controversy on the role of grammar as an important issue in the foreign language learning for a long time. The role of grammar in teaching approaches has been discussed by a number of linguistic theories and methodologies in the history of language teaching. The way grammar has been considered has a direct impact on learning processes and different aspects in foreign language teaching (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Pontarolo, 2013; Rama &Agullo, 2012). Grammar is one of the language aspects that learners may not have a command on and is considered as difficult to learn and requires some techniques to use. “Since grammar is complex, and students’ learning styles vary, learning grammar is not likely to be accomplished through a single means.” (Larsen-Freeman, 2001, p. 40). This also applies to Cornwall (2010) who identified that if learners are prepared with adequate grammatical knowledge, they will be able to write with the correct grammar of the language. In addition, Pagcaliawan (2016) asserts that teaching grammar to students is essential because it equips them with deep understanding and proficiency in the language. It also directs and helps them understand. For instance, students will know how sentences are constructed, how to select vocabulary used and the types of words that encompass a sentence. In fact, without grammar even messages could be decoded wrongly and meaning is behind due to the important role that grammar plays in one’s language. In language teaching, grammar has given different states in a variety of methodologies and approaches. Three general instructional approaches can be considered for these situations, beginning with those that perceived teaching in terms of methods with a complete emphasis on grammar, continuing later as presentation of meaningful communication, and more recently a set of instructional choices with a focus on both meaning and grammar has been come up (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Long time ago, grammar had an important issue in language teaching because it was believed that knowing the structure of the language improves learners’ intellectual capability and the right production of the language spontaneously. However, traditional methods depend on the limited use of grammar were criticized by many researchers due to the learners’ inability to use the language communicatively. So, new approaches that promoted meaningful communication became known (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002; Nassaji & Fotos, 2011; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). There is not a formal grammar teaching in communicative approaches and it has a restricted role due to the fact that learners would obtain the forms and vocabulary naturally when comprehending and responding to the input (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). In general, the importance of grammar has been reviewed in second language acquisition research. Many researchers now believe that teaching grammar should be considered in second language classrooms. According to Nassaji and Fotos (2011), language teaching professionals are informed of the crucial role of grammar in language teaching and learning. Schmidt (1990) claims that some reasons for reconsideration of the role of grammar are first, in language learning it is proved that some degree of consciousness is essential. Otherwise, it leads to some problems in learning a language. Furthermore, there is enough empirical evidence that teaching approaches with no focus on grammar and the only emphasis on meaning are inadequate (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011). According to some scholars such as Krashen (1981, 1982) and Krashen and Terrell (1983), grammar has an important role in language teaching. In addition, he presented an adequate support for communicative language teaching by his model of second language learning and the difference he made between acquisitions and teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Krashen (1981) believes that learners should be exposed to comprehensible input in order to “acquire” language unconsciously rather than “learn” it consciously by means of teaching of grammatical rules explicitly.

On the contrary, many researchers have attempted to reinstate the role of grammar. As grammatical competence is one of the constituents of communicative competence, Ellis (2006) states that learning based on instruction may need achieving an advanced level of grammatical competence and performance. He claims that learners’ proficiency is affected by teaching different grammatical structures in meaningful context. Furthermore, Hinkel and Fotos (2002) state
that instructed grammar learning can be regarded as communicative input, based on which learners can internalize grammar rules. This issue is of paramount importance especially for the EFL situation, in which there is a lack of communicative exposure to the target language. Lightbown and Spada (2006) also support the important role of grammar in language learning. They are assured that by mere emphasis on comprehensible input and communication, language acquisition is not achieved automatically. Furthermore, as Debata (2013) mentions grammar is essential to assist students in the correction of mistakes and enhancement of written work.

Different practitioners attested that students can take the advantage of learning strategies in order to foster their grammatical competence. Learning strategies have achieved significant importance in teaching-learning context and they are the center of attention. Some language theorists have explained language learning strategies in different ways. Rubin (1975) explains learning strategies as “the techniques or devise which a learner may use to acquire knowledge” (p.43). According to O’Malley and Chamot (1990), learning strategies are “the special thoughts or behaviors that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information” (p.1). Therefore, learning strategies were considered as specific ways of processing information that improve comprehension, learning, or retention of the information. As Brown (2007) on the other hand states that learning strategies are connected with “input- to processing, storage, and retrieval, that is, to taking messages from others” (p.132). Moreover, Paterson and Rosbottom (1995) point out that learning strategies are “the particular habits or patterns espoused when engaged in the learning process” (p.15). Grammar learning strategies were explained by Ozmen and Gulleroglu (2013) as “… actions and thoughts that learners consciously employ to make language learning and/ or language use easier, more effective, more efficient, and more enjoyable” (p.354). Similar to all other types of strategic behaviors, grammar learning strategies have distinguishing features which are outlined by Griffiths (2008) as cited in Pawlak (2009). These are: (1) they are actions to be taken by the learner; (2) Their employment is at least partially conscious; (3) They are elective means learners choose; (4) Their use involves goal-oriented, purposeful activity, and (5) They are used to regulate, facilitate, and control the learning process. According to Oxford (1990) learning strategies are divided into two types: direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies can be categorized into: memory, cognitive, and compensation. Memory strategies include the ability to arrange items in order, create mental linkages and reviewing. Memory strategies “aid in entering information into long-term memory and retrieving information when needed for communication.” (Oxford, 1990, p. 71). On the other hand, indirect strategies involve metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Furthermore, O’Malley and Chamot (1990) classified language learning strategies into cognitive, meta- cognitive and social strategies. Cognitive strategies deal directly with the information received and the use of these information to improve learning. Cognitive strategies comprise conscious actions which the language learners take to handle the received information such as taking notes, using resources and forming and organizing information. Meta-cognitive strategies entail language learners to make plans such as planning their own learning, observing their own speech and being able to evaluate their success of a definite strategy. The third type of learning strategies is social strategies in which learners socially interact with other people to learn the language. Concerning research on the investigation of grammar learning strategies, Fazeli’s (2011) conducted a study to explore English grammar skills learning strategies by students of Jimma University. It is proved that the students’ perception of the use of grammar learning strategies differs from their actual usage. The finding of the questionnaire indicates that all the six strategies were employed by respondents. But according to the findings of the think aloud technique, students use only three (Cognitive, Compensation, and Memory) strategies of the six strategies. Despite learners were aware of the use of learning strategies, some of them did not have any information regarding their use. Furthermore, in a research by Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2008) on the use of grammar learning strategies of Polish secondary school students findings indicate that the students use all the six strategies. In the study, in order to initiate and keep up communication with the native speakers many students use modern technology apart from using traditional teaching aids such as dictionaries and grammar books.

In another study on the use of grammar learning strategies and student attainment of English preparatory classes in Turkish by Yalcin (2005), it was showed that there was no significant relationship between learners’ achievement and their grammar learning strategy use. In addition, a study conducted by Pawlak (2009) on the relationship between grammar learning strategies and language achievement of English students, it was also failed to find a positive relationship between the use of grammar learning strategies and language attainment. Saricoban (2005) investigated the strategies employed by Turkish EFL learners in learning English grammar. Questionnaire was used to explore which grammar learning strategies used by those students. The learning strategies were classified into cognitive, meta-cognitive, and social-affective strategies. The results of the study revealed that Turkish students unconsciously used the cognitive strategies and these learners needed to use socio-affective strategies to study and learn grammar competently. In addition, Gimeno (2002) conducted an experimental research based on O’Mally and Chamot’s classification of learning strategies. The study aimed to investigate the efficiency of teaching students the use of cognitive and meta-cognitive learning strategies in learning grammar. The findings of the study reported that the experimental group which used cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies achieved a great improvement in comprehending the rules of grammar than the control group did. The researcher inferred that teaching students how to use learning strategies can assist them develop their language proficiency and motivate them to be more independent learners. While previous explanations of learning strategies focused on products of learning and behaviors which indicated hidden cognitive processes, as well as restricting learning strategies to receptive skills, in the end descriptions presented an unambiguous understanding of
what learners think and do during language learning. In this respect, Cohen (1996) describes learning strategies as “the steps or actions selected by learners either to improve the learning of a second language, the use of it, or both” (p.2). Likewise, according to Chamot (2004), learning strategies are “the conscious thoughts and actions that learners take in order to achieve a learning goal” (p.14). Major characteristics of language learning strategies are listed by Oxford (1990) in which language learning strategies:

1. provide the main goal of communicative competence. In order to improve communicative competence, it is vital for learners to develop: knowledge of grammatical rules (grammatical competence), the capacity to use the language properly in specific social context in which the communication occurs (sociolinguistics competence), the ability to understand messages logically with the whole text (discourse competence) and the capability to start, manipulate, and redirect communication (strategic competence) Canale and Swain (1980),

2. motivate learners for more self-direction,

3. improve the role of teachers. The roles of teachers involve recognizing, learning strategies which are used by learners, organizing training on learning strategies and assisting learners to become self-reliant,

4. are problem oriented which are used as instruments to resolve a problem or to perform a task,

5. are certain actions taken by the learners in order to improve their learning,

6. include learners’ features, not just the cognitive; those related to the mental processing and dealing with the new language. Rather they consist of metacognitive functions like planning, evaluation and accomplishing one’s own learning; emotional, social, and other functions as well,

7. offer direct and indirect support of learning,

8. are visible to some degree. They are not always easily obvious. For example, to make mental associations, which is memory strategy, cannot be observed. But, doing works in collaboration with others can be observed,

9. have some degrees of consciousness. They usually represent conscious attempts by learners to manipulate their learning,

10. can be acquired through teaching,

11. are adaptable which means that they do not always have the same successions or specific patterns, and

12. affected by various factors to be selected and applied by the learner such as motivation, gender, nationality, age, learning style, etc.

One of the most practical explanations of language learning strategies was presented by Oxford (1990). She stated that language learning strategies are “the specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations” (p.8). Concerning the features of learning strategies, Oxford (1990) claimed that they motivate learners for more self-direction, improve the role of teachers. The roles of teachers involve recognizing, and offer direct and indirect support of learning. O’Malley and Chamot (1990) identified three main strategy classifications. These are cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective strategies. Cognitive strategies are directly related to the performance of information processing (e.g., translation, note taking, repetition). Metacognitive strategies try to manage language learning (e.g., planning, monitoring, and self-evaluation). Social/affective strategies are linked to communications with others in learning (e.g., cooperation, asking for the clarification of questions). Oxford (1990) presented a comprehensive classification system of language learning strategies using the two main groups suggested by Rubin’s (1975) model; direct and indirect strategies. Due to the fact that Oxford’s classification of language learning strategies taxonomy is comprehensive, systematic, and detailed and that the strategies are easier to apply to most language skills in different leaning contexts this study employed this classification. Moreover, Oxford (1990) claimed that cognitive strategies empower learners to control grammatical rules by utilizing the grammar rule meaningfully such as identifying and using an integration of rules in sentences repeatedly, and employing the new pattern in a real context such as listening to a lecture, reading a book or article, or writing a letter in the new grammar structure. Learners also can implement grammar structures by saying or writing them several times, listen to them many times, practicing, and emulating a native speaker.

According to Oxford (2003), metacognitive strategies are compulsory for successful language learning. These strategies are utilized for emphasizing learning by paying attention to particular grammar tasks or activities such as, paying attention to the rules from reference books. Through such strategies, the learners are able to analyze a concept or principle and connect it with their previous knowledge. Affective strategies assist learners to be able to manipulate and manage personal emotions, attitudes, and values; which are the essential components for successful language learning (Oxford, 1990; 2003). To be aware of how to manipulate individual’s emotions and viewpoints may affect grammar learning process positively since it makes the learning more pleasant and successful. In addition, it is also believed that negative emotions obstruct improvement. Successful language learners are often able to control their viewpoints and feelings while learning grammar. Actions which are taken by learners so as to look for support or to have communication with other learners or more professional speakers of the language are social strategies (Oxford, 1990; 2003). Interaction among people is required to learn language successfully and productively since language is a form of social behavior. So that learners should improve cooperation with others. As a result, they will have the opportunity to learn from their peers. For example, if learners practice different grammar activities in groups, it may be possible that less successful learners gain those strategies which are used by successful learners. Furthermore, correct grammatical forms can be provided to learners by asking questions and/or explanations for the intricate issues they tackle with from
their more proficient friends, native speakers, or teachers. Additionally, social strategies improve learners’ capability to understand people’s emotions and feelings and enhance cultural understanding. Few studies had been carried on to compare the learning strategies of cognitive, meta-cognitive and social/affective, memory- related strategies with grammatical knowledge. This study attempted to find out if there are any relationships between learners’ grammar learning strategies and their grammar performance. This study intended to investigate the relationship between all learning strategies and learners’ grammar performance among intermediate EFL learners. To address the gap, this study intends to probe the interplay between EFL Learners’ GLSs and their performance on a grammar test. Accordingly, the following research questions were addressed:

RQ1. Is there any significant relationship between cognitive learning strategies and intermediate EFL learners’ grammar performance?
RQ2. Is there any significant relationship between meta-cognitive learning strategies and intermediate EFL learners’ grammar performance?
RQ3. Is there any significant relationship between social learning strategies and intermediate EFL learners’ grammar performance?
RQ4. Is there any significant relationship between affective learning strategies and intermediate EFL learners’ grammar performance?
RQ5. Is there a significant difference between learners’ learning strategies and grammar performance with respect to gender?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants
A total of 80 EFL students were selected as the target subject of the present study. A convenience sampling procedure was adopted for the selection of the participants. They were all intermediate EFL students who were classified at intermediate language proficiency level as far as the placement test of the language institute was concerned. They were all enrolled in Mehr English language institute in Tehran, Iran. All participants were native speaker of Persian who had similar experience in learning English language at different language institutes. Approximately, they had experience in learning English language from three to four years. There were both male (N=37) and female (N=29) learners. Their age ranged from 20 to 35 years old (M=26.59).

Instruments
There were three main instruments used for the purpose of this study.

To ensure the homogeneity of the participants and their ability to understand and complete the English version of the questionnaire, the Quick Placement Test (QPT) was administered in order to select intermediate learners. The score was out of 60. To meet the aforementioned purposes, initially, a language proficiency test version 2, including 60 items (i.e., matching, cloze passages, and multiple choice questions) was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the learners. The test items mainly focused on reading skill, grammar, and vocabulary. The participants were given 30 minutes to answer them. Those learners receiving 30-39 scores out of 60 were considered as intermediate ones. The reliability of the test was estimated through Cronbach Alpha and found to be 0.87 which indicated a high reliability.

Also, in order to gather valuable information from data sources, Oxford’s (1990) ESL/EFL Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL) was adapted. The SILL had been employed as a key instrument in numerous studies assessing the frequency of strategy use by students from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Therefore, the SILL was modified as it was convenient to explore the learners’ grammar learning strategies. This modified Grammar Learning Strategies Questionnaires (GLSQ) consisted of 35 statements grouped under the six categories as proposed by Oxford (1990). Part one comprised seven statements concerned to memory strategies. Part two involved eight statements about cognitive strategies. Part three consisted of three statements on compensation strategies. Part four contained eight statements about metacognitive strategies. Part five included five statements about affective strategies, and part six consisted of four statements on Social Strategies. The participants were required to respond on a five-point Likert Scale, ranging from 1 (Never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me). The participants had about 20-25 minutes to finish. It is based on a five-point Likert scale. The calculated Cronbach alpha revealed an acceptable reliability (0.92).

Regarding the grammar performance, in order to measure the grammar performance of the participants, they were asked to sit for a grammar quiz. A highly standard test of PBT structure test was administrated to all intermediate level students. This test included 40 questions. The test’s reliability was estimated through Cronbach Alpha and found to be 0.86 which showed a high reliability. As a note of caution, the validity of all the instruments were accounted for by discussing the contents and the statements with at least three EFL experts and alterations were made according to their feedbacks and comments.

Procedures
To obtain reasonable answers to the research questions mentioned earlier, the following steps were taken: First, QPT was distributed among EFL students of Iran Mehr Institute to determine the homogeneity of the participants and select intermediate language learners. Total score was 60. After conducting and analyzing the placement test, those students receiving the scores from 30 to 39 were selected. Second, Oxford’s (1990) Grammar Learning Strategies Questionnaire...
(GLSQ) was administered to the selected intermediate learners. It was a 35-item questionnaire, a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Never or almost never true of me) to 5 (always or almost always true of me). Afterwards, the participants were requested to sit for a grammar quiz. This quiz was based on NTC TOEFL PBT structure test including 40 questions.

Data Analysis

A correlational study was adopted to probe the interplay among the variables of the current study. A correlational design is a non-experimental study which seeks to investigate the interrelationships among variables, and to uncover how the variables are related. To comply with the objective of the current study, this paper seeks to figure out the probable relationships among cognitive, meta-cognitive, social, and affective learning strategies, as well as intermediate EFL learners’ grammar performance in terms of gender. In so doing, the basic assumption for the correlational study were employed. Accordingly, Pearson product moment correlation was conducted to probe the interrelationships among the targeted variables.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Analysis of Research Question One

The researcher conducted a series of calculations and statistical analysis in order to test the raised hypotheses. In this phase, Pearson correlations analysis was run. As indicated in the Table 1 (r (64) = 0.00, p < .05). This value represents a large effect size. Table 1 indicates that there is a significantly relationship between cognitive learning strategies and learners’ grammar performances. Thus, the null-hypothesis was rejected.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1</th>
<th>PEARSON CORRELATION OF COGNITIVE STRATEGIES AND GRAMMAR PERFORMANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar Performance</td>
<td>Cognitive Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>66</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of Research Question Two

In this section, the correlation of meta-cognitive strategies and grammar performance is investigated. According to Table 2, (r (64) = 0.73, p < .05 representing a large effect size) it can be concluded that there was a significantly positive and large correlation between meta-cognitive learning strategies and learners’ grammar performances. So, the null-hypothesis was rejected.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 2</th>
<th>PEARSON CORRELATION OF META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES AND GRAMMAR PERFORMANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar Performance</td>
<td>Meta-cognitive Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>66</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of Research Question Three

There was another phase in this research on the correlation of social strategies and grammar performance of EFL learners. Based on the results displayed in Table 3 (r (64) = 0.40, P < .05 representing a medium effect size), it can be concluded that there was a significantly positive correlation between social learning strategies and learners’ grammar performances. Thus, the null-hypothesis was rejected.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>PEARSON CORRELATION OF SOCIAL STRATEGIES AND GRAMMAR PERFORMANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar Performance</td>
<td>Social Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>0.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of Research Question Four

In this part of the study, the correlation of the affective strategies and grammar performance of EFL learners was probed. Based on the results displayed in Table 4 (r (64) = 0.54, P < .05 representing a medium effect size), it can be concluded that there was a significantly positive correlation between affective learning strategies and learners’ grammar performances. Thus, the null-hypothesis was rejected.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4</th>
<th>PEARSON CORRELATION OF AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES AND GRAMMAR PERFORMANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar Performance</td>
<td>Affective Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Analysis of Research Question Five

The last research hypothesis investigated the difference between learners’ male and female learning strategies and their grammar performance. Table 5 reveals that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups’ means on their grammar performances ($t(64) = 2.17, p < .01$). With regard to Table 5, female group ($M = 30.49$) outperformed the male counterpart group ($M = 25.68$) in the grammar performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Independent Samples t-test</th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Groups</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>30.49</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>25.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IV. DISCUSSION

The major focus of this study was to explore learners’ use of grammar learning strategies and to detect the relationship between grammar performance and EFL learners’ grammar learning strategies. According the findings of this study, the most significant finding was that cognitive strategy was the most preferred strategy by learners. This is followed by meta-cognitive, social, and affective strategies. Regarding the metacognitive strategy, this was the second favorable strategy from both groups’ points of view. This finding was not compatible with Oxford (1990), Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), Rahimi, Riazi and Saif (2008), and Salahshouret al. (2013) who believed that females were superior to men with respect to metacognitive strategy.

Besides, learners utilized both direct (memory, cognitive, and compensation) strategies and indirect (metacognitive, affective, and social) strategies. This is not in line with the previous studies of Abdi and Daghir (2010) and Aslan (2009) which claimed that the participants were good at indirect strategies than direct strategies. The findings of the current research were not congruent with the finding of Li (2005) and Tam (2013) who reported that compensation strategies were the most preferred of all. However, it was proved that the findings were quite consistent with the findings of Abdi and Daghir (2010), Wen and Wang (2004), Zhang (2009), Wahyuni (2013), which revealed compensation strategies as the least frequently used ones.

These findings are in line with Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), Ozmen and Gulleroglu (2013), Tam (2013), and Temesgen (2013) that reported affective strategies as one of the least preferred category. However, this study didn’t confirm the findings of Ahmadi and Mahmoodi’s (2012) which claimed affective strategies were the most used category by the learners. This negative tendency in the use of Affective strategies is perhaps due to the learners’ low intention to notice their personal emotions, attitudes, and motivations while studying or learning grammar. Needless to mention that as Oxford (1990) believes, the affective side of the learner is probably one of the very biggest influences on language learning failure or success.

In line with Yalcin (2006), this study proved that there was statistically significant difference between males and females in the use of grammar learning strategies. In line with Oxford’s (1990) report on cognitive strategies, this study proved that cognitive strategies are typically found to be the most popular strategies with language learners. Inconsistent with the finding of the previous research by Rahimi, Riazi, and Saif’s (2008) study which revealed males superiority to females in the use of cognitive strategies, the findings of this study illustrated that both groups of males and females voted for this strategy similarly. However, this finding was quite inconsistent with the result Ahmadi and Mahmoodi (2012), which revealed that cognitive strategies were the least applied strategy categories by males and females. This study didn’t confirm Salahshouret al. (2013) study revealing females were reported to use cognitive strategies more than males.

In line with Oxford’s (1990) report on cognitive strategies, this study proved that cognitive strategies are typically found to be the most popular strategies with language learners. Inconsistent with the finding of the previous research by Rahimi, Riazi, and Saif’s (2008) study which revealed males superiority to females in the use of cognitive strategies, the findings of this study illustrated that both groups of males and females voted for this strategy similarly. The findings reveal that the higher use of metacognitive strategies is, the more ambitious the students are to settle language learning. This is on the same route with Goh’s (2008) that meta-cognitive strategies can potentially heighten learners’ awareness of learning processes and develops learners’ ability to use appropriate strategies to decode grammar intricacies. In addition, in line with Oller and Perkin (1978) claiming that affective factors determine how effectively one learns, this is also backed up by Dornyei (2005) who emphasized that social and affective factors play a pivotal role in the quality of learning. The same remark was made by Brown (2007) proposing that it is critical to attain a broad understanding of affect in language learning as the more attention is paid to these strategies, the more effectively is the learning fostered. The other finding of this research suggested that more focus must be put on learning strategies. This study also echoes Goh and Taib (2006) who claim that improving the strategies especially cognitive and meta-cognitive knowledge would motivate students to pick the best and the most appropriate strategies to augment their performances. The findings of this study portrayed that the students could perform much better if they boost their cognitive and
metacognitive knowledge. This can help all Iranian English students who wish to be skilled in prefect performances in their grammar development.

In terms of affective strategies, the findings of this research also suggested that both genders did identically. This was against the previous findings (Aslan, 2009; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Wahyuni, 2013; Zeynali, 2012) which concluded that females were superior to men with regards to affective strategies. Nevertheless, this finding is inconsistent with a study of Ahmadi and Mahmoodi (2012) that found affective strategies to be among the most used strategy categories. With respect to social strategies, in this study, both groups did similarly. This strategy was ranked fourth in both viewpoints. The findings of the present study is incongruent with the result of Radwan’s (2011) research, which reported males use of social strategies more than females because of the cultural background of the students. Besides, the finding of the present study was not attuned with Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), Tam (2013), Neuman (2007), and Zeynali (2012) in which female learners tend to use Social strategies more than male learners. In addition, metacognitive strategies proved to be the second top priority for both genders. Regarding the metacognitive strategy, this was the second favorable strategy from both groups’ points of view. This finding was not compatible with Oxford (1990), Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), Rahimi, Riazi and Saif (2008), and Salahshouret al. (2013) who believed that females were superior to men with respect to metacognitive strategy.

Gender differences, therefore, turned out to have no significant effect on participants overall use of grammar learning strategies, as both groups were reported to have similarity in all six strategy categories. This is in line with the former studies (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Li, 2005; Nisbet, Tindall & Arroyo, 2005; Radwan, 2011; Rahimi, Riazi & Saif, 2008; Wahyuni, 2013), which have reported no significant difference between males and females in the use of overall learning strategies.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study made a rigorous and vigorous attempt to investigate how significantly grammar learning strategies could have parts in learners’ learning in general and in their grammar performance in particular. The main aim of this research was to find any significant relationship between grammar learning strategies including cognitive, metacognitive, social, and affective strategies and grammar performances of intermediate EFL learners. Given the outcomes of this research, the study came up with the conclusion that all the learning strategies correlated significantly with grammar performances of the learners. In addition, results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups’ means on their grammar performances. It was concluded that there was a significant difference in using grammar learning strategies between males and females. Female group outperformed the male counterpart group in the grammar performance.

REFERENCES


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On the Construction of Reverse Proverbs

Fei Deng
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Abstract—Proverbs are the essence of language and culture, which are concise in speech but contain lots of connotations. And they are the summary of people's daily life as well as people's wisdom. Meanwhile proverbs have the characteristics of refinement, nationality, religion, region and stability. With the change of times, some proverbs are obviously out of date, dying out gradually, and some proverbs continue to develop and bring forth some new ones. Through reverse thinking, adopting word order shift, word change, parody, ellipsis and antonym to construct a new one. The foundation of its construction depends on many factors such as the text information of the original proverbs and the scholars themselves.

Index Terms—proverb, characteristics, reverse thinking, construction

I. INTRODUCTION

Proverbs are the crystallization of people's wisdom and the summary of social practice and daily life experience. The structure of proverbs is diverse, its content is all-inclusive, its language is concise and vivid, and it is funny, humorous. The classical proverbs have been handing down from generation to generation and become treasures of human civilization. With the change of the times and the subversion of ideas, some proverbs have been called into question. The human beings have created more new proverbs according to the context based on the reverse thinking, and which have been spread to different groups of people in daily life.

II. THE DEFINITION OF PROVERBS

A. The Definition of Proverbs in Ancient Books

It is originated from the Pre Qin Period (i.e. before 221 B.C. when the First Emperor of Qin united China). Different people have different opinions on what is proverb. In The Book of Rites, it is “common saying”, in Hanshu it is “vulgar and good rumors”, and in Origin of Chinese Characters, it is “previous ancient motto”.

B. The Definition of Proverbs in Modern Reference Books

In Ci Hai, proverbs are popular, concise and meaningful sentences which are deeply loved by people, which mainly reflect people's experience in life (Compilation Committee of Cihai, 1979). In Xinhua Dictionary, proverbs are fixed sentences with profound meanings and simple words that are popular among the people.

In Longman Modern Dictionary, proverb is “a brief familiar maxim of folk wisdom, usually compressed in form, always including a bold image and frequently a jingle that catches the memory”. In Longman Contemporary English-Chinese Dictionary, it is “a short well-known saying usu. in popular language”. In Oxford Advanced English-Chinese Dictionary, it is “short well-known saying that states a general truth or gives advice”. And in Random House Webster's Dictionary of American English, it is “a short popular saying that expresses effectively some common place truth or useful thought”.

C. The Definition of Proverbs by Domestic Scholars

In A Study of Proverbs, proverbs are rhythmic and beautiful words that regulate people's behavior in daily communication and are the result of practical experience (Guo Shaoyu, 1925).

In Proverbs, it explains the structure, nature and content of proverbs in details, and defines it as “Concise and popular, humorous and witty rhymes, which have been circulating for a long time, are ready-made words to summarize people's feelings and experiences in daily life” (Wu Zhankun, 1980).

In Chinese-English Proverbs and Culture, proverbs are relatively complete sentences with rhythm, popularity, vividness and conciseness, which are derived from people's practical life experience and contain specific cultural colors (Wang Dechun, 2003).

Wen Duanzheng not only summarized the previous scholars' research on proverbs, but also explored the construction, semantics, grammatical functions, cultural connotations and rhetoric of proverbs. He considered proverbs to be “sayings for the purpose of imparting knowledge” (Wen Duanzheng, 2006).

From the different definition of proverbs, it can be seen that proverbs are the essence of language and culture, with concise words but rich cultural connotations. They are the summary of people's daily life, the crystallization of wisdom, and they have strong national colors as well as play an important role in promoting national language and culture.

III. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF PROVERBS
In terms of language form, proverbs belong to idioms and have many similarities with mottos, allegorical sayings and idioms. However, they are also a language form with its own unique characteristics, which can be summarized as following aspects:

A. Conciseness

The form of proverbs is short and concise. As far as its format is concerned, there are one-sentence pattern, two-sentence pattern, three-sentence pattern, four-sentence pattern and multiple-sentence pattern. For example: (1)Every second counts (Yang Zengmao, 2003). There are only three words to express the importance of time, which means “An inch of time is an inch of gold.” or “Time is money.” (2)The best go first (Yang Zengmao, 2003). There are four words to make it clear that the best is to go first.

From the sentence structure and semantics, it can be found that the form of proverb is short and concise but with profound implications.

B. Nationality

Proverbs are a kind of language with nationality. “Proverbs often have distinct national characteristics in materials, forms, rhetoric and even sentence structure (Wu Susu, Zeng Shufang, 2010).” Taking “dog” for example, it always has negative meanings in Chinese proverbs. “Every dog is valiant at his own door.” means “be a bully under the protection of a powerful person”. However, westerners regard dogs as their most faithful partners and friends, and let them accompany them day and night. The most famous proverb about dogs is “Qui me amat, amat et canem meam.” it is Latin, from St. Bernard in the 12th century. Another one is “It’s hard to teach an old dog new tricks.” originated in the early 17th century, it means that when dogs get old, they can no longer serve their owners, let alone learn new tricks.

The nationality in Chinese and English proverbs respectively reflects the different thinking mode and the different development history of different nationalities, which expresses the rich cultural connotation of their own nationalities.

C. Religiosity

Religious language is an important part of human culture, and it is a universal social phenomenon. “Proverbs are closely related to culture, which can reflect the influence of religion on language (Ping Hong, Zhang Guoyan, 2012).” To some extent, the cultural background, customs and characteristics are influenced by different religions. The religiosity is obvious in Chinese and English proverbs. Buddhism, Taoism and Confucianism in China have a far-reaching impact on Chinese development and the development of language and culture. But most English-speaking countries are Christian, whose language, including proverbs, is largely influenced by the image in the doctrine. Undoubtedly, most proverbs handed down are labeled with religion (Wu Jie, 2013).

Taking Chinese proverb “One never goes to the temple for no reason.” for example. “Three treasure palaces” generally refers to the general Buddhist temple, and ordinary people cannot enter to play casually except do prayer, worship and other related faith activities. The proverb is used to describe that one would not go to someone’s place except on business. However, English proverbs are always related to Christianity. Such as:

- God helps those who help themselves (Li Wei, 2007).
- Better to reign in hell than serve in heaven (Yang Zengmao, 2003).
- The devil dances in an empty pocket (Yang Zengmao, 2003).

D. Regional

Language culture is closely related to the natural geographical environment. People living in different regions form different cultures and the frequency of using language are also different, showing obvious regional differences (Ma Lijun, Zhang Jijia, 2017). People living in different regions have accumulated different proverbs. One of the most representative proverbs is “sweet in the south, salty in the north, spicy in the east and sour in the west”, which introduces Chinese dietary habits. “Sweet” mainly refers to Su cuisine. People in Jiangsu and Zhejiang province are famous for their sweet food. “Salty” refers to Shandong cuisine in the north. “Spicy” refers to Hunan and Sichuan cuisine that “people in Hunan and Sichuan are not afraid of spicy”. “Sour” mainly refers to Shanxi people who love vinegar very much. It is said that they often drink vinegar first before eating.

Britain is an island country surrounded by many islands, with a winding coastline and rich sea water, which is very beneficial to the development of fishing and navigation industry. In such a favorable geographical environment, there are many proverbs and idioms related to navigation and fishing. Taking “fish” for example:

- Do not teach fish to swim (Yang Zengmao, 2003).
- Fish goes rotten by the head (Yang Zengmao, 2003).
- Go to the sea, if you fish well (Yang Zengmao, 2003).
- It is good fishing in troubled waters (Yang Zengmao, 2003).

E. Stability

Proverbs are the summary of human daily life and experience. Whether synchronically or diachronically, each component is usually inseparable, that means, it has relative stability (Deng Fei, 2011). That is to say, once a proverb is formed, the combination of sound and meaning in a certain period is relatively stable and cannot be changed. For
example: (1) Kill two birds with one stone. / Kill two vultures with one arrow (Li Wei, 2007), “Stone” cannot be replaced by “rock” and “vulture” cannot be replaced by “eagle”. (2) March winds and April showers bring forth May flowers (Yang Zengmao, 2003). The words “March”, “April” and “May” in the original sentence cannot be changed into some other months casually.

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW OF PROVERBS

A. LITERATURE REVIEW OF CHINESE PROVERBS

The study of modern proverbs began in the first half of the 20th century. During this period, people have a clear understanding of the nature of proverbs, and have made remarkable achievements in theoretical research, which has basically changed the tendency of focusing on corpus collection, ignoring theoretical research, focusing on sources rather than interpretations, and focusing on classics rather than oral English. According to Wen Duanzheng, the study of proverbs in modern China can be divided into four periods (Wen Duanzheng, 2000):

a) From the beginning of the 20th century to the founding of New China

The representatives of this period are Guo Shaoyu, Xue Chengzhi, and Wang Shun etc. In A Study of Proverbs, the author firstly replaced the broad understanding of this period in ancient times with the narrow understanding of proverbs, and made a comprehensive and systematic analysis of the contents and forms of proverbs, and compared proverbs, ballads, maxims and fables with other language forms that are easily confused (Guo Shaoyu, 1925). Wang Shun’s On Agricultural Proverbs in the Northern Xia Dynasty discussed the agricultural proverbs and their functions, and analyzed the epochal and local characteristics of agricultural proverbs, creating a precedent for the collection, collation and research of agricultural proverbs. Xue Chengzhi first proposed that proverbs are a form of language and belong to folklore. And he discussed the nature, content and expression of proverbs, and investigated the evolution of ancient and modern proverbs in China. The author also distinguished proverbs from ballads, idioms, maxims and allegorical sayings.

b) From the founding of New China to the beginning of Reform and Opening-up

The study of proverbs from the founding of New China to the early 1980s is closely related to the politics at that time. The study of proverbs in this period paid more attention to the discussion of contents, classification and characteristics of proverbs, paid more attention to the study of folk proverbs, regarded proverbs as a kind of idioms, and gradually began to study proverbs from the perspective of linguistics, especially lexicology. The main research achievements of this period are as follows: Ma Guofan’s The Characteristics of Proverbs, Yang Xin’an’s The Difference between Idioms and Proverbs, and Wang Yi’s On Chinese Proverbs etc.

c) From the Reform and Opening-up to the 21st century

Influenced by theoretical linguistics, the study of proverbs in this period reached its peak in the breadth and depth. In terms of breadth, the research of proverbs in this period includes the nature, content and form of proverbs, as well as the structure of proverbs. In addition, some achievements have been made in the study of the functions of proverbs, including their social functions, grammatical functions and rhetorical functions. The main works are Wu Zhankun and Ma Guofan’s Proverbs (1980), Wang Qin’s Introduction to Proverbs (2006), Wen Duanzheng’s Proverbs (2000). There are also some achievements related to the comparative study of Chinese and English proverbs, such as Yu Fumin and Guo Shanchuan’s English and Chinese Idioms (1999), and Jiang Lei’s Cultural Observation and Comparison of English and Chinese Idioms (2000). In terms of depth, the research of proverbs in this period pays attention to the linguistics research of proverbs, explores the internal rules of proverbs in form, from phonetics, grammar, rhetoric, semantics, and other structures and features. In the process of research, we should widely use the theories and methods of modern linguistics in content, pay attention to the cultural connotation and cross-cultural differences of proverbs, and take knowledge as the essential features of proverbs, such as Sun Weizhang’s Chinese Idioms (1988).

d) In the 21st century

In the 21st century, the study of proverbs is no longer limited to the classification and description of proverbs’ structure, semantic features and cultural features, but uses the theories and methods of modern linguistics (e.g. contrastive linguistics, cognitive linguistics, psycholinguistics, etc.) to research on the formation mechanism, understanding and social function of proverbs. Wang Dechun’s Chinese and English Proverbs and Culture (2003), Zhang Hui’s Cognitive Semantics of Chinese Idioms (2003) and Wang Qin’s On Chinese Idioms (2006) are representative works of this period.

B. LITERATURE REVIEW OF ENGLISH PROVERBS

Similar to Chinese proverbs, most proverbs in the early western originated from maxims with important meaning. The outstanding feature of early western proverbs is that they are closely related to religion. The study of western proverbs can be traced back to The Book of Proverbs in the Old Testament, collected by King Solomon of ancient Israel.

a) A study of ancient English Proverbs

The earliest study of proverbs in England was found in a letter preserved by the Anglo-Saxon missionary Boniface in the middle of the 7th century. For example: A coward often misses glory in some high enterprise; therefore he dies alone. The earliest collection of English proverbs is John Heywood’s Dialogue of English Proverbs in 1546. After that in 1614 Camden published Remains Concerning Britain and in 1641 David Ferguson published Scottish Proverbs. The research
of English early proverbs mainly focuses on the collection of materials and the textual research of the sources. One of the purposes is to pay attention to practical and educational significance, which is mostly done by missionar and priests to persuade people in daily life. In 1823 Issac D’Israeli’s The Philosophy of Proverbs is an early academic study of English proverbs.

b) A study of modern English Proverbs

At the beginning of the 20th century, the revolution of Saussure's linguistics in Europe marked the birth of modern linguistic theory, from which the study of linguistics stepped into a new period. In the middle and late 20th century, the rise of cognitive linguistics changed the way people used to study proverbs, began to pay attention to the cognitive understanding of semantics, and explained proverbs from the perspective of the relationship between language and thinking. Archer Tylor, Wolfgang Mieder, Raymond W. Gibbs, Richard P. Honeck are representatives of the study of proverbs in this period. In 1997 Richard P. Honeck’s A Proverb in Mind: A Cognitive Science of Proverbial Wit and Wisdom is one of the representative works of this period. The book focuses on three theoretical models of proverb understanding from the perspective of cognitive linguistics: the Extended Conceptual Base Theory, the Great Chain Metaphor Theory, and the Dual Coding Theory. He pointed out that the history of proverbs was interesting but unclear. The only way to learn about the earliest use time of proverbs is by writing them down.

From the study of English and Chinese proverbs, it can be seen that although scholars have done a lot of research on proverbs for a long time, due to various reasons, these studies are not enough, and they pay far less attention to proverbs than idioms. From the previous research, the research mainly focuses on the definition of proverbs and the comparison with other idioms, the relationship between proverbs and culture, the rhetorical features of proverbs, the translation of proverbs and the comparison between Chinese and English proverbs. However, there are few researches on the reconstruction of proverbs.

V. THE CONSTRUCTION OF REVERSE PROVERBS

Proverbs are the essence of a nation’s language and culture, which reflect people's observation of nature, society, the world, family and interpersonal relationship with simple and concise sentences. And they are the summary of People's daily life experience and the crystallization of wisdom. For a long time, domestic scholars have focused on static studies of proverbs in terms of categories, construction, characteristics, rhetoric, grammatical functions and cultural connotations (Zha Qinglan, 2013). However, in the network age, some proverbs are outdated and then gradually die out, while some proverbs keep developing and bring forth the new ones. Therefore, reverse thinking of these classical proverbs from the structure, wording, style, implication and other aspects, and then reorganize the so-called classical proverbs, so as to construct a new proverb. Generally speaking, the construction of reverse proverbs can be summarized as follows:

A. Exchange: the meaning and implication of proverbs will be changed by exchanging some words’ positions. For example:

- All one’s geese are swans (Christine Ammer, 2005).
  —→ All one's swans are geese.

  The original proverb means one is over exaggerating and not in touch with reality. As is known to all, goose and swan are quite different, the goose is proverbially contrasted with the swan as being the clumsier, less elegant, and less distinguished bird, so to think they are the same is a stretch of the truth. After changing the positions of the two words: goose and swans, the reverse proverb refers to “get the opposite of what one wants”, “achieve the opposite of what one intended”.

  Where love is, there is faith (Yang Zengmao, 2003).
  —→ Where faith is, there is love.

  The original proverb means loyalty or trust comes with love. Love should be based on “trust”, but in reality, many people lack trust in love and are suspicious of each other. Although some couples know the word “trust”, but do not have the sense of trust, let alone how to do trust each other. So: where faith is, there is love.

B. Replace: the syntagmatic relation of proverbs remains stable, but replace some words with others only from the paradigmatic relation. According to Saussure, syntagmatic relation refers to the combination based on sequentiality. Words are used in discourse, strung together one after another, and enter into relations based on the linear character of languages. Paradigmatic relation is a connection in the brain. This kind of connection between words is of quite a different order (Hu Zhuanglin, 2008). For instance:

  Harm set, harm get (Yang Zengmao, 2003).
  —→ Harm watch, harm catch.

  “Set” and “get” in the original proverb are replaced by “watch” and “catch” to express the similar meaning “Harm others and themselves eventually.”

  A bird in the hand is worth two in the bush (Ai Chaoyang, 2009).
  —→ A feather in hand is better than a bird in the air.

  The original proverb is from Aesop’s Fables, which means that a bird in the hand is better than two birds in the tree. Also means that the small present interests are more practical and reliable than the greater future interests. Meanwhile it is also to remind people of treasuring what you have. “A feather in hand is better than a bird in the air.”
C. Parody: To imitate the structure of the original proverbs, and replace some words to create new proverbs in order to achieve the purpose of ridicule, or satirize, especially to imitate those well-known classic proverbs. Such as:

It’s hard to teach an old dog new tricks (Christine Ammer, 2005).

—→ It’s hard to teach an old dog old tricks.

The original proverb means that “Someone who is used to doing things a certain way cannot change” or “You cannot teach some new skill or behavior to someone who is set in their ways”. However, the modern young people are in pursuit of new trends, and have little knowledge of traditional old things. Therefore, it is difficult for them to learn and accept the old things, that is to say: It’s hard to teach an young dog old tricks.

Better a red face than a black heart (Yang Zengmao, 2003).

—→ Better a black heart than a red face.

The implication of the original proverb is that people should have a sense of shame and do something but not everything. However, nowadays, many people are crazy about pursuing material interests, and they will do anything in order to achieve their goals: Better a black heart than a red face.

D. Abridgement: It refers to the deletion of some words or phrases in the original classical proverbs, so as to form a new proverb. The structure of the new proverb appears shorter and more concise, which can also stimulate learners’ association of the semantic structure of the original proverb. For example:

Time flies like an arrow.

—→ Time flies

The complete sentence is “Time flies like an arrow, fruit flies like an apple.” The two sentences have the same structure but different semantics because the parts of speech and semantics of “flies” and “like” are different. In the first half of the sentence, “flies” is a verb, means “flying”, “like” is a preposition, means “same”. In the second half of the sentence, “flies” is a noun, means “flies (one kind of insect)”, “like” is a verb, means “love”.

Try your friend before you trust him.

—→ Try before you trust.

The original one means “A friend must be tested before he can be trusted”. It is deleted into “Try before you trust”, that can also be deduced as “Try before you buy”. That is to say, whatever you do, you should try it first.

E. Antonymy: According to the original proverb, reconstruct another proverb which is completely opposite in meaning. Such as:

Crows do not pick out crow’s eyes (Ai Chaoyang, 2009).

—→ Crows pick out crow’s eyes.

The original proverb means “One shouldn’t hurt or attack a colleague.” Or “Dogs do not eat dogs.” But in the cruel and ruthless society, dogs bite dogs, people eat people, that is to say: Crows pick out crow’s eyes.

Many a good cow has an evil calf (Yang Zengmao, 2003).

—→ Many a good cow has a good calf.

Distinguished families usually have absolute authority. In order to maintain authority, extreme education methods are often adopted. The halo effect, which was put forward by the famous American psychologist Edward in the 1920s, increases their own psychological anxiety and also increases their children’s psychological pressure. Ultimately, it leads to “Many a good cow has an evil calf.”

While throughout history, “Many a good cow has a good calf.” There are many examples: In ancient times, Da Yu, the third of the three legendary emperors who created China and his son Xia Qi are a good example. In Song dynasty, Su Xun, Su Shi, and Su Zhe are the same example. In Yuan dynasty, Tiemuzhen, Torre and Kublai Khan created the largest territory in the world and so on and so forth.

VI. CONCLUSION

The ever-changing development of society promotes the continuous development of language, and Chinese and English proverbs are no exception. In addition to the above-mentioned characteristics, Chinese and English proverbs also have the characteristics of traditionality, artistry, popularity, practicality, rhetoric and so on. Of course, the construction of reverse proverbs is not only reflected in the five aspects mentioned above, but also in the specific context, the speaker should draw inferences from one another and create more reverse proverbs by analogy, deduction and recreation according to the actual situation. The construction of reverse proverbs proves once again that “life needs to be questioned and ideas need to be subverted”, which is based on many factors such as the text information of the original classical proverbs and the level of scholars themselves.

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Hemingway’s Ecological Consciousness in “An African Story”

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Abstract—Ernest Hemingway’s stories with African Safari themes play a significant role in his abundant works and they deserve an in-depth investigation. However, little academic scholarship has been devoted to these African stories compared with his other works. As eco-criticism has become an important perspective of the Hemingway studies, this article is an eco-critical interpretation and deep exploration of the ecological consciousness in “An African Story”. In this story, Hemingway revealed man’s cruelty towards the animals and presented his contemplation over the conflict between man and nature from an innocent little child’s point of view. Through the detailed description of the protagonist David’s experiences as a bystander of an animal slaughter, Hemingway exposed the conflict between human beings and nature. The story is actually a presentation of Hemingway’s sympathy for the destroyed ecology, which also reflects the writer’s pursuit of spiritual home and his criticism against the human exploitation of nature.

Index Terms—Hemingway, An African Story, nature

I. INTRODUCTION

As one of the great writers whose footprints were set in many parts of the world, Ernest Hemingway took advantage of the rich experiences in his life and made his books great charms to readers at home and abroad. It is widely known that the life in Africa covers a large part of Hemingway’s legendary biography. In 1933 and 1953 Hemingway traveled twice to Africa, a mysterious place with ancient civilization and wild beauty. In the ancient place, Hemingway enjoyed the pleasant hunting experiences and appreciated the beauty of nature. Because of the traveling experiences Hemingway not only gained a title of a world citizen but also formed a vivid outlook about nature. These experiences in Africa provided Hemingway with abundant writing materials, inspiring him to compose such African stories as Green Hills of Africa, “The Short Happy Life of Francis Macomber”, “The Snows of Kilimanjaro”, “An African Story”, The Garden of Eden, True at First Sight, and his posthumous work Under Kilimanjaro. These novels or short stories based on African themes formed a considerable amount of journalism and correspondence and obtained great popularity among Hemingway’s literary works. But surprisingly little academic scholarship has been devoted to these African stories compared with the author’s other works. Today, as eco-criticism has become an important literary criticism from which many famous writers and their literary works have been re-interpreted, Hemingway’s works together with his life are frequently considered typical examples of the academic research. This article, taking “An African Story” as a case, endeavors to explore the ecological consciousness in the story and means to present another important perspective of Hemingway studies.

II. “AN AFRICAN STORY”: THE CONFLICT BETWEEN MAN AND NATURE

Hemingway’s African stories are often related to the moral ideal in his thought. From the perspective of eco-criticism, many scholars believe the stories illustrate the harmony or conflict between human beings and nature. For instance, in Hemingway’s first venture into non-fiction Green Hills of Africa, which chronicles the writer and his wife’s adventures on safari in the early 1930s, the readers can not only appreciate the beauty of the wilderness but also detect an ancient and magnificent place is threatened by the incursions of man. Woodcuts, animal killing, and exploitation of natural resources scattered throughout the book, add another dimension to the view of the hard-edged, rugged world of wild Africa. The scene coincides with Linda Wagner Martin’s statement that “Green Hills of Africa would show the more human side of Hemingway. And much of that human side might be read as weakness” (Martin, 2007, p.110). In this “absolutely true” non-fiction that was based on his own hunting expedition to Tanganyika, Hemingway, on one hand, described the beauty of the forests, the prairie, the mountains, the blue sky and all kinds of wild birds and animals, the exciting hunting experiences and the simple yet civilized country life in the ancient place; on the other, the writer presented his disappointment towards the modern civilization and his strong yearning towards the natural beauty. “An African Story” is another Africa-based works that root in the ancient and mysterious continent of Africa and form a remarkable part of all his literary achievements. With the omniscient third-person-singular point of view, “An African Story”, a short story covering less than ten pages, gives a detailed description of how an old elephant is hunted and cruelly killed by two hunters. Little David is the hero, who, like a cinematograph, told the readers in detail about the impressive story. Different from the main idea of “Big Two-hearted River”, what Hemingway expressed in this story is not the harmonious relationship between man and nature; instead, he in the work intended to reveal his view on man’s
cruelty towards the animals and the conflict between man and nature through the inner thought of an innocent little child.

The short story began with David’s nocturnal searching for the trail of the old elephant to prove his masculinity so that he could become a pride of his father. Under the moonlight and with his dog Kibo, David found the trace of the elephant and reported it to his father, who was not a professional hunter but went to the African prairie to taste the experience of hunting and embark on the hunt for the ivory-laden animal. David tried his best to follow the elephant and was totally exhausted after the task was accomplished. Then he woke once because he “thought of the elephant with his great ears moving as he stood in the forest, his head hung down with the weight of the tusks” (Hemingway, 1987, p.547). He felt from the bottom of his heart an uncertain deep sense of hollow. But what did such a feeling come from? David at that time took for granted that it was due to his hunger. However, the fact is that “It was not and he found that out in the next three days” (Hemingway, 1987, p.547). What happened in the next three days informed David that he had actually done a very regretful thing for all the life.

When David was told by Juma, the native guider and aboriginal hunter, about the history of the old elephant, he realized that the elephant was lonely and wretched; and it was intimate and warm-hearted to its friend, who had been cruelly killed by Juma about five years ago. A strong sympathy for the old elephant came quickly to the boy’s mind and he began to hold a kind of hatred towards Juma and his father. The poor elephant had been dead for such a long time but the traced one was still so reminiscent that it often came to have a look at its old friend with no fear of the danger of being slaughtered. We can strongly understand the old elephant’s deep emotion towards its lifelong companion when Juma pointed out to David and his father “where the great elephant they were trailing had stood while he looked down at the skull and where his trunk had moved it a little way from the place it had rested on the ground” (Hemingway, 1987, p.550). David was compassionate about the elephant, for he knew he had Kibo, the close dog friend, and Kibo had him. But as for the poor old elephant, its good friend had been cruelly killed and it itself, who was doing any harm, was being tracked and about to be slaughtered without any mercy for the mere sake of the tusks which weighted two hundred pounds apiece at the place where it came to see its friend. David, sickened by the elephant’s suffering and despair, thought it was all his fault and began to feel a sense of conscience and guilt from his innocent heart:

The bull wasn’t doing any harm and now we’ve tracked him to where he came to see his dead friend and now we’re going to kill him. It is my fault. I betrayed him.

... Juma would not have found him if I had not seen him. He had his chance at him and all he did was wound him and kill his friend. Kibo and I found him and I never should have told them and I should have kept him secret and had him always and let them stay drunk at the beer shamba. Juma was so drunk that we could not wake him. I’m going to keep everything in secret always. I’ll never tell them anything again. If they kill him Juma will drink his share of the ivory or just buy himself another goddamn wife. Why didn’t you help the elephant when you could? (Hemingway, 1987, p.550).

Paralleled with the description of David’s regret of telling the two hunters about the elephant’s trace, Hemingway’s consciousness of protecting the animals and nature was also embodied in David’s dissatisfaction towards the ruthlessness of Juma and his father. As a child, David had no right or power to control the adults’ decision, but he was bold enough to express his protests against their cruelty in a quiet and soft voice “Fucking elephant hunting” (Hemingway, 1987, p.551). He said to himself, “I’ll never ever tell him or anybody anything again, never anything again. Never ever never”. (Hemingway, 1987, p.551). Facing the scene that they are going to kill the old elephant, David “turned him against Juma and made the elephant his brother” (Hemingway, 1987, p.551). He cursed them as the goddamned friend killers. The little innocent boy even went so far as to imagine that “They would kill me and they would kill Kibo if we had ivory” (Hemingway, 1987, p.551), which was virtually an unrealistic imagination but highly illustrated human beings’ greed in the process of conquering nature.

Hemingway was a keen hunter who had also been to many places for his exciting hunting experiences. In the description of other works about hunting, Hemingway often praised highly the courage of mankind and gave a vivid portrayal of the heroes’ excited mood after they succeeded in gaining their trophies. However, what we come across in this work is nothing but a strong sense of guilt and conscience from the heart of David, the real hero of the short story. Just as John Simons’ statement in one of his book about animal rights goes, “anyone who thinks deeply about the environment and his or her responsibility towards it is likely also to be thinking about animals” (Simons, 2002, p.76). To a certain extent, it was Hemingway’s personal experiences in hunting that resulted in his rethinking about the relationship between man and animals. “An African Story” is a typical work reflecting the fact that Hemingway had sensitively become aware of the conflict between man and nature and formed his ecological consciousness that is quite different from the thoughts in his other Africa-based works such as Green Hills of Africa and “The Short, Happy Life of Francis Macomber” demonstrating human beings’ tough image in the course of conquering nature. Little David is actually a weak symbol, watching over the beginning and ending of the story with his puzzled eyes. The little child was “a helpless spectator, forced to witness an event that he abhors” (Roe, 1998, p.323-324). Why can’t human beings live in peace with elephants? Why is it necessary for them to conquer the innocent animal with violence? Just for the mere sake of their enjoyment and happiness? How selfish they are! Throughout the human history, “the animal has surely often been regarded in its own right (and rite) as ‘other’, not as what lies between us and ‘the other’. But may it… be… the
animal not the human subject alone that brings the meanings into the world?” (Bleakley, 2000 p.20). In “An African Story”, David’s inner voice in the story informs the readers that human beings are actually able to get along well with all the innocent animals instead of taking them as our slaves.

David realized that the old elephant wanted to live in peace with human beings. Even at the moment when it was about to leave the world, its eyes were still full of vitality and they became the most alive thing he has even seen. David thought the elephant could have killed Juma though it was so old and tired, but it didn’t mean to do so; and “He didn’t look at me as though he wanted to kill me. He only looked sad the same way I felt. He visited his old friend on the day he died” (Hemingway, 1987, p.553). The pitiful and wretched expression seemed to David that the poor old elephant was asking for a rescue from him. But David was so weak that he had no ability to restrict the adults’ action or prevent the brutal butchery and the conflict between human and nonhuman. He had no choice but to stand there watching the sad scene. He remembered clearly what happened at the moment when Juma pushed the muzzle almost into the earhole and fired twice, jerking the bolt and driving it forward angrily. The eye of the elephant had opened wide on the first shot and then started to glaze and blood came out of the ear and ran in two bright streams down the wrinkled gray hide… Now all the dignity and majesty and all the beauty were gone from the elephant and he was a huge wrinkled pile (Hemingway, 1987, p.552).

Faced with this cruel scene of slaughter, David was indignant but he had no access to any way of help. What he could do is just helplessly warn himself not to convey true words to other people any more. David was disappointed and angry at his father and Juma for their greed and violence. At this moment, we can claim that the death of the elephant had two levels, namely, “the death of the elephant and the death of David’s love for his father” (Nagel, 1989, p.336). David’s attitude here in some way fits into the opinion of Mary Austin, an American natural writer, that animals can survive very well in the wilderness and “it was so-called civilization, not wildness, that changed their homes into dangerous places” (Nelson, 2000, p.48). To David, the only thing that existed at the bottom of his heart was the feeling of extreme loneliness when the other “hunting heroes” were celebrating their victory, sitting and drinking beer while the big drum started and the ngoma began to build. His hatred towards them was so strong that when his father attempted to talk to him after the brutal butchery that the elephant was a murderer to many people, his responses were, “They were all trying to kill him”, “I wish he’d killed Juma”, and Juma is “not any more” (Hemingway, 1987, p.553). My friend. In David’s heart, “the animal is not just biological, but legitimately psychological and conceptual” (Bleakley, 2000 p.20).

David’s indignation over the conflict between man and animals was portrayed again as he followed his father and Juma when they tracked the elephant back to the skull of the elephant’s friend, who had been killed in an earlier hunt. The living elephant seemed to mourn the loss of his friend. Recognizing the power of the elephants’ bond, David rejected the enterprise of elephant hunting altogether with a taboo piece of adult language “Fuck elephant hunting”. In this exclamation “David’s overwhelming sympathy for the vulnerable but manifestly intelligent, sensitive animals depends fundamentally on his awareness that elephants do in fact mourn” (Møddelmog, 2013, p.223-224). After all, nature means not only human world, but also nonhuman world. “Every human is an animal. Every animal, and every plant, is related to every human” (Nichols, 2011, p.16). These voices contributed greatly to the consolidation of the ecological theme of the short story.

Human beings are the product of the development of all the creatures on the earth. With the special ability of our labor force, we become the socialized group today. The main difference from animals is that we human beings have a special sense or consciousness, which results directly in our leading position in all the creatures living on the earth. Being endowed with this advantage doesn’t necessarily mean that human beings are omnipresent in everything or superior to animals in every aspect. In an article called “The Lowest animal”, Mark Twain’s question to human beings’ ruling position on the earth and his condemnation on the hypocrisy and cruelty of human race are very picturesque. According to this famous writer, human beings are not what we think we are; instead, we are even not reasoning animals. He announced to human beings that “the strongest count against their intelligence is the fact that with the record back of him he blandly sets himself up as the head animal of the lot; whereas by his own standards he is the bottom one” (Twain, 1967, p.180). His words tell us that animals, instead of being taken as slaves, should be treated as man’s good friends because of the fact that animals also have their superiorities over human race and they can teach people useful things and provide us with some daily necessities; and “animals are subjects of rights, capable of feeling pain, desire, and understanding. In this thinking, humans as a dominating species need to avoid ‘speciesism’ that carries the ring of ‘racism’ and ‘sexism’” (Bronner, 2005, p.412). The argumentation in Mary Austin’s work The Flock pointed out by Barney Nelson is instructive “Humans teach animals useless ‘tricks,’ which are usually never new to the animal but something the animal is already capable of doing: fetch, roll over, lay down, bark. Animals, on the other hand, teach humans survival skills: trails, patterns for society, and medicinal uses for plants” (Nelson, 2000, p.33). It also informs us that human beings are closely related to other lives on the earth. Now, as human beings are changing and conquering nature with our wisdom, it is necessary for us to take into consideration the close relationship between the Mother Nature and ourselves. The long-held anthropocentrism is an irresponsible thought and must be eliminated. Nature is a physical place for human activities and is not just something we use to serve their various personal purposes. Human beings, with our characteristic sense and consciousness, must bear the responsibility on the whole nature as well as on ourselves. If we mistreat nature with an inhuman attitude, destroying and damaging the harmony, one day we will receive the paycheck arranged by the law of nature. After all, as a kind of creature on the earth, we human beings have to
bear in mind that no matter how smart and advanced we are, we cannot survive without the exterior environment of the earth. Overestimate of our own ability will at last lead to nothing but a doomed future. “An African Story”, through the little boy’s innocent mental thought, describes human beings’ greed and ruthlessness as well as the wisdom and power embodied in the process of conquering the animals and nature. In the exchange and contact of emotion between little David and the old elephant in the short story, we can detect a certain strong calling for mutual understanding and respect between man and animals.

The elephant-killing anecdote and the inner voice of the protagonist in “An African Story” coincide with another story of African themes which is written toward the end of The Garden of Eden, one of the works published after Hemingway’s suicide. From 1946 until his death in 1961, Hemingway worked on the book which is notable for the narrator’s expression of his deep disgust, as a boy, at the excesses of elephant killing in Africa by his father. In the story, the father’s shooting of an elephant and removal of the tusks made his son feel so cruel that the child would no longer call him a hero. It was also for the poor elephant that David “betrayed” to his father. And “In this father-son conflict and its basis on destruction of nature versus the love and respect for its forms, we get a picture of those internal conflicts that went largely undeveloped in the author’s life” (Messent, 1992, p.163).The indignation in this posthumous novel explains the boy’s loyalty shifted from his father to the elephants, strengthening the ecological consciousness in Hemingway’s African stories.

III. Conclusion

As a sophisticated hunter, Hemingway gained a lot of trophies from his hunting experiences in Africa. That is why he always had quite a good reputation for his ability to conquer nature; and some people would even say he is himself a destroyer of nature. Hemingway’s lifelong love of animals is often said to “run parallel to his fascination with killing animals while hunting and fishing” (Moddelmog, 2013, p.222). People say “Hemingway has often been known as a macho animal killer. He often was. And yet “he also had the characterization cat lover, animal sympathizer, and passionate defender of plants” (Moddelmog, 2013, p.217). In a hunting article published in 1951, Hemingway announced that “the author of this article, after taking a long time to make up his mind, and admitting his guilt on all counts, believes that it is a sin to kill any non-dangerous game animal except for meat” (Love, 2003, p.131). A year later he wrote to Harvey Breit, in a reference to Faulkner’s “The Bear,” that “I think it is a sin to kill a black bear, because he is a fine animal that likes to drink, that likes to dance, and that does no harm and that understands better than any other animal when you speak to him. . . . I have killed enough of them since I was a boy to know it is a sin. It isn’t just a sin I invented” (Love, 2003, p.131). During his 1953 African safari, Hemingway was more interested in watching animals than in killing them. Hemingway, like David, “long possessed a fierce sympathy for elephants and many other non-domesticated animals” (Moddelmog, 2013, p.224). In this African story the readers can deeply detect Hemingway’s awareness of sympathizing with the animals and protecting nature, “with animals, as in much of his life, Hemingway engaged his culture’s interests with unusual intensity. He felt genuine, if paradoxical, concern for the welfare even of the animals he hunted, and his love for companion animals was always strong and pronounced” (Moddelmog, 2013, p.221). Short as the story is, “An African Story” is well qualified to demonstrate the author’s sensitive realization of the conflict between human beings and the natural world. Weak as the hero’s voice is, it is strong enough for the ecological critics to arouse people’s consciousness of loving the Mother Nature.

The construction of ecological civilization is nowadays an important issue throughout the world. But its goal cannot be reached within a short time. Stresses should not only be put politically and economically, but also linguistically and literally. Today, eco-criticism cannot be called as a brand new literary criticism. Whereas, as long as the environmental problems are not eliminated, this literary criticism will continue to play its significant role in both literature studies and human society. It is in this situation that we find it of great importance to reanalyze the works of Ernest Hemingway from an eco-critical point of view, which is useful for our further study of American literature and the enhancement of man’s harmonious relationship with the great nature.

REFERENCES

Yufeng Wang was born in Fujian Province, China in 1979. He holds a Ph.D. degree in English language and literature and is currently an associate professor for English majors at Xiamen University of Technology. He has published three books and more than 30 papers. His research field is British and American literature.
Language Choice of Balinese and Japanese Mixed Marriage Children

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Abstract—Japanese and Balinese mixed marriage children have become bilingual since the early years of the language acquisition period. They acquired the inheritance of the languages (Indonesian, Japanese, and Balinese) from their parents. This research was conducted to find the language choice of mixed marriage children of Balinese and Japanese in Bali. The language use domain is divided into two: family and social. In each domain, the topic, the background of the situation, and the people involved are determined. The data was gathered using questionnaires employed to 10 mixed married families. The method includes observation and interviews. The result of data analysis showed that in the family domain there are variations of the children's language preferences when communicating. The children choose Indonesian when communicating with the father, and Japanese with the mother. However, there are also other options for using mixed code between Indonesian, Japanese and also English. In the social domain, the language choice is more homogeneous, which is Indonesian. Meanwhile, it was found that there was resistance towards the use of Balinese by Japanese-Balinese Mixed Marriage Family (JBMF) and the factors that affected the children's language choice were also discovered.

Index Terms—mixed marriage, language choice, language use domain

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Different nations, cultures, and languages on mixed marriages cause cross-contact of the three aspects. The cultural and language contacts in mixed marriage communication are unavoidable and a very interesting linguistic phenomenon. Due to the circumstance, the linguistic situation will vary because it involves more than one language.

Children from mixed marriages who are exposed to different cultures and languages become an interesting subject to be studied. Language acquisition in a bilingual situation will certainly lead to different linguistic phenomena. The children simultaneously acquire bilingual (McLaughlin’s, cited in Shin, 2005). A general terminology of bilingual acquisition could be the ‘simultaneous acquisition of more than one language during the period of primary language development’ (Genesee, 1989, p.162). The acquisition of two languages has been dubbed BFLA (Meisel, 1989, p. 20).

The purpose of this research is to explain the language choice of BFLA children from mixed-marriage between Balinese fathers and Japanese mothers. The children of Japanese-Balinese mixed-marriage families (hereinafter called JBMF), who live in Bali, since the beginning of their language acquisition have been introduced to two different languages from both parents.

The families live in Bali and have no difficulties in adapting and communicating with their social environments. Language choice is strongly affected by the social environment a bilingual person is exposed to (Katja, 2007). Indonesian language (IL) is the dominant language used by the community in the neighborhood of JBMF. Although the location of the research is in Bali with Balinese Language (BL) as a regional language, in the urban areas IL as the national language is more widely used.

B. Language Options in Language Use Domain

According to Fasold (in Rokhman, 2013, p. 25), the selection of language used is not as simple as we thought, i.e. choosing a whole language in a communication event. Imagine a person who speaks two or more languages must choose the language he or she will use. Grosjean (1998, p. 134) proposes to analyze it by looking at which language is used with whom and for what.
In language selection, there are three categories of options. First, by selecting one variation of the same language (intra language variation). Second, by code-switching: using one language for one need and another for other needs in a single communication event. Third, by interfering with code-mixing: using a specific language of mixed fragments from other languages (Fasold, 1986).

According to Romaine (1995), the language choice is not arbitrary and not all speakers are doing the same thing. Through their language choice of preferring one language to another or using a variation of the same language, the speaker is showing what might be called "Act of Identity"; choosing which group the speaker wants to be recognized.

According to Fishman (1972), the domain is a certain institutional context where a variety of languages is more appropriate than others. The use of language in the context of bilingualism depends on the domain of the conventional institution of the spoken society.

The topics of discussion are modern and traditional. Modern topics relate to present and future orientation. In the etymology perspective, modern means the present, new models and not ancient. The traditional topic is the opposite, which refers to something that is oriented in the past, such as ways of doing things inherited by the ancestors.

Language choices in bilingual/multilingual community social interactions are caused by a variety of social and cultural factors. Ervin-Tripp (1972) identifies four major factors as language choice markers of speakers within the social interaction, namely (1) the setting (time and place) and the situation, (2) participants in the interaction, (3) topics of conversation, and (4) the function of interaction.

C. Object of Investigation

Mixed marriage in this study refers to marriages between Balinese and Japanese people living in Bali. More specifically, the mothers are Japanese and the fathers are Indonesian with Balinese ethnic. The families live in the province of Bali and have children of both boys or girls with the age ranging between 7 to 20 years old.

The object of this research is the children of mixed marriages, who since the early years of language acquisition have been exposed to two languages: Japanese (JL) and Indonesian (IL). The research took place in Bali, where the families of mixed marriages live. To gain the necessary data, an observation of the 10 JBMF families with children was conducted. The object of the research is following the determined criteria of the respondents. The research is carried out in a social environment such as home, school or neighborhood. The domain of language use is divided into 2: family and social domains.

II. CORPUS AND METHODS

A. CORPUS

The data is gathered by providing questionnaires to all members of JBMF. The questionnaires are filled by both fathers and mothers, and their children. The data from the questionnaires consist of family’s biodata, language proficiency, and language usage. JBMF’s language skills include Indonesian (IL), Japanese (JL), Balinese (BL), and English (EL).

The language use domain differs into two: family and social domains. Each domain is divided into interlocutors, topics of discussion, and situation. In the neighborhood domain, the interlocutor is grouped into three, namely older neighbor (ON), peer neighbor (PN), and younger neighbor (YN). Meanwhile, the situation background is differentiated into three situations: casual, serious and emotional. Within the family domain, the language used between the married couples (husband and wife), children and parents, JBMF to the husband or wife’s family, and other family members are being observed.

The topic of conversations in the social domain is limited to three variables, whilst, in the family domain is 4 variables. The topics in the social domain consist of (1) General/News/TV, (2) traditional ceremonies, and (3) official. The situation background is divided into 3: (1) formal, (2) casual, and (3) emotional, whereas, the topics on the family domain consist of (1) households, (2) traditional ceremonies, (3) official matters, and (4) advice. Background situation when the communication event takes place is divided into three: (1) formal, (2) casual, and (3) emotional.

The following topics of discussion are identified in the corpus:
- Language choice in the social domain
- Affecting factors of language preference in the social domain
- Language choice in the family domain
- Affecting factors of language preference in the family domain

The choice of language used by JBMF is strongly influenced by the interlocutors, topics of discussions, and situations during the conversations. This research aims to see the choice of language within the language use domains of various topics, interlocutors, and background situations of each respondent.

B. Methods

The research is located in Bali, where the object of the study is living. To obtain the necessary data, observations were carried out to 10 families of mixed marriages with children who full fill the determined criteria of respondents. The research is conducted in a social environment of the research object such as at home, school or neighborhood residence. In addition to direct observations, the data is also taken through video recording and voice recording.
A nonprobability sampling technique was used to determine the sample. This sampling technique does not provide equal opportunities for each element or population member to be selected as a sample (Sugiyono, 2010). The sampling technique used purposeful sampling.

III. DISCUSSION

The analysis combines a quantitative approach with a qualitative and analytical one (see Rossman and Wilson, 1985). The data includes the frequency of the use of IL, JL, BL, and EL. To make identifying easier, a table of recapitulation is presented in this paper. Each variable in the questionnaire is identified to get an overview of the factors that influence the language choice of the children. Some of the variables are the influence of the strategy of language transmission from parents to children, mother tongue (MT), language used in the family, the dominant language in the environment where the family resides and other variables.

The language choice of language use domain will be analyzed using the theory proposed by Fishman (1972). A domain is a specific institutional context where the varieties are more precisely used than others. The use of language in the context of bilingualism depends on the domain of conventional institutions within the spoken society. Domains are constellations of topics, situations, settings, and participants. Ervin-Trip (1972) also states that there are four language-selection markers used by the speakers i.e., 1) settings and situations, 2) engagement/participants, 3) topics of discussion and an addition of another function, which is 4) interaction functions.

The choice of language used by JBMF is strongly influenced by the factors of the interlocutor, the topic, and the situation of the conversation. The language use domain is divided into family and social domains. The interlocutors in the family domain are the father/husband, mother/wife, the child, family of both parents, and other family members who are living in their house. Meanwhile, the interlocutors of the social domain are JBMF’s interactions with older neighbors (ON), peer neighbors (PN), and younger neighbors (YN) that occur in the neighborhood, schools, and other public areas. The topics of discussion are divided into general, traditional ceremonies, religions, and households. The functions of interaction are advising, casual, formal, and emotional communications. Specifically, the topic of discussion within the social domain is specified into 3 variables, namely, (1) General/News/TV, (2) traditional ceremonies, and (3) official matters, whilst, in the family domain, there are 4 variables used as topic of discussion, which cover: (1) household, (2) traditional ceremonies, (3) official matters, and (4) advising. The background situation in both domains is specified in 3 situations, such as (1) serious, (2) casual and (3) emotional.

A. Children's Language Choice in the Social Domain

In the social domain, the interlocutors are older neighbors, peer neighbors, and younger neighbors. The preferred languages are Indonesian (IL), Japanese (JL), Balinese (BL) and English (EL).

The frequency of language choice in the social domain is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Interlocutor</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>ON</th>
<th>PN</th>
<th>YN</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>General/TV news</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (80%)</td>
<td>IL &amp; BL (20%)</td>
<td>IL (90%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (90%)</td>
<td>IL &amp; BL (10%)</td>
<td>IL (90%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Casual</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Serious</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the children choose IL when the interlocutor is ON. However, when communicating with PN in general topic or news, the respondents who prefer to use only IL is 80%, while the 20% choose IL and BL. Meanwhile, during their conversation with YN, 90% use Indonesian and 10% use a mixed code of IL and BL. For the topic of traditional ceremonies, the choice of language when communicating with PN and YN interlocutors shows the same result. 90% of the children choose IL and 10% choose IL and BL. For serious, casual, and emotional situations, the choice reaches 100% for all interlocutors. From the explanation above, it can be seen that the choice of IL dominates in the social domain. The children mostly use IL to all interlocutors and in all situations.

B. Affecting Factors of Language Preference in the Social Domain

The option for IL within the social domain in almost all variables with all interlocutors is influenced by several factors i.e.: IL as the state language, the interlocutors, the purpose of the communication, and the function of the interaction.

a) Indonesian as a State Language

In addition to using the language of each region, Indonesians also use IL in daily interactions. Similarly, in Bali, the people use IL in the official domains and still use BL as a regional language in other domains. The respondents of this study (JBMF) are living in urban areas with heterogeneous communities such as different ethnic groups, languages and even citizenship. IL has become the main language used for interactions among the people, to facilitate communication.
with other heterogeneous members of the community. The neighborhood of JBMF residence is a heterogeneous urban and its people are not only Balinese. Therefore, to achieve the purpose of good communications, the choice of IL becomes very rational. By using a language that is understood by everyone in the community, the final purpose of communication will be achieved.

b) Interlocutor
The interlocutors in the social domain are YN, PN, and ON. There are differences in language choice by the children. When they speak with ON 100% are using IL for all topics and situations; with PN, 20% choose IL and BL, while 80% choose IL; and with YN 90% choose IL and 10% choose IL and BL. For traditional topics with PN and YN as interlocutors, the number showed the same result. 90% choose only IL and 10% choose IL and BL. When the settings of the situation are casual, formal and emotional all choose IL (100%) with all interlocutors.

c) Purpose
According to Keraf (1997, p. 1), a language is a communication tool between members of the community in the form of sound symbols produced by the human’s instrument. The selection of IL by JBMF’s children in the social domain or outside their home has the purpose of delivering their intention and ideas to be understood by the interlocutors. The dominant language used within JBMF residential environment is IL. All members of the public understand and use IL as a tool to communicate. The use of IL makes the purpose of communication with the communities in the living environment can easily be accomplished and the ideas can be well conveyed.

d) Interaction’s Function
Language has certain functions that are used based on the needs of a person. The language function is used as a tool to express themselves, a tool to communicate, a tool to integrate and adapt socially in the environment or certain situations, and as social control (Keraf, 1997, p. 3). The interaction’s function in the community can be a way of delivering information, solicitation, or routine of habits such as greeting, apologizing or thankful expressions. The aspects of the interaction’s function include positioning the social status, create social distances, involving others in speech, ruling or pleading. The interaction of JBMF’s children in the social domain, which is dominated by the use of IL, indicates the desire to be accepted by the community.

C. Language Choice in Family Domain
Language choices in the family domain are differentiated by the topic and interlocutor. The topics consist of three variables: household, traditional ceremonies, and advice. The interlocutors involve husbands, wives, children, grandparents, and other family members who are living together in the same house. Meanwhile, the background situation is divided into three: casual, formal and emotional moments.

The JBMF’s children are BFLA and influenced by two different languages from both parents. Their language is more diverse than both parents. The following data shows the choice of the children's language in the family domain. The interlocutors are all family members.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Interlocutor</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Mother</th>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Family of mother</th>
<th>Family of father</th>
<th>Another family member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Household</td>
<td>JL (70%) IL/JL (30%)</td>
<td>IL (90%)</td>
<td>JL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>JL (70%) IL (10%) IL/JL (20%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>JL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Advising</td>
<td>JL (70%) IL (10%) IL/JL (20%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>JL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Casual</td>
<td>JL (70%) IL (10%) IL/JL (10%) IL/JL/EL (10%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>JL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Formal</td>
<td>JL (70%) IL (10%) IL/JL (10%) IL/JL/EL (10%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>JL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Emotional</td>
<td>JL (70%) IL (10%) IL/JL (10%) IL/JL/EL (10%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>JL (100%)</td>
<td>IL (100%)</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In communicating with family members, the languages used are IL, JL, as well as mixed codes IL and JL, and EL. When the mothers are the interlocutors, the languages involved are JL, IL, EL or mixed codes of these 3 languages. However, when the fathers act as the interlocutors, IL is mostly chosen, although there is also a choice of mixed codes of IL and JL. When the children communicate with a family member from their fathers’ side, they choose only IL.
Similarly, when communicating with their mothers’ family members, then the option is only JL.

**Table 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Interlocutor Language</th>
<th>Mother</th>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Family of mother</th>
<th>Family of father</th>
<th>Other family members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>IL</td>
<td>83.33</td>
<td>98.33</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>JL</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>JL/IL</td>
<td>83.33</td>
<td>16.67</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>IL/ JL/ EL</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The language involved during the communication in the family domain consists of four language varieties, i.e. IL, JL, IL/ JL, and IL/JL/EL. When the interlocutors are the mothers, the language choice that falls into JL is 70%. IL and mixed code of IL/ JL has the same percentage of 8.5%, and the mixed code of IL/ JL/EL is 6.7%. When the interlocutors are the fathers, IL dominates the choice with the percentage of 98.3%, whilst, the rest of 1.67% uses a mixed code of IL/ JL. Since the family of the mothers is entirely Japanese, their choice of language is to use JL (100%). Similarly, when communicating with the family of the fathers, who are Balinese, then the choice is IL (100%). In the family domain, the children do not choose BL.

**D. Affecting Factors of Language Preference in the Family Domain**

Affecting factors of a child’s language preference in the family domain are: the dominant language in the environment, interlocutor, the cultural background, the attitude to the mother tongue, and the gender.

a) The dominant language in the community

All JBMF respondents are living in urban areas with homogeneous community members. The community members consist of various ethnicities. Each ethnic has its regional language. Therefore, the use of IL in such an environment is the most appropriate choice by all parties. The children of JBMF also choose to use IL when communicating with the family except with their mothers or the mothers’ families. The choice of IL is more dominant than the other languages. The choice of IL allows communication to run smoothly and can be accepted by all parties.

b) Interlocutor

JBMF children’s communication in the family domain is unique. When the interlocutor is their mothers, the choice of JL is 70%. Whereas, when the interlocutor is their fathers then they replace the language by choosing IL with a very large percentage, which is 98.33%. The choice is 100% for IL when the interlocutor is a member of the fathers’ family and 100% for JL when the interlocutor is their mothers’. None of them chooses BL for the reason of the inability to speak Balinese and the difficulties to study BL. Even though in a situation where a father’s family is living in the same house with them, they do not use BL but choose to use IL.

c) Cultural background

In JBMF families, the children are raised with two different cultures; from their fathers and mothers. They learn the way of living as Balinese within the traditional community from their fathers, but the mothers also teach their children Japanese culture. As eastern cultures, both Balinese and Japanese have the same principles. Both cultures embrace the principle of social culture that has a similar resemblance to a family relationship, a living value, and a harmonious life purpose. Language choices in the family domain show tolerance of the eastern cultures and can easily be adapted to different groups. Every child selects a language that corresponds to the audience so the needs of the listeners can be fulfilled.

d) Attitudes towards mother tongue

Attitudes toward the mother tongue influence the choice of language by each respondent. The maternal awareness regarding the inheritance of language to the children reflects the attitude of maintaining the mother tongue within the family. The results from the questionnaires show that all mothers of JBMF still use JL and consider it important to teach JL to her children. In addition to communicating using JL at an early age, mothers also consider the importance of sending their children to a special school that teaches Japanese and its culture. The most prominent reason is that so the children can communicate with their maternal family in Japan and they do not forget their roots as heirs of the Japanese blood.

Although their fathers’ mother tongue is Balinese, however, since IL is a state language, when they communicate with the children the language used is IL (93%). Unfortunately, there is no choice for BL. It is closely related to the language politics in Indonesia that the regional language is a second language, while the state language is IL. Nevertheless, husbands or fathers still use BL when talking to their parents. Two JBMF respondents who lived with their husbands’ mothers continue to choose BL as a communication tool. The choice of using BL lesser than IL is caused by many factors. Mostly the reason is that the dominant language in the community is IL and some of the respondents also assume that their mother tongue is IL.

e) Gender

In eastern culture, the man is the family leader. The role of a man or father as the head of the family has the obligation to give livelihood to the family. Whereas, the role of a woman or mother in the eastern culture is a
communicating with all interlocutors in both domains. It is known that the choice of mother tongue when communicating with the children is dominated by JL (75%), and the rest falls into a mixed code of IL/JL. All mothers in JBMF families see the importance of teaching JL to their children. From an early age, the children are accustomed to learning Japanese and its culture through language courses, television, videos, and other media. All the children respondents can speak JL properly and can read hiragana, katakana, and kanji. The husband, whose mother tongue is Balinese and Indonesian, when communicating with the children mostly use IL (93.3%), while the rest consists of IL/JL mixed code. No choice falls into BL. Children also learn IL from the community, neighborhood, and school.

IV. CONCLUSION

From the explanation above, it can be concluded that there is no sole factor affecting the choice of language. All factors influence the choice of language at the same time. From the JBMF family case, the most influential factor is the social environment and interlocutor factors. JBMF is living in the community where IL is dominating, therefore, in the social domain, the option for language choice of communication to all interlocutors and in all situations falls into IL. In the family domain, the most influencing factor is the interlocutor. When the interlocutors are the father and his family, almost 100% of the children’s language chooses IL. Meanwhile, if the interlocutors are the mother and her family, the option falls into JL. In conversations between the mothers and children, JL is mostly selected (75%). Likewise, when the communications occur between the husband, children or the wife's family, the choice of JL and EL appear. Language choice is a reasonable constellation for a bilingual. With their language ability, they can choose the appropriate language when communicating. Every language selection is inseparable from the domain usage, the situation setting and the topic of discussion. In the social domain, the children of JBMF prefer to use IL. With older neighbors, the choice of language use is IL with 100%. IL remains the dominant choice when communicating with peers and to younger people. The factors that influence language choice in the social domain are IL as the state language, interlocutor, purpose, and interaction function. In the family domain, language choices vary more. There are choices for IL, JL, BL, and EL. When the interlocutor is the father, the choice of language is IL and mixed codes IL/JL and none for BL. When communicating with the mother, the choice of JL is 70%. There are choices on IL and mixed codes of IL/IL/EL. When the interlocutor is a family from their father’s side, all children use IL, and with the Japanese family, they use JL. The language choice of the children in the family domain is influenced by five factors. These factors are the dominant language in the community, interlocutor, cultural background, attitudes toward mother tongue, and gender. Out of all languages, none falls into Balinese, which is the mother tongue of the fathers. The fathers use IL more often when communicating with the children, which is done intentionally for specific reasons. The mothers cannot speak Balinese but they can speak IL. Therefore, the choice for IL becomes the most acceptable one for all parties. The usage of Balinese has decreased significantly. It is proven by the findings that BL is not chosen by the children when communicating with all interlocutors in both domains.

APPENDIX. ABBREVIATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Language</th>
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<tr>
<td>JBMF</td>
<td>Japanese Balinese Mixed Marriage Family</td>
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<tr>
<td>BB</td>
<td>Balinese Language</td>
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<tr>
<td>PN</td>
<td>Peer Neighbor</td>
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<tr>
<td>BFLA</td>
<td>Bilingual first language acquisition</td>
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<td>IL</td>
<td>Indonesian Language</td>
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<td>JL</td>
<td>Japanese Language</td>
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<td>EL</td>
<td>English Language</td>
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<td>ON</td>
<td>Older Neighbor</td>
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<td>YN</td>
<td>Younger Neighbor</td>
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An Analysis of Emily's Characters in *A Rose for Emily* from the Perspective of Narration

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Abstract—William Faulkner, once won the Nobel Prize in 1950 presentation speech, is considered as one of the grandest Southern American novelists, because he is seemingly the "unrivaled master of all living British and American novelists". *A Rose for Emily* is one of Faulkner's most excellent short novels. Besides, the narrative of spaces in this novel is changeable and subtle, and the research on it has always been both difficult and hot. This paper attempts to interpret *A Rose for Emily* from a narrative style, to explore how Faulkner constructed the narrative of the novel, and then to analyze the characters of Emily in the novel.

Index Terms—*A Rose for Emily*, narrative style, narrative perspective, female image

I. INTRODUCTION

William Faulkner, who won the Nobel Prize for literature in 1950, is one of the 20th century American literary giants and the representative of stream of consciousness literature in America. During his life, he wrote 19 novels and more than 120 short stories and articles. Many of his works are considered as treasures of the history of American novel literature and have a great impact on the western literary world. European novels had special spirits and particular forms, and had an absolute advantage in that time until Faulkner had raised a trend of new novel innovation in American literature. William Faulkner is also regarded as a new symbol in that his novel is unique, full of distinctive local flavor and sense of place are also important characteristics of his novels. What's more, Faulkner has many innovations in the writing form, skills, narrative methods and so on. He can skillfully use stream of consciousness, reversal of time sequence, metaphor symbolisim and other ways to fulfill ups and downs of novels. After his death, the United States and other countries in the world recommended him very highly, and researches on his literary works gradually have become a scholarship.

*A Rose for Emily*, as Faulkner's most distinguished short story, is also Faulkner's masterpiece of absurdity, belongs to Faulkner's York series of novels and can be regarded as a masterpiece of American Southern Gothic novels. Besides, it reflects the Southern life under the historical background of the strong conflict between the old and the new order, as well as the psychological state of depression, contradiction and pain of the southerners through Faulkner’s huge distinctive local flavor and sense of place.

By showing a series of events that are not arranged according to a narrative time sequence, the novel vividly depicted the decline of an old era and showed readers the extremely miserable life of a noble and prominent Southern lady, Emily, who is struggling for herself during her whole life under the patriarchal system and identity background. Emily, the heroine of the novel, though noble and beautiful, behaves strangely and has an aloof personality. When Miss Emily was young, she lived in the shadow of her father who had a strong desire for control and possession. In order to maintain the noble family, her father drove out Emily's suitors. Under the excessive control of her father, she can only peep into the outside world and imagine fantasy love. After her father's death, Emily fell in love with "Yankee" Homer but caused the severe criticisms from people. At last, Emily poisoned her lover due to his abandonment and she has taken up the corpse for 40 years. It wasn't until Miss Emily's death that people in the Jefferson opened her bedroom that the truth was uncovered.

With a quirky twist, this novel is full of doubts and symbols, and the root lies in the ingenious design of the narrative structure of the novel. In this short story, Faulkner skillfully uses the writing techniques such as reversal of time sequence, Gothic suspense and so on, which made his novel to be studied and discussed by many critics constantly, is absolutely enough to illustrate its unique charm and important position. In this paper, it illustrates and analyzes the characters of Miss Emily from the perspective of narration which including the aspects of narrative time, narrative perspective and symbolic metaphor.
II. ANALYSIS OF NARRATIVE TIME

Abbot, H.P. explains the relationship between narrative and time, and on this basis, distinguishes the leading concepts of "clock time" and "narrative time" (Abbott, H. P., 2004). In this novel, the most amazing thing is the application of anachrony. Thus, when reading "A Rose for Emily" for the first time, readers often feel scattered and confused by the disordered narrative time and complicated time network because Faulkner employed the technique of anachrony subtly in the novel to trace Emily who lived in past and pondered with psychological time, which covers the novel with mystery and doubts.

Genette, a French literary critic once defined the concept and relationship of "story time" and "discourse time", and put forward several patterns of time sequence, such as narration and pre-narration, which fulfill the narrative time a systematic concept. Meanwhile, he divided the narrative time sequence into two categories: narrative time and story time. (Genette Gerard, 1983). Narrative time refers to the time state of the story content in the narrative text, namely, the process of narrative story. It is changeable, unpredictable and subjective according to the author's intention. It is designed to promote the development of plot, to show the characters' psychology and to reflect the purpose of writing. However, the story time sequence refers to the natural time sequence from the beginning to the end of a story, that is, the process of the development of the "story" content. It's given, unchangeable and objective. The inconsistency between the narrative time and story time is called anachrony, which is a subtle narrative style in the narrative time.

In the novel A Rose for Emily, there are some important events listed according to the narrative time: 1. Emily's funeral; 2. Old mayors remitted taxes; 3. New mayors visiting for tax; 4. The strange smell; 5. Father's death; 6. Lover's deserted; 7. Sprinkle's time; 8. Father drove young man away; 9. Fell in love with Homer; 10. Bought poison; 11. Homer's back; 12. Homer's corpse. In the novel, story time which reflects the whole story as follows: 8, 5, 9, 6, 11, 10, 4, 7, 2, 3, 1, 12.

(SHEN Danyan, ZHAO Haiping, 2018)

From this chart, it's clear to find that Faulkner's narrative style of dislocation of time in his novels is incisively and vividly used. The novel completely forms a narrative circle. It begins with Emily's burial and also ends with Emily's funeral. Time traces to the past from present, then to the past, finally returns to the present, thus forming a complete narrative circle. The whole story is closely linked, which attracts readers to conduct in-depth excavation, to find out the root cause of Emily's tragedy.

Besides, the death of Emily's father is the turning point of the novel. Starting from Emily's funeral, the author recounts the event of the delegation's tax collection which is before Emily's death. Then, the author goes back to the past again, tells the reason why Emily's family had no tax to pay in Jefferson, which explained the noble and prominent background of the past Southern aristocracy. Next, the author tells Emily's father's death and it also reveals her father's huge influence on Miss Emily. So far, the author has adopted several flashbacks, which forms the first half of the novel. The latter half of the novel starts from the death of Emily's father and ends with Emily's funeral. Finally, the whole story ends abruptly with the discovery of the corpse.

In short, the narrative order of the novel is generally from the present to the past, and then from the past to the present. The beginning of the story echoes the ending page, which forms a closed ring structure. In the novel, each part seems to be atactic and isolated, but after readers' careful consideration, the past and the present are intertwined with each others, which reveals the exquisite conception and layout of the author. As the story wane to the close, all kinds of suspense and mysteries are revealed and disclosed one after another. Besides, the meticulously designed structure and subtle plot are presented one by one, which made readers cathartic and hearty. Readers can not only immerse themselves in the tragic plots presented in the novel, but also feel strong psychological collision and spiritual shock.

At the same time, some profound elements in this novel such as society, social system, human psychology and spirit are also displayed in the novel, which makes the readers feel that the author has been trying to reconstruct the past in the intersection of reality and the past, and return to the former glory of the south that most southerners are addicted to. Emily is deeply immersed in the past constantly, whether the privilege of the southern aristocracy or the refusal to accept her father's death or the occupation of the corpse to retain love. She is so hateful and pitiful that although she hopes to maintain the glory of the past and looks forward to loving, she is trapped by the shackles of social morality and patriarchy and finally cannot get rid of the tragic fate.

With the use of the narrative style of the dislocation of time, the novel reflects the disordered and morbid psychological changes and spiritual world of Emily, and further embodies the profound tragedy of the protagonist and the author's lament for the social facts that caused the tragedy in highlighting the time theme. (XIAO Huangyang, 2018)

III. THE ANALYSIS OF NARRATIVE PERSPECTIVE

This story adopts the first person narrative, also known as "subjective narrative point of view", which is considered as "limited character narrative perspective". In this story, the author records the important events of Miss Emily's life with "our" eyes, narrates her life to the readers in the identity and perspective of "us", and presents Emily's tragedy to the readers by "our" acts.

At first, the novel mentioned that Miss Emily had died and the whole town went to the funeral. We regarded Emily as "Emily had been a tradition, a duty, and a care; a sort of hereditary obligation upon the town". (William Faulkner, 1990)

After her death, people "through a sort of respectful affection for a fallen monument". (William Faulkner, 1990).
After her father’s death, we feel sorry and regret for Miss Emily's loneliness and lament "Poor Emily". People respect Emily and sympathize with Emily. She doesn’t even have to pay taxes in Jefferson, because she was once a noble in the south. Even if the new mayor comes, when they ask Miss Emily to pay taxes, they are always polite and generous.

When the strange smell came out of her house, the Judge thought "it is indecent to accuse a lady to her face of smelling bad"(William Faulkner, 1990), so they sneaked into Emily's yard in the dark and sprinkled lime instead of blaming her. Besides, to reader’s surprise, Miss Emily was able to buy the arsenic to kill Homer even though she refused to give a reason.

From the perspective of the first person narrative, it shows people's respect and admiration for Miss Emily's identity and status, but not for herself. Miss Emily has a strange and peculiar personality. She lives lonely in her lonely mansion and never deals with others, but her legendary life must be told by an observant insider. The narrator "we", who is familiar with the local customs and also knows the southern traditions as well, represents the residents of Jefferson town and is an ideal narrator. So her stories are all told by "we", because "we" are in curiosity and always peep at her, and peep at her life changes from a distance. (ZHANG Yi, 2017).

However, when Emily fell in love with a construction Yankee and wanted to marry him, our attitude changed. All the people in the town think it's immoral, and women begin to say that "it was a disgrace to the town and a bad example to the young people". (William Faulkner, 1990) When she bought poison, people even thought "it would be the best thing". (William Faulkner, 1990)At this moment, the narrator “we” has become the representative of Southern morality and social order in the late 19th century and the early 20th century. On the one hand, "we" regard Emily as a belief, so her words and deeds must conform to the standards of the aristocracy. If she violates this standard, she is the opposite of the standard. What "we" are? We are not only the residents of the town, but also the social shackles of Miss Emily.

A Rose for Emily seems eerie, scary and unbelievable, but it’s much more reliable from residents’ words. It’s easy and clear for readers to feel the change of the attitude of the town residents towards Emily at a glance. People in the town never care about Emily's life, marriage and happiness at all. The indifference is expressed vividly through the first person narrative perspective. Thus, it tells the readers that the root of Emily's tragedy is not herself, but "us", which represents the southern Puritan society.

By using the first person narrative perspective, not only does the author narrate Emily's story, but also narrates the indifferent social background. Through the attitude of the town residents towards Emily, Faulkner strongly criticized the intolerance and vulgarity of southern society.

### IV. Symbolic Metaphor

Metaphor is a kind of literary phenomenon, which is a kind of creation of language. The metaphor in literary works is different from the implication, but it is a kind of language expression combined with the background of the works, the life of the author, the plot of the characters in the works and so on and it’s the deep connotation of literary works. Symbolism and metaphor are closely related in that metaphor is the basis of symbolism, whether in the form of means of expression or ultimate meaning, and in specific works, symbols and metaphor often exist at the same time, because the expression of symbol is the most important means of metaphor.

#### A. The Symbolic Metaphor of Jefferson Town

A Rose for Emily is a series of stories about Miss Emily, a noble who lived in Jefferson town after the outbreak of the civil war in the United States. The main plots of the story are all in Jefferson town, which show the tortuous process of the capital system replacing the Southern plantation system in the United States and the traditional culture of the South and the northern culture. Meanwhile, the values have experienced tremendous impact and transformation, and the new and old systems have been in constant conflict and struggle. Jefferson town is just like a closed container, which is the epitome of the complex society in the transformation period of the United States. It is closed by various figures representing the new and old systems, and constantly presents the story of the conflict between the culture and values of the north and the south.

#### B. The Symbolic Metaphor of the House

The house, which is dark and shabby, is the heritage left to Emily by the declining gradually aristocratic family, which witnessed the gradual decline of glory and then became also a cage left by her father and her family and imprison Emily's spirit and body. Emily's house not only symbolizes the downfall of noble families after their past glory but also does symbolize the decline of the old southern tradition of sin, decay and decline, meanwhile, this house is a cage, which imprisons the happiness of her whole life.

When Emily's father was alive, he prevented all men who attempted to pursue and marry his daughter and stopped his daughter from escaping their house, the cage. Father's excessive desire for control filled the whole house until it opened briefly after the appearance of the northern man, Homer. Emily rushed out of the cage recklessly and fell in love with the northern man suddenly. However, Emily found that Homer did not intend to marry her. Their love and her freedom instantly destructed, so she poisoned her lover and accompanied her body for 40 years. When Emily poisoned and killed her lover, the cage of the white wooden house was finally closed. With this closed space, she can stick to her traditional ideas, life style and stubborn Love. The white wooden house is just like a cage built by the rotten plantation
system, which isolates Emily from the emerging industrial civilization outside, which means that the aristocracy's morbid maintenance of social status. This cage forever trapped her lover with her love and the noble thoughts she maintains, but at the same time, it always locks her soul.

C. The Symbolic Metaphor of the Rose

Rose originally symbolizes happiness, love and all good things in western culture. But in this Gothic Novel which is full of quirks and mysteries, readers cannot find a rose except in the end of the novel "the valance curtains of faded rose color, upon the rose-shaded lights"(William Faulkner,1990) are used. So, what kind of rose is this? What’s the symbolism of "rose". Although the "Rose" has never appeared, it symbolizes the pursuit and attachment of good things in people's hearts. May Emily once met love, but it was just like a flower that was fleeting and suddenly lost its color. This title in fact was an open title which the author showed sympathy for Emily and wished a Rise for Emily.

The eager for love, which had been suppressed in her heart for a long time, not only did not dissipate with the passage of time, but became intenser, she had to take her only and extreme way to keep her lover -- poisoning him and keeping his body. Many people accuse her of cruel and abnormal behavior, but when we read that "upon the delicate array of crystal and the man's toilet things backed with tarnished silver....."(William Faulkner, 1990), we can not only feel her deep feeling, her persistence and her pain and the deep and twisted love.

Emily has never stopped fighting against her fate and the cage which trapped her whole life, though she has been hesitating and despairing, she has become a symbol of spiritual strength, patience and tenacity in Faulkner's works. Faulkner deeply sympathizes with her. Miss Emily finally broke away from the shackles of time and space, and won the memory of a rose, that is, this well-known novel. And she, with extreme restraint and perseverance, lights up human nature, just like the rose blooming in the hearts of the author and readers.

V. ANALYSIS OF EMILY’S CHARACTERS

The novel is a kind of literary genre which focuses on portraying characters, reflects social life through complete plot and specific environment description, or reflects social life through plot expansion and the environment rendering. (Rimmon-Kenan, Sholmith, 2002) Thus, the center of the novel lies in describing characters and narrating stories and reveals some essence of social life by shaping typical characters, so as to express the theme to be reflected. It is the way to express the theme to create the character image. The civil war is the specific historical scene of the narrative main line and suggested to the readers that Emily's misfortune should be attributed more to the whole southern society at that time than to herself. (YUAN Xiuping, 2014)

The dexterous narration of the heroine’s image is one of the essential highlights in the success of this novel. Emily is not only a bright spot in this novel, but also a contradictory existence. Instead of being the traditional female mode of humility, forbearance, gentleness and selflessness, she is aloof, rebellious, conceited and stubborn. She is indifferent, estranged, and isolated and abides by the southern lady etiquette. Miss Emily lives by clinging to her conviction and she ignores successfully in her life all the testimony of her senses. She refuses to pay the taxes because she is convinced that Colonel Sartoris is still alive. (CHANG Wenge, CHE Qianqian, 2016) She refuses to bury her father because she believes that he is not dead. She accepts the advances of Homer Barron perhaps because she thinks he truly loves her. She kills Homer Barron maybe because she judges it the best way to ensure a faithful and lasting marriage. And she sleeps beside the dead Barron because to her he is still living. She must have been lonely, helpless and despairing. What the author showed us is always Emily who is arrogant and hard to get close to because she did not confide or vent to anyone, she was a dignified lady in the south, and she wanted to protect her image and family honor.

However, from the time circle, her father's death is the turning point of the whole story and the whole story has been reconstructing the past. The future of this story is empty in the story as well as Emily's future. Before her father died, she was forced to stay in the mansion, her father drove away all the pursuers. Grown up without mother, Emily regarded her sturdy father as her only guardian and emotional reliance. According to Freud, a famous psychologist, such stable reliance once broke, girls will be in great depression and feel being abandoned. So when her father died, Emily didn’t allow her father buried, believing that he was still alive. For Emily, father was everything. The death of father drove away all her hope, belief and attachment to southern civilization. In this extremely lonely environment, Emily had a morbid value for her father's company, so she thought that her father didn't die, she would not let go of the past. That may help explain the reason why she murdered Homer Barron. Loving with Homer means a betrayal of southern civilization which her father valued most. Emily chosen to poison her lover in order to stick to southern values and make her love towards Homer permanent just like her attachment towards father. In the face of love, Emily also despises social class and moral concepts, shows a strong sense of self and autonomy in love, which makes her abandon the duties and responsibilities she always believed in, even the family honor but the price of love is heavy and sorrow.

She would not pay taxes because she didn't at past; she slept with the corpse, which indicated a freak attachment to the past. People never conquer time in any way, but Emily tries to conquer time, and she extricate herself to stay in the past world, which shows the strong nostalgia of the hero for the past and the vanity that she wants to keep the past, she wants to control the time and hold the beauty she might have gotten, but finally she lost sense of linear time, living in subjective time and getting trapped in timeless black hole.

Since her father's death is the turning point of the whole time circle, Emily's tragedy still lies in her ruthless father.
Emily's father is a loyal defender of traditional southern morality and a firm executor of Lady education. "Miss Emily a slender figure in white in the background, her father a spraddled silhouette in the foreground, his back to her and clutching a horsewhip, the two of them framed by the back-flung front door." (William Faulkner, 1990) clearly shows her and her father’s connection.

Emily’s high-ranking father thought that her daughter was the purest lady, and what kind of young man was not worthy of her noble daughter. Thus, he drove away all the suitors with a whip, cut off Emily's love bud, put on the shackles of the old southern traditiona morality for Emily, stubbornly tied her daughter to her side, and became her only dependence. After his death, all the property he left to his daughter was a house symbolizing family status, and he continued to control her spirit. That is to say, this house has trapped Emily all her life, deprived Emily of the nutrient she needs for her growth - social connection, leaving her with nothing in mind. Emily's father personally buried the happiness of her daughter’s life, driving her daughter in despair to madness and destruction step by step. As Faulkner said, "her life is likely to be destroyed by a selfish father." (William Faulkner, 1990)

VI. CONCLUSION

From the narrative point of view, this paper makes a brief analysis of the plot and characters of the short novel *A Rose for Emily*, which enables readers to interpret morality and humanity in a specific way. Readers are more capable of understanding the text and how the reading process participates in the formation of meaning thanks to the reader-response theory. *A Rose for Emily* is not a conventional text that explicitly expresses its ideas, and even more unorthodox that readers have to participate in the reading process and produce their own understanding based on these segments written by William Faulkner.

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The Cultivation of Intercultural Communicative Competence in Senior High School English Teaching—Based on China’s Standards of English Ability

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Abstract—Intercultural communicative competence is a prerequisite for students in senior high school to have a smooth communication with foreigners in the future. This paper discusses the current situation of students’ ICC through questionnaires and then analyzes students’ ICC problems respectively. In doing so, this paper offers some tentative teaching methods and hopes to cultivate students’ intercultural communicative competence under the guidance of the China’s Standards of English Ability.

Index Terms—intercultural communicative competence, high school teaching, the China’s standards of English ability

I. INTRODUCTION

At present, China is a fast developing country in the world so that cultural exchanges are increasingly more frequent than before. Needless to say, China is in a bad need to enhance its citizens’ English level to achieve successful intercultural communications because English is the very language used among different countries. As Alptekin (2002) mentioned the international communication in English “involves native-heral and nonnative-heral discourse participants”, it is widely admitted that intercultural communication is an important part of teaching English as a foreign language. Actually, from colleges to primary schools even some kindergartens, educational organizations spare no efforts to practice the English language teaching. However, the result of English teaching is far from satisfactions and cannot meet the real communicative need. Among many obvious problems, the biggest problem of English teaching lies in: cultural teaching is often ignored in the teaching process so that intercultural cultural competence of students is poorly developed. This is often a problem in the senior high school: most students who are good at exam grades still cannot communicate well with other people. What’s worse, they even don’t know the basic cultural facts of other counties and cultural perceptions as well as symbol systems during communicative process.

Luckily, many English experts have realized this problem and studied theoretical and practical aspects about intercultural communicative competence in colleges. Nevertheless, they are seldom aware of the intercultural communicative competence of senior high school students in that they believe that students should contribute much time and energy to learn English knowledge (such as vocabulary, sentence and passage) rather than cultural related knowledge and competence in senior high school. As a result, there are not many systematic studies on senior high school students’ cultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence. In fact, except Teaching Syllabus for English Majors and College English Course Teaching Requirement, the Ministry of Education has promulgated culture sensitivity, cultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence as objectives in the New English Curriculum Standard (published in 2003). In 2011, the Curriculum raised this concept: students’ cross-cultural communication awareness became a hot topic of English teaching, but senior high school English teaching still placed little importance on cultural teaching. Now that the newly issued China’s Standards of English Language Ability (2018) once again proposed the requirement of cultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence in the English teaching process, it has already become an extremely urgent problem to seek the new and effective teaching methods.

As William Littlewood (1981) pointed that the primary goal of language teaching is to develop the ability to use the proper and real language to interact with others, one of the ultimate goal of English teaching in senior high school should help students to acquire the ability to perform a repertoire of intercultural acts. Therefore, the English teaching in senior high school needs to combine the knowledge of English and the communicative competence together. To sum up, this paper is firstly to interpret some key terms such as language and culture, cultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence; Then it will use some questionnaires to learn the current situation of senior high school students’ intercultural communicative competence and discuss the underlying reasons; Lastly, this paper will propose...
some effective teaching methods based on the China’s Standards of English Ability to cultivate students’ intercultural communicative competence.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Language and Culture (Their Relationship and Its Pedagogical Implication)

Language is an integral part of culture and it is the carrier of culture. It is not exaggerating to say that most languages are constrained in culture and language could help to preserve a culture through its customs, beliefs and values, so the complicated relationship between them has become a major concern in linguistic field and teaching field especially in English teaching as a foreign language. According to Byram (1989), “language invariant refers to their knowledge and perception of the world, the concepts of culture, and cultural learning”, that is to say, culture is the basic core of language learning and language teaching can hardly take place without implicitly teaching culture of language users. From the understanding of inextricable relationship between language and culture, it is obvious that the focus of English teaching should shift from the mere grammatical knowledge to cultural knowledge as well as communicative competence. In order to carry out a smooth intercultural communication, Chastain (1976), another famous linguist, clarifies this view that intercultural communication not only depends on language skills but also on the comprehension of cultural habits and expectations, so teachers in senior high school need to teach students what to say (or behave) and how to say (or behave) on different occasions to ensure that fewer problems will arise during the intercultural communication. What’s more, language experts (such as Thomas) suggest that teachers should help students to attention to appropriateness in intercultural communication and develop a kind of intercultural awareness besides learning cultural facts.

B. Intercultural Awareness (Its Pedagogical Implications)

When it comes to the term intercultural awareness, it is necessary to learn the term “awareness”. Freeman (1989) offered this definition: “Awareness is the capacity to recognize and monitor the attention one is giving or has given to something”. Literally, awareness means a kind of ability of realizing something unknown before and being cognizant of something beneath the surface. When it refers to the cultural communication, it is not easy for nonnative speakers to realize the difference at a deep level. In this sense, language speakers need to form a cultural awareness (sensitivity) to the impact of culturally-induced behavior on language use and communication. For teachers, while teaching language, teachers also need help students to develop an ability to observe cultural differences and form a correct attitude to these differences. Furthermore, cultural awareness is correlated with both linguistic and non-linguistic dimensions of culture and it fosters the development of intercultural awareness. Different from cultural awareness, intercultural awareness attaches more importance to achieve multicultural mind-set, which includes both the native culture and target culture. The intercultural awareness prefers to deal with the relationship (interaction) between the two cultures compared with the cultural awareness whose focus is on the similarities and differences. According to Chen & Starosta (1998) and Bennett (1993), intercultural awareness can be defined as “a positive drive to understand, appreciate and accommodate cultural differences and form an appropriate and effective behavior in intercultural communication”, the intercultural awareness is not born with speakers but a developmental one which needs to be picked up during the teaching process. In addition, intercultural awareness mainly examines how people feel about and make sense of people who are culturally different, so the intercultural competence is an underlying factor which supports the intercultural competence and forms effective intercultural communication. Generally speaking, intercultural awareness can be analyzed from three aspects: affective aspects, behavioral aspects and cognitive aspects, which just corresponds to the same three aspects of intercultural competence. For pedagogical implications, teachers need to be clear about one fact that intercultural awareness is not simply based on culture learning and also needs to arouse learners’ attitudes along with intentions to other cultures. In doing so, teachers need to develop learners’ critical thinking and tolerance to other cultures.

C. Intercultural Communicative Competence

Scholars and educators all over the world have made lots of achievements on the study of intercultural communicative competence so far, but there is still no consensus on this topic. This paper will try to make a conclusion about the definition and analyze its dimensions on the basis of other famous scholars’ studies.

1. Theoretical and Practical Studies of ICC Abroad

At first, intercultural communication research originated from Hall’s masterpiece--The Silent Language (1959) and since then intercultural communication study flourished in American land. In 60s and 70s of last century, more works about intercultural communicative competence appeared and some professional courses were opened in universities. It was worth mentioning that some books published in 1970s still had a significant influence on today’s study, such as International Communication: A Reader (Larry Samovar & Richard Porter, 1972). In 1980s, the study of intercultural communicative competence became more popular than before because many influential scholars joined in this research, so the intercultural communicative competence became an interdisciplinary study including different approaches. Since the 2000s, the study of intercultural communicative competence still continues to receive attentions from many scholars, but there is no agreement on the definition and framework of ICC. Albeit there are debates on it, intercultural
communicative competence is simply described as the ability to communicate effectively and properly with people from diverse linguistic and cultural background. In recent researches, it is generally agreed that there are three core elements about it: affect, behavior and cognition or knowledge. Many scholars develop some models to cultivate the intercultural communicative competence among overseas students and gain some achievements. Even if it may not be fit for the reality in China, it still provides some useful hints for Chinese foreign language teaching.

2. Theoretical and Practical Studies of ICC in China

Compared with studies abroad, studies of intercultural communicative competence in China start late and are not as rich as studies abroad, but it is helpful for Chinese foreign language teaching. As early as 1980s, some educators had devoted to the research and pointed out that language learning was as important as culture learning and both of them should be written in teaching syllabus. Moreover, teachers need to be aware that cultural difference will influence the result of intercultural communication so that teachers need to develop the intercultural communicative competence in class. In the mid-1980s, some colleges began to offer some intercultural communication courses and did some researches among colleges. In 1988, Professor Hu Wenzhong published the first book about intercultural communication in domestic English teaching which opened the new path for studies of ICC in China. Later, a series of books written by Hu and his colleagues discussed about the cultural differences between Chinese and English in order to develop students’ ICC in English class. Other Chinese scholars like Zhang Hongling (2007) also thought that ICC had three elements: attitude, knowledge and behavior, which corresponded to the terms abroad. Attitudes equals to affective layer which means that the tolerance to different cultures, the deep understanding of own culture and respect to other culture; Behavior equals to behavior layer which means that linguistic competence, nonverbal competence and an ability to deal with the relationship; Knowledge equals to cognitive layer which means that knowledge about economy, religion, politics, geography, customers and values of own country and target country. In China, although many theories have been put forward, there are few empirical studies in senior high school. Thereby, studies regarding the development of ICC in senior high school have been highlighted because all-round individual development also includes the development of ICC.

3. Some Conclusions from the Studies Home and Abroad

Studies at home and abroad shared the common definition and the teaching goal of intercultural communicative competence is concerning about the ability to communicate appropriately. Nevertheless, ICC is a complicated and advanced competence, so it is necessary to plan ICC teaching content more specifically and design proper requirements for different stages of teaching including primary and middle schools. Only can teachers be aware of the importance of ICC, students can be good language users.

III. SURVEY AND ANALYSIS ON HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS’ ICC

This paper will adopt some questionnaires to investigate the current situation of the students’ ICC; then the paper will analyze the survey to gain some findings for teaching.

Survey

In this survey, 100 students are elected from a key middle school in Z city which is located in Sichuan province. These students are in Grade 11 because they have finished their study in one year and are familiar with the teaching procedure compared with students in Grade 10. These students are divided into 6 groups based on their language proficiency, that is, below 90, then 90-100, 100-110, 110-120, 120-130 and then more than 130. The first table is designed like this. (the basic situation of students)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<td>50</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major Type</td>
<td>Art</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Science</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Proficiency</td>
<td>Below 90</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90-100</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100-110</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>110-120</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>120-130</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>above</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before opening the ICC related questionnaire, it is interesting to investigate the relationship between intercultural awareness and language competence in that many people believe that students with high language proficiency should be a good learner with high intercultural awareness. The questionnaire one (Appendix I) is adapted from K. Cushner’s Inventory of Cross- Cultural Sensitivity (Cushner 1997) and includes 10 questions to test students’ intercultural awareness. During the survey, students are divided into two groups regarding their scores (above 110 and below 110). According to Crushner, the point is divided into these levels: 30-90, 91-150, 151-210. The following table is the result:
From the table, here are some findings: 1) both of the two groups are low in the intercultural awareness; two in thirds of them have low points and only of few of them get high points. 2) It is interesting to find that students in Group B still can get high points in the Intercultural Awareness survey. This result indicates that students are weak in intercultural awareness and there is no strong correlation between intercultural awareness and language competence which has been represented by the exam scores. In other words, students at each level are lacking in this awareness which is harmful for their future language learning, so it is urgent to improve students’ intercultural awareness in the high school English. The relationship between the intercultural awareness and language competence verifies the truth: the cultivation of intercultural awareness has to be integrated into the whole teaching process.

The next survey will be related to students’ intercultural communicative competence, which mainly examines the affective, behavioral and cognitive dimensions of ICC in English learning. Students are required to finish a questionnaire (Appendix II) about three dimensions, and each dimension contains five items to each one. In the cognitive dimension part, the item is merely about general topics: literature in English, mass media of English speaking countries, political situation of these countries along with religions in these countries and so on. This part is mainly about some basic knowledge about English speaking countries and most of them appear in textbooks. In the affective dimension part, the item is usually about speaker’s positive attitude to intercultural communication. On the basis of Byram (1997), this dimension includes willingness to have opportunities to open intercultural communication, to tolerate the difference, to understand and respect cultural differences. Therefore, this part involves willingness, openness, and tolerance to intercultural communication. In the behavioral dimension, the item consists of verbal and nonverbal behaviors. Farewells, compliments, and greetings belong to verbal part, while body language and facial expressions are included in non-verbal part. Based on the Wang zhenya (1994), the questionnaire makes some adaptations to meet the reality of Chinese high school students. In the real communicative process, non-behavioral dimension will further clearly explain students’ communicative competence so there is an extra questionnaire designed for testing it.

From the survey, it can be seen that students can’t master the basic knowledge well as teachers expected. Although this knowledge appears in the textbook, teachers just mention it as a lead-in background without more deep explanations. After reviewing these surveys, it is an undeniable fact that students are curious about the western culture but they are poor in many aspects including the legends and even idioms in English because they only accept the reading material exercises rather than literature learning.

From the survey, it is easily to find that students in high school have a positive attitude to intercultural communication and have a certain extent of tolerance to other people from other counties. However, these answers also indicate a problem that students are unfamiliar with foreign values so sometimes they will adopt their own values to judge the context and make an inappropriate judgment. During the intercultural communication, students need to learn more about other cultures and form an objective attitude to foreign culture.

From the survey, it is shown that behavioral dimension is the worst part of students’ intercultural communicative
competence because the error percentage is up to 80%. Here are two reasons accounting for it: one is that students lack the opportunity to practice it in the real context; another one is the influence of Chinese culture. In other words, students prefer to use Chinese communicative strategies to do communications, which need to be altered in the following teaching process.

IV. IMPLICATIONS FOR THE CULTIVATION OF ICC IN HIGH SCHOOL TEACHING

From the previous analysis of dimensions of ICC, a major problem arising from the intercultural communicative competence is the indifference to ICC teaching in the high school so it is necessary to strengthen it in the English class. This part will discuss some pedagogical suggestions for improving ICC based on the China’s Standards of English Ability. Since the CSE has been promulgated in 2018, more specific requirements are elaborated in the CSE so that the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence has been integrated into each part in the CSE.

A. The Infusion of Cultural Content

From the survey, one obvious problem is that there is a lack of relevant cultural content in the high school English class. Actually, the CSE clearly points that the reading content for the level of high school students should be comprised of economy, politics and culture of English-speaking countries which lay the foundation for the intercultural communication. In other words, teachers should provide enough cultural content to students other than only to pay attention to grammar or exams because students are often lacking in the substantial study about foreign cultures, which is of no help for intercultural communication. As mentioned in the former part, culture and language is intertwined with each other so language teaching in current class needs to be changed into culture teaching.

In the light of the complicated dimension of culture, teachers should know what to teach at the high school level. Firstly, the very essence of cultural content needs to be closely associated with the interests of students such as: holiday, school life, food, family life, films and so on. Secondly, during the teaching process, teachers need to be attention to the vocabulary part due to the great differences between English words and Chinese words. On one hand, vocabulary is the basic of language understanding; On the other hand, different connotations between these words will lead to a big divergence in the communication. Take red for example; red usually refers to a positive side in Chinese while in English it often means the negative side. In particular, the CSE definitely explains that students should own a decoding ability for vocabulary usage in the target language environment.

B. The Methods of Cultural Infusion

In order to cultivate the ICC of students, it is very important to adopt proper methods to implement ICC teaching at school. First, students in high school have some different characters in learning different from adults; in addition they cannot have an access to communicating with foreigners face to face so it is necessary to build simulation environment for students to practice. From the survey, it is known to us that the behavioral dimension is weakest part in the intercultural communicative competence so the emphasis of practice will largely improve their competence. Second, teachers in class must change the traditional teaching methods. Besides books, teachers may make full use of the internet, TV and other electronic materials to raise their interest in English and improve their communicative competence. Third, in the instructing process, teachers need to adopt cultural empathy principle. While learning English, teachers need to instruct native culture as well as target culture so that students could do the comparison and understand other cultures in their shoes. In the CSE, one rule of pragmatics requires high school students to understand other culture and could discuss with other people from target culture so the concept of comparison is in badly need in the class.

V. CONCLUSION

Intercultural communicative competence can’t be built in one day so it needs to be carried through the whole learning process. In the teaching process, teachers must change the traditional concepts and bring the culture instruction into the class. The purpose of the CSE is to train the comprehensive ability of students and instruct students to a full man so owning the intercultural communicative competence is a prerequisite for it. Students in high school are flexible to accept new things so they can quickly master the intercultural communicative competence under the correct guidance.

APPENDIX ONE. QUESTIONS ABOUT YOUR INTERCULTURAL AWARENESS

In this part, you need to write down your level of agreement with each statement and there are not right or wrong answers.
APPENDIX TWO. INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

In this survey, there are 15 items concerning about your intercultural communicative competence. Please answer it based on your understanding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>1=strongly disagree</th>
<th>7=strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I avoid people who are different from me.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td>Your Choice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I think people are simply alike.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I enjoy studying with people from different cultures.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel uncomfortable when in the crowd of other people.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I want to live in other culture.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I dislike the food from other cultures.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I like listening other countries’ music at regular basis.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It makes me nervous when I talk with foreigners.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I can use knife and fork to eat food.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I can accept the culturally marriage.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5 6 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

APPENDIX THREE. THE THIRD QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT ICC

In this part, students are required to answer the following ten questions. Each question describes a non-verbal behavior in intercultural communication. Read each question and check whether the underlined part is appropriate and inappropriate.

1. If you want to visit your British friend, you can do it before lunch.
2. If you are invited to a host family while you are abroad, you can bring a bundle of flowers to the hostess.
3. At a dinner, you can **begin to eat when the hostess picks up her spoon.**
4. You don’t need to give some tip to the girl who shows your seat in the restaurant in the UK.
5. When you feel ill and want to see a doctor, you needn’t make an appointment in the U.S.
6. When you give your hostess a gift, you needn’t remove the wrapping paper first.
7. In the English speaking countries, you usually first introduce a man to a woman, not the other way round.
8. You think that Tom is a strange person who usually takes a cold bath.
9. It is more polite to type the letter of invitation than to write them in pen.
10. You needn’t stand up when you see a lady come to you.

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Reaching Self-actualization in Education: Construction and Validation of a Hierarchical Scale

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Abstract—The present study aimed to adapt and validate the Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs in the EFL settings of Iranian universities. A review of the related literature showed that there are very few studies on the application of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in learning contexts, especially that of foreign/second language classes. To do so, having revised and rephrased the items in the scale developed for Hierarchy of Needs, the researcher made sure of the content validity and reliability of the revised version. Afterwards, the designed questionnaires were distributed among 271 learners of language studying at Ferdowsi, Imam Reza and Tabaran universities. The obtained data were then analyzed. Confirmatory factor analysis procedures were held to ensure the construct validity of the questionnaire. The designed scale was validated through certain statistical procedures. Confirmatory Factor Analysis and content validity procedures were done to ensure the validity of the scale. In addition to this, using Coranbach’s coefficient of reliability, the items and the scale as a whole were proven to be reliable. The significance of the work lies in the fact that the better an educator knows their own students, the better rapport they can establish with them. This can to a great extent improve the teaching and learning process in different contexts. It is to be said that this scale can be of great significance in any kinds of research in the field that deals with needs and expectations of students at different levels.

Index Terms—motivation, hierarchy of needs, Maslow’s theory, satisfaction, EFL context

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the humanistic perspective, the purpose of education, in general, is known to be providing a sound foundation for personal development, in a way that learning keeps going on throughout our life in automatic fashion. When we look at Maslow’s hierarchy and its eight stages, we can easily understand the impact, value and importance in what it can bring out in the educational process of students and their success. It is widely known that the better a teacher knows his/her own student, the better rapport he/she can establish with them. This can to a great extent improve the teaching and learning process. A challenge that most teachers deal with in English classes is to find out about the needs of their students. The present study aims to revise and validate the hierarchy of needs that was proposed by Maslow, through which we will be provided with significant information on the motivations and needs of students in an EFL setting. Accordingly, the research problems are presented, and the research questions are introduced. The main objective of this study is to establish an understanding of how best to proceed in studying this issue by gathering information and establishing a scale through a revision and validation process. There are numerous studies on the needs and motivations of students from different points of views. Consequently, several studies have also discussed the needs of people from the perspective of psychology. In this regard, it is to be mentioned that Maslow’s hierarchy of needs is actually used in different studies. However, there are very few, if any, studies on the application of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in classes, particularly foreign/second language classes in the framework of Maslow’s hierarchy. More importantly, students’ needs seem to be, to a great extent, neglected in research studies, especially those conducted in Iran.

Research Question:
1. Does the scale measuring Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in EFL learning contexts enjoy content validity?
2. Does the scale measuring Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in EFL learning contexts enjoy construct validity?
3. Is the revised scale measuring Maslow’s hierarchy of needs reliable?
4. Does one’s gender, learning background, age and score average of learners play any roles in the needs of students in EFL contexts?
5. What are the corresponding needs of students in English learning classrooms according to the revised Maslow’s hierarchy of needs?

II. THEORETICAL CONCEPTUALIZATION
Maslow claims that everybody is given a unique complement of needs which are needed to be met in his/her environment so as to guide him/her in a healthy, flourishing and progressive way. These needs are set in a hierarchical order showing individuals’ requirements in different stages (Maslow, 1954). Most importantly, Maslow believes that the needs which are at lower levels on the pyramid are to be met before the higher ones are achieved. Sumerlin and Charles (1998) explain “Maslow believed that self-actualizing people were healthier and lived more enriched lives than non-self-actualizing people”.

Maslow (1954) has directly mentioned this in his book as follows:

Physiological needs can be considered as the most fundamental needs of human; the kinds of needs and drives which are required for human survival. Among these we can mention shelter, breathing, water and food. Secondly, safety needs are the kind of needs which produce and also ask for a sort of stability and predictability in our lives, such as personal, emotional and financial security, health, employment, and access to resources. Love and belonging needs, which are after the safety, revolve around interpersonal relationships, social interactions, friendships, family relationships, and also feelings of intimacy. The forth one, which is esteem needs, shows our needs for gaining respect, self-esteem and the desire to belong.

Lastly, the peak of the pyramid which is self-actualization refers to the condition where a person attains as all former needs have been met. Maslow himself identified no fewer than fifteen different features that a self-actualized individual may face; therefore, the precise description for a “self-actualized” state is hard to recapitulate. From the characteristics, the following can be mentioned: reception of self, others and its environment, being spontaneous, as well as autonomous and at the same time independent from the surrounding environment and the culture.

As mentioned by Maslow, the needs, or lone may call it a step in the mentioned hierarchy, would be met in an orderly manner and serves the function of a motive so that the whole needs of a given individual are met in the last level which is called self-actualization. At the same time as Maslow put emphasis on that people are normally inspired to strive for a given need in the illuminated order which as he mentioned, is “not nearly as rigid as we may have implied” (p. 386) plus the fact that a number of people may look for meeting the needs in a dissimilar manner.

It is needed to be mentioned striving for prosperity which is gained through self-actualization calls for a wide range of qualities such as risk taking, inquisitiveness, goal-setting and creative thinking and curiosity (Sumerlin 1997). Sumerlin also mentioned some characteristics of the non-self-actualized individuals to be “being fearful, rigid, and unfulfilled” (Sumerlin 1997, 1102). Additionally, when people have reached Maslow's concept of self-actualization, they can "function within an environment of greatest challenge where full human capacity is required and where failures provide learning experience" (Sumerlin 1997, 1105). Maslow has elaborated on self actualization as a purpose of meeting all needs following this manner:

This concept is actually somebody’s aspiration to fulfill one’s self, which refers to their propensity to grow actualized in what they are capable of. In a person it can be in the form of an aspiration to be a perfect mom, or it may be conveyed physically, and in a different individual it shows itself in drawing or even inventing something (Maslow, 1943).

A. Significance of Maslow's Theory in Learning Environments

The theory of Maslow’s hierarchy can have a huge impact on learning contexts. So as to optimize the efficiency of school-wide and also classroom teaching programs, supervisors, teachers and managers are to take student needs into consideration. This is to be taken as a priority by authorities in order for students to be able to achieve their highest potential, that is self actualization.

B. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Having a more profound look into the mentioned theories which are related to different kinds of motivation, it becomes clear that there two kinds of motivation which are basic to all, namely extrinsic and intrinsic. Behaviors which are motivated from inside and are intrinsically propelled are seen when there is no other perceptible pay back except the mere action itself as stated by Deci (1975). In addition to Deci (1975), two other researchers have defined it as “what people will do without external inducement.” Malone and Lepper and Malone (1987). Instances of the former motivation can be a sense of accountability, hunger, even self-sacrifice, or a tendency to feel valued. On the other hand, behaviors which are extrinsically motivated are those in which the controlling mechanism can be easily seen (Deci, 1975). Instances of extrinsic motivation can be rules, rewards or money. Deci and Ryan (1985) suggested that intrinsically motivated behaviors are actually innate and they may bring about originality, suppleness, and impulsiveness but the kind of behavior which is extrinsically motivated occurs as a result of force and may yield little self-respect and nervousness. Nevertheless, the very realization of intrinsic or extrinsic actions has always been difficult to define (Scott, 1975; Guzzo, 1979). All aside, the act of distinguishing between these two types of motivation is a vitally crucial one because of their influence on one’s psyche, deeds and behaviors.

C. Expansion of Maslow’s Needs Hierarchy

Probably, the most famous researcher who has developed Maslow’s needs hierarchy into a “strong enunciation of the rudimentary expectations of the structural behavior viewpoint” (McGregor, 1957, p.133). Some notions of the manner in which the managers consider and treat their staff are brought up by McGregor (1957). A managerial supposition concerning employees is included in each theory. The most important point in McGregor’s theories probably is that
based on the common supposition, those beliefs are likely to be a completely satisfying prediction. Theory X considers employees as lazy, egocentric, foolish, and claims that guiding and dominating them is necessary. Managers with these suppositions believe that it is their responsibility to form their subordinates’ job. These suppositions can lead to suspicion and finally cause a malfunction in scale. Taylor (1911) and Simon (1997) have aligned this theory in their works as they focus on organizations as totally logical systems (Scott & Davis, 2007).

On the other hand, workers are viewed as capable, reasonable, and autonomous in Theory Y. They seek responsibility, are open to change, and desire improvement. Good work among managers with Theory Y supposition is believed to be motivating. Managers also tend to establish a more positive interpersonal relationship with their employees (McGregor, 1957).

Another theory called the motivation-hygiene theory is also developed by Hersberg (1968), who was influenced by Maslow and McGregor. In his theory, two dimensions of conditions are described: motivators and hygiene factors. Motivators, like Maslow’s needs in higher-level, are those that result in job satisfaction and are often connected to the work nature: sense of achievement, appreciation, responsibility, and growth. Motivators are internal elements that result in job satisfaction. Hygiene factors, On the other hand, more similar to the levels at lower levels do not actually yield satisfaction or motivation all the time, but somewhat are external and easily decrease the rate of job discontent. The policy of the corporation and management, direction, associations with managers, and labor circumstances are examples of hygiene factors.

So for example, an employee can be paid well, which is an external hygiene factor, and have good working conditions, and be satisfied. While, if she does not feel rewarded and challenged in her job, she might be dissatisfied and not motivated.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs was simplified into three categories by Clayton Alderfer (1972), an American psychologist influenced by Gordon Allport (1960, 1964): Maslow’s physiological and safety needs which are included in existence here; love and esteem are included in relatedness; and self-actualization is included in growth. Alderfer believed in his three categories, often abbreviated as ERG, more as a continuum instead of a strict hierarchy (Alderfer, 1969). Different people, in the ERG theory, are allowed to follow their needs at the same time and in a subjective order.

In his ERG theory, Alderfer emphasizes that if an individual’s higher-level need remains unsatisfied, as it is more difficult to achieve, that individual might settle for a needs which are down the scale and are actually more conveniently met. Commonly recognized as “the frustration-regression principle”, this shows itself in institutions in which an employee is frustrated with growth opportunities. Then they may start satisfying a lower level need like starting relationships with coworkers.

Some theorists believe that individuals have the same innate needs. On the other hand, David McClelland (1988) believes that a number of the mentioned needs vary in different people as these needs are often acquired; and a number of individuals have a higher level of a given need comparing to other people. It is thought that motivation is ignited in individuals based on three needs: achievement, power, and affiliation. The level of each need is different in each person and by combining them, they can explain what kind of motivation fits them.

If a worker’s high-level needs are achieved, they tend to do extremely well in their job and the recognition of their efforts is appreciated. Situations with an only small gain are avoided by them, as well as situations with a high risk of failure. Employees with higher affiliation needs are more worried about their social relationships. They prefer to fit in than to stand out. And finally, individuals with high power needs tend to dominate others in order to achieve their goals. They are less worried about being recognized or approved by others.

Although there are a lot of theories based on needs, it seems quite impossible to determine which one can truly represent human needs. A great number of researchers have tried to discover different types of human needs and while many of their theories overlap in many parts, they look too many to reach a complete agreement. There are also many other theories and associated theories that have not been outlined above.

III. Method

A. Participants

This study was conducted on 271 participants, the female participants outnumbered male ones (126 male students and 145 female students). They were asked to fill out the questionnaire specifying the truth value of each statement according to their cases. Participants who have had the experience in learning English at private institute were selected randomly from B.A. students of Ferdowsi University, Imam Reza University and Tabaran Institute of higher education majoring in English literature, all semesters included. The age of the participants is between 18 and 31.

B. Instrument

The Need Satisfactory Inventory (Lester, 1990) was used as the basis on which the research was held. It is in the form of questionnaire, evaluating individuals’ level of needs based on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs. The Need Satisfactory Inventory has five sections, each based on one level of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, namely physiological, safety, love and belonging, esteem, self-actualization. Each of these sections includes 8 or 7 statements stating relevant parameters to evaluate the need level of its subcategory.

A revised version of The Need Satisfaction Inventory (Lester, 1990) questionnaire was used as an instrument to carry
out this study. The revision was at the level of rewording and in some cases adapting some items to the English learning environment.

C. Data Collection Procedure

Data collection procedure took place in the first semester of the academic year 2014-2015. 200 participants, who were in different semesters of their studies, were randomly chosen from among those who had the experience of participating in English classes. This was assured by one of the introductory items in the questionnaire filled by the participants of the study. The participants with no experience in EFL classes and those with learning experience in ESL context were omitted.

D. Data Analysis Procedure

In order to analyze the data collected in this study, several criteria were to be met in the procedure of data analysis. To validate and demonstrate the reliability of the revised questionnaire of the need satisfaction inventory of needs (Lester; 1990) in EFL context, used in this study, the following procedure was carried out.

E. Content Validity

The requirement of the content validity to be met was one of the concerns of the research. As the content validity is prerequisite to construct validity, the genuine attempt was to consolidate the two efficient methods of evaluating the content validity.

1. Method 1: Average Congruency Percentage (ACP) (Popham, 1978)

This method was designed by Popham (1978) to evaluate the content validity based on experts computing the percentage of questions deemed to be relevant. The procedure is of two steps:

First: four experts (members of academic board of English faculty) were asked to rate the relevance of each item of the questionnaire in the form of percentage.

Second: the overall percentage of each expert over the questionnaire was calculated and then summed with the other experts’ estimate. If the condition of Value > 90% is met (the ACP = 90) it would demonstrate an appropriate level of content validity (as stated Popham, 1978).

2. Method 2: Content Validity Index (Martuza, 1977)

This method was designed by Martuza (1977). It aims to evaluate the content validity at two levels, for individual items and for the scale itself. The main focus of this study at this point was the content validity of the individual items (I-CVI). To this end, a panel of subject matter experts, five faculty members of English department, Ferdowsi university of Mashhad, were asked to comment on the relevance of each question on a 4-point Likert scale. All the experts were up to answering each item as 1=not relevant, 2= somewhat relevant, 3= relevant, 4= very relevant. Afterwards, the number of experts giving 3 or 4 (relevant and very relevant) is counted for each item. The proportion is calculated, a higher value given to an item, the better the likelihood of the content validity index for that individual item.

F. Construct Validity

As it required, the first attempt here was to run the Factor Analysis. Subsequently, the inter-relationship among items were examined empirically to detect data clusters sharing the adequate level of variation in order to explain their presence as a construct which can be tapped by the revised version on Need Satisfaction Inventory questionnaire used in this study. Having found the inter-relationship among items, and gathering the items with the same amount of variation into common factors, the relation between each item and factor was also measured.

To identify the underlying relationship between measured variables the techniques that have been used were the Exploratory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis. There are many topics being covered under each name of these methods. To have a clear definition of each, would be of great help here. As provided by Stevens (1996): Exploratory factor analysis is aimed at detecting the factor structure for a number of variables, including identification of the number of factors that are present, and the pattern which is shown through factor loadings.

G. Internal Consistency

Internal consistency is a measure based on the correlations between various items in the same test. As in this study the correlation between different levels of need in the revised questionnaire of Need Satisfaction Inventory (Lester 1990) was the main focus for the internal consistency, the Cronbach’s alpha was used as an estimate of consistency.

IV. RESULTS

A. Descriptive Statistics of Factors Underlying Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics of the factors underlying Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in EFL contexts i.e., Physiological needs, Safety and security, Love and belonging, Esteem, and Self-actualization.
The distribution of the items with regard to the five subscales is the following: Physiological needs (8 items), Safety and security (10 items), Love and belonging (7 items), Esteem (10 items) and Self-actualization (10 items).

B. Content Validity

As the content validity is prerequisite to construct validity, the genuine attempt was to consolidate the two efficient methods of evaluating the content validity. To do so, Average Congruency Percentage (ACP) (Popham, 1978) was employed and Content Validity Index (Martuza, 1977). As it was presented in the result section, both procedures revealed acceptable results (Value > 90%).

1. Average Congruency Percentage (ACP)

The first step in measuring the content validity is Average Congruency Percentage (ACP) designed by Popman (1978). This method evaluates the content validity of each statement in regard of its subcategory at to level. First four members of academic board of English faculty were asked to rate the relevance of each statement of the questionnaire in percentage form.

Second; the number of overall percentage of each expert over the questionnaire was estimated and summed with the other experts’. With the condition of Value > 90% being met (the ACP = 90) the appropriate level of content validity was demonstrated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expert</th>
<th>Average value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>88%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>96%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this phase, the researcher omitted 3 questions which were deemed to be irrelevant to the components specified. As well as this, the other questions were modified so as to meet a better rate of accuracy.

2. Method 2: Content Validity Index

This method which was designed by Martuza (1977) aims to evaluate the content validity, contrary to the first method, at two levels, for individual items and for the scale itself. The content validity of the individual items (I-CVI) is of more importance in this study. To do so, a panel of subject matter experts, five faculty members of academic board of English of Ferdowsi university of Mashhad, who also collaborated with the researcher in the former section, were asked to mark the relevance of each question on a 4-point Likert scale. All the experts were up to answering each item as 1=not relevant, 2= somewhat relevant, 3= relevant, 4= very relevant. Then the number of experts giving 3 or 4 (relevant and very relevant) was counted for each item in their categories. The proportion was calculated, a higher value given to an item, the better the likelihood of the content validity index for that individual item.

C. Reliability Statistics

In response to the third question, different reliability procedures were employed. The Coranbach’s Alpha coefficient, the result of which was as follows. As the study was conducted on 271 participants (126 male students and 145 female students), and they were asked to filled out the questionnaire specifying the truth value of each statement according to their cases, the reliability statistics of the questionnaires data are estimated by Coranbach’s Alpha on the 45 questions filled by the participants, which was .936 as follows

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>N of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.936</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As it is shown in the above table, the estimate of Cronbach’s Alpha of the total number of 45 items was .93, which indicates a high internal consistency of the items and the scale as whole.

Then the internal reliability of the 5 factors was also examined and they were as follow:
As it is seen, the reliability of the first factor, Physiological needs, which included 8 items, was .914; the reliability of the second factor, Safety and security, which included 10 items, was .906. Likewise, the reliability of the third factor was .871, the fourth was .937; the fifth item, which was self-actualization, included 10 items, whose reliability was .949.

D. Construct Validity

1. Goodness of Fit Indices

Goodness of Fit Indices

In order to examine the validity of the revised version of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in EFL contexts scale, the researchers employed Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Afterwards, goodness of fit indices was employed to check the model fit. In Figure 1, you can see the model including the whole factor loadings. Next, the link between sub-factors which were shown was examined, then the researchers presented the outcomes on the grounds of CFA analysis. In Table 1, Goodness of fit indices is shown. The researchers employed $\chi^2/df$, GFI, CFI, and RMSEA in the present work. $\chi^2/df$ is to be less than 3, GFI and TLI are to be more than .90 in order to come to a fit model; also RMSEA is to be less than .08. The whole fit indices are shown to be within the standard range, which is listed in Table 1. As a result, it can be said that the scale has the required validity.

2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As it is shown in the figure 4.1, the result of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is illustrated for revised version of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs in EFL contexts, in which all components and extracted factors which have been confirmed are shown.

In response to the second questions, the requirements of the content validity were met here, and the scale is demonstrated to be valid in this respect, which was one of the main concerns of the research.

---

**Table 4.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
<th>Coranbach’s Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Physiological needs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Safety and security</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Love and belonging</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Self esteem</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Elf actualization</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.949</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
V. CONCLUSION

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, as it was seen and reviewed, could make a major contribution to teaching and classroom management in schools. Maslow (1970), himself, adopted a holistic approach to teaching and learning in general. Maslow investigated the whole physical, social, emotional, as well as intellectual features of individuals and tried to answer the question of their impact on people’s life and thus education. Practical applications of Maslow’s hierarchy theory to the classroom teachers and learners can be so useful. In order for a student's cognitive needs to be fulfilled, they are to meet basic physiological needs of theirs. As an instance, a worn-out student who is also hungry will naturally find it difficult to focus on learning. As well as this, students need to feel emotionally and physically safe and accepted inside the classroom to be able to improve and reach their potential.

It can be suggested that students should be shown that they are valued and respected in the classroom as a human being first, and the teacher is to establish a supportive environment. For example, students with a low self-esteem will not be able to improve academically at a best possible rate unless their self-esteem is strengthened.

As it was mentioned earlier, schools of thoughts consist of three approaches. The first one, named behaviorism, also known as structuralism in linguistics, has the idea of reinforcement and operant conditioning and anticipation of reward in enhancing motivation. The Maslow’s hierarchy of needs can meet this school of thought’s interest from the point that it highlighted the role of need fulfillment as a rewarding experience that would lead to reinforcement.

The second school of thought, cognitivism, points out the importance of meaningful learning, mind and human cognition. The key role of choices in the process of ego enhancement can underline the significant part of cognition in this theory and would unearth the relevance between these two (Furedy, 1991).

The last school of thought is constructivism. As the name promises, the social context plays a leading role in this approach (Ruskin, 2011). The needs and motivation concepts in many cases must be interpreted in social context that would locate the emphasis of interaction hypotheses in this hierarchy of needs.

Constructivism (Ruskin, 2011) stresses the social context besides individual personal choices. To put in other words, it can be related to both internally and externally-oriented motivation. As Maslow viewed motivation as passing through a hierarchy of basic needs to higher ones, the different context of personal and social, internal or external, can remain actively engaged in this domain.

As discussed before, constructivism is interested in individualism as well as social context. Rogerian humanistic psychology (Strupp,1955) also sheds light on individualism from both affective and cognitive aspects of human beings. The Whole person as it is named, concentrates on learners’ interests and needs, and the same time it sees students as individuals who are to seek autonomy. It entitles learners to have their tailor-made styles and strategies to foster learner empowerment to change the status quo. From this view it reflects the same goal with Maslow’s hierarchy of needs and motivational theories.

Two other theories which share the same history with Maslow’s hierarchy of needs are Self-control theory and Drive theory (McAdams, 2015). These two theories also have some notions in common with internally-oriented motivation.

Self-control theory accentuates the role of individuals’ decision or choices about their experiences and aims. This theory categorizes choices or decisions in two different contexts, namely long-term and short-term. In both terms the motivation would be boosted if one is in control of its choices and is allowed to make its own decisions. The idea of being in charge of decision making, managing and controlling is motivating and would pave the way to a better self-esteem and afterward self-actualization.

VI. DISCUSSION

Based on the results of this study, in this section, the researcher has elaborated on the needs of students in an EFL context and has come up with practical implications of each. As it was believed by Maslow, the hierarchy of needs included five different levels in general, i.e. physiological needs, safety and security, love and belonging, self esteem and self actualization. In the following, the original definitions of each need are considered, and according to the results of this study, the needs are attributed to the needs that students may feel in a classroom environment, specifically in an EFL context.

A. Physiological Needs

Physiological Needs are considered to be the fundamental needs which human beings feel to have, such as food and water, adequate source of fresh air, etc. Normally, these needs are fulfilled for or by the learners as they take part in EFL contexts. Nonetheless, it is actually needed for students to be allowed to enjoy more time as their break and also be given a further flexible timetable in order to warrant that the requirements are met. If not, they possibly avoid the difficulties, challenges and demands that may arise so as to fulfill this lower need.

B. Safety and Security Needs

As it was mentioned in the introduction, this particular need typically pertains to a kind of personal security, in general they refer to needs such as having a shelter above, ensuring that they are safe from physical harm. Nevertheless, it can also come into EFL environments. Here, considering the results, it seems that its most important issue is to provide a caring environment that never threatens their safety needs. One can provide this environment by using stress...
relieving strategies, such as showing support from the side of teachers – as the items in the questionnaire indicate – showing learners that their speech, their feeling and their attitude is not judged by the other learners and also teachers, respecting their individuality or utilizing different sorts of techniques that makes them feel safe and secure in the class. A very useful approach to meeting their safety needs is actually to establish a support system permitting one to refer to given enquiries and issues rapidly, like an email contact form, so the students feel secure enough during the class to give themselves time to see whether they have understood the material or not, and in case they have not, they know there is a chance even after the class to contact the teacher.

C. Love and Belonging

As it was mentioned in the first section of the work, love and belonging is another name for the learners’ social needs. Meeting a learner’s social needs can be a tricky task in traditional learning environments since there are loads of tasks to be covered, and probably students’ personal feelings and social behaviors are difficult to be dealt with. Yet, there are ways to trigger this level of needs, for example if a teacher incorporates more interactional and social learning activities and resources into the tasks done in the class, they have a better chance of meeting this need which naturally makes the learning experience more appealing and engaging. Based on the review of the literature that the researcher covered, it can be understood that developing group activities where learners must work together to complete a task or an assignment, such as a presentation, a gapped information activity or a role play can encourage them discuss key topics with their peers and thus engage in more social interactions. This can provide them with many chances to talk to further students in order to evade the sense of alienation, which is the key term in discussing this need.

D. Esteem Needs

There is one thing which has repeatedly been mentioned in different contexts, the fact that learners are to feel confident and capable in order to fulfill their self-esteem needs. Based on the results of this study, one of the most effective ways to achieve this is to develop their sense of feeling of worthiness. Doing so can increase their self-awareness, also it can provide them with an opportunity to work on the kind of expertise they are looking for by adapting to their actual and make them in control of their learning, and the fact that the environment reacts to their emotional states. Empowerment, as a matter of fact, is the key here. Students need to be allowed to choose which exercises they complete and when and even how, to some extent, and they are to be given compliments when they successfully complete a part or an exercise. This can help them greatly in boosting their confidence as well. They need to understand they are making improvements and they are being appreciated because of that.

E. Self-actualization Needs

Self-actualization is a level which is not at all easy to come by. Actually, in all aspects of life, self actualization is difficult to be achieved. In fact, some, or better to say the majority of people spend all of their lives striving to top the Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs, and their attempts are usually in vein. To help learners become self-actualized, as it was defined in the first section, it should be told to them that they are to establish lifelike goals and also try to follow their development all in the process. Teachers are to provide them with insights causing them to contemplate on their existing views and think deeply about their present presuppositions about learning and themselves. As EFL academicians, it can be said that teachers are accountable to provide learners with the means as well as the information which is required to fulfill the real potential and responsibility of theirs in the class. Consequently, they can make every effort in the direction of their individual delineation of achievement. We should remember that the concept of self-actualization actually gets to be a state which is fluid. As learners attain their objectives, they predictably look for establishing and pursuing new activities. On the other hand, it is important to emphasize the fact that they are to savor their successes before embarking on the next educational adventure.
APPENDIX I. THE ORIGINAL INVENTORY OF NEED SATISFACTION (LESTER, 1990)

Items In The Need Satisfaction Inventory (some are phrased negatively)

Physiological needs
(1) I never have trouble getting to sleep at night
(6) I have an income that is adequate to satisfy my needs
(11) I get an adequate amount of rest
(16) I have a satisfactory sex life
(21) In general, my health is good
(26) In winter, I always feel too cold
(31) I eat enough to satisfy my physiological needs
(36) I get an adequate amount of exercise
(41) There’s usually some part of my body that is giving me trouble
(46) The summers are too hot for me ever to feel comfortable

Safety and security
(2) I think the world is a pretty safe place these days
(7) I would not walk alone in my neighborhood at night
(12) My anxiety level is high
(17) I feel secure about the amount of money I have and earn
(22) I feel safe and secure
(27) I am afraid to stay in my house/apartment alone at night
(32) My life is orderly and well-defined
(37) I can depend on others to help me when I am in need
(42) I am often worried about my physical health
(47) My life has a nice routine to it

Belonging
(3) I know my family will support me and be on my side no matter what
(8) I am involved in a significant love relationship with another
(13) I feel rootless
(18) I have a group of friends with whom I do things
(23) I feel somewhat socially isolated
(28) I have a few intimate friends on whom I can rely
(33) I feel close to my relatives
(38) I am interested in my ethnic roots and feel a kinship with others in my ethnic group
(43) I am religious and consider myself to be a member of a religious group
(48) I am able to confide my innermost thoughts and feelings to at least one close and intimate friend

Esteem
(4) I feel dissatisfied with myself much of the time
(9) I feel respected by my peers
(14) I seldom have fears that my actions will cause my friends to have a low opinion of me
(19) I can stand on my own two feet
(24) I feel confident in my present field of endeavour
(29) I would describe myself as a self-confident person
(34) I have earned the respect of others
(39) I do not spend much time worrying about what people think of me
(44) I feel that I am a worthy person
(49) In groups, I usually feel that my opinions are inferior to those of other people

Self-actualization
(5) I have a good idea of what I want to do with my life
(10) My life has meaning
(15) I am uncertain about my goals in life
(20) I feel I am living up to my potential
(25) I am seeking maturity
(30) I find my work challenging
(35) I know what my capabilities are and what I can not do
(40) I feel I am doing the best I am capable of
(45) I feel that I am growing as a person
(50) My educational achievements are appropriate given my ability

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APPENDIX II. THE ITEMS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND THEIR CORRESPONDING FACTORS

Physiological needs
I never have trouble focusing in classroom
I can afford the fee of English classes easily
I get an adequate period of break time during the class, if needed
In general, the physical conditions of my class are satisfactory (chairs arrangements, the board, etc.)
The class air conditioning is satisfactory
I never have trouble meeting my basic needs such as hunger and thirst during the class
I feel my classroom environment is technologically equipped
In general, I feel physically comfortable in my class
Regarding transportation, I do not face difficulty getting to the class

Safety and security
I believe the class is a safe place in general
I feel safe to talk about my personal ideas
My anxiety level is low
I feel secure about my knowledge in English
I feel safe against opposing attitudes from my peers
I believe my grades are true reflection of my knowledge, not just a subjective opinion of my teacher
My learning process is orderly and well-defined
I can depend on others to help me when I am in need
I am often worried about my image as a student/classmate
My class has a nice routine to it

Love and belonging
I know my teacher and my classmates will support me, no matter what
I am involved in a friendly relationship with my classmates
I feel I can relate to the learning atmosphere in my class
I have group of friends with whom I do things
I do not feel socially isolated
I feel close to my teacher
I believe my personal thoughts are welcome in the class

Esteem
I feel satisfied with myself much of the time
I feel respected by my peers
I do not have fears that my English skills will cause my friends to have a low opinion of me
I can stand on my own English knowledge
I feel confident in my present efforts
I would describe myself as a self confident learner
I have earned the respect of my classmates
I do not spend much time worrying about what my classmates think of me
I feel that I am a worthy person in the class
In groups, I usually feel that my opinions are superior to those of others

Self actualization
I have a good idea of why I am learning English
English means a lot to me
I am certain about my goals in my learning process
I feel I am living up to my potential in English
I am seeking proficiency
I enjoy challenging tasks in English
I know what my capabilities are and what I cannot do
I feel I am doing the best I am capable of in learning
I feel I am growing as a person because of learning English
My achievements in English are appropriate given my ability
### APPENDIX III. THE QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE STUDY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age:</th>
<th>Major:</th>
<th>Gender: M □ F □</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have you lived abroad? yes □ no □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If yes, how many years? ..........</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How many years have you studied English? (formal education)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your scores average in university? 12-14 □ 14-16 □ 16-18 □ 18-20 □</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After reading each statement in the following, please rank them by choosing a number on a scale of 1 to 5. A score of 1 indicates that you think the statement is always true about you, and a score of “5” indicates that the statement is never true about you and your learning environment.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) Always true</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) Sometimes true</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) Neutral</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) Rarely true</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5) Never true</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>My achievements in English are proportional to my efforts.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I believe my personal thoughts are welcome in class.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My learning objectives are orderly and well-defined.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Regarding transportation, I do not face any difficulty commuting to the class.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I feel socially isolated in class.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I can depend on others to help me when I am in need.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I can stand on my own English knowledge.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I believe the class is a safe place in general.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I feel confident in my present efforts.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I feel I am doing the best I can in learning English.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>English means a lot to me.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I would describe myself as a self confident learner.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I feel safe talking about my personal ideas</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I feel satisfied with myself much of the time</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I feel I can relate to the learning atmosphere in my class</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I feel respected by my peers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I feel I am growing as a person because of learning English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I experience a low level anxiety in class</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I do not have fears that my English skills will cause my friends to have a low opinion of me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I feel that I am a worthy person in the class</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I feel close to my teacher</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I do not spend much time worrying about what my classmates think of me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I have a group of friends with whom I do things</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>My class has a nice routine to it</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I am often worried about my image as a student/classmate</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I have earned the respect of my classmates</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>In general, the physical conditions of my class are satisfactory (chairs arrangements, the board, etc.)</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>The class air conditioning is satisfactory</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I feel my classroom environment is technologically well equipped</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>In general, I feel physically comfortable in my class</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>I know my teacher and my classmates will support me, no matter what</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>I feel safe against opposing attitudes from my peers</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>I get an adequate period of break time during the class, if needed</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>I know what my capabilities are</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>I am involved in a friendly relationship with my classmates</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>I have a good idea of why I am learning English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>I feel secure about my knowledge in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>In groups, I usually feel that my opinions are superior to those of others</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>I do not have difficulty paying for my English class</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>I believe my grades are true reflection of my knowledge, not just a subjective opinion of my teacher</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>I am seeking proficiency</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>I feel I am living up to my potential in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>I enjoy challenging tasks in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>I am certain about my goals in my learning process</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>I never have trouble focusing in classroom</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### REFERENCES


Zahra Barzakhi Farimani was born and brought up in Mashhad, 1992. Having acquired her degree in English literature at Ferdowsi university of Mashhad, she was admitted into the master’s program of English teaching at Fedowsin University of Mashhad, Iran in 2014. In 2017 after graduation, she started doing her Ph.D. in TEL at the same university. She is an experienced academician, who has been teaching different levels of English for more than 9 years as a freelance teacher. Her research interests lie in the fields of psychology, cognitive science and material development.

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Dr. Nasrollahi Shahri is an active member of the academic community working as a reviewer for the journal of SiELE at Unsyiah University. He is a published author, professional researcher and avid teacher.
A Survey Study of Factors on Multilingual Attitude of College Students in Minority Areas

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Xuebo Cui
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Abstract—Positive attitude and motivation are often mentioned as necessary for language learning and the development of positive attitude is often seen as one of the aims of teaching languages. To know what attitudes are like in multilingual educational environment and status of different languages is important. This study takes college students from Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture as the research subject, uses quantitative research and qualitative research to investigate the situation of multilingual attitude and discuss gender, grade, major, ethnicity and other factors on language attitude. The results show that gender, grade, major and ethnicity all influence students' language attitude in different degrees. Based on the results and the current situation of language education for college students in minority areas, this paper tries to put forward some suggestions on multilingual education in minority areas in order to contribute to the construction of multilingual, multi-cultural and harmonious language living environment.

Index Terms—multilingual attitude, factors, minority areas

I. INTRODUCTION

As the key content of language life, language attitude has always been one of the hot issues in sociolinguistics. The study of language attitude has important practical significance and value for understanding the psychological characteristics of individuals, groups or nations. At the same time, the study of language attitude can provide reference information for language education to improve the quality of bilingual and multilingual teaching. Bilingual education expert Baker (1992) believed that language attitude of language learners had an important impact on the effectiveness of language learning in bilingual education. It is particularly important to pay attention to the language attitude of individuals and ethnic groups toward their mother tongue, Chinese language and other foreign languages. In the bilingual or multilingual environment of minority areas, the language attitude of language users is more complicated which also makes us think about the multilingual attitude and its factors of college students in the area in order to provide reference for cultivating students’ positive multilingual attitude and creating efficient multilingual education in minority areas.

This study analyzes factors on the language attitude from the aspects of gender, grade, major and ethnicity by combining specific language living environment in minority areas to set up correct multilingual values for college students and put forward some suggestions for the cultivation of multilingual talents in minority areas.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Basic Concept

With regard to language attitude, this study discusses the idea of multilingualism among college students in Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture based on cognitive theory in social psychology. Baker (1992) believed that attitude was a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behavior. Ajzen (1988) defined attitude as “a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution or event.” They both understood that in the case of language, attitude as evaluative reaction towards a specific language, a specific language group (an object) or the activity of learning language (event) and pointed out that language attitude had three components including cognition, affect, and readiness for action.

Domestic multilingualism scholar Wang (1999) believed that people would form a certain understanding or make a certain evaluation of the social value of a language or text because of the influence of social or ethnic identity, emotion, purpose, motivation, behavior tendency and other factors in Chinese bilingual or multilingual society. This kind of cognition and evaluation is usually called language attitude which is divided into emotional attitude and cognitive attitude. Emotional attitude refers to people’s emotional experience and feeling of language and cognitive attitude refers...
to people’s perception, understanding, belief and evaluation of language. According to Wang’s definition of language attitude, the language attitude of college students in minority areas is investigated from the emotional and cognitive dimensions.

B. Research on Language Attitude

1. Related research at abroad

The research on language attitude abroad has formed a very scientific system from various methodological approaches of measuring language attitude to empirical research which includes both investigation of current situation and the study of factors on language attitude.

Various methodological approaches have been proposed to measure language attitude abroad for evaluating language attitude. The most common instrument to collect data is the questionnaire and the most representative one is Likert scales which is used to find out information about attitudes. Likert (1903) as American educator and psychologist, devised an language attitude scale with five positions ranging from ‘totally disagree’ to ‘totally agree’. Another technique used for the measurement of language attitude is Lambert’s (1960) “matched-guise technique”. In this case, participants are asked to evaluate the personal qualities of the speakers they hear on a recording with the same speaker using different languages or language varieties. Another technique used is in-depth individual interviews which can provide more detailed information of related areas.

Several studies used questionnaires to measure attitude towards mother tongue and bilingual (multilingual) and analyzed the effect of different factors on language attitude. It is found that students had a positive attitude towards foreign languages and the sociolinguistic context is the most relevant one. Some other educational studies have followed with interest attitude towards L1 at the primary, middle and university level. Cenoz (2001) concluded that learners had more positive attitude towards their L1 and their main language of instruction than other languages, but they also expressed a strong desire to learn a foreign language. According to the several results of studies, it can be indicated that attitude towards multilingualism is generally positive and students wish to learn and speak different languages.

Cenoz (2001)’s “age on language attitude” is the most typical one among the studies of the factors on language attitude. The age on language attitude is a relatively new phenomenon that has received a lot of attention in language education in the last years. Cenoz & Gallardo (2000) mentioned that children were very happy in the English classes and the early introduction of English language can have a positive effect on attitude. Cenoz (2001) used semantic differentials to compare different school grades and found that attitude towards the three languages were significantly more positive in the case of primary school students than secondary school students. And also included a questionnaire about multilingualism in the study to compare attitudes toward the three languages in three age groups and report significant differences for the total score. Baker (1992) found that attitude towards the minority language became less favorable when age goes up in bilingual settings. It seems that more exposure to English language does not necessarily result in better attitudes. In some cases, it could even happen that more exposure to the language has a negative effect unless learners achieve a basic command of English language, that is, learners may get bored and tired of English classes because their proficiency is still very limited. Therefore, younger learners present more positive attitudes than older learners but this trend is not necessarily maintained in the long run. Gender difference has been obtained on attitudes toward learning several languages. Studies have indicated that females tend to demonstrate significantly more positive attitudes than do males. (Burstall 1975; Gardner & Smythe 1975; Jones 1950)

2. Related research at home

The domestic research on language attitude is mainly divided into three aspects which provides a reference for domestic related research.

First of all, the survey research of situation on language attitude. Long, et al. (2011) took different students of ethnicities in Xinjiang Normal University as research subjects to investigate the attitude, language choice and language code conversion attitude toward mother tongue and Chinese language in communicative situations by questionnaire. The results showed that students had deep feelings for mother tongue and instrumental factors were larger than emotional factors in their attitude towards Chinese language.

Secondly, the study of factors on language attitude. Yang (2013) investigated the language attitude towards ethnic language, Chinese language and English language of minority college students in Yunnan. The results showed that students had a positive attitude towards three languages with scores of Chinese language, mother tongue and English language in turn, and pointed out that language attitudes were influenced by ethnicity, gender and grade factors. Xia (2012) examined the language attitude and its factors of middle school students in Xishuangbanna area, and found that students had a positive bilingual attitude, female had more positive attitude on the use and study of Chinese language than male, and the Hani minority had more positive attitude on the use and study of Chinese language than the Dai minority. Wei (2012) investigated the language attitude of Zhuang minority college students in Beijing and explored its factors by questionnaire, interview and SPSS statistical analysis. The results showed that the status of mother tongue is lower than that of Chinese language and foreign languages in function and college students are full of enthusiasm for mother tongue in emotion, and found that the state of intermarriage, specialty, gender and code conversion would affect students’ language attitude.

Finally, the study on the relevance of language attitude to language competence or achievement. Yan (2013)
investigated the language attitude of minority college students in Xinjiang and its correlation with language ability by questionnaire and found that students with negative attitude generally had lower English proficiency. Wan (2012) carried out an investigation through questionnaire method and interview to non-English major college students and found that there was a positive correlation between students’ English language attitude and achievement.

According to the statements above, the domestic research on language attitude is mainly empirical research and lack of relevant theoretical research. The empirical research has involved various aspects in the research questions, subjects and methods to reflect its diversity. The research question involves the study on the present situation of language attitude, factors and the correlation research; the research subject involves the primary school to the university each stage student and also has the residents and minorities; the research method adopts the questionnaire, interview and the data analysis method and so on.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Question

This study attempts to answer the following questions through investigation.

1. How about the language attitude of college students in minority areas?
2. Are there any differences in gender, grade, ethnicity and other factors in the above language attitude?

B. Research Subject

In this study, a questionnaire survey was conducted from foreign language college of a university in Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture and the multilingual attitudes of 645 college students in minority areas were investigated according to the dimensions of gender, age, major and ethnicity.

C. Research Method

First of all, understanding the relevant concepts and theories of language attitude by reading relevant books and materials on academic websites to determine the research questions and prepare for the specific implementation of this study.

Secondly, preparing a suitable questionnaire to college students in minority areas for this study by referring to other scholars’ investigation on language attitude and combining with the actual situation in minority areas to investigate the overall situation of the multilingual attitude and analyze the factors of college students’ attitude according to each dimension.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Basic Information of Participants

This study has reviewed the social and psychological factors that affect language attitude through literature research and tried to investigate the multilingual attitudes of college students in minority areas according to the four dimensions of gender, grade, major and ethnicity. The basic information of the participants is shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>507</td>
<td>78.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First grade</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>40.47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second grade</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>25.58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third grade</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>20.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth grade</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>288</td>
<td>44.65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>26.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>28.37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Han Chinese</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>46.51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean-Chinese</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>46.51%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other minorities</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>6.98%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. The Overall Multilingual Attitude

This chapter is to investigate the factors that affect the language attitude of college students in minority areas and first have a comprehensive understanding of the students’ overall multilingual attitude which is included pleasant to listen, kindness, usefulness and social influence.
Table 2 shows that the language attitude of college students in minority areas towards five languages are followed by Chinese language (M=18.949) > English language (M=16.447) > Korean language (M=14.037) > Japanese language (M=13.753) > Russian language (M=11.521). It indicates that college students in minority areas hold more positive ideas about the feeling and function of Chinese language, followed by English language and Korean language. On the whole, students’ cognitive attitude towards the five languages is more positive than their emotional attitude. Chambers & Gary N (1999) indicated that pupils felt positive about the target language countries and was motivated more by extrinsic or instrumental factors like getting a certificate or job. It can be seen that the results of this study are obviously consistent with the results of other scholars mentioned above. The reason is that college students are more mature in cognition than primary or middle school students and their attitude and evaluation of language are not limited to emotional factor, but pay more attention to whether language has function and influence.

C. Factors of Language Attitude

1. Gender

Gender is one of the most basic and universal criteria in sociolinguistic research. Several research results show that females have an advantage over males in language attitudes and abilities through reviewing previous studies on gender attitudes towards language.

Table 3 shows that males have the lower score than females in the five languages. Females are more tolerant, sensitive and receptive to language, while males are more blunt about language. Both males and females have the highest score in Chinese language with 18.44 and 19.09 respectively. Moreover, females are significantly different from males on the attitudes towards Chinese language, Korean language and English language according to the Table 4. Inspections of two groups means indicate that the average language attitude score of females is significantly higher than the score of males. Females are more receptive to new things, resulting in a strong curiosity about new languages, while
males are conservative about language according to other relevant research results.

2. Grade

Previous scholars have carried out different studies according to the grade and age stage of the students. Cenoz (2002) compared the language attitude of the students in different age stages and concluded that the students who learned English language in the lower grade showed a more positive attitude than the higher grade, but domestic scholar Chen (2008) drew different conclusions that the students in the higher grade had a more positive language attitude. Cenoz’s research is aimed at students from primary to high school, while Chen takes college students as the subjects and it will produce diametrically opposite research results.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>19.08</td>
<td>1.741</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>18.86</td>
<td>19.29</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>18.84</td>
<td>2.247</td>
<td>.175</td>
<td>18.50</td>
<td>19.19</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Third</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>19.05</td>
<td>1.568</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td>18.78</td>
<td>19.32</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>18.60</td>
<td>2.800</td>
<td>.302</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>19.21</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>18.95</td>
<td>2.019</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>18.79</td>
<td>19.10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>13.70</td>
<td>4.993</td>
<td>.309</td>
<td>13.09</td>
<td>14.31</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>13.76</td>
<td>5.281</td>
<td>.411</td>
<td>12.95</td>
<td>14.58</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Third</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>14.41</td>
<td>4.586</td>
<td>.398</td>
<td>13.62</td>
<td>15.19</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>15.02</td>
<td>4.104</td>
<td>.443</td>
<td>14.14</td>
<td>15.90</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>14.04</td>
<td>4.891</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td>13.66</td>
<td>14.42</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>16.52</td>
<td>3.324</td>
<td>.206</td>
<td>16.11</td>
<td>16.92</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Second</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>16.33</td>
<td>3.431</td>
<td>.267</td>
<td>15.81</td>
<td>16.86</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Third</td>
<td>133</td>
<td>16.65</td>
<td>3.097</td>
<td>.269</td>
<td>16.12</td>
<td>17.18</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>16.14</td>
<td>3.896</td>
<td>.420</td>
<td>15.30</td>
<td>16.97</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>645</td>
<td>16.45</td>
<td>3.385</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>16.18</td>
<td>16.71</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>13.98</td>
<td>4.557</td>
<td>.282</td>
<td>13.42</td>
<td>14.53</td>
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<td>.192</td>
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</table>

Table 5. Descriptive Statistics

Figure 1. Comparison of grades on Korean language attitude
Figure 2. Comparison of grades on Chinese language attitude

Figure 3. Comparison of grades on English language attitude
As shown in Table 5, students with four different grades do not show significant differences in attitude towards the five languages, but there are still some parts worth exploring. According to Fig. 1, we can see that the attitude towards Korean language increases from 13.70 points to 15.02 points to show a trend of sustained growth. It can be seen that environment in the gathering area of Korean Autonomous Prefecture has an impact on students’ language attitude. With the increase of students’ living time in this environment, attitude towards Korean language shows an upward trend. The attitude of students towards Chinese language is decreasing with the increase of grade. From the Fig. 2, Chinese language attitude of the students on the fourth grade is 18.60 points, while that of first grade is 19.08 points. It can be indicated that with the learning of other foreign languages, the interest in the native language gradually declined. It is worth paying attention to the attitude towards English language and Russian language, and it shows the same trend as is shown in Fig. 3 & 4. The scores of first grade are higher, the second grade shows a downward trend and from the third grade gradually shows a trend of growth to the fourth grade. And it is obviously similar to the above research results of Cenoz and Chen scholar. According to Cenoz’s research, attitude towards languages were significantly more positive in the case of junior students than senior students and students are very curious about the early introduction of new foreign languages. The reason is that learners may get bored and tired of learning languages because their proficiency is still very limited. Therefore, younger learners present more positive than older learners but this trend is not necessarily maintained in the long run. In addition, first grade students have a deeper curiosity about foreign languages and culture at the beginning of school, but in the second grade because of the difficulty of language learning and the burden of strengthening the ability to reduce the enthusiasm for foreign languages, by the end of graduation begins to plan career and life to understand the importance of foreign language learning which promotes the acceptance of foreign languages to increase. In general, the attitude of students toward language does not appear the trend of continuous growth or decrease with the increase of grade but presents a more complex phenomenon of fluctuation which reflects the psychological changes of students in different stages.

3. Major

Students in different language majors will have different scores in each language attitude especially between their mother tongues, languages of their own majors and other foreign languages.

Table 6 shows that the scores of three majors on attitude towards Chinese language (M=18.91, 18.73, 19.22) is the
highest of five languages. And there is no significant difference in Korean language attitude between students of three majors. Students majoring in Japanese have the balanced scores on five languages than students majoring in English and Russian including Korean language (M=14.30), English language (M=15.96), Japanese language (M=16.07) and Russian language (M=10.49). But the score of attitude toward Chinese language presents the lowest score with 18.73 points. Students majoring in Japanese language have a deeper understanding of foreign language culture with the longer time of foreign language learning and the level of foreign language improves to a certain extent which promotes the acceptance of foreign languages to reduce enthusiasm for the mother tongue. Therefore, it is necessary to strengthen the teaching of Chinese language for those who major in Japanese and enhance the sense of belonging to their mother tongue. What’s more, each of the three major students have the highest score on language attitudes of their own majors, with English language (M=16.81), Japanese language (M=16.07) and Russian language (M=15.17) respectively and the scores are significantly different from those of other two majors. The score of attitude toward Russian language is significantly varied by the majors (F (2,642) = 93.11, p<0.05). Tukey’s post hoc procedure indicates that those who major in Russian language are significantly more positive about Russian language than other two majors. There is not a significant difference in score of Russian language attitude between those who major in English and Japanese, and this phenomenon also appears in Japanese language attitude. It indicates that students have a longer and more in-depth study of their own major than students majoring in other languages which promotes a positive and open attitude towards language of their own majors.

4. Ethnicity
Ethnic identity is also a factor worth exploring because of the characteristics on specific ethnic minorities in China. This chapter will focus on the different ethnicities of attitudes toward mother tongues, the official language of the country and other foreign languages.

### Table 7. Comparison of Ethnicities on Language Attitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Han Chinese (n=300)</th>
<th>Korean-Chinese (n=300)</th>
<th>Other minorities (n=45)</th>
<th>F (2,642)</th>
<th>Post Hoc (Tukey)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>M=19.41 SD=10.76</td>
<td>M=14.44 SD=17.80</td>
<td>M=19.18 SD=1.60</td>
<td>17.80*</td>
<td>Han Chinese &gt; Korean-Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>M=11.86 SD=4.89</td>
<td>M=16.22 SD=3.35</td>
<td>M=11.36 SD=5.17</td>
<td>102.96*</td>
<td>Korean-Chinese &gt; Han Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>M=16.72 SD=4.96</td>
<td>M=16.22 SD=3.17</td>
<td>M=16.16 SD=4.21</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>Other minorities &gt; Korean-Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>M=13.11 SD=4.70</td>
<td>M=14.44 SD=3.90</td>
<td>M=13.47 SD=5.08</td>
<td>6.96</td>
<td>Han Chinese &gt; Korean-Chinese</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>M=12.24 SD=4.95</td>
<td>M=10.76 SD=4.70</td>
<td>M=11.84 SD=4.96</td>
<td>7.14</td>
<td>Other minorities &gt; Korean-Chinese</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.05

As shown in Table 7, Han Chinese students have the highest score (M=19.41) for the attitude of Chinese language, while Korean-Chinese students have the lowest score (M=18.46). The scores of attitude towards Korean language are significantly varied by the ethnicities (F(2,642)=102.96, p<0.05). Tukey’s post hoc procedure indicates that Korean-Chinese students are significantly more positive about Korean language than Han Chinese and other minorities. There is not a significant difference in the scores of attitude toward Korean language between Han Chinese and other minorities and this phenomenon also appears in Chinese language attitude. It is obviously that the attitudes of students towards their mother tongues are more positive than that of other ethnicities and both Han Chinese and Korean-Chinese students have a positive attitude towards their mother tongue. Han Chinese and other minorities give higher scores to English as a foreign language in addition to their own language (M=16.72, 16.16), while the Korean-Chinese students have a more positive attitude toward Japanese language (M=14.44). Han Chinese and Korean-Chinese students present the basic similar high scores in each language attitude but there is not significant difference on the scores of Korean-Chinese. It can be concluded that the Korean-Chinese students have a high acceptance of foreign languages relative to Han Chinese and other minorities. Compared with the Han Chinese students who only learn Chinese language and English language, Korean-Chinese students are open to foreign languages who live in a multilingual environment from an early age and receive a multilingual education. However, other minorities students have a lower score on attitude towards foreign languages than Han Chinese and Korean-Chinese students and teachers should strengthen guidance to these students.

V. Conclusion and Implication

A. Major Findings
College students in minority areas have a positive attitude towards the functions and development prospects of Chinese, Korean, English, Japanese and Russian languages, but the degree of Chinese language is the highest, followed by English language and Korean language. In terms of gender, females show more positive language attitudes than males especially in Chinese, English and Korean language; in terms of grades, attitude toward Korean language tends to increase as grades increase, while other languages decrease as grades increase, but this trend is not maintained in the long run; in terms of major, students in three majors have the highest score on language attitude of their own major; and
in terms of ethnicity, both Han Chinese and Korean-Chinese students have the highest attitude scores toward their mother tongues and Korean-Chinese students are more receptive to foreign languages than other minorities students.

B. Implication

The multilingual attitudes of different students are complex and diverse. Schools should respect individual differences of students and consider the environmental factors of students’ language background to make students treat each language correctly and form correct multilingual values, and lay a solid foundation for better multilingual education in minority areas.

Teachers can select topics of interest to males when teaching foreign languages to enhance the attention and motivation of learning and make more students learn foreign languages in a pleasant teaching environment. And for females who are easy to accept new foreign languages, teachers should emphasize the importance of mother tongue learning and establish a strong sense of identity and pride in mother tongue. Teachers should understand the different language attitudes and ideas of students and organize teaching activities to meet different language learning needs and cultivate the ability of autonomous learning, and achieve better teaching outcomes.

Teachers can strengthen the guidance of students in different grades and majors to help students reflect on the differences of cultures and languages. Teachers can encourage the study of foreign languages and understand foreign culture for the second grade students to stimulate interest in foreign language learning and treat their mother tongue correctly, and achieve the effect on mutual promotion of mother tongue and foreign languages for senior students. For students with different majors, teachers can strive to improve teaching methods so that students do not lose interest in their own majors and improve their language proficiency, and strengthen the level of mother tongue and increase the opportunities for learning in mother tongue at the same time. The syllabus of English majors in universities (2000) pointed out that students of English majors should cultivate the ability of cross-cultural communication and pay attention to the education of patriotism and collectivism. Therefore, foreign language teachers should also help students understand their mother tongue while teaching foreign languages.

For Korean-Chinese students, teachers can strengthen the guidance of Korean language while not reducing their interest in language learning, and form better critical thinking to help students recognize and understand other languages objectively; for Han Chinese students, teachers should give correct guidance and effective support in teaching methods so as to maintain the functionality of foreign languages and the superiority of Chinese. Chinese is a language that students must master in their lifelong learning, survival and development. However, due to the majority of Korean-Chinese students in the region from childhood to Korean-Chinese schools, subjects are mainly teaching in Korean language so that Korean-Chinese students’ Chinese language ability is weaker than Han Chinese students. Compared with Han Chinese students, Korean-Chinese students are hard to ensure that they keep a clear mind about their mother tongue while touching other cultures.

In conclusion, multilingual education in minority areas should provide efficient multilingual courses according to students’ language needs and choice. Due to the factors of gender, grade, major and ethnicity, there are some differences in college students’ attitudes towards each language. Therefore, schools should attach importance to the attitude and ideas of each student to provide multilingual education models on the basis of respecting students’ willingness, such as providing multilingual learning courses with different combinations, encouraging Han Chinese students to take courses in minority culture and language so as to meet students’ diverse language learning needs and improve students’ multilingual skills, and contribute to the cultivation of diversified language talents in the new period.

REFERENCES


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The Influence of Affective Factors and Cognitive Engagement on Students’ English Proficiency

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Abstract—Affective factors are the most important factors that influence SLA and language teaching. However, the author wonders if there are some mediators that help affective factors improve students’ language proficiency. The paper hypothesizes that positive cognitive engagement can be a mediator to enhance language achievement. In doing so, the author attempts to make a survey so as to investigate students’ cognitive engagement. By assessing the result of the survey, it is certain that positive cognitive engagement can improve students’ language proficiency based on their variable affective factors.

Through the survey, the positive cognitive engagement should be advocated in the study and further improve students’ metacognition.

Index Terms—affective factors, engagement, language proficiency

I. REVIEW ON AFFECT AND AFFECTIVE FACTORS

Rod Ellis (1994) claims that learners’ affective states vary dynamically and have a major impact on their ability to learn. Anxiety which arises out of inadequate performance, communication apprehension, tests, and fear of negative evaluation is likely to have a debilitating effect on L2 learning, but it can also have a facilitative effect. How anxiety affects learning will base on its strength and the situational context. Stern (1983) argued that learners’ affective variables contribute to cognitive skills or even more to language learning. However, theorists have been rather slow to recognize the vital part that affects plays. It was only after the 1960s that the research on affect and affective factors in education gained importance with the development of humanistic psychology. Some representative studies on the affective factors in SLA/EFL are dealt with this section.

A. Diversity of Learners

Studies on learners’ attitudes and motivation in the late 1950s originally witnessed the learner-focused investigation (Spolsky, 2000). However, affective factors vary from individuals to individuals. Some learners keep a positive attitude to language learning, the outcome reflects that the positive attitude is better than the negative one. Motivation, anxiety, personality, inhibition, self-esteem, etc are all affective factors that can affect the learners’ proficiency. Learners’ different sociocultural and linguistic backgrounds, together with their varied cognitive abilities can result in unique achievements in foreign language learning. Even learners with similar backgrounds vary remarkably in their learning experience, ultimately resulting in different learning outcomes. These different learning outcomes, according to Larsen-Freeman (2001), can be explained with reference to learners’ diverse factors.

The explanation of learners’ diversity in this research is conducted from learners’ various affective factors and their varied active engagement factors, which can contribute to distinctive achievements in English learning.

B. Importance of Affect and Affective Factors in SLA/EFL

For Rogers and Freiberg (1994), the learner-centered approach takes the necessity of appropriate support for learners’ affective development as a prerequisite for effective learning. Damasio (1994) believed that learners’ affective reactions can be often linked to their learning outcomes. Specifically, positive affect increases many types of helping behaviors and task performance, whereas negative affect influences in the opposite way (Baron & Thomley, 1994; Isen, 1999).


Second or foreign language learning doesn’t only depend on language characteristics and social environment, but also to some extent on individual factors. However, individual factors constitute personal learning strategies as well as affective factors. As a result, there are various academic theories that focus on the importance of affective factors, as well as their significant roles in SLA/EFL.
II. REVIEW ON STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

Engagement can also be called involvement. It mostly studied on the basis of student’s behaviour in the classroom. In the following part, the definition and classification of engagement will be explained entirely.

A. Definition of Student Engagement

In Zone of Proximal Development this book, Vygotsky (1978) proposed that learners would not become engaged in learning until teachers could provide learning opportunities at the appropriate level with the right support. However, it is difficult to define engagement, since engagement involves a combination of many factors that relate to the learners’ efforts when they devote themselves to purposeful learning tasks (Krause & Coates, 2008). Pace (1982) developed the concept of “quality of effort” and emphasized that learners had to exert their investment of time and effort in all kinds of learning and development. Axelson and Flick (2011) maintained that Astin’s student involvement was studied in the 1980s, should be regarded as the benchmark for modern engagement research among historians of education. Astin (1984, p. 518) defined student engagement as “the amount of physical and psychological energy that the student devotes to the academic experience”. Obviously, engagement and involvement are used as synonyms in his theory. Furthermore, Astin (1984) highlighted the behavioral aspect of his engagement theory. According to him, students who devote considerable time and energy to their studies are usually more active in school and have more communication and interactions with their peers and teachers. The more engagement learners are involved in, the higher engagement they have, and the more learning achievement they realize (Astin, 1984).

Based on the observation of students’ classroom participation, Newmann (1992) noticed an interesting situation characterized by numerous students. Newmann (1992, p. 12) defined student engagement as “student’s psychological investment and effort directed toward learning, understanding, or mastering the knowledge, skills or crafts that academic work was intended to promote”. Compared with Astin’s theory of student engagement focusing on time and quality dimensions, Newmann (1992) stressed the importance of the emotional aspect of student engagement, that is, students’ psychological investment in learning. Hu and Kuh (2002) looked at student engagement inside and outside of the classroom. Their levels of participation resulted in a range of measurable outcomes. Subsequently, Kuh et al. (2007) argued that student engagement represented two aspects of meaning. On the one hand, student engagement refers to the time and efforts that students invest in educational activities, which are usually empirically linked to college outcomes. On the other hand, student engagement involves how the school deploys its resources and organizes the curriculum, learning opportunities, and other supports to encourage students to take part in activities related to effective outcomes, such as persistence, satisfaction, and graduation. According to Coates (2007), student engagement is a broad term that takes both academic and non-academic aspects into consideration. “Engagement is seen to comprise active and collaborative learning, participation in challenging academic activities, formative communication with academic staff, involvement in enriching educational experience, and feeling legitimated and supported by university learning communities” (Coates, 2007, p. 122). As Anderson et al. (2004) proposed, student engagement concerned with students’ behaviors in a positive way, which included attendance, attention, participation in class, as well as the psychological experience of identification with school and the feeling of being respected and school belonging.

To sum up, definitions of student engagement mentioned above all contain behavioral components, emotional or psychological components. Current research adopts Astin’s definition of engagement, which takes the physical and psychological aspects of engagement into account totally.

B. Classification of Student Engagement

Appleton et al. (2006) asserts that student engagement is a multidimensional concept. Despite numerous definitions of student engagement mentioned above, researchers have come to the agreement that student engagement ranges from two to four component models (Appleton, Christenson, & Furlong, 2008). Research holds a two-component model that often takes into account the behavioral engagements (e.g., positive conduct, effort, participation) and the emotional engagements (e.g., interest, identification, belonging, and positive attitudes towards learning) (Finn, 1989; Mark, 2000; Newmann, Wehlage, & Lamborn, 1992; Willms, 2003). For Nystrand (1991), the two-component model of student engagement resides in the distinction between procedural engagement and substantive engagement, with the former referring to the behavioral engagement and the latter psychological investment. Skinner and Belmont (1993) analyzed student engagement from two aspects: Behavioral engagement and emotional engagement. Generally speaking, learners who are well engaged in behavioral involvement in learning also show positive traits in emotional engagement. Fredricks et al. (2004) defined the multifaceted nature of student engagement in three ways, and this tripartite conceptualization of engagement takes behaviour, affect, and cognition into consideration (Fredricks et al., 2004; Jimerson, Campos, & Greif, 2003). Likewise, Schaufeli (2013) maintained that the dimension of student engagement at least involved three basic elements: physical, emotional, and cognitive engagement. According to Yazzie-Mintz (2007), those three dimensions of student engagement included academic engagement (i.e., engagement of the mind), social participatory (i.e., engagement in the life of the school), and emotional engagement (i.e., engagement of the heart).

III. REPORTS ON THE ENGAGEMENT INSERTING INTO THE CLASSROOM STUDY

In this study, we present a hypothesis. We want to illustrate that language proficiency can be contributed by affective
factors, such as motivation and self-esteem. However, the writer will focus on the students’ engagement as a mediator in the language study. Without students’ participation, affective factors and learning strategies cannot be implemented into the study. We developed a questionnaire and presented it to the university students at Hei Longjiang Bayi Agricultural University. We only surveyed the cognitive engagements from students. After that, we would make an interview to investigate the relationship among affective factors, engagement and language proficiency.

Cognitive engagement was first proposed by Corno and Mandinach (1983) to examine learners’ learning in relation to the pedagogical process as well as individual’s characteristics. Definition of cognitive engagement generally falls into two different dimensions. One group specifically highlights a psychological investment in learning, whereas the other group targets cognition and emphasizes the strategic learning. Cognitive engagement includes three constituent elements: self-regulation, psychological investment, and motivation. Self-regulation forms in self-control (e.g., endurance and effective resource management), meta-cognitive strategies (e.g., planning, goal setting, and monitoring), and cognitive learning strategies (e.g., surface strategy, deep strategy, and management strategy) (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990). A distinction is drawn between the deep and surface level of strategy use. Learners who use meaningful strategies in learning are more cognitively engaged, as they exert more mental efforts, create more connections among ideas, and thereby achieve greater understanding of ideas (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986). Motivation consists of the expectancy (e.g., self-efficacy and goal value) and achievement goals. The corresponding variables in these three components are usually latent, and they cannot be observed directly. The approach of employing questionnaires can only reflect the use of learning strategies in learners’ learning (Fredericks et al., 2004). Therefore, observation of teacher’s classrooms was also conducted for our in-depth investigation on cognitive engagement in the present study. Two dimensions of cognitive engagement were used in the current research, cognitive engagement referring to the use of learning strategies and a psychological investment in learning.

IV. THE CONTENT AND OUTCOME OF SURVEY

A. Questionnaire on Cognitive Engagement

In order to explore the interrelationships between affective factors and cognitive engagement, two methods are going to be utilized. The first method is a questionnaire whereas the second one is an interview. Both methods represent sub elements of a survey. In this section a questionnaire is going to be carried out to assess students’ cognitive engagement. Therefore, this particular method shall be examined more closely in the following paragraph.

A questionnaire is composed of a series of questions or items. The purpose of it is to obtain information or data from the participants. A questionnaire can be divided into: a letter-questionnaire, a group-questionnaire and a visit-questionnaire. The data for the former one are collected from the participants who have received it by mail. The Group-questionnaire, on the other hand, requires gathering all the participants in the same place at the same time in order to collect immediate data. This form of a questionnaire is the most popular among all three. Conversely, the least popular one is the visit-questionnaire. It requires the researchers’ physical presence at the participants’ workplaces or actual places of residence. It is thus a combination of the two aforementioned methods. Moreover, it has advantages and disadvantages. Although it improves the overall quality of the questionnaire, the completion of the entire research using this unique method might prove to be less feasible, mainly due to the logistics of it.

Having considered all the above mentioned forms of a questionnaire, we have chosen the group-questionnaire as the means to gather the data for this paper. We have divided the procedure into six steps. Step one was to select the participants by pinpointing the location and the age-group. This research is mainly collecting the data on cognitive engagement from students in Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University. They are junior undergraduates. The crucial step two was to design the questionnaire itself. My questionnaire aims mainly at exploring the interrelationships between students’ affective factors and cognitive engagement. The questionnaire consists of twenty items with the criteria to choose from ranging from ‘never’ to ‘always’. Step three, which we were able to accomplish in a timely manner of just two days, was to drift the questionnaire with step four being to correct it. In order to achieve it, a significant amount of the most appreciated assistance from tutors and colleagues was received. Step five was to predict the possible results of the questionnaire. Last but not least was to revise it and arrange the steps in a specific way. We organized the items from the easiest to the most difficult while attempting to include a range of possibilities related to cognitive engagement. In the process of doing the questionnaire, we factored the explanation of the instruction to the students. Later, the questionnaires were distributed to all participants. We mentioned that the participants were all junior university students. There were sixty of them in total, selected from six different departments; three being Engineering Majors; the rest being Art Majors. Finally, we collected all the questionnaires for research.

Based on the review on affective factors in English teaching and the study of cognitive engagement, we hypothesized that affective factors could contribute to students’ English proficiency, with cognitive engagement as a mediator. Therefore, we made a survey in terms of students’ cognitive engagement in English class. The actual content of the survey can be seen below:
Cognitive Engagement.  (1=never; 2=seldom; 3=sometimes; 4=frequent; 5=always)

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Sixty students took part in the research. Based on the above survey, 83% students scored sixty or higher, which means students tend to rather involve themselves in the language study. They declared to be cognitively engaged in the class. Among them, 40% of students’ scores are over 80, which means they concentrate on the importance of the combination of engagement and affective factors in language study. The evidence seems to suggest that the role of engagement can be served as a mediator to link learners’ affective factors with their achievement in English learning. Further, it will yield a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship among all different variables included in these three factors: affect, engagement, and achievement. In effect, the survey has shown that teachers need to raise students’ positive affective factors in order to make them engaged into the language study. With the mixture of positive affective factors and active engagement, language proficiency may have significantly greater chances of improvement.

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<th>Cognitive Engagement</th>
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<td>Results</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>11%</td>
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B. Interview on Students’ Cognitive Engagement

As Dörnyei (2007) suggested, the semi-structured interview is suitable for situations when the researcher has a clear overview of the phenomenon in question and is able to broadly develop questions relating to the topic but does not want to use ready-made response categories that may limit the depth of investigation. Berg (1989, p. 17) claimed that the semi-structured interview is conducted in “a systematic and consistent order, but it allows the interviewers sufficient freedom to digress; that is, the interviewers are permitted (in fact expected) to probe far beyond he answers to their prepared and standardized questions”.

Compared with questionnaire, interview research is more natural, as there the interviewers ask the interviewees questions related to the research face to face. It requires interviewers to comprehend the main research fully and possess vast experience in quality interviewing. In the process of an interview, the interviewees must be selected carefully and cooperate with the interviewers. Similarly, interviewers must increase the motivation of interviewees by answering the questions posed by the interviewees. Meanwhile, interviewers must observe and note the main points, so that a successful interview can be conducted. Generally, the interview procedure consists of six steps which we naturally also adopt into our research. The first one was to make a good initial impression, which we achieved by the correct dress code such as work uniforms. Owing to the fact that the interviewers were teachers and the interviewees were students, the uniforms seemed like a natural means of expressing the importance and formality of the research. Secondly, an interesting and clear introduction of the project was necessary, followed by a detailed ten-minute explanation of the entire project including its purpose. After that, participants were asked the interview questions. There were eight questions, which the students were encouraged to answer truthfully and honestly. Later, a complete report was comprised, based on the collected notes. The final step was to finish the whole interview. On average, the entire interview with a given individual lasted less than ten minutes. We selected six people from six different departments for this interview. We have adopted a holistic approach to the described interview. The questions asked can be seen below in their original order.

1) Do you like learning English? Please describe your ideal English teacher and teaching method. Under what circumstances will you actively engage in English classroom activities?
2) Why do you learn English? Among integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, intrinsic motivation, and
extrinsic motivation, which one is the main factor that affects your engagement and achievement in English learning?

3) Do you feel anxious in English class? (If yes) How does your anxiety affect your engagement and achievement in English learning?

4) How do you evaluate your self-confidence in English learning? To what extent does your self-confidence affect your engagement and achievement in English learning?

5) What are affective factors that promote your engagement in English class? Have you ever had the experience that your positive affective factors facilitate your engagement and achievement in English learning? (If yes) Could you share it with us?

6) Do you always rethink your performance in English class?

7) Do you think your personality, such as being an introvert/extrovert, can affect your engagement in English class?

8) Are there any obstacles which affect your engagement in English class? If there are, what are they?

We spent approximately one hour interviewing all the six students. They all agreed on the fact that positive cognitive engagement plays an important role in English achievement. As for question one; six students mentioned that role play or a language debate can make them engaged in the class; integrative motivation and instrumental motivation are the major ones to encourage them to participate in class. In terms of students’ anxiety, four participants admitted they experience it, bilaterally pinpointing the reason for it as the lack of suitable English language level achieved before entering University. This self-doubt seemed to be at the forefront of their minds whilst in class, thus affecting their performance. The following question further explored the concept of confidence. The students suggested self-confidence can be enhanced by either answering questions or a revision before class. All in all, the participants think that a positive attitude can really influence the engagement in English class. More surprisingly, none of them expressed any post-class reflections on their performance. Our explanation is the fact that they are under a lot of pressure and not aware of the importance of self-evaluation. As far as the personality is concerned, the students’ perception was that an extroverted personality contributes more to class engagement, their reason being a possible more frequent student-teacher as well as student-student interaction amongst the extroverted learners. As for the last question, four students revealed that listening and speaking skills are their biggest weaknesses while others also admitted that both cultural differences and grammar tend to hinder their English language learning.

The interview results have shown in all certainty that all the participants agree that positive cognitive engagement can enhance students’ English achievement.

V. CONCLUSION

This study set off to find out how great a role Positive Cognitive Engagement plays in an English Language classroom. We assumed that metacognitive methods would play a significant role in students’ language improvement.

In order to gather sufficient results, two methods of data collection have been chosen, the first being a questionnaire whilst the second an interview. Both of them led us to the same anticipated conclusion, that is, cognitive engagement is crucial in language learning. It doesn’t only improve students’ fluency, but also their involvement and self-confidence thus leading to better proficiency.

Although the results show a strong indication, the author of this paper acknowledges that these results should be further confirmed by a survey on a larger scale and deeper insight into the phenomenon.

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A Stylistic Analysis of Arab-American Poetry: Mahjar (Place of Emigration) Poetry

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Abstract—The present paper represents an attempt to focus upon analyzing and describing the major features of Arab American poetry written by prominent Arab poets who had arrived in America on behalf of millions of immigrants during the 19th century. Some of who wrote in English and Arabic like Ameen Rihani (1876-1940); Khalil Gibran (1883-1931) and Mikhail Naimy (1889-1988). Others wrote in Arabic like Elia Abumadi (1890-1957). Most of their poems in Mahjar (place of emigration) reveal nostalgia, their love to their countries and their ancestors and issues relating to Arab countries. The paper analyzes some of their poems based on linguistic, grammatical, lexical and rhetorical levels.

Index Terms—style, rhetoric, stylistics, discourse stylistics, Arab American poetry and Mahjar poets

I. INTRODUCTION

Stylistics focuses on analyzing literary works based on linguistic views. It covers three major elements: Literary Studies, Literary Criticism and Linguistic Schools. Verma (2015) states that stylistics is a language-based approach. It benefits from linguistic issues like sentence types and phonological, morphological, lexical and rhetorical elements to analyze and interpret literary works. Language is the source of linguistics but it is a medium in literature. To link language with stylistics, Beaugrande and Dressler (1986) state seven standards which make any text communicative. These standards are called standards of textuality. Some of which are:
- Coherence: referring to the configuration of concepts and relations of the text.
- Intentionality: referring to the attitude of the text writer.
- Acceptability: referring to the attitude of the text reader.
- Intertextuality: referring to the elements which link the current text to previously encountered texts.

Stylistic analysis directs the reader to literary criticism which is the highest level of analysis. Carter (1988) categorizes stylistics into different types:
1- Linguistic Stylistics: analyzing the text, focusing on language components to produce some certain stylistic effects like models for language analysis through linguistics and aesthetics.
2- Literary Stylistics: understanding, appreciating and interpreting of literary texts and knowing the intentions of their authors. The emphasis is on the importance of linguistic aspects for a better understanding of literary texts.
3- Style and Discourse: describing and characterizing the stylistic effects in a wide range of discourse types like linguistic criticism.

Literary texts like poems, stories, novels, drama, etc. express the thought of the writer. The readers of such texts have different attitudes and interpretation based on their background knowledge. Verma (2015) assures that stylistics is based on language and it is the approach that is used to make meaningful interpretation to the literary texts. Mehnaz and Khattak (2012: 97) remark that “Stylistic analysis has two main objectives: First, to enable the reader to make meaningful interpretation for the text. Second, to expand knowledge and awareness of the language in general.”

Pragmatic theory is essential in text analysis. It deals with context, writer intention and the sequence of illocutionary acts. Austin (1962); Van Dijk (1977) and Beaugrande and Dressler (1986) among others stress on the pragmatic theory in text analysis which categorizes acts into different types. Austin (1962) summarizes these acts into three categories:
- a- Locutionary act: directing meaning of the text consisting of several orders and ideas.
- b- Illocutionary act: the purpose of the text and the intention of the writer.
- c- Perlocutionary act: the effect of the text on the reader including consequences of illocutionary act.

Pragmatic and stylistic approach links the literary texts and other genres of texts to social aspects. Widdowson (1975) points out that the reader may compare and differentiate between the characters of literary texts with other similar texts to give conclusions and comments. Cultural and social aspects are considered as a bridge between literary texts and linguistic theories. Firth (1958) defines cultural stylistics as a linguistic field which includes different cultural elements like habit, customs, norms and tradition.

II. ARAB-AMERICAN POETS: MAHJAR POETS

When the poet leaves his land and civilization and finds himself in different cultures and peoples, he surely composes the best poems which recall him with his beloved home. He also feels pity and compassion for his land soil. It is
impossible to isolate his poems from his ethnic origin. It is not easy for any of them to leave his beloved home and to leave the land of civilization and to find himself in one of the youngest countries. This is what happens to Arab American Poets whose poetry is based on ethnic origin. The life in USA is challenging to them. They need to face the problems of race, religion, language, etc. which reflect their life in America, so they do not have patience and time to write long literary works like novels. They find themselves turning to poetry which needs less time and effort. Their longing to their beloved countries make poetry composing easier than other types because it helps them express themselves freely based on social and political aspects. As a result of their contact to American poets and style, Arab-American poets seek for some of the American poetic forms. Moreh (1976) assures that Arab-American poets try to find new forms of poetry as a result of their contact with the West by using different forms and models of Western poetry such as the sonnet and the ode. They become free of the classical Arabic form “qasida” which consists of a specific number of feet within a line. Arab-American poets use new form of poetry “free verse”. This type of poetry affects Arabic poetry in terms of form and ideas. Unlike modern Arab poets, the classical Arab poets use the unrhymed and unmetered type in classical poetry “qasida”. Free verse of writing poetry helps Arab-American poets express themselves freely because they focus on transferring their ideas not the form of the poem which is a heavy burden on the poets. The free verse of writing poetry is considered as a challenge and revolution against the classical poetry “qasida”. Talukdar (2013: 22) emphasizes that “simple diction, style and stanzaic form with short metres and techniques of expression borrowed from drama and narratives are the hall marks of Mahjar (immigrant) poetry.” Arab-American poets try to keep their native language (Arabic), traditions, customs, norms and their national ideology, so they reflect these aspects in their poetry. They respond to any cultural and political events taken place in their home countries. They also show their nation-belonging and homeland longing in their poetry.

We can say that Arab poets immigrated to North America in 19th century helped in the development of modern Arabic poetry. They left their native countries mostly for political and economic reasons. This helped him compose great poems which included their nostalgia for the life of the past and their circumstances out their homelands. They expressed their feelings of homesickness. Abumadi (1890-1957) expresses his feeling of homesickness and remembers his homeland Lebanon by describing it as the home of the stars and he addresses his homeland in a poem entitled “the baby and the old man” as follows:

O, my staring homeland
Gaze, do you know who I am
I am that same boy who lives here now

Nasib Arida (1887-1946) is a famous Mahjar Syrian poet and he is a member of the New York pen association. He also expresses his longing to his beloved homeland. He composes a poem entitled (The Narration of the Experiences of Syrian Emigration). He states the following great verse:

A strange man came from the East
Far away from the fervor of beloved ones I lived
Zaki Qunsul (1916-1994) is a Syrian writer who immigrated to Argentina. He remembers his childhood in Yabrud, a Syrian village where he was born. He shows his homesickness in the following verse:

O stranger on the thrones is lying
His bread is from the dough of troubles and exhausting
Allah knows how much we like it (Syria)
And liked a nap under the Pergola

Gibran (1883-1931) shows his homesickness and belonging to the East and he also shows his love and admiration for the West:

No matter how many days, I stay away
I shall remain an Easterner.
Easterner in my manners,
No matter how much I admire Western progress.

The paper sheds light on four prominent poets who are members of Al-Rabita Al-Qalamiyya “The pen Association”: Khalil Gibran (1883-1931); Elia Abumadi (1890-1957); Ameen Rihani (1876-1940) and Mikhail Naimy (1889- 1988). The pen Association helps widely in modern Arab literary renaissance. The paper also analyzes some of their poems based on the stylistic Approach.

III. KHALIL GIBRAN (1883-1931)

Gibran Khalil was born in 1883 in Bsharri, a Lebanese mountain village. He met some of Mahjar (emigrant) writers like Rihani, Naimy and Abumadi. They formed Al-Rabital Al-Qalamiyah (The pen Association). Gibran was the important figure in establishing “The pen Association” which helped in the development of modern Arabic literature.
Jafarov and Ibrahimove (2013:201) state that “the members of the pen Association were in a favor of writing not in classical Arabic language, but in modern simplified one. Thus, they tried to clean up the Arabic language from archaic words.” Gibran wrote in two languages: English and Arabic. His first writings were in Arabic for some journals in New York City which were published for Arab immigration people living in North America. One of his prominent works was the “prophet book”. During the 20th century, the prophet book was the best-selling book in America. It was written in simple English and it was translated into more than twenty languages. It is also said that 9 million copies were sold in the United States. It was a proof to the genius of Gibran. The book is a collection of parables, sayings and it contains some philosophical issues. It is considered the book of wisdom because it deals with different issues occurred in the society.

In the poem “On Children”, Gibran conveys advice and wisdom to the readers as follows:

Your children are not your children.
They are the sons and daughters of life’s longing for itself.
They came through you but not from you.

Gibran in the poem uses simple English that is easily understood. He calls for controlled children freedom because children ought to have their own identity. Parents could not oblige and control their children in choosing religions, careers and other things, so they are children of life and circumstances. Gibran wants to convey a message that parents should avoid overprotection of their children. They should depend on themselves and to be given the opportunities to solve their problems and difficulties and to find effective solutions for their mistakes. In Arab world, parents mostly have tended to keep their children and ask them to avoid things that the parents think they are not suitable to them. Parents’ guide and support are essential for their children provided that such guidance and support do not affect negatively in building their children’s characters.

Two major issues ought to be taken into consideration when analyzing any poem: (a) Interpreting and understanding the poem based on the dimension of the discourse situation; (b) decoding the author’s intention. Elnaili (2013: 11) assures that “the goal of most stylistic studies is not only to describe the linguistic form, but also to demonstrate the significant function for the interpretation of the text.” Gibran in his poem “My Soul counseled me” (وعظتني نفسي) refers to good and evil by creating an image of a dialogue between his soul and himself as a form of advice given to him from his soul and later he transfers such advice to the readers. The observation to be seen in this poem is the use of symbolism and literary figures. The poem touches the heart of the readers because they receive advice which helps them in their life. Gibran uses the allegory to cover different issues relating to love, beauty, life secrets, happiness, time, equality, etc. The poem is concerned with the poet’s repentance which is followed a straying. Gibran finds the truth, goodness and right which are given to him from his soul as advice after going astray. He is seeking with a puzzle and surprising for the nature of human being and the secret of the existence in order to reach the supreme ideals. The poem discusses two types of love. One is the surface love which focuses on wishes and instincts. Such love may give a negative effect on human life because it fosters the selfishness. The other one has a decisive effect on human life. It is Sufi love which goes with human being to supreme and ideal levels. It is the love of God, charities, human beings, equality, etc.

The poem “My Soul counseled me” (وعظتني نفسي) shows the importance of aphorisms and allegories. It goes with human soul to supreme status. It tries to create an ideal city which is full of love, honest and understanding in place of noisy and sad city which is full of pain, oppression and inequality following the literary works written by William Shakespeare, William Blake and others. The poem “My soul counseled me” also insists to dissolve the religious and social differences among people because the human being is the core of universal and existence. Gibran uses free verse as a reaction against classical Arab poem “qasida”. Qasida in classical Arab poems uses the monorhyme and divides the verse of the poem into two hemistiches and monorhyme like the poems of Imru’ Al-Qays. Al-Ma’ani (2012: 80) remarks that “the use of the new poetry, free verse, had led to an eruptive change of form and content. In terms of form, modern Arab poets managed to do away with unirhyme and unimeter scheme of the classical Arabic form”.

Modern Arab poets like Gibran avoid using the rigid unirhyme in order to express themselves freely. This technique of using free verse touches the demands of the Mahjar poets because they are dealing with new philosophical and current issues. Talukdar (2013) emphasizes that Mahjar poets revolted against the classical metric measurement style to free verse which is simple diction with short meters and easy language. They wanted to make Arabic literature more friendly to the readers and easy to be understood. This technique also makes modern Arab poems coherent and united with easy language. Following this technique, Gibran creates beautiful images and expresses his vision, emotion and philosophical ideas easily and freely. In one of Gibran’s poems “Al Mawakib” (processions), he insists that people are created with evil and they have evil souls. He adds that people do not offer charitable deeds by their own choice, but they do so if they are obliged to do so. The first verse in this poem is as follows:

الخير في الناس مصنوع إذا خبروا
والشر في الناس لا يقين ولا قربوا

Good in people is made if they are obliged to do so
and evil in people is not lost even if they are buried.

Gibran in this poem has negative view and attitude towards human soul. In the same poem, Gibran also has negative view towards the surface love. He compares it to grass in the field without flower and fruit as follows:
Love in people takes different forms
like grass in the field;
there is no flower and fruit.

Unlike Al Mawakib (procession) which gives negative views towards human soul and surface love, Gibran gives a positive view towards the soul which is the source of inspiration in the poem “My Soul Counseled Me” (وعظتني نفسي). Gibran’s soul advises him to get rid of bad and evil deeds. His soul preaches him to love what people hate and to befriend with those who revile him. Gibran starts his poem with a supreme philosophical view of love:

My soul spoke unto me and counseled me to love all that others hate
And to befriend with those whom others defame
My soul counseled me and revealed unto me that love dignified
not alone the one who loves, but also the beloved

Translated by Ghareeb (1988: 30)

Gibran’s soul guides him in a form of advice how to look at real beauty because beauty means different things to different people. What people see ugly may be beautiful in the eyes of others. The advice is to look carefully at things before deciding whether they are beautiful or not. Gibran wants to tell the readers that beauty is in the eye of the beholder. Gibran’s soul preaches him and teaches him about different issues like silence, hearing, praising, blaming, time and humble. The soul in this poem is the source of inspiration and wisdom which preaches the poet and the readers to avoid hatred and evil deeds and it calls for virtue, excellence and good deeds. Gibran in his turn transfers the advice of his soul to the readers because they are alike and each of them ought to follow the positive advice of his soul.

IV. ELIA ABUMADI (1890 – 1957)

Abumadi was born in 1890 in a Lebanese village “Al-Maidassa. He pursued his education in Cairo. He published his first book of poems entitled” Remembrance of the past” in 1911. He moved to New York City in 1916 where he met and married Dora Diab whose father was the editor of the first Arabic newspaper in America. Gibran published different distinguished books of poetry in the United Sates like: Al-Jadawil (The Brooks) in 1927 and Al-Khama’il (The Thickets) in 1940. Unlike other Mahjar writers, Abumadi was the least known in America because he wrote all of his works in Arabic. Unfortunately, his wife Dora Diab did not read any of his work because she knew no Arabic. He focused on his poems on skepticism and hope. He added a philosophical dimension to Arab modern poetry.

One of the features of Abumadi’s poems is nostalgia. He suffered the alien, isolation and bitter exile regardless the money he gained. He considered himself as a prisoner in a jail. He expresses his love to his homeland Lebanon in the poem Ghost (شبح):

Lebanon do not despise your children because they rode and ascended to the height everything. They do not abandon you, but they do so because they are created to pearl fishing.

Abumadi was given the chance during his stay in America to acquire American culture and Western civilization. He compared them to Arabic ones. Accordingly, he built a clear character which helped him compose poetry dealing with different issues like good, evil, aspects of life among others. In a poem entitled "أهيدا الشاكي" (O, Complainant), he criticizes a group of people who are complaining from everything. He advises them to enjoy the beauty of life and nature and he addresses them as follows:

O, complainants who complain without any pain.
How will you behave if you become with pain.
The worst on earth is who think
for death before it is the time.
Abumadi also addresses people to leave troubles and to enjoy the beauty of life and see the positive side of life. He is against pessimists:

He said with complains the sky is sad and frowned.
I said: smile! Enough frowns and sad in the sky.
The lengthiest poem in Abumadi’s book Al-Jadwil “The Brooks” is "الطلاسم" (Riddles or Vague Issues). It is considered the peak of Abumadi’s success. It covers many mysterious issues which have no accurate answers. It also describes Abumadi’s failure of understanding the secret of life. He goes side by side with the trends of agnosticism. The poem has seventy-one quatrains ending with Abumadi’s perplexity and his inability to find the correct answer. The poet discusses different topics in the poem like universe affairs and its creator, Man and its destiny, Monastery, the sea, Tombs, Huts, Castles and struggles. It is nearly the first poem in Arabic literature which touches and dialogues the human thought. Abu-Madi starts his poem by raising the issue of the existence as follows:

I came
Not knowing
My feet saw the way
And I walked there
And I shall continue
Whether I so desire or not
How did I come?
How see the path?
I know not

In the verse stated above, Abu-Madi raises different vague issue that he comes to life without knowing from where he comes, but in any way he comes. He does not have the right of choice. To him, his existence in the life is mysterious. He does not know the real truth of his existence. He admits his inability and lack of knowledge about Man’s existence. He is obliged to walk in the path he sees in front of him, but he knows nothing about how he comes and how he sees his own path. The reader can conclude the following philosophical question from the verse stated above.

Is Man created and existent in another world before his coming to life or he is existent at the time of birth?

Abu-Madi adds in his poem:

Old or new
is this existence?
Am I free
or fettered
Do I lead myself
or am I led?
I wish I know
I do not

Abu-Madi refers to the controversial issue “transmigration (metempsychosis) of soul. The following questions may be raised as a reaction to the verse stated above:

a- Is Man free or not? Is he compulsory coming and going?
b- Is the existence of Man a puzzle and riddle?

Abu-Madi is unable to find answers to these questions, so he goes to the nature where he may find answers to his questions. He asks the sea about some strange phenomena, hoping he may find clarification to them:

قد سألت البحر يوماً هل أنا يا بحر منك؟
هل صحيح ما رواه بعضهم عنك؟
أي مرأى زعموا زوراً ويهتائنا وأفكاً
مضحكت أموجي مني وقاتلت

لست لديARI
I asked the sea
Do I come from you?
Is it true
What some say of you and me?
The waves laughed
And called: I do not know


The verse stated above refers to the relationship between the creatures and the sea which could be the source of human life. He refers to Darwin’s theory of evolution. He asks the sea about the origin of human being and whether the source of human being is a sea germ as Darwin claims or it is just lies. The waves of the sea metaphorically laugh at him and say I do not know.

Abu-Madi decides to consult the monastery about the secret of life:

I entered the monastery
To question the monks
Only to find them
As bewildered and amazed
As I am myself
Despair overcome them
And found them submissive
Lo, on the door is written: I do not know

Translated by Ghareeb (1988: 74)

Abu-Madi thinks that the monks may realize the secret of life and they can easily answer the issues and questions raised, but they fail to answer them. They are despair and submissive. As a symbol of their failure, Abu-Madi finds the sign “I do not know” written on the door of the monastery. No one can understand life and it is an indication that the human being is weak and has limited abilities. There is a superpower represented by Allah who controls our life and nature. Abu-Madi concludes and conveys a message that life is a riddle and mysterious.

V. AMEEN RIHANI (1876-1940)

Ameen Rihani was born in 1876 in Freik, Lebanon. His father sent him to New York city in 1888 to learn the principles of English. He studied the writings of great American and European writers like Shakespear, Hugo, Darwin, Spencer, Voltaire, Emerson and Byron. Rihani was a prominent writer because he had diversity of talents. He was essayist, novelist, philosopher and poet. He linked his writings with Arab civilization. Karam (2013: 488) states “Rihani (1876-1940) is a pioneer of modernization, globalization and universalism. Due to his civilization upbringing, and after oscillating between the two contradictory realms of the East and west since the age of twelve, he became obsessed with fostering social reform.” He was interested with the poetry of Abul’ala’ Al-Ma’arri. Accordingly, he translated his poetry which was based on skepticism. Rihani found skepticism a rich area to write about. He wrote different types of writings in English and Arabic. In Arabic, he wrote different essays and letters like “The Rihani essays” (Al-rihaniyyat), Nationalism (Al-Qawmiyat) and Literature and Arts (Adab wa Fan). He wrote different articles about historical and political analysis like Treatise of the French Revolution (Nabtha fih Athawra Al-Faranciya) and Disasters (An-nakabat). He also wrote short stories like “The Muleteer and the Monks (Al-Makari wal Kahen); novels like The Lily of Al-Ghore (Zanbakat al Ghore); poetry like Hymn of the Valley (Hutaf Al-Awdiya). Rihani wrote different works in English: plays like the book of Khalid; essays like the path of vision; poetry like the quatrains of Abul’ala’ Al-Ma’arri. He also wrote different articles about Arab society to the American readers. He published them in New York Times, Harper’s Magazine and Atlantic Monthly and the Nation. Rihani in these articles called for freedom and dignity. He insisted that Arab people should understand the Western democratic society in order to build their societies accordingly. He asked for equality among the people of the world regardless religions and races. The following verse is taken from “A Chant of Mystics”

We are not of the East or the West
No boundaries exist in our breast
we are free
Nor crescent nor cross we adore
Nor Budha nor Christ we implore
Muslem nor Jew we abhor
We are free
We can conclude from the verse stated above that Rihani calls for unity between Arab world and the whole world. To unite our nations with the world, we should avoid ethnic and class discrimination so that the minorities should not be harmed and they should also take their rights. The ethnic or religious minorities should feel secure and comfortable in their societies. Rihani assures that each member in the society regardless of his religion or ethnicity should be given an equal opportunity as others. He is against the struggle of civilizations which lead to wars and disasters. He believes in liberal side which focuses on the idea of world citizen, so we people of the world are not of the East or the West.

Rihani wants to acquaint the Arabs with their unique heritage. He is proud because he comes to America from the East which has rich civilization and it is the cradle of religions and civilizations. He adds that Arab civilization helps in building the Western one. He concludes his thought in the following verse taken from a poem entitled “I am the East”

I am the East
I am the corner stone
of the first temple of God
and the first throne of Humanity
I am the East
I possess philosophies and creeds
so who would exchange them with me for technology.

Rihani asserts his pride to the East. He shows his adherence and love to Eastern civilization. Rihani gives his loyalty, his belonging and identity to the East which is the cradle of civilizations and cultures. Gibran stresses this view in “secrets of the Heart: 19”. He states that the culture of the West is not better than the East because both cultures are important and complete each other. Rihani and Gibran show their belonging and adherence to both cultures. They remark that Eastern culture plays a decisive role in the development of Western civilization and provides the West with scientific heritage since the dawn of history. Rihani wants to give a hint for Western readers about the role of the East in developing their culture. The West benefits from the Arab scientists like Al-Ghazali’s theory of causation; Ibn Al-Haytham’s mathematical works; Al-Khwarizmi’s algebra and logarithm theories; Ibn Sina’s medical works; Ibn Rushd’s physical and philosophical theories; Al-Mas’udi’s evolution theory and they also benefit from the Arab art of architecture.

VI. MIKHAIL NAIMY (1889 – 1988)

Naimy was born in 1889 in Biskinta in Lebanon. He died in 1988 at the age of ninety-nine. In 1912, he pursued his higher education at the University of Washington, joining his brother who was living in the United States. During his study at the University, he wrote different articles and topics on criticism. He also wrote short stories which were published in the Mahjar journal “Al- Funun”. Naimy served with US military army in the First World War. He was sent to the French front during the war. This gave him a motive to study French history and literature and later to compose an important war poem entitled “My Brother” (أخي). He wrote a collection of twenty-two of critical literary works in Arabic which were considered the greatest service to Arabic poetry. These literary works were gathered in a book under the title “The Sieve” (الغرابل) in 1923. The Sieve was considered by literary critics as a prominent book on literary criticism. It shed light on the major principles of the Mahjar poet movement as a reaction against the classical poem “qasida”. In 1943, most of other Naimy’s literary works were collected in one book named “Eyelid Whispersings” (همس الجفون). He also gave his vision about the community life after the expected war “Third war” in a book entitled “Beyond Moscow and Washington” which was published in 1957.

One of Naimy’s prominent Arabic Poem is “My Brother” (أخي). The poem reflects his experience as an American soldier of Arab origin who was fighting in the First World War. The poem is written after the war. It is published in his book “Eyelids Whisperings” (همس الجفون). It focuses on the Arab situation after the First World War. The poem is prominent in the field of Arab literature because of the eloquent language used and the effective vision of the poet. He wants to describe the Arab loss after the war. Arabs participated in the First World War seeking dignity and better life. They played a decisive role in the war, but the west did not appreciate and understand their role and sacrifice. Naimy addresses his Arab brother as follows:

Brother, if on the heels of war Western man celebrates his deeds
Consecrates the memory of the fallen
And builds monuments for heroes,
Do not yourself sing for the victors nor rejoice
over those trampled by victorious wheels
Rather kneel as I do, wounded, for the end of our dead

Translated by Elmusa and Orfalea (1988: 59)
Naimy addresses his Arab brother to remind him of the Arabs’ suffering after the war without the appreciation of the west. He, for rhetoric reason, deletes the vocative particle (يا) "ya" and starts in a condition as follows:

**Brother, if on the heels of war Western man celebrates his deeds.**

The answer of the condition is stated as follows:

**Do not yourself sing for the victors nor rejoice**

In this verse, Naimy gives the solution for the Arab brother what to do. He asks him to kneel and weep our dead. He also asks his Arab brother to be careful and to be not happy if a Westerner brags because of his victory in the First World War and glorifies the memories of his brave soldiers because Arabs sacrifice in the war without any rewards and without the West appreciation. We should kneel silently in order to weep over the misfortune of Arab dead soldiers who sacrifice for the case of Arab dignity and progress. We can do nothing for our dead brothers more than bowing and weeping silently. Naimy emphasizes that the West glorifies and sanctifies the memory of their dead and the oppression of their soldiers although this comes as a result of human pain and destruction. He also gives a miserable image after returning the warriors to their homelands:

**Brother, if after the war a soldier comes home and throws his tired body into the arms of friends,**

**Do not hope on your return for friends**

**Hunger struck down all to whom we might whisper our pain.**

**Except the ghost of our dead**

Translated by Elmusa and Orfalea (1988: 59).

Naimy in the second verse gives the miserable social relations among the people after the war represented by the return of the warriors to their homelands and families. If the warrior returns to his homeland after the war and he tries to find friends and pals, he will find nothing other than hunger, destruction, loss, famine, diseases and the miserable life. The warrior thinks that he may find comfort and ease in his homelands after escaping from the claws of death, but instead, he finds the ghosts of dead. Naimy wants to transfer an important message to the readers that wars leave destruction, despair, hunger and hatred. He wants to assure that no one wins in the war. All the combats are losers because wars are against humanity so that people must avoid wars and solve their struggles by peace means for the sake of humanity and innocent people. Naimy emphasizes his message in the third verse as follows:

**Brother, if the farmer returns to till his land**

**And after long exile rebuilds a shack**

**Which cannon had wrecked**

**Our waterwheels have dried up**

**And the foes have left no seedling**

**Except the scattered corpses**

Translated by Elmusa and Orfalea (1988: 59)

The poet also addresses his brother in the style of condition in the form of not using the conditional particle (إذا) (if). For rhetorical reason, Gibran uses (إن) (that) in place of the conditional particle (إذا) (if) as a decisive way of stressing and conveying the ideas. The war ends and the farmer wants to rebuild houses and work in his farm and sows it. He wants to rebuild a cottage of the farm after a long exile. He cannot do so as a result of the destruction of the war. The answer of the condition comes in the third line of the verse. The waterwheels had drained and our dwellings collapsed by the war. He may use the metaphorical meaning that our life has collapsed by disgrace and inferiority. The enemy does not leave any plant in our lands other than the corpses of the dead and the disgrace. According to the current situation, the best to do is stated in the following verse:

**Brother, misery nested everywhere through**
Do not lament. Others do not hear our woe.
Instead follow me with a pick and spade that
we may dig a trench in which to hide our dead.

Translated by Elmusa and Orfalea, 1988: 59.

Naimy addresses his Arab brother that the disgrace and misery are everywhere in our countries. We could have the ability to stop the calamity by ourselves not by the help of others who do not appreciate our sacrifice. We should blame ourselves because no one in the world may support us or hear to us. We should collaborate in order to solve our troubles and problems by ourselves. The poet refers to the miserable situation of the Arab world after the war. He states no one may touch our calamity and catastrophe. It is a reference to Arab’s submission and humiliation after the war. As a result of the miserable situation, Naimy asks his Arab brother to follow him with axe and spade to dig our brothers’ graves who are everywhere in our lands. He gives a symbolic image that pain and despair are everywhere in our countries and the corpses of our people are lying in their graves without glory and dignity because they gain nothing. He may ask his Arab brother as a metaphorical image to follow him in order to dig graves for all Arab people to get rid of the shame and disgrace. The real intention of Naimy is to give a shock for Arab people in order to urge them to restore their glory and dignity and to be counted and effective in the world. It is a remark for glorious future.

VII. CONCLUSION

During the late 19th century, many Arabs emigrated to North and South America for better life and conditions. Some of whom had an interest in Arabic and English literature. The place of emigration was a rich area for them to write about their homelands and Arab issues. It was the place of inspiration for them to compose great poems with free verses which helped them express their ideas and feelings freely and easily. Khafaji (1986) states that Arabic countries were under the crisis of authoritarian rules, so large group of Arab countries immigrated to North and South America. Their feelings and sadness towards their homelands were reflected in their poems. Some of the prominent emigrant (Mahjar) writers like Khalil Gibran, Ameen Rihani, Mikhail Naimeh among others established literary organization entitled Al-Rabita al Qalamay ya (The Pen Association). The Pen Association played an important role in modern Arab literary renaissance. The love of Mahjar writers to their homelands and their feeling of homesickness gave them the opportunity to compose great poems. Jokandan and Shakib (2015: 427) states “Mahjar poets’ feelings towards the distant lands far from home and worry and sadness were expressed in poetic form.”

The Mahjar poets built links and bridges between East and West literature specifically poetry. Some prominent Arab emigrant poets (Mahjar Poets) who contributed in developing modern Arabic poetry were Amin Rihani, Khalil Gibran, Mikhail Naimy, Elia Abumadi, Etel Adnan, Samuel Hazo, Naomi Shihab among others.

REFERENCES


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Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

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