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# A Comprehensive, Research-based, Peer Review and Self-evaluation Module for Integration into Combined Composition Classes for Second (L2) and Heritage (HL) Language Learners of Spanish

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**Abstract**—Second (L2) and heritage (HL) language learners face a variety of similar challenges when they approach the writing of Spanish compositions. Practitioners have often suggested peer editing as a prefinal step to help identify student writing errors that can be corrected before submission of a final product. However, some studies reveal that student writers do not always trust feedback from their classmates and hesitate to follow through with peer recommendations to the same extent they will from their instructors. This paper suggests an enhancement to the traditional peer editing process that combines a semester-long training program in peer and self-evaluation along with a research-based instrument for a more comprehensive evaluation of Spanish compositions. The instrument is versatile enough to serve students who place at different levels of proficiency along both L2 and HL learner continuums. The paper argues that by becoming a better peer evaluator, one in turn becomes a better self-evaluator. This new process returns control to students, creates more self-reliant writers, and empowers them to significantly improve their essays prior to submission. The paper concludes with the suggestion that if students adopt this process and continue its use it for future compositions, they can eventually become sufficiently trained to the point at which application of evaluation criteria becomes part of their normal mental routine before submitting any written work.

**Index Terms**—composition studies, peer review, Spanish, heritage learners, second language learners

## I. INTRODUCTION

Whether it is your first or second language, writing can be a highly prescribed form of expression, based on norms established by society or a linguistic community. In contrast, most oral speech occurs in the moment, is haphazard in nature, characterized by stops and starts, and with little concern if any for word choice, grammaticality, or complexity. Writing, on the other hand, is intended to be read after the time at which it is composed, and the writer theoretically has more time to spend on such elements as word choice, spelling, or grammar. The down side of written work is that expectations are usually much higher than those for oral speech, and therefore, it takes much longer to produce, and when graded, undergoes much closer scrutiny. Such essential differences between speaking and writing are precisely what make these unique and distinct skills to acquire in both L1 and L2 contexts.

## II. PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION OF THIS PAPER

In 2017-2018, I conducted a study of composition errors from a class of fifteen students, from both heritage (HL) and non-heritage (L2) backgrounds, and between whom I compared the frequencies of 30 error types over a semester's time with the writing of five essays (Ryan 2018). In addition to analyzing the data, a second purpose of that study was to devise strategies and recommendations for instructors on how to address the different needs of the two populations in a single classroom setting. As a matter of practicality and for limitations of space, the errors presented in Ryan (2018) were restricted to those occurring in both groups with moderate to high frequency. This being said, it was always my intention to write a second paper that would focus on the student more than the teacher. It is therefore the purpose of the present article to provide a more comprehensive matrix of the word and sentence level error types found among the original fifteen student participants of the 2017-2018 study, and to propose a new peer review and self-evaluation module that can be incorporated into the student writing process, so that future L2s and HLs, as well as their peer reviewers, may take a more proactive stance in improving their compositions before ultimately turning them in for a grade.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> In Ryan (2018), heritage learners were represented by the expression "L1" in order to distinguish them from second language learners, who in that same study were represented as "L2." This simplified dichotomy was adequate for purposes of that paper since no distinctions were made, as will be made here, among first (L1), second (L2), and heritage (HL) language learners.





have been heavily influenced by transfer from another language they have been exposed to (Camacho (2018), as in the hypothetical cases of HL<sup>2</sup> and HL<sup>3</sup>, may exhibit significantly more errors than HL<sup>1</sup>. Lastly, yet another category of heritage learner, represented here as HL<sup>4</sup>, and who has had minimal exposure to Spanish, may produce language output resembling more that which is typical of an L2 speaker/learner. These differences are important to keep in mind when considering the wide variety of possible errors that are presented here to have been observed in both learner populations.

**Heritage and non-heritage learner errors: What’s the same? What’s different?**

One of the central points made in Ryan (2018) was the observation that both non-heritage and heritage students of that study frequently made the same types of errors throughout the semester, though in different distributions. Figure 2, reproduced here from Ryan (2018), compares the overall percentage distribution of word errors that were identified for both heritage and non-heritage students of that study.

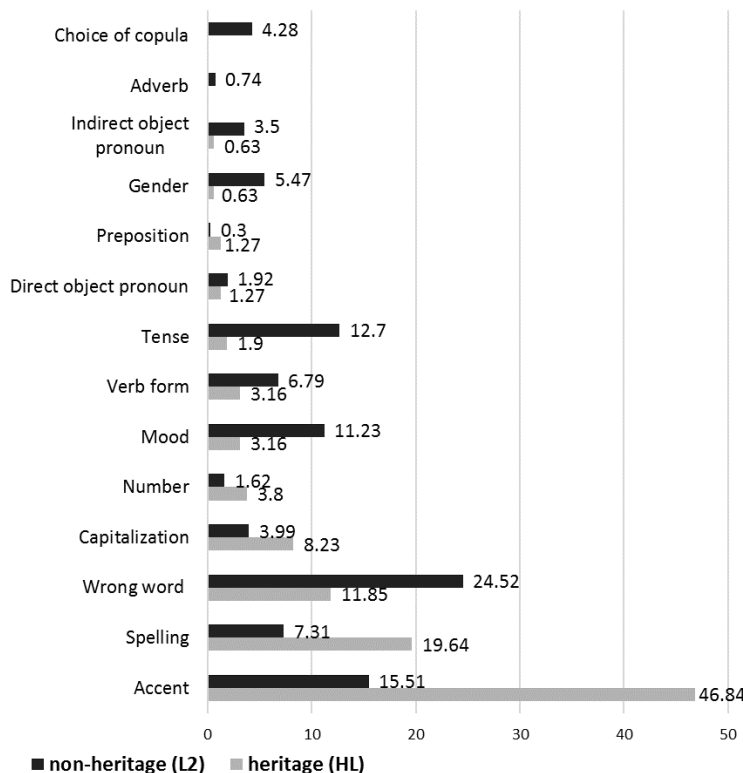


Figure 2: Comparative percentage distribution of overall L2 and HL word-level errors (Ryan 2018)

Figure 2 confirms that although word-level errors were committed to different degrees between heritage and non-heritage students, most were found to occur in both groups, and some at rates ranging from moderate to high frequency.<sup>5</sup> The figure shows that errors in the use of accents, word choice, and spelling were the most common for both groups, followed by those of capitalization, verb form, and mood. Figure 2 also shows that errors involving copula choice and adverb usage were committed exclusively by L2 students, and that although heritage speakers also committed a small number of errors in terms of gender and pronoun use, these were more often committed by L2 students.

Figure 3 shows the percentage frequency of sentence-level errors among students of the Ryan (2018) study illustrating that, with the exception of subject pronoun redundancy, both heritage and non-heritage learners, as was the case for word-level errors, once again exhibit the same types of errors, but in different proportions.

<sup>5</sup> Moderate frequency is defined here as over 5% occurrence, while high frequency is defined as over 10% occurrence.

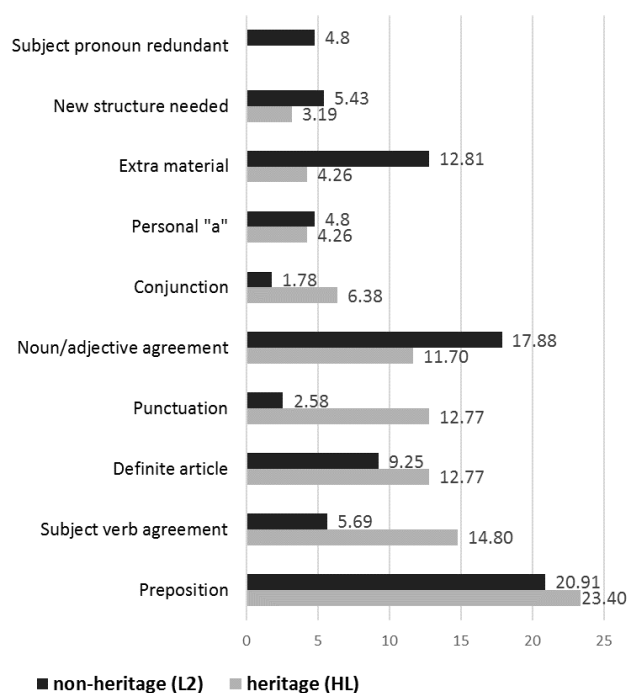


Figure 3: Comparative percentage distribution of overall L2 and HL sentence-level errors (Ryan 2018)

Figure 3 shows that faulty preposition use is the most prevalent error at the sentence level for both L2 and HL students, followed by errors of agreement (both nominal and verbal), as well as the definite article. Other less problematic items for both groups, yet existing nonetheless, were inadequate conjunction usage, the personal “a”, erroneous structure, unnecessary additional material, and punctuation deficiencies. Only L2 students were found to overuse subject pronouns when unnecessary.

#### **Matrix of L2/HL Learner Composition Errors**

This section takes a deeper look at Spanish learner errors and the extent to which they have been found to be similar or different between each population.

##### *A. Transfer Errors (Typical among Second Language Learners and Some Heritage Learners)*

Second language learners of Spanish, particularly those who are first language speakers of English and are newer writers of Spanish, tend to make the following errors that are more grammatical in nature, primarily because the structures they must form in Spanish are things that we just do not do in English. Such errors tend to have to do with agreement, the misuse or omission of prepositions, and the unfamiliarity with Spanish-specific rules regarding null subjects or differential object marking, all because these are handled so differently in English.

##### *1. Errors of agreement*

a. *Noun-adjective agreement*—Because of the large number of nouns that typically occur in a sentence as compared to any of the other lexical parts of speech, one of the most common and numerous composition errors found in Ryan (2018) for English speakers learning Spanish, was the lack of agreement between nouns and their modifiers, these being adjectives and determiners. Because these forms are not inflected in English, it is not surprising that a second language learner whose priority is that of communicating the meaning of a form, pays secondary attention to the inflection of the form. An example of this would be the incorrect target of the utterance ‘a pretty house’ as *\*un casa bonito*, the correct form being *una casa bonita*. Another complicating factor of noun-adjective agreement is that some Spanish nouns are not as transparent as others in terms of their gender, especially when these end in a consonant or have a specialized etymology, which in turn give rise to some students using the wrong article (e.g., *\*la huracán* instead of *el huracán*). Some heritage students who lie somewhere more toward the middle of the L1-HL-L2 end of the spectrum, and typical of our hypothetical HL<sup>2</sup> or HL<sup>3</sup> speaker in Figure 1, have also been observed to misgender more obscure nouns as in *\*la problema* because of the final *-a*, typical of feminine nouns, with the correct form being *el problema* ‘the problem,’ which is masculine due to its Greek, and not Latin, origin.

b. *Subject-verb agreement*—Another common composition error found in Ryan (2018) for second language and some heritage learners in Spanish was the lack of agreement between the verb and its subject. Because we almost never do this in English, only in the third person singular of the present tense and in the present tense of the verb to be, the lack of this type of agreement is also typical of the transfer type error. For example, in English the subjects I/you/we/they all take the same verb form (i.e., “study”), whereas in Spanish these same subjects all take different inflections of the verb form (e.g., *yo estudio*, *tú estudias*, *nosotros estudiamos*, *vosotros estudiáis*, and *ellos estudian*). This is further complicated by the fact that all other Spanish tenses are fully inflected as well.

## 2. Prepositional errors

a. *Unnecessary prepositions*—In English we sometimes use the preposition “of” after the word “all,” as in “all of my friends,” or “all of my work,” however, in Spanish one NEVER uses the equivalent preposition *de* in this same way. For example, one would never say *\*todos de mis amigos* or *\*todo de mi trabajo*. You can ONLY say *todos mis amigos* or *todo mi trabajo*. Another example is the overuse of *para* ‘for’, or in this case ‘to’. Students often do this when they have to use the infinitive in Spanish and because the English infinitive consists of the sequence ‘to + bare verb form’, they feel it necessary to supply *para* before the Spanish infinitive as well. The problem here is that the Spanish infinitive is a self-contained single word. Examples of such a transfer error are the expressions *Es difícil para trabajar*. ‘It is difficult to work’ or *Es fácil para manejar* ‘It is easy to drive’. Additionally, some verbs in English behave differently from Spanish when it comes to prepositions that are required after a verb. For example, the preposition *a* is always required after the verb *ayudar*. “to help (someone) do (something)” *ayudar a hacer (algo)*.

b. *Missing or incorrect prepositions*—Another example is the verb *soñar* ‘to dream’ that requires the preposition *con* ‘with,’ whereas in English “dream” requires the preposition “of” or “about.” Additionally, the prepositions *por* and *para*, both meaning ‘for’ in Spanish are typically confused by students because of the fact that English has only one equivalent corresponding to both words.

## 3. Subject and object marking

a. *Subject pronouns*—Spanish, being a null-subject language, does not require subject pronouns as does English. In fact, the overuse of pronouns in Spanish makes a composition sound redundant and non-native-like. Ryan (2018) has observed that only the second language learners and none of the HLs of the study overused pronouns.

b. *Personal “a”*—In English we treat direct objects the same whether they are animate or not. In Spanish, however, direct objects that refer to people or pets are usually preceded by the particle *a*.

c. *Definite articles*—Definite articles (*el, la, los, and las*) are used much more often in Spanish than they are in English. English speakers who are writing in Spanish often leave out definite articles when speaking of things in general, but they are required. Notice how Spanish and English are so different in this respect. *¿Te gusta el pan?* ‘Do you like bread?’ or *La gente dice...* ‘People say...’ Students tend to transfer the English tendency when writing Spanish so they would write *\*Te gusta pan?* or simply, *\*Gente dice.*, both without the definite article which in turn would make them incorrect.

## 4. Other transfer errors

a. *Incorrect pronouns of address* (and/or maintaining these throughout a text)—Whereas English employs a single pronoun of address, “you,” standard Spanish, on the other hand utilizes two pronouns of address, *tú* for informal contexts, and *usted* (abbreviated as *Vd.* or *Ud.*) for more formal occasions. L2 students have been observed to overuse the *tú* form regardless of the one that is required in Spanish. Yet another tendency is for L2 learners to alternate the use of the two forms within the same document, as in a cover letter or other business correspondence, where the informal pronoun would never be used.

b. *Copula choice*—Spanish uses three different verbs to express the different uses of the English verb “to be.” These are *ser* (for more permanent qualities), *estar* (for temporary qualities or states), and *haber* (in the existential sense). L2 students tend to overuse *ser* in capacities where the other two verbs are required.

c. *Missing relative pronouns or conjunctions*—In larger or complex sentences in English, we can often omit the word “that” when used as a relative pronoun or conjunction, however, in Spanish the word *que* in these circumstances is absolutely necessary. So, in English where it is permissible to say, “I know you have to go.” in Spanish you would have to say the equivalent of “I know **that** you have to go.” Or *Sé que te tienes que ir*.

d. *Word order*—Oftentimes, students need reminding that certain word orders in English do not hold true for Spanish. For example, attributive adjectives tend to follow nouns in Spanish more often than they precede them. In fact, in cases where they precede the noun, they usually have a more specialized meaning (e.g., *mi antiguo profesor* ‘my former professor’ and *la catedral antigua* ‘the old cathedral’).

## B. Non-transfer and Discourse-level Issues (Typical among Some Heritage and Advanced Non-heritage Learners)

Unlike transfer errors, issues at the level of discourse are less dependent on the level of proficiency of the writer and tend to have more to do with more abstract qualities, such as creativity, approach, and polish.

1. *Repetition and redundancy*—One writing pitfall that commonly goes unnoticed when the focus of the student is on structure and grammaticality is the repetition of nouns, verbs, or adjectives that can make an essay sound highly redundant. Many students continue to use the same words to express the same thought or idea throughout their composition. These can be words such as *incendio* ‘structure fire’ or  *mascotas* ‘pets’ in compositions about these topics, or even simple verbs that also typically get repeated throughout, such as *tener* ‘have’. One thing I ask students to do is to read their composition aloud to themselves and to think what it would sound like if it were written in their first language. It is then that they realize just how simplified their composition sounds. At this point I suggest students think of synonyms that work just as well and to alternate these to add some variety to the vocabulary of their essays. One way students can improve their essays and make them more interesting is to do a prewriting step that entails brainstorming and looking for synonyms or paraphrases that they can use to vary the ways in which they express the same topic throughout their writing. Likewise, heritage learners should consider exploring other ways of saying what they would normally use in everyday conversation.

2. *Creativity*—Related to the preceding category, another way students can make their essays more interesting is to be creative about how they approach a topic or express an idea. For example, a composition about dogs can become rather boring if the word dog is used throughout, however, by adding some colorful alternate words or expressions, like “man’s best friend,” or “little hairy companion,” both of which have near equivalents in Spanish can significantly improve an essay. Or imagine you are writing about something burning in a house fire you can express this notion with *las llamas* “flames” or *infierno* “hell.” Another way to make a composition less predictable and more entertaining for the reader is for a student to experiment with point of view. For example, when writing a personal narrative, it is customary to write in the first person. One exercise students find interesting is the rewriting of a personal account in the third person. This is a good way to make students understand the third person omniscient perspective. Alternatively, switching the point of view of a composition to the first person and writing on behalf of the protagonist can render equally fascinating effects, also making an essay more pleasant to read.

3. *Variety in sentence length*—Some students think that if they keep their sentences short they will generate fewer errors. While this can be true, writing shorter sentences can also have the additional effect of making an essay sound simplistic and even monotonous. Frequent short sentences have another side effect in making it necessary to repeat words throughout a paragraph.

4. *Avoidance of stream of consciousness writing (unless appropriate)*—The style of writing known as stream of consciousness is an organic type of writing that pays less or no attention to punctuation and can be quite effective when writing personal narratives, or when writing fiction. However, this type of writing, is not always practical for all writing assignments. The very nature and purpose of writing is to create a record for posterity and therefore, punctuation and clarity are necessary.

### C. Miscellaneous Orthographical or Editorial Mistakes

One of the most important last steps before submitting any composition for a grade is to check for careless typographical/editorial mistakes such as capitalization, misspellings, repeated words, and missing or incorrect punctuation. This stage corresponds more to the traditional “proofreading” stage of compositions, and should be the absolute final step before submitting the written work.

1. *Capitalization and spelling*—Spanish does not capitalize nearly as often as does English. For example, days of the week, months and the names of languages or nationalities are not capitalized in Spanish.

2. *Accents and other diacritical marks*—English does not typically carry written accent marks and therefore students either do not use them or they do so inconsistently. The first category are monosyllabic words that carry an accent mark simply to distinguish them from homonyms spelled identically, but without the accent. Examples are *más* meaning ‘more’ as opposed to *mas* meaning ‘but,’ *tú* meaning ‘you’ as a subject as opposed to *tu* meaning ‘your’, or *él* meaning ‘he’, as opposed to *el* meaning ‘the’. In each case, when used the first way, these words are always accented. These words simply have to be memorized as having accents. The second category of accents are those required for words that are more than one syllable long. Spanish has very specific accent rules that must be memorized. It is because of the straightforwardness and rigidity of the written accent rules in Spanish, that when it is compared to other Romance languages such as Italian, it is much more predictable in terms of pronunciation.

3. *Punctuation*—All standard signs of punctuation that are used in English are the same ones that are used in Spanish. There are a few exceptions, however. For example, just as periods and exclamation and interrogative marks are used to mark the ends of sentences in English, they do so as well in Spanish. However, unlike English, Spanish also employs inverted exclamation and question marks at the beginning of these utterances as well. Students often forget this convention when writing in Spanish.

#### **“Active” Versus “Passive” Writing: The Case for a Pre-submission “Peer Review and Self-evaluation Module”**

Students approach compositions from a variety of perspectives and as suggested in the previous section, both L2 and HL learners tend to commit the same types of errors albeit in different distributions. Add to this other such variables as topic, style, genre, a student has so many factors to consider before finalizing a composition that is “ready” to submit. Although it is natural for an individual to be more careful with word choice, spelling, or grammatical constructions when writing, I have observed that students still manage to do this in a more passive sense. In other words, many students, HLs and L2s alike, typically sit and type a composition in one sitting much in the way they would sit to compose a personal letter, writing what comes to mind without much forethought or planning. To make matters worse, these same students seldom apply stringent standards or specific criteria when returning to review and revise their own work, and much less when reviewing that of others. The result is self or peer feedback that is seldom adequate for students to be able to significantly improve their essays.<sup>6</sup>

<sup>6</sup> Language students are confronted with a dual challenge, a more basic one which is that of expressing oneself, and another which is more advanced, that of making a coherent argument. Additionally, one must remember that language is primarily an oral phenomenon (Azevedo 2008). Writing in both first and second language contexts, is a convention that is only learned with education after one first acquires the spoken language and a working knowledge of the grammar.

The piece that appears to be lacking in the L2 writing process, even where student peer evaluation has been incorporated as an element toward the end of the process, is a step where students conduct a highly structured and informed self-evaluation of their writing prior to submitting it to either a peer or the instructor for a grade.

What if students could be trained to take a more active stance in the evaluation process not just toward their own compositions but when evaluating essays written by others as well? The truth is that writing in any language, including Spanish, is somewhat of an art, and if provided some additional tools to approach the task more actively, with both demonstration and practice of how this should be done, students can improve their writing significantly.<sup>78</sup>

What is proposed here is an enhancement to the L2/HL student composition writing process that integrates a multi-phased module for peer and self-evaluation of student compositions as a process that takes place not only at the end of each composition, but rather throughout the entire semester, beginning with comprehensive demonstration and training of the proposed method by the instructor, followed by practical application with exercises, and ending with full implementation on actual compositions. The flowchart in Figure 4 illustrates how this new module can be inserted into the writing process of existing L2/HL composition classes that may or may not currently have a peer evaluation component already built in.

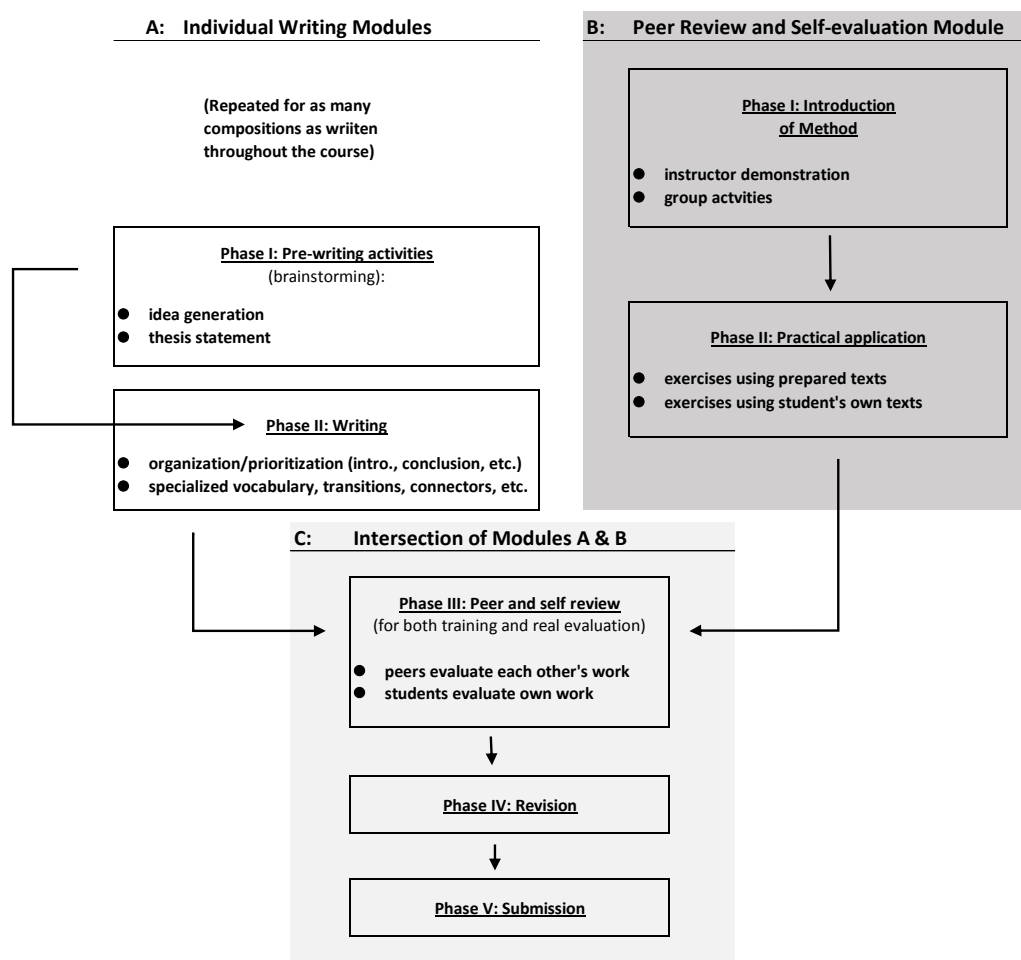


Figure 4: Flowchart representing integration of the “Peer Review & Self-evaluation Module”

Figure 4 shows how a semester’s work can be divided into three categories: A. Individual Writing (IW) Modules; B. the Peer Review & Self-evaluation Module; and C. Intersection of Modules A & B (Implementation):

Category A, or “Individual Writing Modules,” corresponds to the various compositions that are traditionally assigned to students for a grade over the course of a semester and so the module repeats throughout the semester for as many compositions as are assigned. Phases I and II under Category A are unshaded in the figure because they are essentially

<sup>7</sup> Active writing here does not refer to the avoidance of passive voice when writing as in Conroy (2019), but rather taking a more active role in looking for and addressing certain errors before submitting a composition.

<sup>8</sup> One might consider this step as a type of bookend to the initial brainstorming or fact-finding stage that the student may initiate before sitting down to write the first draft of a composition. Just as one during this initial phase would consider such options as a thesis statement, vocabulary, organization and prioritization of ideas, the proposed prefinal stage would likewise include a list of items. The difference between the brainstorming stage and this one is that this one would be much more specific in terms of the items that one would “check” to ensure the composition is ready to submit.

the same as the prewriting and writing phases that one would find in traditional composition classes. In order to understand what happens after Phase II within this module, it is first necessary to explain Category B. Peer Review and Self-evaluation Module (here represented by the darker grey shading).

Category B, or “The Peer Review and Self-evaluation Module,” is an innovation that this paper proposes to integrate into the existing composition course, as a semester-long process that provides students with tools necessary for the active review of their own or others’ compositions. Phase I of the module begins at the very beginning of the semester, well before compositions (of Category A) are ever written and introduces both the criteria and the method that students would use throughout the semester to evaluate each composition assigned. Among the first tools that the instructor would share during this phase are checklists of specific problems and issues that students should look for in a structured fashion when reviewing any piece of writing in the L2. The ideal checklist would consist of items that are found regardless of the type of essay written. At this stage, the instructor would demonstrate step-by-step how to go about using the checklists provided during the review process. At this point the instructor would also conduct group activities to ascertain the student’s understanding of the method, as well as to reinforce certain items that students find difficult to discern. Phase II of this module continues to develop abilities and sensitivities to some of the more common composition pitfalls by assigning and reviewing a number of exercises where students have to identify the errors of both prepared texts as well as their own. Once students are comfortable with the tools, method, and practical application, they are then ready to move on to Phase III where they will implement these new skills.

Category C. Intersection of Modules A & B (represented by the lighter shade of gray in the figure), is the point at which both modules of this integrated writing program overlap and where implementation of what students have been practicing in Module B finally takes place with the review of compositions actually written for a grade. Category C consists of Phases III, IV, and V, each corresponding respectively to the activities of peer and self-review, revision based on these reviews, and final submission. In other words, Phases III, IV, and V resume where Phase II in both Categories A and B end.

#### ***Checklists for Use with Peer Review and Self-evaluation of Spanish Compositions***

The previous section discussed the need for two checklists that could be used as criteria for the review of student compositions under Category B. The Peer Review and Self-evaluation Module of Figure 4. Figures 5 and 6 are such checklists for potential use in Spanish composition classes. Both instruments take into account data and observations from Ryan (2018), as well as additional data from the same 2017-2018 study that produced Ryan (2018) but, for reasons cited previously, were not reported in that paper. In other words, the categories of errors that are included as criteria for review in Figures 5 and 6 are based on authentic, combined L2 and HL student data.

Moreover, both instruments have been designed to be analogous to the L1/HL/L2 continuum in Figure 1, in that earlier items in Figure 5 are more remedial for L2 or HL students still working out grammatical and transfer issues. Intended to be used consecutively, both checklists cover a wide range of writing pitfalls from less to greater complexity. Depending on where a student lies on the L2 or HL learner continuum in Figure 1, s/he can either start at the very beginning of Figure 5 or somewhere further down the list. It is recommended that the student use Figure 5 first to identify grammatical errors and to then move to the second checklist in Figure 6 which deals with higher-level discourse issues and makes recommendations for improvement in terms of style, creativity, and flow.

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
1) All adjectives/articles should agree in gender and number with their nouns. (INCORRECT: <i>un casa bonito</i> CORRECT: <i>una casa bonita</i> )	
2) All conjugated verbs should agree with their subjects in person and number. (INCORRECT: <i>nosotros estudias</i> CORRECT: <i>nosotros estudiamos</i> )	
3) Definite articles are used to express general things in Spanish. (INCORRECT: <i>Me gusta pan</i> CORRECT: <i>Me gusta el pan.</i> )	
4) Subject pronouns are only used to clarify. They are not <u>always</u> required like English. Their overuse can make your Spanish sound redundant. (UNLIKELY: <i>Ella ha visto al chico.</i> LIKELY: <i>Ha visto al chico.</i> )	
5) The personal "a" is required before direct objects that are persons or pets. (INCORRECT: <i>María quiere su mamá.</i> CORRECT: <i>María quiere a su mamá.</i> )	
6) The subjunctive mood is required after most impersonal expressions and statements of doubt, volition, or contrary to fact. (INCORRECT: <i>Es importante que vienes.</i> CORRECT: <i>Es importante que vengas.</i> )	
7) The Imperfect tense is used to narrate background information in the past while the preterit is used to convey individual past actions. (INCORRECT: <i>Llovió mucho cuando llegué.</i> CORRECT: <i>Llovía mucho cuando llegué.</i> )	
8) Some Spanish structures do not take prepositions as they might in English. (INCORRECT: <i>Todos de mis amigos</i> CORRECT: <i>Todos mis amigos</i> )	
9) Some Spanish verbs take prepositions while they do not in English. (INCORRECT: <i>ayudar hacer algo</i> CORRECT: <i>ayudar a hacer algo</i> )	
10) Spanish adjectives are usually placed after the noun. (INCORRECT: <i>sucias manos</i> CORRECT: <i>manos sucias</i> )	
11) The verbs <i>ser/estar/haber</i> all mean "to be" in different ways. (INCORRECT: <i>Lo es escuchando.</i> CORRECT: <i>Lo está escuchando</i> )	
12) The prepositions <i>por</i> and <i>para</i> both mean "for", but in different ways. (INCORRECT: <i>Gracias para el regalo.</i> CORRECT: <i>Gracias por el regalo.</i> )	
13) The pronouns <i>tú</i> and <i>usted</i> both mean "you" but in different situations. (INCORRECT: <i>Señor Gómez, ¿estás tú listo?</i> CORRECT: <i>Señor Gómez, ¿está Vd. listo?</i> )	
14) Some expressions don't translate into Spanish from English and require a new structure. (INCORRECT: <i>Estaba terminado.</i> CORRECT: <i>Había terminado.</i> )	
15) Single syllable words that have a written accent have different meanings from the same words written without an accent (e.g., <i>él/el, más/mas, tú/tu</i> , etc.) (INCORRECT: <i>Mario quiere mas.</i> CORRECT: <i>Mario quiere más.</i> )	
16) Direct, indirect, and reflexive pronouns are used and positioned correctly. (INCORRECT: <i>Regalé lo a Tomás.</i> CORRECT: <i>Se lo regalé a Tomás.</i> )	
17) Check for careless typographical/editorial mistakes such as capitalization, misspellings, repeated words, and missing or incorrect punctuation. (INCORRECT: <i>Paco habla Español.</i> CORRECT: <i>Paco habla español.</i> )	
18) Spanish uses inverted question marks and exclamation points to mark the beginning of a question or an exclamation. (INCORRECT: <i>Qué quieres?</i> CORRECT: <i>¿Qué quieres?</i> )	

Figure 5: Checklist for peer and self-evaluation of transfer and other grammatical errors (common among second language and some heritage learners)

	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
1) <b>Be creative.</b> Make your composition more appealing by making it unique. You can do this by beginning your composition with a bold statement, a quotation, or a question you would like to answer. If it is a personal narrative, fiction, or a dialog you can start with the quote of a person central to the dialog that sets both the mood and tone of the remainder of the composition. Also experiment with point of view. If what you are writing is something that is normally written in the third person, such as a descriptive essay, try writing it in the first person. Conversely, if it is a personal narrative that reads more like a diary entry, try writing it more in the third person omniscient.	
2) <b>Avoid redundancy or repetition</b> of nouns, verbs, adjectives. If you are a non-heritage learner, ask yourself if you would write this way in your first language. One way you can improve your essay and make it more interesting to read is to do a prewriting step by thinking about and looking for synonyms or expressions that you can use to enhance your writing. As a heritage learner, explore other ways of saying what you normally use in everyday conversation.	
3) <b>Vary sentence length.</b> Some students think that if they keep their sentences short they will generate fewer errors. While this can be true, writing shorter sentences can also have the additional effect of making an essay sound simplistic and even monotonous. Frequent short sentences have another side effect in making it necessary to repeat words throughout a paragraph. When possible, make sentences longer and more complex to help avoid redundancy and repetition.	
4) <b>Avoid stream of consciousness writing (unless it is appropriate).</b> The style of writing known as stream of consciousness can be quite effective when writing personal narratives, particularly when the writer wants to convey thoughts. The result is a kind of organic type of writing, that pays less attention to punctuation; however, this writing type is not practical for all writing assignments, particularly those that are more formal in nature. Most times, punctuation and clarity are necessary for the reader to understand what you write.	
5) <b>Use transitions and connectors</b> to help your paragraphs flow both internally and between each other. Not only does it make your essay much easier to read, but it also helps organize your thoughts and tighten your composition. Consider such expressions as <i>primero, luego, después, por último, a diferencia de, en cambio, por una/otra parte, por consiguiente</i> , etc.	
6) <b>Use conjunctions</b> to help strengthen your sentences and make your arguments. Such expressions as <i>sin que, con tal de que, a menos que, a pesar de que</i> , etc. can help you make your points more persuasive.	
7) <b>Be careful with verb tenses.</b> In addition to the aspectual differences between preterit and imperfect tenses, Spanish has a number of perfect tenses ( <i>haber</i> + past participle) that help to convey with utmost accuracy the precise timing of one action with regard to another.	
8) <b>Word choice.</b> Check your composition throughout for appropriate word choice. One example is the word <i>nomás</i> 'only' which is a colloquial expression and would be appropriate in personal narratives, but not in more formal types of writing, such as a business letter.	
9) <b>Concluding statement or paragraph.</b> Be sure your composition doesn't just drop off without some kind of conclusion or statement that ties your entire work together. This part can also be effective in driving home your thesis statement.	

Figure 6: Checklist for peer and self-evaluation of typical discourse issues (common among both second language and heritage learners)

## V. CONCLUSIONS

The goals of this paper were twofold: The first was to build on the work of a previous paper (Ryan 2018) that proposed strategies that fellow teachers of Spanish composition might implement in combined classes of HL and L2 student learners. Conversely, the aim of this paper was to shift the focus from teacher to student, and in addition to the recommendations made in Ryan (2018), introduces the notion of an active writing program for students, offering a new semester-long module that provides students with criteria and training to become better peer reviewers and self-evaluators of their own writing. In other words, to reiterate assertions by Nas and van Esch (2014), the ultimate goal of any composition instructor is to provide students the tools they need to become better evaluators of their own writing.

The advantages of the proposed method are several. First, it returns control to students by providing a pre-determined inventory of error categories the students can use to evaluate their compositions before sharing them with a peer or their



instructor. Secondly, application of the proposed module makes the student self-reliant and empowers them. In this sense, although the intention of the module is for the student to conduct better evaluations of their own writing, once a student is trained, the same instrument should also then be used to guide what specific types of errors to look for when evaluating the work of a classmate.

Finally, and in conclusion, it is also suggested that with continued use of the module, the student will begin to incorporate this phase into their normal routine before submitting future compositions. In other words, it will essentially condition the student to more thoroughly ‘check’ for certain things when s/he is approaching the final stages of writing. Of course, an ultimate goal for more advanced students might be that they start to incorporate some of the evaluation criteria proposed here even before reaching the peer review/self-evaluation stage, essentially making items on the proposed checklists not only ones they must return to when checking previously written work, but rather also things to consider, or in some cases avoid, during the writing process itself.

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# Using Activity Theory to Explain How a Student Learns in an Internationalised Classroom from a Sociocultural Perspective

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**Abstract**—This paper focuses on mediation, which is one of the concepts developed by Vygotsky under the umbrella of sociocultural theory. It also draws on activity theory as a theoretical framework to understand the learning experiences undertaken by an international student engaged in a 12-month programme in the UK for one year. This study adopted a qualitative approach; which involved conducting a semi-structured interview with the participant to provide an in-depth understanding of how tools and artefacts in culture and in wider society mediated the process of learning and development. Activity theory helped elucidate how this process was facilitated by socialising with others and through mediational tools. This paper identified three areas where dynamic and complex social activities took place: speaking English, attending class on time, and critical thinking.

**Index Terms**—sociocultural theory, activity theory, mediation, learning, development, tools, artefacts, international

## I. INTRODUCTION

An internationalised classroom is one where students from various nationalities study the same subject. Through the application of activity theory, and by drawing upon key sociocultural concepts relating to social interaction, this paper shows how being a learner, which is thought of as a social practice, is mediated by tools and artefacts in an internationalised classroom, which is thought of as an arena for ongoing social activity. Tools and artefacts are used interchangeably in this paper to indicate implicit and explicit instruments that are used to achieve a goal.

### A. Contextualising the Study

The participant of this study is a female student who recently, along with other international and British students, engaged in social practices through her participation in a 12-month programme in the UK. Because I had known the learner for three years prior to the programme and interacted with her during the one-year course, she felt comfortable discussing learning situations. A key reason for choosing her was to understand how the process of cultural activity (i.e. a learner engaged in a social activity) occurs and is mediated in an internationalised classroom.

My aim is to explore this dynamic social activity by highlighting the learning opportunities and societal community the participant engaged in (Hodkinson, Biesta & James, 2008). Upon completion of the 12-month programme, the participant is expected to have achieved the required learning outcomes for all modules. These outcomes are designed so that the student can critically analyse learning and teaching situations within different and wider contexts. Attendance was compulsory and therefore monitored. A feature of this programme was that the lecturers are native English speakers who also participated in the activities.

### B. Research Aim

The aim of the study was to explore and understand how the participant socially engaged with, and was mediated by, social and cultural tools in the ongoing flow of being in the internationalised classroom.

### C. Research Questions

- How do mediational tools facilitate the participant's learning/development?
- How does learning/development take place within the ongoing social activity?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, a concise review of relevant sociocultural theory will be presented regarding social activity within an internationalised classroom.

### A. Sociocultural Theory and Learning

Sociocultural theory was first developed by Vygotsky, who articulated the relationship between children's development and society as one in which learning takes place through social interaction. Sociocultural theory was then

further developed by Lave (1988, 1991), Rogoff (1990, 2003), and Wertsch (1991). In its current form, it posits that learning and development takes place on two different levels:

Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological).

This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 57)

According to Vygotsky, the first principle of sociocultural theory is that development occurs at various levels. He therefore proposed the following planes of development: microgenetic (development happens moment by moment in the interpsychological plane), ontogenetic (the appropriateness of mediational artefacts and their integration in the development of the individual), cultural/historical (the mediational artefacts in society), and evolutionary (a phylogenetic change/development across generations), all of which indicate changes in each individual's cognitive development (Cole, 1996; Shabani, 2016).

Sociocultural theory thus conceptualises an individual's interaction with people, objects, and events as constituting the process of cognitive development. Thus, development through human activity cannot be detached from its social, cultural, and historical context (Johnson, 2009). From a sociocultural perspective, social and cultural tools shape the higher functions of the individual, whose learning is thus contextual (Snow, 1994).

Mediation is one of the main concepts developed by Vygotsky and conceptualises interaction as socially and culturally mediated by artefacts such as language, materials, signs and symbols. All facilitate the cognitive development of the individual (Robbins, 2005) through the dialectical relationship they have with human thinking and action (Wertsch, 1991, 1998). For instance, artefacts help individuals internalise social practices that are then externalised as cultural actions or behaviours. The key question to then consider is how internalisation takes place in the ongoing activity system. Wertsch suggests that artefacts or mediational tools cannot be separated from the process of achieving a goal. For example, in the classroom the teacher facilitates the process of internalisation by supporting students in the use of mediational artefacts, such as classroom activities; the language that describes these activities; and the language used for communication in the classroom. These tools are influential because of the tutor's perceived value and authority (see Wertsch and Rupert, 1993) which highlights the role played by the community in this dynamic activity (see Fig.2).

Language is therefore the primary mediational tool and is referred to by Vygotsky as a process of semiotic mediation. Language has both an inward (i.e. thinking in the mind) and outward (i.e. social interaction) function as a linguistic tool that mediates learning and development (Lantolf, Thorne and Poehner, 2015). The manifestation of such roles can be seen in the externalisation of language when performing tasks, problem solving, and collaborating in the classroom. The participant in this study therefore employed language as a mediational tool when engaging in the process of learning as a form of social activity. Through language, she was able to set goals and begin to take actions. These were ostensibly meaningful, conscious, and planned actions that were designed to achieve those goals and others connected to activities with different objects.

Another key principle is that of 'social others', who are part of the dynamic activity and play a role in learning and development (Nasir & Hand, 2006). This aligns with Vygotsky's claim that learning takes place through social interaction (1978). For example, in the classroom the teacher and students facilitate each other's participation in a complex activity where socialising with classmates shapes an individual's learning and development. A More Knowledgeable Other (MKO) is one of those 'social others' but with greater knowledge. MKOs therefore play a vital role in the development of other students whilst also being a student themselves. For example, in a study conducted by Bligh and Fathima (2017, p. 539), one of the participants disclosed that "interacting with her partner nurtured her independent skills". Although the context of this study is different, it nevertheless shows how MKOs can play an additional yet vital role in legitimate peripheral participation (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and thus facilitate learning/development.

To understand how the participant in this study develops, we therefore need to analyse and understand the activities in which she has engaged using activity theory. This theory, according to Kuutti (1996, p. 25) and in line with the scope of this study, is defined as a "framework for studying different kinds of human practices as development processes, with both individual and social levels interlinked at the same time" (see section 3.4). The social practices in which an individual engages, and makes use of cultural artefacts, can assist the process of learning and development (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Nasir and Hand contend that "teachers and peers strive to create learning settings which offer novices new ways of participating and thus supporting learning" (2006, p. 463). Such settings both contain and comprise cultural artefacts and meanings that learners consequently adopt, use, and modify when socialising with others to achieve goals (see Fig.1). To elucidate the internalisation process, Brown, Collins and Duguid (1989, p. 7) developed the concept of enculturation, whereby "people, consciously or unconsciously, adopt the behaviour and belief systems of new social groups". From a sociocultural perspective, students observe and internalise the ways in which their classmates and teachers behave in the classroom. As they create and recreate meanings through the mediational tools available in their activity system, their thoughts then regulate their own behaviours (Lantolf & Appel, 1994). Wertsch (1998) argues that the knowledge formulation process, in which learners engage in social events, is one of enculturation and is replete mediational artefacts. Bligh and Fathima (2017, p. 540) argue that "[i]t is through interaction in shared

activity that he [one of the participants] adjusts his thinking and behaviour to bring about a change". I therefore claim that, to fulfil her goal, the participant in this study observed and encultured social practices. Therefore, analysing how she acted using activity theory will provide an insight into the meaningful flow of this activity.

### *B. Learning in an Internationalised Classroom*

An internationalised classroom is an arena for social activity. It is a form of social life where human actions are produced and ruled by cultural, political, and economic institutions (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). When individuals engage in activity, their beliefs and behaviours are refined, generated, and internalised (Donato & McCormick, 1994). The internationalised classroom is thus social in nature and developed through rules, social interactions, and connections with people (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

Lave and Wenger (1991, p. 35) state that "learning is an integral part of generative social practice in the lived-in world". This suggests the classroom environment is not simply an arena in which to learn abstract knowledge, as social and cultural practices are also learned through mutual interaction. Vygotsky contends that "[i]n the process of development, the child not only masters the items of cultural experience but the habits and forms of cultural behaviour, the cultural methods of reasoning" (1929, p. 415). Regarding the role of mediation, Abreu and Elbers (2005, p. 3) claim that "[t]he experience of being participant in a multicultural classroom leads to new transitions, and demands the creation of new concepts, values and practices". Therefore, a dynamic and complex process is taking place during the 12-month programme, which seems to be that as tools help to achieve outcomes (e.g. to understand what critical thinking is), those outcomes become mediational tools that assist in achieving other outcomes (e.g. to be able to engage critically in the assignments). Hence, understanding this dynamic process is important in elucidating the process of learning undertaken by this individual when engaging in classroom-based social activity.

## III. METHODOLOGY

This section describes the methodology of this study which, drawing upon activity theory, explores, describes, and clarifies the learning process undergone by this female student during the 12-month programme.

### *A. Qualitative Approach*

A qualitative approach was implemented in this study. As noted in section I., this paper explores one case in a dynamic context. This study is not ethnographic as the participant completed the programme prior to this report. The research falls within the interpretivism paradigm and thus assumes reality is socially constructed. The aim was therefore to understand the reality of the world as it appears to the participant through an understanding of the interpretations she offered. This qualitative approach is intrinsically subjective in its nature (Silverman, 1993), and thus the behaviours of others are interpreted through a subjective lens. A subjective, perspectival view will therefore be provided on how she views and understands the world around her, and her interpretation, or representation, of the activities in which she is engaged.

### *B. Research Method*

An informal interview was therefore conducted to understand the ways in which the participant was socially mediated during the process of learning. For instance, Volet and Ang (1998, p. 7) argue that interviewing the participant is "critical for understanding the impact of socio-cultural and contextual factors on their behaviours". Moreover, Punch (1998) argues that interviews enable people to provide authentic information about their own experiences. The participant's answers to the interview questions were thus given from her perspective and provide a basis for understanding how being in an internationalised classroom mediate and co-constituted her actions. It is important to note that the participant and I shared the same language, which helped reduce the risk of misunderstanding. This meant she could choose how she wanted to describe social interactions and mediational tools in response to the questions asked. One difficulty I encountered was in encouraging her to think outside the box and provide more details about her situation. This is because less conscious actions were sometimes meaningless to her yet were important in understanding how learning took place. As part of the process, I explained any concepts the interviewee did not understand and avoided leading questions in favour of more open questions, which consequently engaged her more deeply with the content and rendered some non-conscious operations more meaningful.

### *C. Ethics*

Ethical issues relating to the confidentiality and anonymity of the participant were taken into careful consideration. She also provided written informed consent as she was given a detailed explanation of the study, including the aims of the research and how the results will be presented, before the interview began. This redressed the unequal power relationship between the researcher and the researched. Indeed, she readily understood this herself as she was once a researcher.

### *D. Data Analysis Method*

The question that drove the analysis was: how can the practices engaged in by the participant during classroom-based social activity be understood? Activity theory was therefore utilised in this paper as a theoretical framework for

analysing and understanding the case in its social context. As such, it helped me to orient and understand the behaviours of the participant and the way in which she used tools when taking part in social activity. For instance, understanding when and why she set goals and how she tried to achieve them enabled me to give meaning to dialectic tensions such as knowing and internalising that could lead, respectively, to performing and externalising (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). This suggests that contradictions shape and develop the thinking and actions of individuals engaging in social activities. I argue that it is not simply about the behaviours she internalised, but, more importantly, how she developed or failed to develop social practices through the available mediational tools. The implementation of activity theory thus enabled me to critically understand the complex and dynamic process in which she engaged, individually or collectively, within the internationalised classroom.

The dynamic and complex process of development an individual undergoes (Hardman & Amory, 2015) can be understood by explaining the hierarchy of the activity (Leont'ev, 1978). This enhances and enriches the process of analysing the actual situations in which the participant engaged. However, it is important to highlight the difference between social activity (i.e. internationalised classroom) and the activity itself (see Fig.1), which is “the broadest level process within the hierarchy and is always connected to a motive” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 217). Thus, each activity comprises a group of actions that are consciously carried out by an individual or a group of people (e.g. writing a list of words to learn their pronunciation) and this is the actions level, while the operations level refers to less conscious operations (e.g. holding the pen to begin writing) that shape the actions. The following table shows the hierarchy of activity and indicates how activity, actions, and operations work together to achieve a goal (Leont'ev, 1981).

Activity	Oriented by a motive	Carried out by a community/ society	To achieve the objective (object in Fig. 2). The individual needs a motive, which is the intention and the drive to fulfil the activity.
Actions	Oriented by a goal	Carried out by an individual or a group	The individual's actions are given meaning by the activity. The actions are planned, directed, and consciously undertaken to achieve the goal.
Operations	Oriented by condition(s)	Carried out by an individual	Less conscious, and using physical and implicit tools, these are the means through which an action is performed. Depending on the activity, an action can be a routine and is thus at the operations level, or can it be more conscious and is thus at the actions level.

To illustrate how the participant's activity is mediated, the triangle developed by Leont'ev (1978, 1981) and then graphically presented by Engeström (1987) is used. In so doing, the unit of analysis is the whole activity.

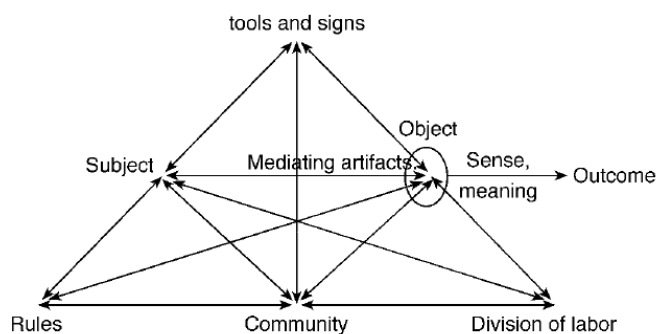


FIG. 2. The structure of a human activity system (Engeström, 1987, p. 78).

This triangle represents the second generation of activity theory. This model enabled me to understand this individual based on the cultural means (mediational tools and artefacts) and power individuals have to use and produce tools and artefacts (Engeström, 2001) to achieve objects (objectives). The object can be materialistic or nonconcrete, and shared by all participants (Kuutti, 1996). The model also enabled me to understand how a human activity is performed collectively by considering: the rules (i.e. the policies that regulate the actions within the activity), the community (i.e. the people, or one person, that share a similar object with the participant), and the division of labour (i.e. the tasks divided among the participants which could relate to their power and status). This model was applied to the participant to elucidate how she performed the activity to achieve the object (e.g. improving her English) using mediational tools. The subject (the participant), the object, and the tools of the activity system will be the focus of discussion in the next section.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

As noted previously, Vygotsky contends that an individual develops through their relationships with other people (e.g. a community such as lecturers and classmates) with the help of mediational tools (e.g. language).

### A. *Speaking English*

The participant revealed that she preferred to sit with native speakers to improve her use of the English language (a goal) and that one of her friends was a British woman whom she preferred to socialise with (one of the principles of sociocultural theory). Her goal was in line with the notion of how “learners... can develop a view of what the whole enterprise is about and what there is to be learned” (Lave & Wenger, 1991, p. 93). This suggests her interaction with native English speakers provided her with a motive to improve her English. This enabled her to fulfil her goal (i.e. speaking English like a native) along with other objectives such as writing a critical review to achieve an outcome (i.e. successfully completing her 12-month programme). To achieve her goal, she therefore had a motive that drove her to fulfil the activity. Thus, understanding her goal was essential.

Bligh and Fathima, in their study, argued that goal-oriented communications (actions oriented by goals) provide peers with rich social interactions that “enable the construction of knowledge [fulfilling the goals towards the activity] through problem solving and shared meaning” (2017, p. 542). In the current study, it can be argued that the participant’s British friend could also function as an MKO (community) because her level of English was more advanced. Leont’ev (1981, p. 56) also argues that “[i]n the process of material production, people also produce language, which serves not only as a means of social interaction but also as a carrier of the socially elaborated meanings that are embedded therein”. For instance, during the interview, the participant stated:

When I used to talk to my friend, I used to focus on her pronunciation of the words... I like that... It makes me think how I can speak like a native speaker... It is funny I used to look at her lips and this made me think about how to say words...

Her friend’s use of verbal (speaking) and nonverbal communications (body language such as how her lips move) as mediational tools may have made other mediational tools available that were hitherto hidden (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). This suggests the participant did not simply observe and absorb the functions and language of her friend (conscious actions carried out to fulfil her goal) as, from an activity theory perspective, tensions arose when she conversed with her friend, such as how to pronounce words like a native speaker. This promoted the hands-on utilisation of artefacts, such as turn-taking conversations, thinking about what to say, and how to say it. Thus, in accordance with Bødker (1996), when the participant began to talk her focus was at an operation level as she consciously searched in her mind for words and how to pronounce them. This suggests that she became more conscious of muscle movement, such as imagining what and how to say words, and signals are then sent to her brain. However, with practice, actions become operations that do not require full attention. This indicates a mastery of tools, as well as learning. Such a complex and dynamic mode of interaction indicates that “[t]he interweaving of our cultural and biological inheritances gives rise to higher mental functions – that is, functions such as memory, attention, rational thinking, emotion, and learning and development that come under the intentional and voluntary control of the person” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 59). The social actions in which she engaged, performed, and lived therefore demonstrated how social interaction shaped her cognitions (Lantolf & Johnson, 2007).

### B. *Attending Classroom on Time*

Another example presented by the participant during the interview arose when she emphasised that:

...the tutor used to speak with a strict language about being in the class on time... and this affected me... I also noticed the other students come to class on time, so I thought why I come late?... so I tried to arrive the classroom early or on time...

This suggests that MKOs and other mediational tools revealed by the participant such as the timing of the sessions, the deadlines for assignments, and the punctuality of other students, were rules that collectively worked alongside the division of labour (because the teacher or the university set the rules) and enabled her to achieve her objective. Based on Leont’ev (1981), it can be claimed that some of these rules are at an operations level because they have been mastered and are now paid less attention. For example, the participant mentioned that some students attend class on time; she seemed compliant and thus paid attention to this rule by setting a goal to attend class on time. This is her action level. To reach the operations level, semiotic resources will play a vital role in developing her higher mental functions. Other forms of regulation such as the value and authority of the tutor and strict language emphasising the need to attend class on time could be effective mediational tools that give her the ability to self-regulate (Thorne, 2003). This confirms the earlier discussion regarding the inward-outward roles played by language in developing higher mental functions (Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner, 2015). This in turn was also mediated by everyday actions and then built on by experiences during the 12-month programme. According to Rogoff (2003) and demonstrated in the study by Bligh and Fathima (2017), participants enhance their skills through demonstrations and everyday actions which, according to activity theory, impel novices to observe and become competent (when actions become operations). The emphasis is therefore on the assistance and guidance of MKOs (i.e. classmates and tutors) and how the mediational tools described previously became meaningful in fulfilling the participant’s goal to become more punctual.

### C. *Critical Thinking*

Rear (2017) claims that Western universities place a heavy emphasis on teaching students to think critically (rules in activity theory), which is defined as the “intentional application of rational, higher order thinking skills, such as analysis,

synthesis, problem recognition and problem solving, inference and evaluation” (Angelo, 1995, p. 6). In the interview, the participant says:

... the tutor taught us to ask questions like why and how... some questions are in the handout... I think this helped me to understand and give reasons for the things I am doing... I sometimes ask myself why I am doing this... and ask myself why is this in this way... these things I learned in the classroom... my classmates ask the same questions and I started to do the same... I also tried this in the assignments... we had a lot of assignments... when I submitted the first draft... the tutors told me I need to reflect on my first draft... they taught me to ask those critical thinking questions to make my writing more critical...

According to Vygotsky, mediation constitutes the “behaviour of another human being in social interaction” (Donato & McCormick, 1994, p. 456). This suggests that, through her interaction with and observation of others (interpsychological plane), the participant practiced, built, and utilised the skills of rationalising and problem solving (this is her action level) in the internationalised classroom with the assistance of MKOs. The other mediational tools mentioned were the handout and the assignments. The language used in these tools played a vital role in enabling her to develop higher mental functions. The participant seemed very involved and engaged in activities with MKOs or those deemed to have value and authority, such as her tutors. The outcome of some of these activities (e.g. developing critical thinking skills) could then be mediational tools for other activities (e.g. writing a critical review in the assignment), which illustrates the layers of the complex activity in which she engaged. More importantly for this study, however, is to understand the process underlying the activity. Based on Leont’ev’s summary (1981), the motive of the participant was to think critically. Listening and paying attention to the teacher taught her how to ask critical questions: thus, reading and trying to understand the information in the handout, listening carefully to other students, asking herself critical thinking questions, and reflecting on her assignment were all planned and conscious actions targeted at fulfilling her goal. At the operations level, conditions gave rise to less conscious and automated means, such as looking at the teacher while speaking, looking at the words she used to read in the handout, and listening to a student who was talking.

## V. CONCLUSION

Understanding sociocultural concepts and implementing them to explain people’s process of development has broadened my understanding and enabled me to look differently at those around me in the workplace. For instance, the concept of mediation has broadened my vantage point as a MKO and mediational tools will be present in any classroom. Therefore, they should be made available for students to foster their learning.

From an interpretivist perspective, reality is socially constructed and this meaning is ascribed to people’s actions within their surrounding contexts. My prior knowledge and experiences played a role in my interpretation. However, in endeavouring to achieve a fusion of horizons, I can see how I am situated in making the meanings that emerged in this study. Moreover, focusing only on some aspects and concepts of activity theory (as the focus of this study was on the subject (the participant), object and tools), and interpreting social interactions based on these, is another limitation because these may not represent the full picture regarding the process of development.

In addition to its theoretical and empirical contributions, it is also important to acknowledge the limitations of this study. One such limitation is related to the use of Activity Theory as a theoretical framework for understanding the participant. As a researcher, a full understanding of the system surrounding the activity is a must when observing the participant, and in this study the participant was not observed inside the classroom but after completing the 12-month programme. Another limitation arose when distinguishing between the levels of the activity, the actions, and the operations. Furthermore, the research time should be long enough to understand the activity, which is a recommendation for future research, and should also involve striving to understand things from the participant’s viewpoint. Despite these limitations, Activity Theory avoids applying causal explanations for the interactions in which the participant was involved. By using the activity system as a unit of analysis, it therefore helps in understanding the dynamic systems operating within our lives.

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# Second-language Proficiency and Exposure to Work Environments—Their Impact on Pragmalinguistic Knowledge of Implicature

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**Abstract**—to determine whether second language (L2) proficiency and exposure to work environments influence language learners' pragmalinguistic knowledge of implicatures, I surveyed 76 native and non-native participants in Australia. Thirty non-native respondents were from working contexts and 31 from tertiary education institutes, and 15 native speakers were drawn from a university context. Analysis revealed no working context effect on understanding of implicature items but substantial L2 proficiency effect, and some length of residence effect on pragmatic knowledge of implicature. I concluded that formulaic implicature is more difficult to understand than idiosyncratic implicature in which the conversation's principles are violated. This study has potential implications for policy making in the areas of Australian language, curriculum development, pedagogical approaches, and English teacher professional development and standardisations.

**Index Terms**—implicature, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, EAL, ESL, non-native English speakers

## I. INTRODUCTION

Many English as an Additional Language (EAL) learners struggle to comprehend and use the English language's pragmatic components in classrooms or real-life encounters. This is true even for advanced learners, who may still lack pragmalinguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge and have language proficiency that far exceeds their pragmatic knowledge (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990, 1993), possibly due to insufficient natural pragmatic input in the classroom (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1996; Kasper, 1997).

This study was designed to examine the performance of implicatures of non-native speakers of English (ENNS) in relation to their language learning and workplace contexts. I sought to investigate whether advanced L2 learners have less pragmatic knowledge of implicature than advanced ENNS working in Australia or vice versa. I also aimed to examine whether the formulaic implicature which follows a routinised pattern in conversations is more difficult to understand than idiosyncratic implicature, in which the Grecian conversation's maxims are violated (Grice, 1975). As in previous research (Bouton, 1999; Röver, 2005b; Taguchi, 2005), I studied the relative impact of exposure and proficiency on comprehension of implicature across contextual variance. I also examined the impact of length of stay and degree of communication with English Native Speakers (ENSs) outside work or study on understanding of implicature.

The outcomes of the study indicate the need to adapt necessary work placements in EAL courses in Australia. They also suggest the need to conduct further research on the implicature items used in various contexts and the possibility of introducing them into Australian EAL curricula design. In the following sections I review previous works on interlanguage pragmatics, outline the research questions, methodology and results, and discuss the significance of the main outcomes.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Pragmatics

Pragmatics are concerned with how the transmission of meaning relates not only to the linguistic knowledge (e.g., grammar, lexicon) of the interactants, but also to the context, the speakers' previous experience and knowledge about interlocutors' status, inferred intent and so on. Grice (1975) proposed that in ordinary conversation, certain cooperative principles, in which the interlocutors cooperate to achieve mutual conversational ends, help shape understanding of utterances. According to Kasper (1997), to be pragmatically competent, one has to comprehend and produce a communicative act. This often requires knowledge of social cultures, the norms of the relevant speakers and covert and overt linguistic knowledge. Consequently, pragmatics help understanding of the implicit message.

### B. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Within the second language acquisition (SLA) domain, pragmatics is referred to as interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) (Kasper & Rose, 2002). ILP studies the continuum of L2 learners' development of knowledge about how the language

is practised according to its appropriate sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic norms. It incorporates L2 pragmatic development, its use, production and comprehensions as well as instructed learning and assessment (Niezgoda & Röver; 2001; Bouton, 1988, 1994a, 1999; Taguchi, 2007; Yamanaka; 2003; Cook & Liddicoat, 2002;). Many factors affect the development of ILP knowledge, such as environment, proficiency level, quality of input, overgeneralisation, simplification, aptitude, motivation and other individual differences, degree of interaction with ENSs, field of occupation or study, and amount of television viewing (Röver, 2005; Schmidt, 2001; Yamanaka, 2003). Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) divided pragmatics into pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Both components refer to the skills and strategies for conveying communicative acts and interpersonal meanings within the frame of social perceptions which underpin participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action. Being sociopragmatically competent means knowing the social conventions for "what you do, when and to whom" (Kasper & Röver, 2005, p. 2), particularly perceptions of relative power, social distance, and degree of imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Pragmalinguistic competence encompasses knowledge of conventions of means (strategies for realising speech intentions) and conventions of forms (linguistic items used to express these intentions) (Kasper & Röver, 2005). For instance, implicature is a linguistic strategy (convention of means) for conveying an implicit or indirect message/meaning in English, but the linguistic items (conventions of forms) used to perform this strategy can be formulaic implicatures such as indirect criticism or irony. Both types of knowledge enable L2 learners to correctly appropriate pragmalinguistic tools into sociolinguistic norms. In the ILP continuum, pragmalinguistic and sociolinguistic competence are not always comparable; learners can be more sociopragmatically than pragmalinguistically competent or vice versa (Niezgoda & Röver, 2001).

Most pragmatic research has concerned speech acts, such as greeting, request, apology, refusal, complaint, invitation (e.g., Omar, 1991; Hassall, 1997; Trosborg, 1995). Some work relates to situational routines (Kasper & Röver, 2005; Kanagy & Igarashi, 1997), but few studies, thus far, have targeted conversational implicature–inferences that can be drawn from an utterance by examining its conformity to the canons of normal conversation and its pragmatic function within the situation (Bouton, 1999; Taguchi, 2007; Yamanaka, 2003).

Over the past two decades, researchers have examined ILP comprehension and development at different proficiency levels and how this correlates with overall L2 proficiency. Rose (2009) compared 98 Hong Kong primary school children's apologies, requests, and compliment responses. In the case of requests, conventional indirectness and supportive moves increased with increasing English proficiency. Rose found that English as a Second Language (ESL) proficiency was the major factor in pragmalinguistics performance, and that students' ESL pragmalinguistic knowledge was ahead of their sociopragmatic knowledge. Trosborg (1995) found Danish learners of English with increased proficiency used near native-like request strategies. Hill (1997) examined request strategies used by Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners at three proficiency levels; with increasing proficiency, they used fewer direct request strategies and used conventionally indirect requests almost at an ENS level. Taguchi (2007) found that highly proficient learners produced utterances faster and more accurately and were better – than those with lower proficiency levels - at comprehending non-conventional implicature (Taguchi, 2008b, 2011).

Exposure also plays an important role in learners' pragmatic knowledge. It includes length of residence, interaction with ENSs with whom socialisation occurs, having an ENS partner, learning opportunities in or outside the classroom, and language settings (Kasper & Rose, 2002). Numerous studies have targeted the function of environment in pragmatic competence development. Matsumura (2001) examined Japanese ESL and EFL learners' perceptions of interlocutor social status and found an exposure effect for ESL learners. To her, high-contact learners were more target-like in judgements of appropriateness (Matsumura, 2003). High exposure is also helpful to adapt speech–act realisation to social situations (Shivey, 2011). Highly exposed groups know culturally accepted ways of talking about everyday matters, such as the weather or food (Dufon, 2006). Some researchers regard exposure as the most important factor in knowledge of routines, and view proficiency as negligible (Osuka, 2017; Röver, 2011). Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) found that ESL learners had greater pragmatic than grammatical awareness, whereas EFL learners had greater grammatical than pragmatic awareness. These findings indicate that residency in the target language environment means greater contact, more input, more gap awareness, and more motivation to acquire pragmatic competence for ESL than for EFL learners (Schmidt, 2001). Niezgoda and Röver (2001) replicated Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) finding that ESL learners rated pragmatic errors as significantly more severe than grammatical errors, except in the case of the highly motivated EFL group. In addition, various researchers have shown that length of stay in the acquired speech community affects the pragmatic competence of ENNS (Bouton, 1994b; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Yamashita, 1996).

### C. *Implicature Studies*

Pragmatic comprehension refers to the ability to understand implied speaker intention using linguistic knowledge, contextual clues, and the assumption of relevance (Horn & Ward, 2008). Contextual clues can be drawn from the immediate or the larger socio-cultural context (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). For instance:

A: Will Sally be at the meeting?

B: Her car broke down.

+> Sally will not be at the meeting.

Here, speaker B assumes that the cooperative principles are in operation and A is not purposefully saying something irrelevant or not paying attention to her, deducing that Sally will miss the meeting because her car broke down and she cannot come to work. Understanding this kind of implicature requires minimal contextual knowledge, but some instances require considerable background knowledge. For example, if A asks B to go to shopping centre X after 5 pm, B might respond: "It's Monday". To decipher this implicature, speaker A has to activate her background knowledge about shopping hours and recall that shops close at 5 pm at shopping centre X on Mondays. This kind of implicature is not universally possible. It makes sense to someone who is aware that shops usually close at 5 pm on Mondays at that particular shopping centre, but would be much more perplexing to someone who is not aware of the shopping centre opening hours on different days. Implicatures can be "based on knowledge specific to the speaker and hearer in terms of their shared history or shared knowledge about other aspects of the world, academic field, work experience, sporting interest" (Röver, 2013, p. 44).

Horne and Ward (2008) posited that "what a speaker intends to communicate is characteristically far richer than what she directly expresses" (p. 3), but the communicated linguistic meaning may undermine the message implied and understood. Accordingly, implicature, an indispensable pragmalinguistic constituent, has become one of the principal subjects of pragmatics in the interlanguage field. The theory of implicatures is attributed to Grice (1975), who observed that the cooperative principles—quantity (provide the exact amount of information needed), quality (give true information), relevance, and manner (be clear and concise)—are not always observed, resulting in implicatures. Implicature denotes the act of meaning, implying, or suggesting one thing by saying something else, or the object of that act. Implicatures can be part of sentence meaning or dependent on context and can be conventional (in different senses) or unconventional; the speaker expresses attitudes and feelings using indirect utterances that must be inferred by the hearer (Grice, 1975; Sperber & Wilson, 1995). In order to comprehend implicatures, the hearer infers the speaker's attitudes or feelings. Communication is never achieved by the mere decoding of linguistic stimuli; communication includes interpreting contextual clues and using them as evidence towards the correct inferencing of speaker intentions.

The fundamental types of implicature are conventional and conversational implicature. Conventional implicature is semantic, generated by the meaning of words in the sentence structure. It is not based on the cooperative principles and is not conversation and context dependent. Conversational implicatures are:

- a) calculable (listeners must be capable of working out the implicature for themselves; otherwise it would be a conventional implicature);
- b) cancellable (can be denied explicitly); and
- c) nondetachable (the implicature would remain the same even if the speaker said nothing else).

Conversational implicature can be general (idiosyncratic, in Bouton's terms) or specific (formulaic) implicature which follows a routinised schema (Bouton, 1994a), as in the case of the Pope Question ("Is the Pope Catholic?") and indirect criticism that focuses on a minor aspect ("Is the food good?"—"Let's just say it's colourful").

As evident in the literature reviewed above, some ILP studies have addressed implicature alone or in conjunction with other pragmalinguistic components (e.g., Bouton, 1988, 1999; Garcia, 2004; Röver, 2005, 2006; Yamanaka, 2003; Taguchi, 2007, 2008). They have addressed developmental and teachability aspects of conversational implicature in terms of production and comprehension. Those cited above addressed variables in the EAL environment, such as EAL settings, length of stay in the EAL milieu, and degree of interaction with ENNS, in relation to the development of conversational implicature. Rose and Kasper (2002) argued that studies focusing on comprehension are poorly represented within the L2 developmental pragmatic literature.

Taguchi (2002) analysed the ability of two proficiency levels of L2 learners in Japan to comprehend conversational implicature, finding that both groups comprehended 70% of the items using the same kind of inferential processes, because "inferential abilities could be part of general human cognition, and can be transferred to L2 comprehension and guide utterance interpretation" (p. 169). She observed a significant difference in the accuracy of implicature interpretation between the proficiency levels, but learners were still able to relate the speaker's implied meaning to the relevant context. Taguchi (2002) argued that "paralinguistic cues and the rule of adjacency pair were common inferencing strategies. Less proficient learners relied more on background knowledge and key word inferencing" (p. 151). Proficient learners more frequently identified the intended purpose of using implicature.

Taguchi (2005) stated that pragmatic comprehension, namely the ability to comprehend implied meaning in spoken dialogues, is influenced by L2 proficiency in a foreign language context. She also investigated how different types of implied meaning affected accuracy and speed in understanding implicature. The participants found formulaic implicature more difficult than idiosyncratic implicature; ENNSs responded more accurately, quickly, and consistently to the implicature items than ENNSs. Taguchi (2007) also performed an L2 implicature study, finding a significant correlation between lexical access speed and the response speed of pragmatic comprehension as well as between general language proficiency level and accuracy of pragmatic comprehension.

Bouton (1988, 1992 1994a, 1994b) studied the advanced ESL learner's ability to interpret conversational implicature. A 33-item multiple-choice test was used to measure learners' pragmatic knowledge of implicature, first within a standard ESL placement test which was re-administered 17 and 33 months later. Bouton also tested another ESL group that had been on campus for 4–7 years and an ENS comparison group. ESL students scored far lower on formulaic implicature than on idiosyncratic implicature, but over time, the students scored considerably higher on both implicature

types; their proficiency at idiosyncratic implicature almost matched ENS levels (97.7%) without any instructions. Bouton (1994) reported that even though ENSs' and ENNSs' scores differed significantly, the difference lessened greatly with length of residence. However, "irony" implicature remained problematic for ENNS participants (Bouton, 1999).

Bouton (1999) found that formulaic implicature was easy to teach but idiosyncratic implicature was not, which was due to ESL learners' considerable exposure to idiosyncratic implicature in everyday discourse, while formulaic implicature hardly featured. The participants' proficiency and scores on the implicature test were uncorrelated, but Bouton did not compare the exposed group with the unexposed ESL and EFL groups (Röver & McNamara, 2006). Bouton's learner population consisted of learners in L2 settings but not in first language (L1) settings. In contrast, Röver (2005a, 2006) included L2 learner populations from both settings. Röver (2006) argued that perhaps Bouton's learners' English proficiency increased with prolonged stay in the L2 setting, so the effect was due to proficiency rather than to exposure.

Yamanaka (2003) found that L2 proficiency and length of residence in the target language environment influenced comprehension of implied meanings and the ability to make inferences. Furthermore, Röver (2005, 2013) showed that only increased L2 proficiency could improve deduction of implicature measures. Thus, because it is a pragmalinguistic component, knowledge of implicature is not affected by social context. Implicature is proficiency-dependent because learners must have sufficient proficiency to recognise an implicature. In line with Röver's findings, Taguchi (2002, 2005, 2007) found L2 proficiency influenced the accuracy of the implicature test significantly, attributing this to more accurate pragmatic comprehension. Hypothetically, as proficiency develops, learners acquire a way to control short-term memory, directing their attention to the most relevant information and retaining the gist, thereby improving comprehension. This could be further tested in learning and working contexts in EAL settings with implicature test scenarios designed as typical workplace conversations. The result of such tests may build on the previous research as to whether proficiency or exposure is responsible for the comprehension of implicatures in everyday conversations.

In Röver's implicature test study (2013) for a diagnostic placement test, L2 learners scored significantly lower than ENSs, who exceeded 90% on all tasks other than indirect criticism. Röver confirmed that high proficiency is beneficial for implicature comprehension because it helps to identify when the conversational maxim is being flouted, yet formulaic indirect criticism items can be developed with exposure, especially contact and socialisation into target community norms. The ENNSs with more than a year's exposure did significantly better on formulaic indirect criticism items than those with less exposure, because exposure shows learners what is culturally accepted and what is not. Unlike Bouton (1999), Röver (2013) showed that advanced learners learn how to interpret formulaic indirect criticism through socialisation.

In summary, few studies so far have addressed conversational implicature in the ESL context. Moreover, no study thus far has investigated whether exposure to different contexts in an ESL setting and level of English mastery in L2 settings are responsible for L2 learners' performance on implicature.

#### *D. Aims and Research Questions*

I sought to determine if learning or working contexts in the ESL setting affect conversational implicature for advanced learners, and the comparative influence of exposure and proficiency on its comprehension. Secondly, I aimed to identify whether ENSs performed better than ENNSs at conversational implicature (Bouton, 1988, 1994b, 1999). Thirdly, I examined whether some implicature types are more difficult, which would imply that lessons can be planned around idiosyncratic or formulaic implicature. The specific research questions (RQs) were:

1. ENSs perform differently to ENNS groups on the implicature test questionnaire if implicature items are signed based on work contexts?
2. Do participants in learning contexts or working contexts perform better on the implicature questionnaires when those are contextualised?
3. What is the relative impact of exposure and proficiency on the comprehension of implicature?  
Is formulaic implicature more difficult to understand than idiosyncratic implicature?

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### *A. Participants*

A total of 76 participants took part in this study, consisting of ENS and ENNS participants in educational as well as work settings. The volunteer male and female participants' ages ranged from 18 to 70. A comparison group of 15 female participants of a wide range of ages who were ENSs in Australia and New Zealand at a university College of Education in Victoria was included in the study. Recruiting the ENS participants assisted in establishing a benchmark to decide the ENNS participants' performance on the implicature questions.

TABLE 1.  
THREE GROUPS OF PARTICIPANTS

Groups	Numbers	%
NS	15	19.736
WP	31	40.789
CL	30	39.473
Total	76	100

Note: NS = Native speakers, WP = Working place; CL = Learning context

The rest of the 61 volunteers were employed in ENNS educational institutions and workplaces. The 61 participants consisted of participants from working (WP) and learning (CL) contexts. Among them, 37 were female and 24 were male. The 30 EAL advanced learner participants were situated in different EAL courses and mainstream courses and were either Australian refugees, immigrants or aspirant immigrants, as well as some international students who were from different L1 backgrounds, namely Asia, Africa, Europe and South America. Most of the participants were from the Certificate IV in EAL Further Studies course and some were higher education students from different disciplines. The majority of the EAL Further Study students were professionals from various disciplines in their home countries. They were pursuing the given course to develop their academic English, either as a pathway to higher education or to find jobs in their own fields. Most of them were holders of Diplomas or Bachelor or post-graduate degrees. The participants, other than those in EAL Further Studies, were from mainstream higher education courses. The 30 EAL participants in work contexts were drawn from various workplaces in Melbourne, namely private SME companies, government departments, educational institutions, and the like.

A pilot study of 10 to 15 participants was conducted before venturing into the main project to justify the validity and feasibility of the prospective study. The participants' L2 proficiency levels were at advanced levels, with IELTS band scores ranging from 5.5 to 8.00.

Although a total number of 76 participants took part in this study, 15 native speaker participants did not need to respond to the background questionnaire. Consequently, the background information for only the two groups of non-native speakers is reported, representing 81.3% of the total participants. This included 50.8% workplace related participants and 49.1% learning context related participants.

### B. Instruments

The ENNS participants were asked to complete a background questionnaire, a proficiency cloze test, and a test of implicature; the ENS participants were not given the background questionnaire. The implicature test included an instruction page for participants' reference; instructions for the background questionnaire and proficiency cloze test were given orally.

#### 1. Background questionnaire

Participants were requested to supply short answers to questions about their socio-demographic, study, work, socialisation and entertainment-related characteristics. The questionnaire asked about country of birth, first language and educational backgrounds, age, gender, employment, contexts of English use, socialising contexts, length of study, and length of stay in Australia. It also asked if they used implied meaning in the first language, if they were taught implied meanings, and whether they had an English-speaking partner.

#### 2. Proficiency C-test

The C-test was conducted to identify the participants' proficiency levels. For decades, c-tests have been successfully used to test ESL proficiency, and it is now deemed to be a very useful device for measuring ESL proficiency (Oiler & Conrad, 1971). Aitken (1977) believes that "cloze tests are valid, reliable second language proficiency tests" (p. 59)

#### 3. Implicature test

I devised a 20-item multiple-choice questionnaire to assess the participants' pragmatic knowledge of formulaic and idiosyncratic implicature. Some items were modified versions of a web-based test of an ESL pragmalinguistics instrument (Rover, 2005). Before administration, five of my ENSs colleagues (not research participants) reviewed the test items and judged them to be natural and plausible. The questionnaire presented 20 workplace-related implicature scenarios and four response choices for each; 13 scenarios were idiosyncratic (seven immediate situational context items, five larger socio-cultural context items and one scalar item) and seven were formulaic (three types: two items referred to irony, three to indirect criticism and two were Pope Qs).

Most research on implicature has employed multiple-choice questionnaires (e.g., Bouton, 1992, 1999; Murray, 2011; Kasper & Röver, 2005; Röver, 2005, 2006; Yamanaka, 2003). Röver's (2000) web-based ESL pragmalinguistic instrument has been shown to be reliable and valid (Röver, 2006); however, it is not a listening test, so the learners' real-time processing effect cannot be reflected.

### C. Procedures

Using the three instruments, a pilot study of 15 participants from both settings was conducted to determine the validity and feasibility of the study. The test result showed no significant difference between the two groups in terms of the comprehension of implicatures used in Australian context.

Participants took 30-60 minutes to complete the tests. The multiple-choice implicature questionnaire for the EAL learning context participants was administered in classrooms at multiple campuses of a Victorian university in the presence of the researcher and the course lecturer. Some completed questionnaires from the workplace ESL participants were emailed to the researcher. The data in EAL work contexts were collected by the researcher either face-to-face or via email, or by volunteers at workplaces. For the test in the EAL work contexts, the questionnaire was emailed to participants. The ENS participants took the C-test and the implicature test in a classroom setting at a Victorian university.

The implicature test and the C-test were scored manually, and the scores and the background questionnaire responses were manually entered into Microsoft Excel. All section scores for the implicature test were computed as percentages.

The data were analysed in Microsoft Excel and SPSS v.18. I performed statistical analyses to answer the research questions. Research question 1 was investigated using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) for multiple comparisons between three groups (ENS, WP ENNS and CL ENNS). As the Levene test of homogeneity of variance is significant, Tamhane post hoc test were performed to quantify and examine the exact significance of differences in performances of three groups of participants on the implicature questionnaire. For the second and third questions, independent t-tests were carried out. A paired sample dependent t-test was performed for the last question, along with more descriptive analyses in Microsoft Excel.

#### IV. RESULTS

##### A. Participant Descriptions

Sixty-one ENNS participants were recruited from ENNS educational institutions and workplaces in Australia and New Zealand, and 15 female ENS from a university in Victoria, Australia—in all, 52 women and 24 men, aged 18-70 years. The EAL advanced learner participants were refugees, immigrants or aspirant immigrants, and international students from Asia, Africa, Europe and South America. Most participants had been professionals in their home countries, and sought to develop their academic English for higher education or employment purposes. Most had diplomas, undergraduate or postgraduate qualifications. The EAL participants in work contexts were drawn from various workplaces in Melbourne—private companies, government departments and educational institutions.

Additional background information for the ENNS (81% of all participants) is reported below (the 15 ENS were not asked to complete the background questionnaire). Few of the 61 ENNS participants (7%) had English-speaking partners. Nearly three quarters (74%) had been living in Australia for 1-10 years and 20% for over 10 years. Almost all participants (85%) were Asian.

A large number of workplace ENNS participants (31%) were working in sales, management, as consultants, or in customer service and administration; smaller proportions worked in teaching and accountancy (10%) and nursing/aged care (8%). Almost half of the ENNS participants were employed full time. ENNS participants in learning contexts were undertaking a Certificate IV in EAL Further Studies (47%), non-specified certificates, diplomas or bachelor studies (33%), or postgraduate study (19%). Most participants (54%) had studied English for over 10 years before arriving in Australia, and 34% for less than five years.

More than a quarter of the ENNS participants socialised in English in local communities and religious institutions, on average more than three times per week, and over half (58%) of their socialisation took place in English. However, 19 of the 51 who responded (31%) did not socialise with native speakers at all. Two thirds of the participants used English for entertainment purposes, on average for 16 hours per week.

##### B. Results of Analysis: Research Questions

**Research question 1:** Do ENSs of Australian English perform differently than ENNS groups on the implicature test questionnaire if implicature items are designed based on work contexts? (Bouton, 1988; Taguchi, 2005; 2007)

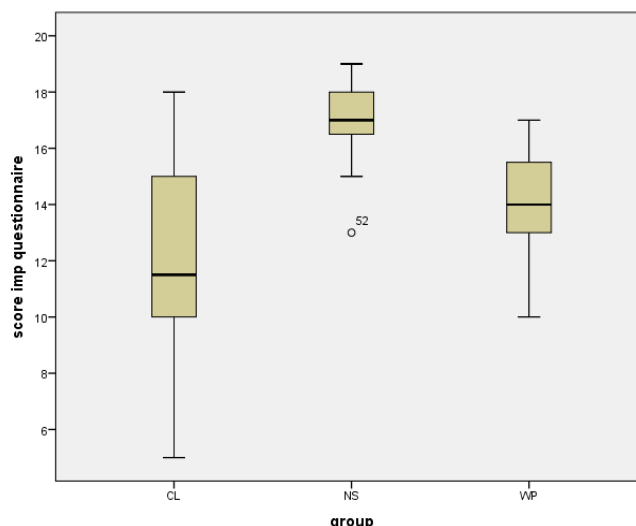


Figure 1. Inter-group Implicature Test Scores Histogram

To answer RQ1, I performed a one-way ANOVA of the implicature test scores for the ENS, CL and WP groups. The results are shown in Table 2, and the results of post hoc tests for paired differences in Table 3.

TABLE 2.  
RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THREE GROUP MEANS (NS, CL AND WP)

Independent Variables	N	Mean	SD	F	df	p
Score Imp Test				19.62	2	.000**
NS	15	17.13	1.6			
CL	30	12.03	3.3			
WP	31	14.23	2.0			
Total	76	13.93	3.1			

Note: Equal variances assumed\*\* p value ≤ .005

TABLE 3.  
TAMHANE POST HOC TEST RESULT FOR THE THREE GROUPS

	(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.	95% Confidence
					Interval Lower Bound
Tamhane	CL	NS	-5.10*	** .000	-6.95
		WP	-2.19*	** .011	-3.96
	NS	CL	5.10*	** .000	3.25
		WP	2.91*	** .000	1.49
	WP	CL	2.19*	** .011	.42
		NS	-2.91*	** .000	-4.32

\*\* P value ≤ .005

Consistent with previous studies (Bouton 1994, 1999; Röver, 2005, 2006, 2013; Taguchi, 2005, 2007, 2008b; Yamanaka, 2003), the present study found that the ENS group performed best on the implicature test, with the WP group second and the LC group third. Tables 2 and 3 show that the groups' mean scores differed significantly.

To answer RQ2, I ran t-tests to compare the WP and CL groups' implicature scores and their C-test scores. The results are shown in Table 4.



TABLE 4  
RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR TWO GROUP MEANS (WP & CL)

Independent Variables	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
Score Imp QS				3.085	59	** .003
CL	30	12.03	3.347			
WP	31	14.23	2.077			
Score C-test				5.536	59	** .000
CL	30	13.30	2.409			
WP	31	16.90	2.663			

Note: Equal variances assumed \*\*P value ≤ .005.

Table 4 shows that mean implicature test scores, and mean C-test scores, differed significantly between the two ENNS groups. The WP group scored higher in both cases.

To answer RQ3, I used univariate analysis of variance to assess the impact of exposure and proficiency on the comprehension of implicature. The results are shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5.  
IMPACT OF EXPOSURE AND PROFICIENCY ON IMPLICATURE KNOWLEDGE

Source	df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	3	12.744	<.001	.406
Intercept	1	4.655	.035	.077
Exposure (length of stay)	1	5.782	.020	.094
Proficiency (C-test score)	1	19.345	.000	.257
Group	1	.564	.456	.010
Error	56			
Total	60			
Corrected Total	59			

Note: R Squared = .406 (Adjusted R Squared = .374)

Table 5 reveals a significant difference between both scores of the two groups. The univariate analysis of variances in Table 5 shows that there is a significant difference between the C-test scores of the two groups ( $P < .001$ ) and the effect size is very high, at 25.7%, but there is a negligible effect of residence for the given scores, at 9.4%. These results suggest that proficiency has greater influence on ability to comprehend implied meanings than length of stay.

To answer RQ4, I performed paired sample t-tests on scores for formulaic implicature and idiosyncratic implicature test items for the CL and WP groups separately and as a whole. Results are shown in Tables 6-8.

TABLE 6.  
COMPARISON OF IDIOSYNCRATIC AND FORMULAIC IMPLICATURE SCORES FOR THE COMBINED WP AND CL GROUPS

Independent Variables	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Correlation	p
Imp test score				9.49	60	.58	<.001
Pair 1 Mean_IDI	61	.71	.13				
Pair 1 Mean_FOR	61	.49	.22				

Note: Equal variances assumed. IDI = Idiosyncratic, FOR = Formulaic, SD = standard deviation

TABLE 7.  
COMPARISON OF IDIOSYNCRATIC AND FORMULAIC IMPLICATURE SCORES FOR THE CL GROUP

Independent Variables	n	Mean	SD	t	df	correlation	p
Imp test score				8.24	29	.69	<.001
Pair 1 Mean_IDI	30	.66	.15				
Pair 1 Mean_FOR	30	.41	.22				

Note: Equal variances assumed. IDI = Idiosyncratic, FOR = Formulaic, SD = standard deviation

TABLE 8.  
COMPARISON OF IDIOSYNCRATIC AND FORMULAIC IMPLICATURE SCORES FOR THE WP GROUP

Independent Variables	n	Mean	SD	t	df	correlation	p
Imp test score				5.531	30	.305	<.001
Pair 1 Mean_IDI	31	.75	.11				
Pair 1 Mean_FOR	31	.56	.19				

Note: Equal variances assumed. IDI = Idiosyncratic, FOR = Formulaic, SD = standard deviation

Tables 6-8 show that the WP and CL groups, combined and separately, had significantly higher mean idiosyncratic than formulaic implicature scores, consistent with previous studies (Bouton, 1994, 1999; Taguchi, 2005, 2007; Röver, 2005, 2006, 2013).

To understand the different varieties of idiosyncratic items and formulaic implicature items more comprehensively, I analysed scores for their three categories. The combined WP and CL groups found the larger socio-cultural context group the most difficult idiosyncratic implicature (mean score 0.59), followed by the scalar implicature (0.66) and the

immediate situational context (0.80) groups. For formulaic implicature items, the irony group and indirect criticism group mean scores were similar (0.43 and 0.45 respectively), but these were lower than for the Pope Q group (0.62). The most difficult item was a formulaic implicature irony item (mean = 0.19) followed by an indirect criticism item (0.24). The easiest idiosyncratic items were Questions 2 and 6 from the situational context group (mean scores 1.00); the hardest item was from the socio-cultural context group (0.34). For the formulaic implicature items, the hardest was from the irony group, (0.20) and the easiest a Pope Q item (0.803).

The CL group's mean scores were 0.77 for the situational context group, 0.61 for the scalar group, and 0.54 for the socio-cultural context group. The easiest items were from the situational context group (1.00). For the formulaic implicature, the hardest item was an indirect criticism item (0.097) and the easiest item a Pope Q item (0.774).

The WP group's results paralleled those of the CL group, with implicature mean scores for the situational context group of 0.84, the scalar group 0.70 and the larger socio-cultural context group 0.65. The easiest items were from the situational context group (1.00), and the hardest item was from the socio-cultural context group (0.27). For the formulaic implicature, an irony item scored lowest (0.27), and a Pope Q item highest (0.68).

For the ENS group, the most difficult items were an indirect criticism item (0.53) and a Pope Q (0.4).

## V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

I investigated pragmatic knowledge of formulaic and idiosyncratic implicature in two groups of highly proficient ENNS participants in two settings and compared their comprehension with that of ENSs. Four research questions addressed external and internal factors that might influence understanding of the main implicature types. Consistent with previous research (Röver, 2005, 2006; Taguchi, 2002, 2007, 2008; Yamanaka, 2003), my analysis revealed that comprehension of implicature is not affected by work contexts but by levels of proficiency and, to some extent, years of residence in the target country.

### A. Summary of Findings

Native English speakers scored much higher than ENNS groups (WP and CL) in implicature interpretation, replicating previous studies (Bouton, 1994b, 1999; Röver, 2005, 2006; Taguchi, 2002, 2007, 2008; Yamanaka, 2003).

In investigating whether participants in learning or working contexts perform better on implicature questionnaires when the scenarios are based on work contexts, the WP group scored significantly higher than the LC group, but this was due to the participants' proficiency rather than to workplace exposure (Niezgoda & Röver, 2001; Röver, 2005, 2006; Taguchi, 2002, 2007, 2008; Yamanaka, 2003). My findings accord with those of other studies that included participants from both EAL and EFL contexts, showing that proficiency is the main determinant of implicature comprehension. The reason for the WP group's mean test score being significantly higher than the LC group's might be the WP group's daily interactions in a work context. It is likely that exposure at work would improve their proficiency levels and hence their pragmatic knowledge. However, this finding does not endorse the findings of Bouton's (1999) work in which he claimed that exposure influenced his participants' implicature knowledge acquisition.

Proficiency is conducive to implicature comprehension because a proficient listener's low-stake deductive processing helps them identify the flouting of a conversational maxim, drawing on the immediate situational context, larger socio-cultural context, and indirect criticism. Low-proficiency learners may have insufficient linguistic repertoire to understand the overtly stated meanings and identify the implicature sentences and the discord between the implied and stated meanings. Therefore, sufficient proficiency to understand linguistic items is vital to identification of the violation of Gricean maxims and the deductive work of the implicatures (Röver, 2006).

Bouton (1999) found that, even after four and a half years of living in the target environment, his ENNS participants continued to have difficulty comprehending all kinds of formulaic implicature. Similarly, my findings suggest that length of residence in Australia had a small effect (Röver, 2013) on comprehending both idiosyncratic and formulaic implicatures (notably indirect criticism items). The more that learners are exposed to the target language environment, the more they acquire pragmatic knowledge. This helps them comprehend immediate situational context and socio-cultural norms, such as when an indirect criticism is intended, enabling them to identify pragmalinguistic items. On the other hand, low-proficiency learners may not have enough linguistic repertoire to understand the overtly stated meanings, or to identify the implicature sentences and the discord between the implied and stated meanings.

This study shows that formulaic implicatures were substantially more difficult than idiosyncratic implicatures for both the WP and CL groups, in line with previous research (Bouton, 1994b, 1999; Taguchi, 2005, 2007; Röver, 2005, 2006, 2013; Yamanaka, 2003). Even though understanding formulaic implicature was difficult for the WP group, it was almost 20% more difficult for the CL group. It is generally easier to draw on immediate situational contexts to comprehend an idiosyncratic implicature, but in a formulaic implicature, if somebody is not aware of a given concept in the L2 culture, it is impossible to understand the intended meanings.

Both the CL and WP groups found the larger socio-cultural context group the most difficult of the three varieties of idiosyncratic implicatures. This was because socio-cultural implicatures require sufficient cultural and social knowledge in order to understand the implied meaning. The scalar idiosyncratic and immediate situation context implicatures were found to be relatively easy, as measurement of scales and immediate situations can universally be understood. In these instances, the listener must simply identify the maxim that has been flouted and relate the situation to the implied

meaning. In contrast, the irony formulaic implicature type was the most difficult for both groups, and the indirect criticism type was almost as difficult. This is because irony conveys a meaning opposite to the words' literal meaning, and in indirect criticism, something else is meant than what is literally said. In both types, the meaning may be different to what is overtly stated. This requires the listener to undergo a complex process to comprehend the statement and a question is answered with another question which has the same meaning.

For the two EAL groups together and individually, the easiest items in the idiosyncratic implicature group were the ones requiring interpretation of overstated and understated statements according to the relevant situational context. The most difficult items in this category were from the larger socio-cultural group for all of the participants together. The reason for difficulties in deciphering these questions relate to the need for some socio-cultural knowledge (e.g. the weather is unlikely to be cold in January in Australia). However, in the formulaic implicature group, the hardest item was an irony item. The reason this was the participants' unfamiliarity with verbal irony in which there is a contradiction of expectation between what is said and what is really meant. Participants were unable to pick up on the incongruity between reality and appearance so that, although the performance appraisal meeting was a difficult one, many stated that it had gone well. Again, while answering the second most difficult formulaic implicature item, an indirect criticism (Question 4), the participants needed to have sufficient cultural knowledge to understand an aspect of Australian culture—that is, that describing food as “colourful” actually has a negative connotation, which it might not have in other cultures.

### B. Limitations and Future Work

One of the main limitations of my study was that the collected data may not represent natural situations, and hence its findings may not be generalisable. The instrument used was a pen-and-paper test; it did not replicate the real-world interactions that learners would experience in language processing. In real time, they would hear the interlocutors' utterances with varied intonation patterns and tones of voice, and process and produce their utterances under instant language processing pressure, while judging and decoding contextual clues using their pragmatic knowledge. In addition, the participants read situational descriptions and gave answers to multiple-choice questions, so they were more dependent on reading skills than on speaking and listening skills. The implicature test contained only 20 items—Garcia (2004) included 48 items in her study and Taguchi (2005) employed 38 items—so my questionnaire may have tested learners' pragmatic knowledge to a lesser degree than previous research. Triangulation could be employed in future studies, using retrospective interviews with participants to learn why they chose particular answers in the test. In addition, my findings could be tested and validated by future researchers with larger participant numbers, giving more power to discriminate between group characteristics.

## VI. CONCLUSIONS

This research was designed to examine a pragmalinguistic component—conversational implicature—that is relatively underrepresented in the ILP literature. The purpose of the study was to determine whether English L2 learners' ability to interpret conversational implicature differs when they are from different EAL contexts. The test items were designed using implied meanings appropriate to workplace interactions. Statistical analysis showed that the workplace participants' comprehension of implicature was significantly better than that of their learning context counterparts, and that this was due to their higher proficiency and (to a lesser extent) length of stay, rather than to workplace exposure. In addition, my study showed that formulaic implicatures are more difficult to understand than idiosyncratic implicatures. In the idiosyncratic category the most difficult item group was the larger socio-cultural group; in the formulaic category, the irony and indirect criticism groups were most difficult. Learners can benefit from mastering these groups of implicature through more socio-cultural awareness and interaction. Some inter-cultural training may also be useful for them.

The outcomes of this study will contribute to English language and intercultural policy making; ESL teacher professional development and standardisation; the inclusion of pragmatic components in Australian EAL curriculum design; and lesson planning to help address this vital pragmalinguistic element in English language learning. This work also makes a useful contribution to the ILP literature.

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# TBL, Self-assessment, and Use of ICT: A Methodological Option to Benefit the English Learning Process in a Colombian University

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**Abstract**—For more than 10 years, English teaching and learning approaches at Politecnico Grancolombiano were based on traditional methodologies with noticeable prevalence of deductive learning and summative assessment. In 2017, we surveyed students and teachers to analyze this panorama, and more than 500 responses shed light on the lack of motivation most of them had in their English learning and teaching processes. As a result, through a qualitative research project, we implemented the task-based teaching and learning approach in our English classes, featuring formative assessment, the use of information and communication technologies, and encouraging self-reflection moments for students to raise awareness of their learning process. The objective of this project was to identify the real benefits of these methodological changes in our programs, and to ensure triangulation, we used different data collection instruments such as journals, artifacts and surveys. It was found that task-based lessons offer students innovative, creative and real opportunities to learn English in and out of class. As well, students' motivation and awareness of their learning process increased due to formative assessment routines. As for teachers, it can be concluded that these methodological innovations helped them plan more dynamic lessons and evidence students' progress. Regarding Information and Communication Technologies (ICT), it was evident that it played an important role in teachers' and students' engagement. However, it revealed that it was necessary to strengthen technological skills and to guarantee the conditions to implement it.

**Index Terms**—task-based learning, self-assessment, E-portfolios, ICT, awareness and motivation

## I. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, Colombia has worked consistently to find ways to improve the quality of EFL teaching and learning. Consequently, new approaches have been implemented in order to deal with the challenges posed by the demands of the local policy, which requires university graduate students to reach level B2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL). In 2014, the Ministry of Education implemented the National Program of English, Colombia Very Well, which seeks to improve teaching and learning of English by 2025. This is a long-term initiative sponsored by different entities that commit to the development of EFL skills in the country, which was conceived based on the needs of our education system.

As a result of this initiative and implicit demand from the government and, in general, from the globalized world, Colombian higher education institutions have been trying to meet these expectations by following communicative teaching approaches for the acquisition and learning of this foreign language.

Even though at Politécnico Grancolombiano English syllabi were for the last 15 years designed within the communicative approach, its rationale was not fully embraced. In general terms, classes were not learner-centered, learners' specific contexts were not considered, and the materials used in the classes were not always authentic. Since new generations demand changes and challenges, our Language Department decided to respond to these demands and to include students' views in those changes. For that purpose, a survey was applied to 500 students who, through this tool, manifested they wanted to be involved in their process, and they considered the topics suggested in the textbooks were sometimes meaningless and the evaluation methods unconnected.

Research on methodologies that allow students to have an active role throughout their process suggested that Task-Based Learning (TBL), self-assessment and a greater use of ICT would empower them with learning and evaluation strategies. TBL mainly implies three important elements: inductive learning, a scaffolded process and the development of significant reality-based tasks in which grammar is not considered the starting point but the means to reach a communicative outcome. In connection with these characteristics, self-assessment plays a vital role as it promotes

students' reflection not only on the language students naturally practice along the tasks, but also, on the planning of actions intended to accomplish their learning and communicative goals. In this scenario, ICT turns out to be highly pertinent since it allows teachers and learners to explore new ways to use technology and access authentic and contextualized materials and information. This, in turn, helps the institution be at the forefront of technology advances for educational purposes.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. *Self-assessment*

Self-assessment has been related to motivational aspects that, based on educational psychology research, are necessary to ensure lifelong learning. Panadero, Jonsson, & Botella (2017) concluded that self-assessment is directly intertwined with self-regulation and self-efficacy and, thus, with the drive students need to achieve results. However, the acquisition of self-assessment strategies is gradual and requires a thorough training of all the actors involved. This complete development process includes "(1) determining the performance criteria, (2) self-directed feedback seeking and (3) self-reflection" (Yan & Brown, 2017) and must be systematically accounted for in such a way that it can be easily retrieved. In this respect, e-portfolios have proved to engage students into the practice of evaluating their process. Bertolotti & Beseghi (2016) validated that the European Language Portfolio (ELP) fosters reflection, autonomy, peer interaction, and goal-setting – skills that, though complex to acquire, result in scaffolded and evolved learning processes.

### B. *Task-based Learning*

The task-based learning approach has been recognized and accepted worldwide in a great variety of contexts. Regarding higher education, Lau (2009) implemented a TBL program with university students, and the results of her research project showed a steady increase of students' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to learn English as a foreign language. They regarded their learning process as something fun and interesting since tasks were relevant to their needs, interests and life experiences. Additionally, the TBL approach had a positive impact on students' awareness to use the language more effectively when speaking. Similarly, research conducted by Tang, Chiou & Jarsaillon (2015) in a Taiwanese university showed that the TBL approach was motivational and useful for language acquisition since the participants of their study made significant progress in terms of sentence structure, sophisticated vocabulary, stress, intonation and fluency during impromptu oral presentations. Regarding standardized tests, the researchers concluded that students improved considerably their reading skills due to the use of texts as the main input of the oral tasks developed in class.

### C. *Information and Communication Technologies*

ICT has broadly been studied for they allow learners to communicate, interact and access information through a wide array of online tools, learning materials and social networks. Some research articles have talked about the results obtained after incorporating ICT in the process of learning and teaching English as a foreign language. These studies have shown technology is crucial since it promotes students' motivation to learn and fosters innovative learning opportunities. Abarca (2015), in his study conducted in Costa Rica, found that ICT tools make classes more interesting, dynamic, creative and significant for learners. Besides, it revealed that students' high motivation caused teachers to be even more motivated than usual. Another study, carried out in Argentina (Morchio, 2014), revealed that most of the students agreed that technology facilitated their English learning, and that using social networks engaged them in out-of-the-ordinary real-life situations. Similarly, Rahmanita & Cahyono (2018) referred that undergraduate students improved their motivation and ability to write in English as long as teachers guaranteed all the necessary conditions to access and use technology effectively.

## III. METHOD OF STUDY

We decided to carry out our project following the action research cycle as it allows researchers to systematically reflect upon a situation within its social context. Moreover, as Elliot (1990) explained it, this is the most suitable research methodology to approach and adapt educational contexts, through continuous reflection processes. In our case, this pondering was closely linked to the assessment of the different elements of the project. In fact, the main interest of the Language Department team was to work collaboratively and to use the findings of this research to inform and improve teaching practices. In order to obtain a wider understanding of all the aspects of the project, we integrated elements of quantitative and qualitative research approaches.

The principal objective of the project was to determine the impact of the implementation of TBL, self-assessment and ICT in the learning process of English Foreign Language students at Polit écnico Grancolombiano.

The participants of this research project were 341 students of English as a foreign language at this institution. They belonged to different study programs and were enrolled in one of the English courses offered by the university in the second semester of 2018. These courses were arranged in four levels which aim at reaching level B1 according to the CEFRL. In addition, all the English teachers of the Language Department participated along the implementation of this

project by piloting the programs, keeping a record of their experience, and answering the final survey on their perceptions.

Due to the qualitative nature of this research project, observations and journals were used because they allow researchers to capture relevant aspects, events and reflections of a given topic of interest (Fetterman, 1989). Among the non-observational techniques, artifacts were analyzed since they are tangible evidence of students' performance and attitudes (Kalmbach and Carr, 2014). These instruments were useful to gather information because they permitted both students and researchers to keep track of experiences that resulted from actual learning activities. In addition, research surveys results were obtained from students and teachers that were asked to share their perceptions about the need, use and effect of the implementation of TBL, ICT and self-assessment.

#### IV. FINDINGS

##### A. Self-assessment

Over the course of the pilot project, all teachers observed that, though gradually, students developed to some extent self-assessment skills that eventually empowered them and increased their self-awareness and subsequent motivation. In fact, it was validated that the ability to self-assess that students acquire has a direct link with commitment and engagement with learning, as Brown and Harris claimed (2013). In the final survey, applied to 341 students, 32% confirmed they were naturally motivated with the fact they could be involved in their assessment, from the beginning. However, 39% acknowledged they only started feeling motivated as the course progressed and they realized the importance of being key players of their process. This could also be observed in the content of their portfolios, which progressively became richer in terms of the strategies they chose, their reflections about their use and benefits, and the samples of their work. Figures 1, 2 and 3 are examples of these three parts of the portfolio.

Figure 1. Student's choice and use of a strategy to memorize vocabulary evidences their development of metacognitive awareness.

Figure 2. Student's reflection shows criticism to self-assess their learning process



## The “Black Beast” in the oceans

A recent study presented that the plastic straws are considered as the new “Black beast”. They are a threat for the environment, especially the seas because they are the first source that receive these plastic products. Added to that it is estimated that American’s use 500 million plastic straws per day.

Thanks to this the contamination in the coast zones increased quickly. For example, the Colombian oceans are much more contaminated than UK oceans. As a result of this, right now Colombia is in a process of law to prohibit the use of plastic straws.

Unless we change our way to treat the natural resources, the world will die and if we don’t ~~start~~ to be aware of how bad our environment is, we will have very serious consequences ~~in the near future~~.

While plastic straws are using by many people on the planet, these same products cause suffocation, strangulation or malnutrition in animals that eat or get entangled with these products. Unless we change our bad habits, the contamination will continue to increase in the world. Also, today the plastic straws are one of the most polluting products in the environment. If plastic straws are produced and dumped as they are today, the coasts will suffer a great damage.

As soon as we replace the plastic straws for a more pleasant solution with the planet, the ~~different~~ animals in the sea will live in a healthier way. Thanks to this product, many of these sea animals have suffered physical damages and sometimes die.

If we don’t change our mind now, some kinds of sea animals will disappear like | sea turtles, birds that eat sea animals and the air of the ocean will decrease so much, it will be very difficult for the animals to be able to live.

After having thrown so many plastics to the sea, 5 islands of plastic have been created and a great part is thanks to the plastic straws.

If the government of Colombia makes the decision to establish a strict law, many companies will become more aware of the environment and marine life would improve. One of the possible solutions would be to make a massive collection of plastic straws and disintegrate them with an environmentally friendly chemical.

In addition, you can replace these products with some paper straws that degrade in a shorter time. But the most important thing is that all of us know that if we don’t take care of the environment, nobody else will do it and at some point, the planet won’t be able to do ~~it anymore~~.

Figure 3. Student’s sample shows motivation to use the language outside of class.

Parallel to this gradual engagement, self-awareness emerged in the scene. 70% of students explained they were motivated because the regular self-assessment practices helped them be aware of their process, their strengths and their flaws. They appreciated the fact that it was a gradual process, and the more they were exposed to these reflections, the more they understood the complexity of learning a language. Some of them highlighted the fact that pondering upon their learning process made them believe more in their abilities and potential. This high percentage validates what Yan (2016) claimed about one of the major actions of self-assessment which is self-directed feedback and implies that students become responsible for obtaining feedback from different sources. They even started to recognize the worth of peer-assessment and the possibility to learn from interactions with their classmates.

This excerpt in a teacher’s journal reflects this new judgement towards an alternative kind of self-directed feedback:

Excerpt 1: “The peer work was useful for them to be aware of the different ways to express likes and dislikes. They started to use other expressions and to correct the use of gerunds after verbs.”

Regarding teachers who participated in the pilot project, they were initially concerned about endorsing part of the assessment responsibility to their students. It is not common in our context to trust students’ autonomy and skills to plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning processes. However, after three or four self-assessment sessions, the same teachers reported to have placated this concern as they noticed how students became more aware of structures, mistakes, strategies, and so on. This switch in their mindset might eventually help to spread what Panadero, Jonsson, & Botella concluded: “A student who only follows the teacher prescription without understanding its purpose will not learn to monitor and self-adjust her work.” (2017, p. 76)

Below, we can read some journal excerpts that show how teachers find the self-assessment moments useful:

Excerpt 2: “The self-assessment session was useful for most of the students to reflect on the importance to plan their presentations, rehearsing them, looking up vocabulary, practicing pronunciation, and anticipating questions.”

Excerpt 3: “Students answered the questions, and they became aware of the structure and the mistakes they were making.”

In the survey applied at the end of the first semester to the eleven English teachers, 100% of them reported they noticed their students gradually showed greater understanding of their self-assessment process as seen in Figure 4. However, 9.1% felt that some students were constantly confused with the self-assessments activities themselves. These activities included the selection, use, and monitoring of specific learning strategies, questions that triggered reflection, and rubrics intended to measure their own progress. Regarding these few students, teachers added to their responses that they were usually insecure about their skills and criteria to evaluate their own work. This kind of barriers have previously been explored in other studies that have disclosed students’ perspectives towards self and peer assessment. Harris & Brown confirmed that this “mind-set that assessment is the teacher’s sole responsibility remains a major challenge.” (2013, p.110). In this regard, it was discussed, at the end of the first phase of the project, the importance of creating clear and accurate rubrics with the criteria of what students are expected to do in terms of their self-assessment process and how it might be reflected in their portfolios.

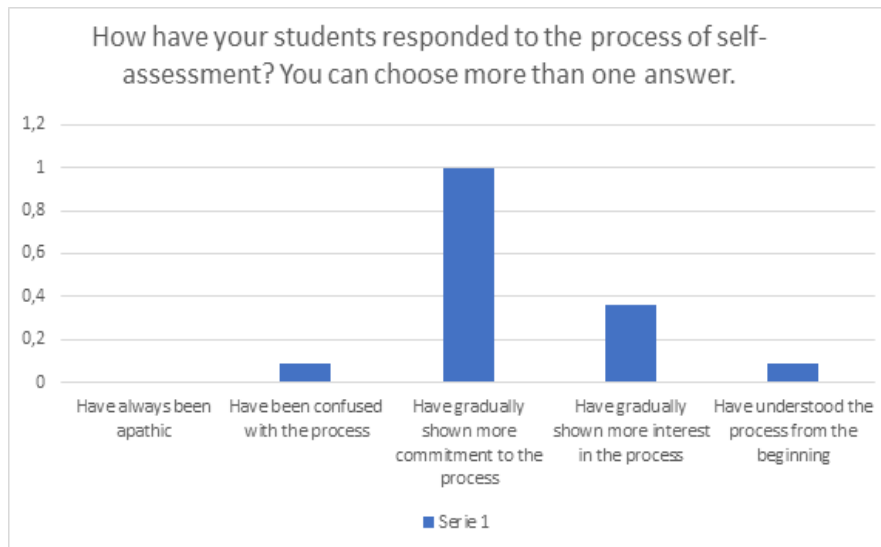


Figure 4. Teachers' perceptions on students' self-assessment process.

Another unforeseen challenge both students and teachers found on the way was the use of e-portfolios to register their use of strategies, reflections of their process, and evidence of their improvement and development of awareness. Although technology literacy among young students tends to be taken for granted, it was evidenced that their skills and interests are limited to the applications and social networks they use in their daily social life. Including a new tool where they had to store and showcase their process made 30% of the students overwhelmed because of the instructions they had to follow to collect, select, and upload the evidence of their autonomous self-assessment in an organized way. On the other hand, a surprisingly high percentage of teachers - 63% - admitted that training students on the use of e-portfolios implied an excessive load of work since they may contain complex evidence in a variety of forms – texts, pictures, recordings, videos, and so on - and the access to technology is not always guaranteed. Figure 5 summarizes these general perceptions.

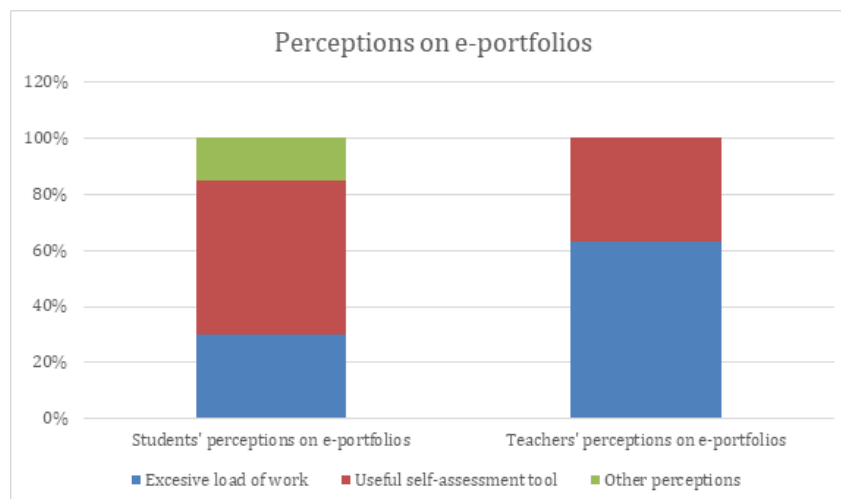


Figure 5. Students and teachers' perceptions on the use of e-portfolios.

### B. Task-based Learning

On the whole, the implementation of the Task-based Learning methodology proved to be beneficial for both students and teachers at Politécnic Grancolombiano. On the one hand, the student survey results showed that 61% of the participants found tasks very meaningful and challenging since they were developed in real contexts related to their daily lives and the contents of the syllabi. On the other hand, 63.6% of the teachers surveyed claimed that TBL was one of the most beneficial aspects for the students' process. They found out that tasks were meaningful and contextualized, which helped students personalize their learning and, consequently, language acquisition became more effective and based on real learning needs. In this regard, Ellis (2003) claims that one of the main features of tasks is their authenticity, which means that they require learners to engage in language use activities such as the ones performed in the real world.

It could be seen that TBL gained acceptance, and only 8.8% of students considered that tasks were not too significant since they could be confusing, too basic, or boring. They argued that sometimes their task products were not natural and

their speech was recited and learned by heart. As for teachers, they believe that this methodology was a good opportunity to get students more involved in their learning process, but they pointed out that it could be time consuming and it should be used along with other methodologies such as the PPP (presentation – practice – production) or other active approaches in order to guarantee the students’ development of certain skills and strategies. This has also been suggested by some teachers, researchers and course designers who have implemented tasks as part of traditional approaches to make language teaching more communicative (Ellis, 2003).

Similarly, teachers’ comments in the survey showed that the nature of tasks was appropriate for the development of students’ skills and the increase of their motivation. Teachers acknowledged that tasks required effort and commitment, but it was a suitable way to review topics in a practical way. Teachers noticed that students became interested in the topics of the tasks, and there was positive involvement and responses thanks to the scaffolded process and the use of ICT tools that made tasks motivating and appealing. In this regard, 43.4% of students considered that the topics and the nature of tasks encouraged them to find new strategies to come up with creative and innovative products. This fact can be evidenced in teachers’ comments on students’ portfolios since their tasks were the result of a process in which they devoted time, and they committed to meet the task objectives even in the first course, which can be seen in figure 6. Willis (1996) claims that students work on achieving the task outcome, and their success in completing the task is a motivating factor.

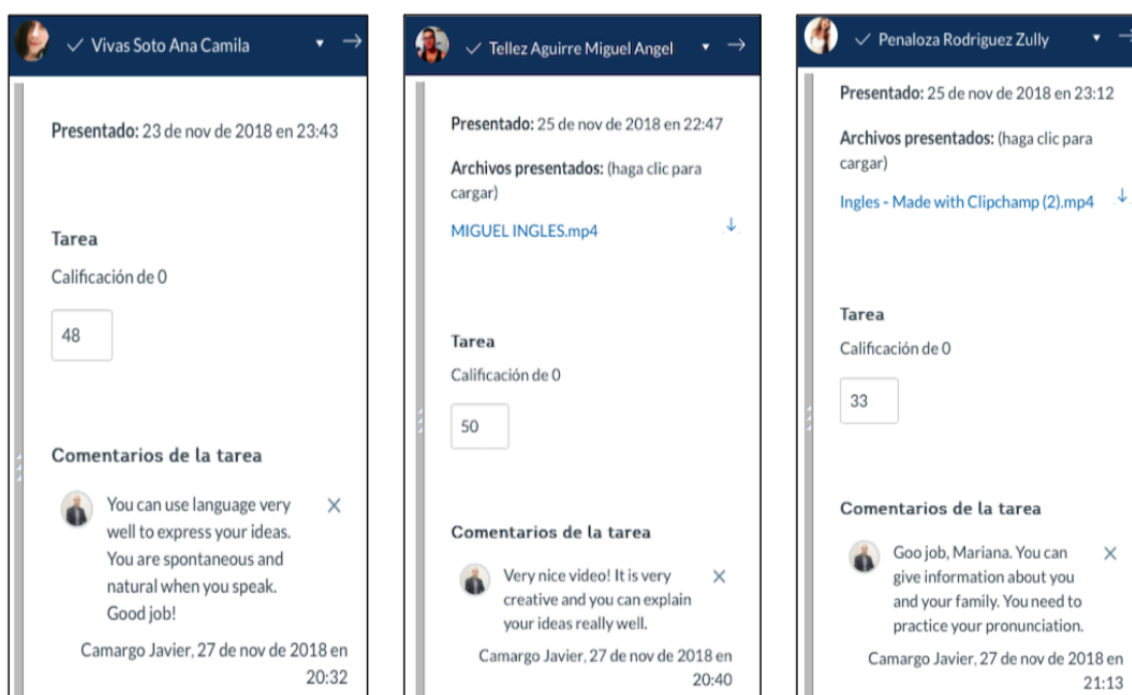


Figure 6. Head teacher’s comments on students’ term tasks, graded over 50.

In contrast, only 7% of the students did not feel motivated to follow the steps to develop their tasks due to the amount of extra class work they require. Some of them ensured that they had other duties with other subjects and at work, and it was difficult for them to keep up with the demands of the tasks. On the other hand, some of the teachers’ comments in the survey revealed their time concerns in order to help the students understand better the objective of this methodology.

Another relevant finding in regard to the implementation of tasks is its effect on language and communication improvement. As it can be seen in figure 7, 65.4% of students agreed that working on tasks helped them improve their language and communication skills. They pointed out that tasks were useful to review grammar topics and learn new vocabulary. In addition, students perceived that completing a task was an effective and realistic tool to keep assertive and fluent communication. As it was mentioned before, teachers claimed that it was easier for learners to acquire language by means of tasks since there are clear objectives to achieve and it allows teachers to evidence students’ gradual progress with the use of language.

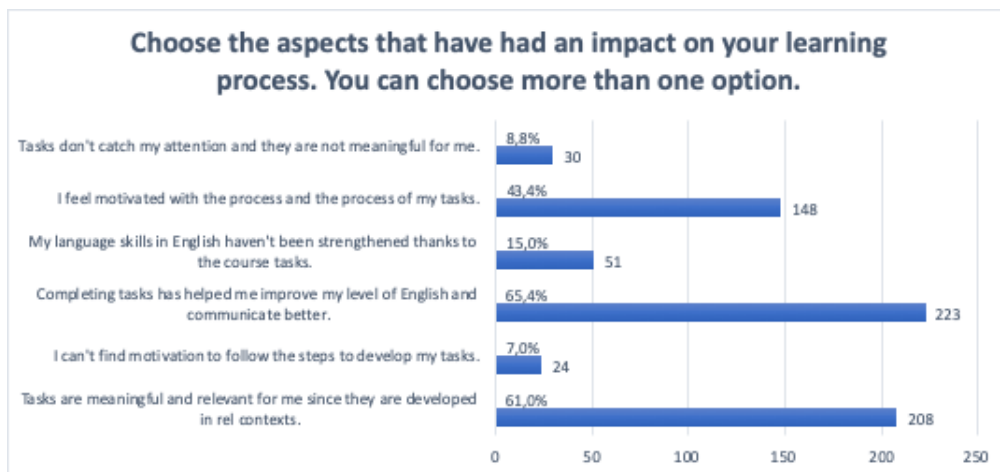


Figure 7. Students' perceptions on the impact of tasks on their learning process.

### C. Use of Technology

As for the use of ICT in English classes, teachers were asked to plan their classes integrating some technological tools, social networks and online materials with a clear learning goal. It meant that they were asked to help their students develop TBL tasks and self-reflection practices using technology as a powerful means to reach their lesson objective (Paz ó 2008). Throughout the classes, teachers were supposed to use the institutional Learning Management System Canvas to upload their work. They shared videos, infographics and recordings done and edited by themselves and commented on one another's work. Additionally, students could use Instagram and WhatsApp to interact with their classmates and other people as preparation of some tasks. Besides, students were exposed to different PowerPoint/Prezi presentations and online material such as videos, tutorials, explanations, songs, images and interviews that provided them with real language input, which, in turn, helped them to get used to English speakers, varied sources of information as well as new ways to express ideas and receive content.

The effective implementation of the practices listed above was possible thanks to teachers' commitment and disposition. However, most of the teachers observed and expressed that although they knew they could use tools such as online games, applications, online quizzes and simulators, it was not done frequently because planning classes and developing technology based- activities took too much time and there were constant connectivity problems. In addition, a few teachers expressed that the implementation of varied ICT tools in class was not common because their use was not mandatory, they lacked some technological skills, and they could reach learning goals without technology. It is clear that for some teachers integrating technology into educational practices is a real challenge especially when they are convinced that "modern technology is simply unnecessary...a waste of time" (Alhamami & Costello, 2019, p 600).

Although there were students that experienced feelings of frustration, boredom and fear of facing technology, there was a gradual adaptation to it. It was evident that those who were not used to using technology in their daily lives or were not good at following directions and exploring tools by themselves, struggled to learn to use websites and applications to develop routines and independence, and consequently, to do their tasks. However, despite this panorama, most of the students showed gradual interest in developing their tasks even if they implied technical problems or time to understand how they should use and make the most out of tech tools. In fact, little by little, students got used to ICT components mainly because it became a routine and these were recycled along the semester. They felt that a methodology using different websites, applications and online tools was hard and appealing though. These perceptions were also observed by teachers and systematized in their field notes, which can be evidenced in the following excerpt of teachers' journal:

Excerpt 4: "Although students showed preoccupation and fear of editing the video, they were conscious that they had to record their voice and that it was a process that implied hard work. So, they started to prepare for their task asking for help to use the online dictionaries and applications to edit videos. It was surprising especially because at the beginning of the semester they seemed to be reluctant to use technology, and they were even too lazy to do it. It appeared to be really difficult to create those habits, but it has started to change positively."

Excerpt 5: "It was evident that this time students were more familiarized with CANVAS because most of the students had checked the file uploaded there and had prepared their class. This is relevant considering that at the beginning learning to use CANVAS was a huge challenge for everybody."

As well, Figure 8 shows that teachers expressed enthusiasm for seeing the progress of their students regarding the use of CANVAS.

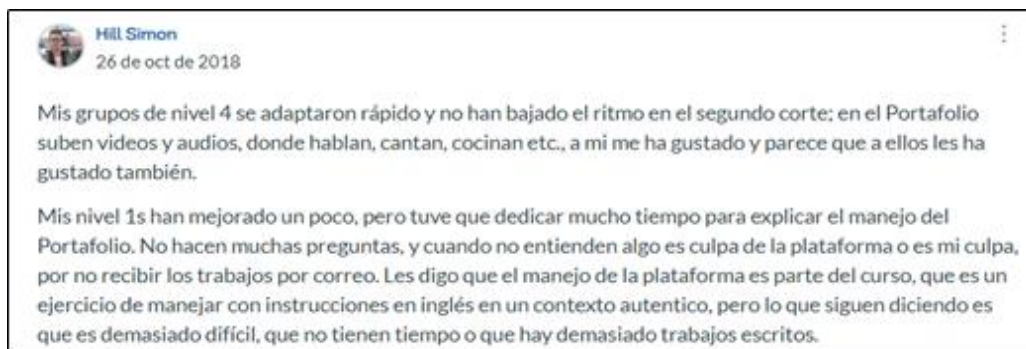


Figure 8. Teacher’s perception on the implementation of ICT in class.

Regarding the advantages of implementing ICT to develop the tasks in English, it appears necessary to highlight the positive impact it had on students’ feelings. Figure 9 presents the perceptions that most of students revealed by choosing interest, motivation, acceptance and satisfaction as the feelings they experienced the most. This data does not mean there were no fears or difficulties. In fact, a few students manifested to feel bored, frustrated and afraid of technology. Positively, the majority of learners acknowledged the fact that today’s world requires the use of technology; that doing it in class was necessary as it was included in the syllabus, and that they felt motivated by exploring new tools to learn English. This finding was highly gratifying for them because, through the use of ICT, they could see their effort and learning when carrying out the process and seeing the final products. This is aligned to Marqués, (1996) since he asserts that having clear educational purposes with technology not only broadens opportunities to learn, but also favors students’ motivation to do it.

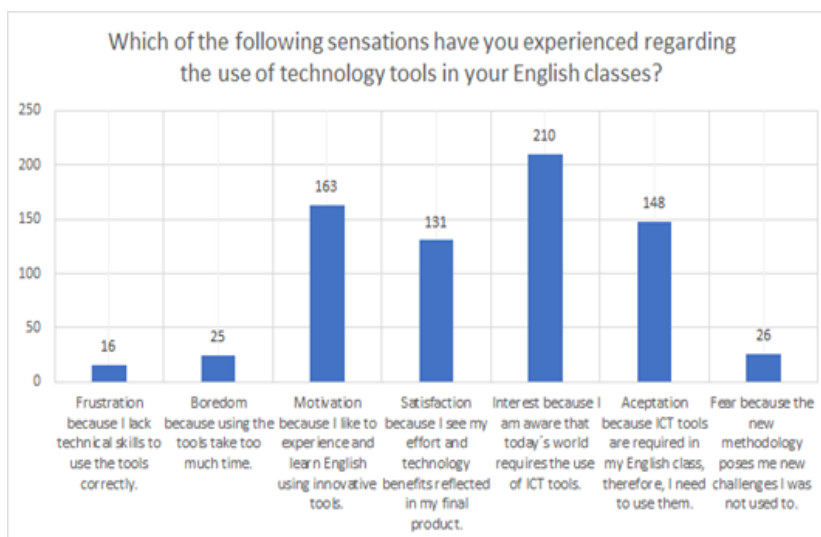


Figure 9. Students’ feelings towards the use of ICT in their learning process.

Teachers and students proved that technology played the role of being more than a mere tool to exchange information (Barreto & Iriarte, 2017). They observed that not only students came up with well-developed products and innovative ideas, but also, that they understood the process was significant because they developed new abilities; discovered different ways to carry out tasks; and were satisfactorily immersed in classes where both language input and activities were addressed through audio and video materials. Similarly, these results show that teachers could play with their imagination when planning and executing classes since their goal was to make students perceive technology as something natural and necessary. This positive experience can certainly justify the fact that, despite challenges encountered throughout the lessons implemented, a relevant percentage of teachers chose ICT as one of the most beneficial methodological tools since it made the classes more interesting, innovative and interactive, as seen in figure 10.



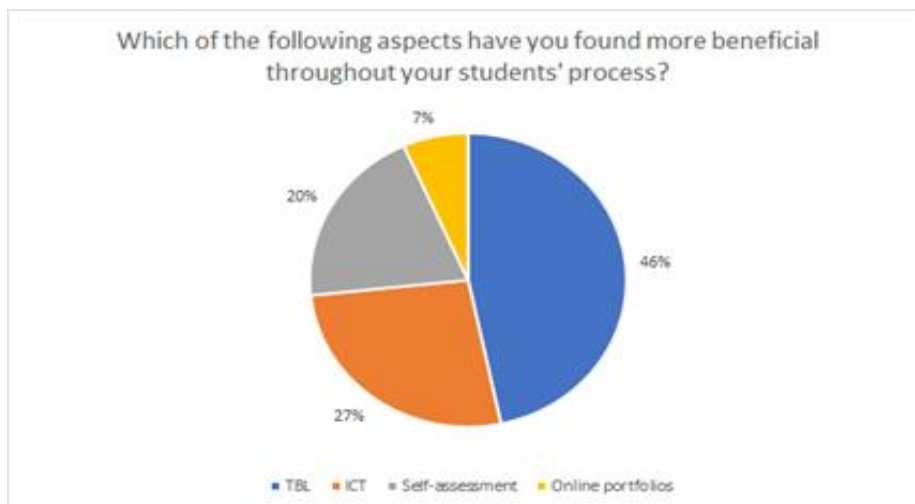


Figure 10. Teachers' acknowledgement on the benefits of ICT.

## V. CONCLUSIONS

The acquisition of self-assessment skills in contexts where learners have not previously developed self-efficacy, learning autonomy and learning awareness is a gradual process that has to be scaffolded through constant activities intended to trigger their metacognitive thinking. This gradual, and sometimes slow, development proves to be worth the effort since self-oriented learners feel motivated, engaged and empowered in their learning process - key foundations of self-regulated and lifelong learning.

The use of tasks along with the communicative approach leads students to acquire language in a more meaningful way thanks to the realistic contexts in which they are developed. As well, students' motivation is impacted positively due to the nature of tasks since they are encouraged to be creative and resort to different kinds of tools, such as technology, to achieve the intended goal. As for teachers, the TBL approach offers a new spectrum of possibilities to make lessons more dynamic and communicative focusing essentially on meaning and helping students figure out the use of language forms. In both cases, it has been noticed that ICT plays a major role in lesson and task development.

Despite the challenges posed by the use of ICT in English classes, it was pertinent to use some of its components because they allowed students to develop tasks effectively in a creative, innovative and motivating way. Besides, it helped teachers explore new strategies to approach students' needs and skills. This implies that the integration of ICT components should be conceived as the necessary articulation of technology, clear learning objectives and purposeful activities designed to generate significant teaching and learning experiences. On the whole, it was possible to see teachers and students exploring tools, taking risks and devoting time to reach their goals, which represents a significant step in the initiation of technology-based tasks.

## VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

It is advisable to co-create rubrics; namely, involving students in their design. In this way, the evaluation criteria and what is expected from them in the elaboration of the portfolio will be clear and meaningful. This pedagogical aspect of self-assessment has been widely addressed by other researchers. In fact, Fraile, Panadero and Pardo (2017) concluded that students who participate in the creation of these formative assessment tools internalize them in a better way, feel more engaged in the process, and may even start spontaneously to develop learning strategies.

Since TBL requires time and training, both students and teachers should gradually be coached on the concept, steps, application and evaluation of tasks. It is highly recommended that the implementation and development of tasks be scaffolded through a series of mini tasks that facilitate the achievement of objectives, providing clear instructions to guide students and avoid confusion and demotivation. Additionally, tasks should be related to students' real contexts and needs so that they become a significant part of their language acquisition process. Also, it is suggested to blend the implementation of TBL with other methodologies, in its early stages, in order to help students adapt gradually to this learning approach.

Technology with learning purposes is evidently part of the new methodology in the English courses of Polit énico Grancolombiano; and both, students and teachers, have gotten used to using ICT tools to learn English and to facing the challenges these mechanisms pose. In this regard, it is essential for teachers to keep up with the rapid changes of technology and education in order to be updated and know how to use ICT strategically. We believe that the more teachers are into technology and its wide list of resources, the more students will be immersed in innovative English learning experiences. Technology can certainly benefit these learning processes, provided that the institution not only offers the necessary technical conditions, but also the opportunities for training to take place. Besides, it should not be

taken for granted that students know how to operate all the ICT tools, instead, they should be instructed and trained appropriately.

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# Service-learning Education Improvement for Foreign Language Learners

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**Abstract**—The problem addressed in this study was the decreasing rate of enrolment in foreign language programs by Australian university students. A mixed-methods research methodology was used, with the quantitative data collected through tests conducted on participants and the qualitative data collected through semi-structured interviews. The sample consisted of 62 students enrolled in a Spanish foreign language program at a university in Melbourne. The student participants were divided into two groups: a control group, which had 31 students, and an experimental Service-Learning (SL) group, which also had 31 students. The students were also divided into two groups according to academic level: intermediate and advanced. Each group completed three academic tests: listening, oral and language use, reading and writing, both pre- and post-intervention. Findings were that oral language proficiency increased for students that had taken the SL program. They showed no significant increase in listening, reading, and writing. These effects did not differ significantly by level of academic achievement.

**Index Terms**—second language learning, service-learning, foreign language acquisition, Spanish language teaching, foreign language pedagogy

## I. INTRODUCTION

There has been a decline in Australia among students enrolled in foreign language courses. In the 1960s, approximately 40% of Australian high school students were studying foreign languages (Munro, 2016). In 2016, this percentage had declined to 10% (Munro, 2016). This lack of interest has been described as a disadvantage for the country, as the decreasing number of students enrolled in these courses is despite the nation's schools having been allocated millions of dollars to promote foreign language learning (Munro, 2016). To improve students' interest in foreign language courses, this study focused on the incorporation of Service-Learning (SL) programs into the foreign language curriculum, particularly in Spanish-language courses at the tertiary school level.

SL is an educational experience based on a designed course in which students partake in service-based activities that correspond to the needs of the community and provide a broader understanding of the particular course subject, along with an increased sense of civic responsibility (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995). SL has been described as a type of citizen education, highlighting its concern with social service (Carney, 2013). SL programs are concerned with the development of individuals and communities in which the participating individuals serve. According to Eyler and Giles (1999), the benefits of SL experiences include interpersonal and personal development, community relationships and leadership, application of learning and experience, ability to deal with social issues, reflection, curiosity, and engagement, curiosity regarding the problems faced by the community, problem-solving and critical thinking, and transformation of perspectives.

Recently, SL has been used to enrich foreign language courses around the world (Hartman & Kiely, 2014; Keen & Pease, 2016). Some SL programs related to foreign language courses may involve students in face-to-face contact with native speakers of the language, as interpersonal communication between native speakers and language learners has been found to yield higher academic scores in such courses (Hummel, 2013). As a result, SL has been found to build students' language skills, in addition to assisting with critical thinking, which enhances the students' ability to relate to other people by crossing social hurdles (Keen & Pease, 2016; Hebert & Hauf, 2015). Although the benefits of SL learning in foreign language courses have been studied previously (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Hullender et al., 2015; Keen & Pease, 2016; Kilgo, 2014; Murray, 2010), there is a lack of research about SL in the context of foreign language acquisition in Australia.

Existing studies mainly focus on SL participants' attitudes toward their SL experience and toward the Spanish language and culture, specifically (Beebe & DeCosta, 1993; Abbott & Lear, 2010; Morris, 2001; Mullaney, 2005; Overfield, 1997; Polansky, 2004; Varas, 2005; Varona, 2005; Weldon & Trautmann, 2003). Fewer researchers, however, have examined the academic achievement of language learners in the context of their SL experience. There is a need to examine the influence of SL in encouraging foreign language learning, given the low rate of enrolment in language courses.

As stated, this study focuses on the application of SL as a learning intervention in foreign language acquisition in Australia. The general problem under study is the lack of enrolment in foreign language programs among Australian university students. In response to this problem, the goals of this study are:

- To determine how SL affects the language acquisition of Spanish-language students and if so, how that impact occurs.
- To explore the perceptions and experiences of Spanish-language students who take part in a non-profit SL program.
- To examine how perceptions of SL compare to students' perceptions of traditional approaches to language acquisition.

The following research questions and subquestion will guide this study:

**RQ1:** How does SL affect the Spanish language acquisition of students enrolled in a Spanish foreign language program?

**RQ2:** What are the perceptions and experiences of Spanish language students who take part in a non-profit SL program?

**RQ 2.1:** How do Spanish language students' perceptions of SL compare to their perceptions of traditional approaches to language acquisition?

To conduct this study, a mixed-methods research methodology was selected, with the quantitative data collected through language skills tests conducted with participants and the qualitative data collected through semi-structured interviews. The quantitative data will be used to determine how participants' language acquisition was affected by SL, while the qualitative data will provide insight into participants' perceptions and experiences with SL and other language acquisition approaches. The SL model underpins this study, which is a type of experiential learning that is consistent with the experiential learning theory (Butler, 2013). The SL model is comprised of five steps that participants experience as part of their community service involvement (Zapata, 2011). These five steps include: 1) exploration, 2) clarification, 3) realization, 4) activation, and 5) internalization. The participants' progression through these steps is formed by the extent of their involvement, their outcomes and needs, the time, and the balance between support and challenges that are provided by the experience (Zapata, 2011).

The findings of this research will be significant for Australian students, primarily as a teaching intervention. This information will also be useful for education policy-makers in Australia, should they consider including SL as a part of the curriculum in the secondary school system, as that is where most students acquire second language skills.

### **Background**

Historically, the use of SL in the field of education is a recent development, having been first explored as pedagogy in the 1990s (Kilgo, 2014). Educators working on SL noted the effectiveness of utilising experiences outside of the classroom to help students construct meaning out of abstract concepts and theories (Cress et al., 2012). SL is not an additional program for the community, but rather, a self-contained educational experience that is intimately associated with the course content (Hartman & Kiely, 2014). This is because SL predominately takes place in an academic setting. For this reason, one of the most significant advantages of SL that differentiates it from other service experiences is its intimate association with a formal course (Murray, 2010). As a part of the formal education experience, SL allows a student to gain complete knowledge of the course material in a practical context (Mitchell, 2014). Due to the structured time of the course, SL allows the student to think about the lessons even after the course is completed, mostly in the form of other activities that may be used to express learning (Hartman & Kiely, 2014).

As stated previously, the SL model is comprised of five steps, which include: 1) exploration, 2) clarification, 3) realisation, 4) activation, and 5) internalisation. Exploration refers to the students' excitement at the beginning of the SL classroom course. Clarification is the process of becoming informed about the real nature of the experience and its importance. Realisation refers to the understanding that occurs through clarification on the meaning of SL. Activation refers to the participation phase. Finally, internalisation is the phase in which the experience gained through the SL influences the student's decisions in life, especially in a vocational context. The claim is that these phases need to be successfully realised along with the quality and content of the students' experience in the course (Zapata, 2011). Eyler and Giles (1999) documented the benefits that resulted from the role of SL in studying a foreign language. These factors included interpersonal and personal development, such as deeper integration within the community, leadership, collaboration, and diversity learning; application and understanding of knowledge, such as use of experience and subject matter, understanding of diverse social problems and the will to do hard work; reflection, curiosity, and engagement, such as the ability to associate personal experience with learning, increased curiosity regarding the problems faced by the community; problem-solving and critical thinking; transformation of perspective, such as fresh perspectives on social justice and social problems; and citizenship, such as higher community participation through the development of commitment, skills, knowledge, and values.

Research suggests that SL programs can help students become better learners through regular continuous reflection, problem-solving, metacognition, and gathering of information (Kilgo, 2014). SL can positively influence students' application and understanding of concepts and materials from a course by connecting textbook knowledge to relevant experiences that students actively participate in (Keen & Pease, 2016). Many students studying language who finished international SL programs have reported a significant increase in their motivation to learn the language studied (Barreneche & Ramos-Flores, 2013). It has also been found that those who study language acquisition along with SL are more self-confident when talking with the population that natively speaks language under study (Hummel, 2013). When students communicate with others that differ culturally and/or linguistically from them during SL programs, the

students are forced to develop unique mechanisms to address new and unfamiliar situations. SL provides exposure to cultural beliefs and values, which fosters the language acquisition process (Fair & Delaplane, 2014).

The benefits of SL for foreign language acquisition include enrichment of students' motivation and confidence to use the foreign language studied, development of sensitivity and empathy for other cultures, decrease in stereotyping, enhanced sense of closeness and solidarity with the community, greater awareness of political and social problems, and a strong incentive to communicate in other languages outside of the school environment (Buff et al., 2014; Hartman & Kiely, 2014; Keen & Pease, 2016; Pierrakos et al., 2014). Despite evidence of the efficacy of the SL approach as an intervention strategy within foreign language programs in many countries, there remains a significant lack of research on SL in the context of foreign language acquisition in Australia (Hartman & Kiely, 2014; Keen & Pease, 2016). Researching application of SL within foreign language programs in Australia may help to determine whether the SL approach is a viable strategy for addressing the lack of enrolment in foreign language programs among Australian university students.

## II. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine the importance of SL in foreign language acquisition as a teaching methodology. This study employed both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The data consisted of language skills tests given to the sample of students both before and after a SL program was administered and semi-structured interviews of those students.

The population included tertiary students enrolled in the Spanish foreign language program at a university in Melbourne, Australia. The sample consisted of 62 students, which were divided into two groups: the control group, which had 31 students, and the experimental group, which also had 31 students. The students were randomly assigned to a group through a computer program. Among these students, 38 were enrolled at the intermediate level (19 students in the experimental group, 19 students in the control group), and the remaining 24 were part of the advanced level course (12 students in each group). The sample included participants between the ages of 18 and 29, with a mean age of 22.39. Among the total participants, 87% (54 respondents) were Australian. The sample was roughly equal in gender, but that demographic factor was not recorded or considered in the data analysis.

Students from the two levels (intermediate and advanced) and both groups (control and experimental) were assessed regarding aspects of their Spanish language skills. A series of tests were carried out in agreement with the Spanish Department of the local university. Tests were divided into two phases: pre-SL and post-SL. The pre-tests were applied as follows: the students took a 2.5-hour pre-test on language use, reading and writing, followed by a 25-minute pre-test on listening and an oral test, which lasted approximately five minutes per person.

The researcher planned the service component with the students from the experimental group. This involved members from the Community Partner, a non-profit that serves the welfare of migrants, expatriates and international students from Latin America. Some 100 Latin Americans volunteered to participate in the program. Before the initiation, the needs of each student were analysed to create individualised programs of learning. Due to the high number of Latin American participants, each student from the experimental group was paired with two or more Latin Americans. To expose the participants to different accents and personalities, the groups changed every week.

Within the program, the hours spent in student-speaker interaction were grouped depending on the activity undertaken. This included (a) joint mentoring hours, wherein a dual activity was performed with the researcher; (b) hours of individual tutorial, which were weekly sessions; (c) hours of group work, which served to prepare for direct meetings; (d) hours to get to know the community partner, which was the time spent learning about how to develop the service; (e) hours of direct service, which were the sessions with the Latin American participants; (f) hours of group reflection, where the experimental group experience was discussed; and (g) hours of testing and evaluation. As a conclusion to the data on the duration and intensity of the program, 74 hours of work were invested during the seven weeks of the program. This represented an average of 10.6 hours per week and every day, with each person devoting 1.5 hours to the project each day. To maintain a position of equality, the control group researched topics related to the subject, which was equated to the investment of hours by the experimental group, although this calculation was approximate.

Within the final phase, two types of evaluation were done. This included the investigation of qualitative and quantitative aspects, as well as a program assessment. In the same way it was performed at the start of the program, all students (control and experimental) took the post-tests that were applied in the following manner: first, the students took the 2.5-hour post-test in language use, reading and writing, followed by a 25-minute post-test of listening, and an oral test, which lasted for approximately five minutes per person. A structured interview with each student in the experimental group was also conducted, which lasted some 45 minutes. Until the interviews, students were unaware of their test scores. This interview was divided into four sections, which included: personal information and previous experiences in similar projects; the motives and objectives behind their participation; their impressions and knowledge before their involvement in the program; and their experiences and the impact and benefits that, in their opinion, they achieved from the program. The students, the researcher and the representatives of the Community Partner jointly evaluated the program.

### III. RESULTS

Both qualitative and quantitative analysis methods were used during this research. These approaches were used to comprehensively address each research question and sub-question; quantitative analysis informed findings concerning the first research question, while qualitative analysis informed findings regarding the second research question and sub-question. The following sections will detail both analysis approaches.

**Quantitative analysis.** The quantitative analysis portion of the study assessed the means, standard deviations and estimates of reliability to provide evidence for the robustness of each of the test score totals, including the listening test, the oral test and the language use, reading and writing tests, pre- and post-test. These total scores were then used in a repeated measure multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to evaluate the differences between the experimental and control groups over time.

TABLE I  
MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS AND ESTIMATES OF RELIABILITY

	Intermediate with SL				Intermediate without SL			
	N	Mean	SD	alpha	N	Mean	SD	alpha
Listening Test 1	19	69.88	10.19	0.82	19	67.03	7.80	0.96
Listening Test 2	19	75.27	9.24	0.97	19	70.82	8.51	0.97
Oral Test 1	19	75.39	14.51	0.91	19	72.19	12.47	0.97
Oral Test 2	19	79.03	15.95	0.99	19	75.63	13.56	0.98
Language Use, Reading, and Writing Test 1	19	70.07	13.54	0.93	19	67.84	13.70	0.91
Language Use, Reading, and Writing Test 2	19	75.95	13.84	0.94	19	71.74	15.55	0.94
	Advanced with SL				Advanced without SL			
	N	Mean	SD	alpha	N	Mean	SD	alpha
Listening Test 1	12	64.91	8.89	0.97	12	59.08	17.06	0.99
Listening Test 2	12	73.08	9.46	0.96	12	62.67	17.50	0.99
Oral Test 1	12	67.50	12.03	0.84	12	71.50	18.72	0.86
Oral Test 2	12	75.83	11.17	0.77	12	72.92	17.03	0.89
Language Use, Reading, and Writing Test 1	12	60.48	9.92	0.88	12	62.03	16.40	0.88
Language Use, Reading, and Writing Test 2	12	66.24	9.82	0.87	12	65.93	14.34	0.91

The means, standard deviations and effect sizes for the oral tests show that there were increases in the oral for the advanced experimental group compared to the control group, but for the intermediate, both the experimental and control groups increased from Time 1 to 2 similarly. Thus, the most significant effect of the SL program was that oral language skills increased the most for advanced students, although the SL students generally outperformed the control group at the end of the program. The graph (Figure 1) shows more clearly the increase for the experimental group compared with the control group, suggesting that their higher levels of Spanish proficiency possibly assisted with their growth in oral language. On listening and oral, the experimental group proficiency increased more than that of the control group. The same pattern could be seen for language, but it was not quite statistically significant.

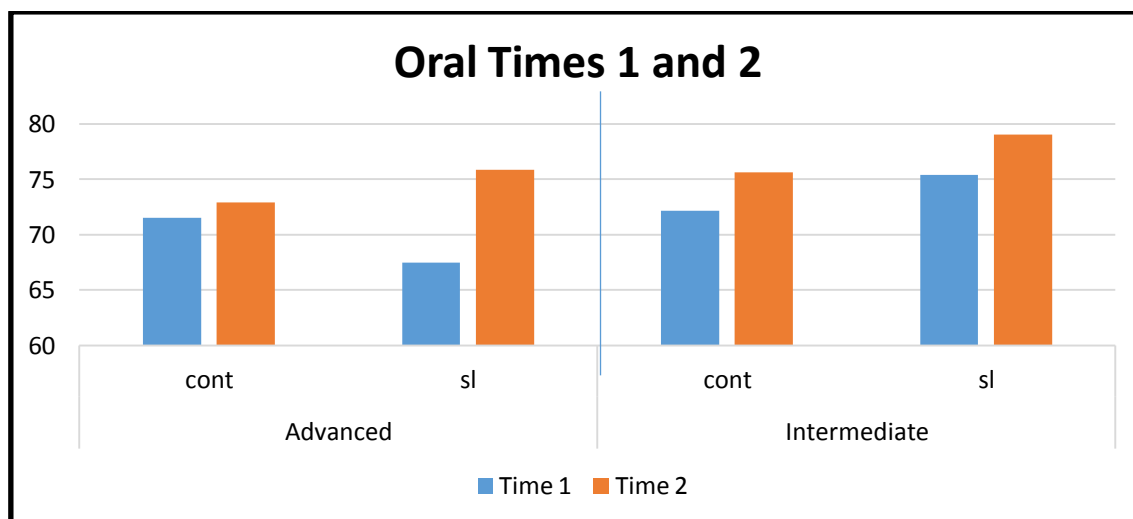


Figure 1. Oral Language

Specifically, the pre- and post-analyses showed that there was the highest increase in oral proficiency from participating in the SL for the advanced group ( $d=.78$ ) compared to the control ( $d=.08$ ), but for the intermediate students in both the experimental and control groups, oral proficiency also increased similarly, from Time 1 to Time 2 ( $d=.26, .23$ ). In the case of listening tests, SL students performed higher relating to listening (.68 versus .29) and oral (.39 versus .18), but not language, for both advanced and intermediate combined. Furthermore, there were no effects identified from the analysis of language use, reading and writing in any comparison.

More limitations, extraneous variables, and alternative explanations were revealed for the quantitative results than the qualitative results. For instance, though oral proficiency increased significantly for advanced students in the SL group in comparison to the control, the high standard deviation coefficients considered in relation to the small number of student participants considered ( $n=12$ ) demonstrates that scores varied significantly among participants in all experimental groups; while the advanced SL group's oral proficiency increased significantly when considering shifts in scores on average, examination of individual score changes between the first and second oral tests reveals that two participants' scores increased by as few as three points, while three participants' scores increased by twelve or more points. Thus, the influence of extraneous variables, such as students' gender, cultural background, and GPA should be considered to explain differences in score increases between the first and second tests. Additionally, because the control group did not participate in the interview portion of the research, qualitative insights concerning differences in participants' perceptions and experiences could not contextualize the quantitative differences evident in participants' test scores.

**Qualitative analysis.** Analysis of the qualitative (interview) data showed that most of the students preferred the mix of both traditional pedagogy (non-service learning) and SL methods. Their main reason for choosing the combination method was that the traditional approach was better for the theory classes and the SL technique was suitable for practice sessions and for making conversation. In addition, "achieving more confidence and security in Spanish" was the primary learning goal of the students participating in the SL program. Furthermore, 30 out of the 31 students in the experimental group (96.77%) perceived that the program was useful in meeting their learning goals of the Spanish course. The majority of students (96.77%) indicated that their participation in the SL project helped increase their motivation to learn Spanish. After completion of the SL program, most of the participants felt confident regarding their judgment of the culture, as well as identity. During the qualitative analysis, it was noted that 12 of the respondents (38.71%) said their work in community service had an academic impact, and 15 of the respondents (48.39%) asserted that their participation had an impact of social nature. It was noted that 29 of the respondents (93.55%) were positive about joining a similar SL program in the future. When the respondents were asked to describe the connection between the SL program and the real world, 93.55% claimed that the program helped them connect what they learned in the classroom to reality. There were also several suggestions received about improvements that could be made in the future SL program, such as adjusting program times, having fewer participants, including different stimulants to improve the conversation between the groups, and incorporating a more structured approach to gain more from the program. While these results generally reflect the positive effects, SL had on participants' academic and social experiences, it should be reiterated that only participants in the experimental group provided interview data. Thus, despite the SL groups producing significantly better test outcomes on several measures, it is possible that interviewing the control group would have revealed similar improvements for variables such as student motivation and social skills.

The second section of the qualitative analysis assessed the reactions from those in the SL program. Most of the respondents said that it was awkward at the beginning, but that everybody eased into it as he or she developed a sense of comfort and trust with one other. When consulted about how the reactions from the Latin Americans shaped their participation, the students asserted their response made them more comfortable in helping the Latin Americans with their English skills.

The third segment determined the difficulties that were faced by the respondents during the SL program. Most of the respondents agreed that they would not have been able to learn as much in the classroom as they have been during the SL program. Apart from this, 30 respondents (96.77%) agreed that they would like to have such a program in their language course at the university. When the respondents were asked about their preference for the location of SL programs, 15 respondents (48.39%) expressed an inclination for their university campus as a place for the development of SL program activities; 9 respondents (29.03%) indicated their preference for a site closer to their university.

In the fourth segment, the researcher identified the benefits for the Spanish speakers from the SL program. It was noted that it was possible for the Latin Americans to improve their English-speaking skills as half of the interactions that took place were in English. This program also provided the Latin Americans with the opportunity to enhance their language proficiency to develop a better understanding of Australians and their culture. A total of 94% (29 respondents) of the participants responded positively when asked if the Latin Americans had enjoyed the SL program.

The fifth and final segment explained the relationship between the marks that were obtained by the participants during the quantitative tests and their self-assessment of their performance. When the respondents were solicited to self-assess their fulfilment in the SL program, most expressed satisfaction. However, there was no significant statistical relationship between the marks from the quantitative tests and their self-assessment of their achievement in the SL program. The program produced perceived benefits for the participants, but those benefits were not reflected in their test scores.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

In this study, SL was defined as an educational experience based on a designed course in which students partook in service-based activities that correspond to the needs of the community. The SL program aimed to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the course subject along with an increased sense of civic responsibility (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995). The literature suggested several benefits of SL for foreign language acquisition. These benefits that were also suggested in the qualitative phase of this study were fulfilment for students, motivation and confidence in using the foreign language studied, development of sensitivity and empathy for other cultures, decrease in stereotypes, enhanced sense of closeness and solidarity with community in general, higher awareness of political and social problems, and a strong motivation to communicate in other languages. The findings of this study corroborated the literature in this regard.

SL has been defined in several ways, and the goal of many of the researchers studying SL was to establish the credibility of SL in the context of education and show how SL programs could improve classroom education. This research study is part of this tradition; although the quantitative results regarding the use of SL in foreign language acquisition were mixed, both quantitative and qualitative results highlighted certain positive aspects of SL in the context of education, specifically foreign language acquisition.

For the first research question concerning how SL affects the Spanish language acquisition of the participating students, the results were mixed. Specific areas of proficiency were enhanced, such as listening and oral skills, while others were not. However, the quantitative analysis showed no effects on language use, reading, and writing tests from participation in the SL program among the student participants in any comparison. The results of this study did not indicate that SL was beneficial to the student participants' learning in and of itself. Rather, the SL activities consisted of direct interactions with native Spanish speakers, and those interactions boosted the participants' listening and oral language skills. This result might have been expected, as contact and interaction with native speakers is one of the most effective ways to acquire conversational skills in a foreign language. Thus, these findings suggest that SL may not improve academic performance directly as reflected by test scores and marks on formal reading, language, and writing tasks; rather, incorporating SL into foreign language programs may improve certain skills that contribute to academic outcomes indirectly, such as student motivation, confidence, and cultural awareness.

For the second research question and sub-question concerning the participating students' perceptions and experiences with the SL program, most of the participants from the experimental group developed friendships with the Latin Americans due to the positive attitudes of the latter, which made the program more comfortable for the SL group, motivated them, and made them feel useful. Additionally, the relationship between the real-world interactions as part of the SL program and the classroom curricular content resulted in better outcomes insofar as language skills and comfort in oral communication were concerned, as the results showed positive experiences of students with the program and its impact on the practical part of their learning. The results also suggested that facing unfamiliar conditions led the students to make an effort to be understandable. The SL experience resulted in the development of increased self-confidence reported by the students. Despite these positive results, about half (45.16%, 14 participants) of the participants stated that they had difficulties with the time and the place where the program was developed.

#### V. CONCLUSION

There remains a need to understand if SL is particularly valuable in imparting foreign language skills. The best comparison for a follow-up study would be to compare SL to other forms of similar interaction. In this study, the SL was primarily conversational. Therefore, the most valuable comparison would be with other conversational interactions

that are *not* SL in nature. In that way, researchers could determine if it was the fact that the students engaged in SL or the fact that they engaged in conversational activities that improved their oral and listening skills.

The results of this study reflect how innovative learning approaches, such as SL, may be applied in an effort to address the lack of enrolment in foreign language programs at Australian universities. While quantitative analysis alone did not suggest that incorporating SL will drastically improve formal testing and assignment outcomes, qualitative analysis of participants' interview responses revealed that the SL experience significantly improved many factors which contribute to academic outcomes. Confirmation of the extant research finding that SL can improve students' motivation to learn a foreign language is particularly notable given the enrolment problem at the core of the study.

The emphasis on SL in a language learning context should be promoted as it has a greater effect on experiential learning than on cognitive learning—at least, directly. The qualitative findings of this study, however, also suggest that experiential learning can lead to improved cognitive learning—in the case of language skills acquisition, the two cannot be separated. One can learn vocabulary and grammar from a textbook or by conversing with others. The signal finding of this study is that in a SL context, experiential learning is the dominant outcome, as opposed to cognitive learning.

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# Integrating Multimedia Technology into Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language: A Field Study on Perspectives of Teachers in Northern California

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**Abstract**—This field study investigated the current use of multimedia technology in teaching Chinese as a foreign language in Northern California, as well as the barriers and challenges that TCFL teachers have encountered in their practice. An online survey was developed to collect data from 75 local TCFL teachers in Northern California. Findings indicated that most teachers felt they were competent enough in using multimedia technology. About half of the TCFL teachers had never received formal training on multimedia skills, even though they did not view a lack of training opportunities as a major barrier to multimedia use. The lack of school funding was the most critical factor in hindering teachers' use of multimedia. The study argues for the need to provide more support to TCFL teachers at the institutional level. More training programs are also needed to prepare teachers for a shift of role from traditional sources of knowledge to facilitators of technology-mediated learning.

**Index Terms**—Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language, multimedia

## I. INTRODUCTION

The teaching of Chinese as a foreign language (TCFL) in the U.S. has become the chicken or the egg problem: many schools are reluctant to provide Chinese programs because qualified teachers are not available in their regions; institutions of higher education are reluctant to offer teacher education programs because prospective teachers are inadequate; while the field of TCFL is not attractive to prospective teachers unless adequate resources are in place.

Added to the teacher shortage problem is the shift in the role of teachers in the twenty-first century from traditional sources of knowledge to facilitators of learning. In the context of TCFL, not only should qualified teachers be proficient in the language and be skillful in pedagogy and communication, but they should also be technology literate and facilitators of learning using new technologies or more effective use of existing technologies. This requires experienced teachers who were used to traditional classroom instruction to realize the potential for improving learning through effective use of technology, and the need to become competent or even proficient technology users.

Among the challenges local TCFL teachers face, incorporating multimedia into their lessons ranks at the top of the list. In this era of digital technology, they believe that using technology effectively in the classroom will greatly benefit learners. Despite a wide array of research that have been conducted to investigate the effectiveness of integrating multimedia technology into TCFL, a dearth of research is available on TCFL teachers' perspectives on multimedia use. As teachers are at the forefront helping students acquire language skills, their accounts on the current multimedia environment, levels of self-confidence and feelings of efficacy, as well as factors contributing to their use or lack of use of multimedia are valuable inputs to determining ways to elevate multimedia integration into teaching.

Against this background, the present field study addresses the following questions:

1. What is the current environment of multimedia technology in Northern California Chinese language classrooms?
2. What types of multimedia do TCFL teachers use to serve certain language domains?
3. How do TCFL teachers perceive their competencies in integrating multimedia into TCFL, as well as the training opportunities available to them?
4. How do TCFL teachers prepare multimedia-based materials for class?
5. What factors influence TCFL teachers to use multimedia technology in their teaching?
6. What are the challenges and barriers TCFL teachers perceive when integrating multimedia into their teaching?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Research on how Chinese language instructors today incorporate multimedia in their teaching is an important area of study because there is currently not much related research in the U.S. To conduct this research, this literature review

covers related studies in the following areas: (1) current practice of multimodal use in education; (2) integrating multimedia into foreign language teaching; (3) integrating multimedia into teaching Chinese as a foreign language; (4) value and effectiveness of integrating multimedia into teaching; (5) barriers teachers face when integrating multimedia into teaching; and (6) critiques of teachers on integrating multimedia into teaching.

#### *A. Current Practices of Multimedia in Education*

As multimedia has become more useful and normalized in daily life, its uses in education has increased in various countries through multiple methods and formats. Support for using multimedia in education comes not only from schools, educators, parents, and students, but also from governments.

A U.S. survey study from the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation (2012) noted that 67 percent of 400 teachers from across the 50 states use technology in every class and 85 percent use it every day. Despite high utilization of technology by teachers, most teachers remain skeptical that “there is little, widely accepted proof that technology tools provide real value for student learning.” To encourage schools and educators to use multimedia in education, the government also has established some policies to promote the use of multimedia in the classroom. The National Center for Education Statistics has figures showing that in 2008, 31 percent of public schools reported that there were full-time staff in the school whose sole responsibility was technology support or technology integration. In addition, 47 percent of secondary schools reported having such staff compared with 27 percent of elementary schools (Gray, Thomas & Lewis, 2010a). There are also statistics showing that in 2009, almost all public school teachers had instructional computers with Internet access available to them in the classroom, and half of the teachers could bring computers into the classroom. Almost all these instructional computers had wireless network access in the classroom (Gray, Thomas & Lewis, 2010b).

At the state level, policies have been in place to solve the problem of limitations in public school access to a wireless network (WiFi). Per the California Department of Education, there are two programs that offer discounts to California public schools for the purchase of telecommunications, Internet access, and computer hardware. The first program, E-rate, is a federal program that offers eligible K-12 public schools as much as a 90 percent discount on approved technology. The California Teleconnect Fund (CTF) is a state program that offers discounts for Internet bandwidth and other technology-related services. California provides incentives for successful technology integration into schools.

In China, the Chinese Ministry of Education embarked on a new education policy in the early 1990s emphasizing networked education, with the goal of connecting every school to the Internet and integrating computers into school curricula (Fang & Warschauer, 2004). Since then educational units nationwide have responded to the policy. For example, in 2000, the China Education and Research Network (CERNET) reached a major milestone by linking every university in China to the Internet. Along with the national CERNET, provincial and institutional language teaching and research networks, such as the Jiangsu English Language Teaching and Research Network (JSELTRNET), also helped to develop telecommunication networks in higher education (Foster and Goodman, 2000). By 2001, China had already integrated 3 million computers and 150,000 computerized classrooms into nearly 100,000 elementary and secondary schools, benefiting more than 50 million students (Fang & Warschauer, 2004). In 2010, the Ministry of Education (MOE) issued its National Long-Term Education Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020) to embark on a series of education reforms in China for the coming decade. Part of this ten-year plan is devoted to accelerating educational informatization by speeding up information infrastructure construction, developing and applying more quality education resources, and building a state education information management system. In the same year, the MOE outlined a high-level vision for a revolutionary transformation in education. They called for leveraging technology to measure, diagnose, and modify learning conditions and instructional practices to build the capacity of educators – teachers, parents, experts, and mentors outside the classroom, improve student learning outcomes, and manage costs (Chen, 2014).

#### *B. Integrating Multimedia into Foreign Language Teaching*

Given the worldwide importance of the language, English as a second language (ESL) has long been a prevalent subject in many countries. There have been large numbers of research studies on pedagogies and tools to improve the quality of ESL teaching. As technology has begun to play a critical role in the twenty-first century, integrating multimedia into ESL learning has become a prevalent research topic worldwide.

Yeh and Wang (2003), for example, compared the effect of auditory and visual stimuli in computer-assisted English vocabulary acquisition by Chinese speakers. The study found that visual stimuli are more effective than auditory stimuli. After this, Al-Seghayer (2001) investigated which of the image modalities – dynamic video or still picture – is more effective in aiding vocabulary acquisition. Thirty ESL students at the University of Pittsburg were measured under three conditions: text definition alone, text definition with still pictures, and text definition with video clips. Results suggested that a video clip in combination with text definition was most effective in teaching unknown vocabulary. Video clips and text were linked together in meaningful ways to provide participants an in-depth experience and mental image, and help them learn and recall more words than still pictures and text. At the same time, related research done in Taiwan investigated the relationship between learners’ perceptual learning styles and the effectiveness of various types of vocabulary annotations on vocabulary learning – text only, text plus picture, and text plus picture and sound. This study of 82 ESL students at the National Tsing Hua University in Taiwan showed that text plus pictures was the most effective of the three types, and perceptual learning style was not a significant factor to the effectiveness of vocabulary annotations (Yeh & Wang, 2003).

Similar research studies have also been done for learning German as a second language. For instance, one study examined the effectiveness of annotations with multimedia applications to vocabulary learning. This study was conducted with 160 university German language students using a hypermedia application. Findings showed that text plus pictures was more effective in learning words than text plus video or text only (Chun & Plass, 1996). Another study examined the effectiveness of three types of glosses on German learning: text-only, picture-only, and text-and-picture (Kost, Foss & Lenzini, 1999). This study of university students from a second-semester German class showed that text-and-picture gloss was the most effective of the three gloss types. The study also suggested that learners' preferred learning styles should be further explored so that the design of vocabulary annotation could better facilitate customization of course materials.

For Spanish as a second language learning, Rubin (1990) discovered that video played an important role in enhancing the listening skills of language learners. Results of the study showed that upper-introductory level Spanish students who watched dramas on video improved in listening comprehension compared to students who received no video support. The studies described above generally suggested that visual and sound were more beneficial than text only in learning foreign language.

Other studies related to using multimedia to increase learning results and communication skills also showed significant positive findings. Some studies were conducted to compare ESL with other foreign languages. For example, Clarke and Heaney (2003) studied the use of asynchronous computer conferencing to support the teaching and learning of English literacy with ten to eleven-year-old ESL students from schools in Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland. The study suggested in quality terms that valuable understandings and literary skills can be developed in this way. In Turkey, a study investigated the impact of the use of multimedia with a textbook to teach English as a foreign language on teachers' instructional practices. Subjects were 14 English teachers at a state university in Turkey teaching Turkish-speaking college students. The focal point of the project was to enhance students' communicative competence and autonomy via the implementation of technological tools. The study found that teachers became more engaged in preparing supplementary materials by exploiting the new technological facilities that the new project made available for their use. The study also found that teachers were more interested in meetings and discussions with other teachers to share ideas and reflect on their own practices (Timucin, 2006).

Other studies compared classrooms of two different languages regarding multimedia integration. Ismail, Almekhlafi and Al-Mekhlafy (2010) examined teachers' perceptions about integrating instructional technology into both Arabic and English as second language classes in K-12 schools in the United Arab Emirates. A questionnaire and a focus group interview were conducted with 621 Arabic and English teachers from 67 schools. Results indicated that teachers had high perceptions of competency in technology integration. They agreed that technology enhanced students' independence, involvement, and interaction, but had mixed feelings toward the effect on developing language skills; they regarded technology as essential to promote and review teaching and learning. They also noted that using videotapes in teaching was significantly higher among Arabic teachers than among English as a foreign language teachers. Arabic teachers specified that they video-taped students while they were in action doing different tasks such as participating in a dialogue or reporting a group's answer. The purpose of such activity is to provide students with a valuable opportunity to view themselves in action and reflect on their own performance. This study also showed that using email, dictionaries and encyclopedias, language labs and electronic forums in teaching was significantly more effective for English teachers than for Arabic teachers. English teachers needed to provide their students with more opportunities to practice and to use the language since English is a foreign language for almost all students in the country. Although Arabic teachers appreciated the role of technology in promoting teaching and learning, they mainly used computers to help them prepare their instruction materials.

### *C. Integrating Multimedia into TCFL*

The number of students enrolled in Chinese classes has seen substantial increases every year in recent decades. Draper and Hicks (2002) found that in 2000, approximately 24,000 students of grades 7 to 12 nationwide were studying Chinese. Furman, Goldberg, and Lusin (2009) found that in 2009, at the higher education level, there were 60,976 students learning Chinese, 18-percent increase over 2006 after 51-percent increase from 2002 to 2006. Asia Society and China Institute (2009) reported that the number of students studying Chinese in the U.S. at was modest – accounting for only four percent of foreign language enrollments in higher education, but found a major attitudinal shift was taking place. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (2012a) found that the number of students studying Chinese in K-12 public schools in 2007-2008 was 59,860, tripled from the 2004-2005 level. As more Chinese language teachers are needed, there should be more research on teaching pedagogies as well as integrating multimedia into Chinese language study in the U.S.

As discussed in the previous section, a study on learning German as a second language showed that text plus pictures was more effective in learning words than text plus video or text only. In learning Chinese grammar, however, the findings might be different. Williams (2013) examined the effectiveness of three types of Chinese grammar teaching materials: text-only, text-picture, and text-video. The study was conducted among 53 beginning and intermediate-level Chinese language students at a public university in Massachusetts by means of immediate and delayed tests. Results showed that text-video has a significant positive effect on Chinese grammar comprehension in general. Text-video has an immediate performance improvement over text-only, but has no significant improvement in the long run. Results

also showed that text-video is more effective than text-picture in Chinese grammar comprehension when the target form becomes more complex.

Although an increasing number of students are learning Chinese in the U.S., and teachers generally agree that multimedia use can make language learning more effective, the ways that Chinese language teachers should use multimedia to teach have rarely been investigated. This is a key issue in teaching Chinese as a foreign language in the United States. This study aims to investigate how Chinese as a foreign language instructors use multimedia in U.S. classrooms.

#### *D. Values of Multimedia Integration into Teaching*

As multimedia use in teaching becomes more prevalent, it is worthwhile to ask: are multimedia technology utilized in teaching simply because the technology exist, have been developed, and are widely used in other industries? Is it because we *must* imitate pop culture to keep the students' interest, or will doing so actually enhance student learning and teaching quality? What are the reasons teachers should consider as they decide to integrate multimedia into classes? What are the actual values of integrating multimedia into teaching?

First, previous studies have shown that multimedia and technology cannot only engage students in class but also help develop students' creative and thinking ability. In the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation (2012) report, teachers believed that thoughtful design, together with required professional development, was essential if emerging technologies were going to make a difference in students' lives. In an interview, a fourth-grade teacher in Wallingford, PA, commented based on her experience that educational video games and digital presentations could promote more dynamic and flexible teaching styles and engage students on their terms (Richtel, 2012). Some Taiwanese studies also present similar rationales. For example, ChanLin, Hong, Horng, Chang, and Chu (2006) collected interview data from eight Taiwanese primary and secondary school teachers who won creative teaching awards in 2002. The study investigated how computer technology was integrated into their curriculum and what factors contributed to the use of such technology. The study found that teachers used technology to prepare tests, activities, and handouts because they wanted their teaching to be diverse and creative. The teachers also employed self-monitoring instruments to encourage students to develop more creative efforts. The researchers categorized factors that influence teachers' use of computer technology in the classroom into four dimensions: multimedia access environment, personal reasons, social support, and curricular standards. The award-winning teachers in Taiwan reflected that computer technology was just one creative teaching strategy, and that teachers should integrate technology into their curriculum in ways that develop students' curiosity and thinking ability.

Previous studies have discovered the value of PowerPoint presentations for instruction. The study of award-winning teachers in Taiwan found that PowerPoint was the most frequently used multimedia tool (ChanLin et al., 2006). Several studies in the late 1990s indicated that college students found PowerPoint-based lectures more interesting than traditional lectures (Harknett & Cobane, 1997; Lowry, 1999). Lowry reported that students taught in PowerPoint-based lectures scored higher on tests than those taught in traditional lectures (52 percent versus 44 percent). Corbiel (2007) stated that language teachers increasingly used PowerPoint presentations for teaching grammar. Color coding, bolding, font manipulation, underlining, animation schemes, and custom animation served to make grammatical rules more salient. The researcher also showed that students reacted more positively to class materials in a PowerPoint format and considered it to be a more effective learning tool than textbooks.

#### *E. Challenges of Multimedia Integration into Teaching*

The main challenges presented in previous studies were generally based on the following aspects: lack of time, lack of professional training programs, lack of equipment, lack of funding, lack of suitable instructional software, and lack of personal comfort level. Al-Senaidi, Lin and Poirot (2009) investigated perceived barriers to adopting information and communication technologies in higher education in the Sultanate of Oman, an Arab state. The study of 100 faculty members found that two major hurdles in adopting technology were lack of institutional support and lack of time, while lack of equipment, skepticism regarding ICT benefits, and lack of confidence were not major impediments.

According to a survey study by The National Center for Education Statistics on the status of education technology in U.S. public schools in 2008, 42 percent of respondents from district, school, and teacher levels felt that teachers were not sufficiently trained to integrate technology into classroom instruction; 58 percent of respondents felt that funding for education technology was inadequate, though 83 percent felt the current funding for educational technology was spent in the most appropriate ways. Some respondents also felt the need for districts to employ an individual responsible for educational technology leadership full time (51 percent) or part time (32 percent) (Gray, Thomas & Lewis, 2010a).

Without appropriate institutionalized training for teachers in using technology, some studies reported that teachers found it difficult to realize the true value and effectiveness of integrating multimedia into teaching. To understand how K-12 educators use technology in schools, Project Tomorrow (2014) conducted its annual *Speak Up Survey* in 2013 among over 333,000 students, teachers, and administrators from over 9,000 schools. The study found that all teachers put "how to differentiate instruction using technology" at the top of their professional development wish-lists. In addition, the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation (2012) reported that teachers said access to computers, personal comfort level, and time for planning are the three biggest barriers to using technology in class. Union and school rules are the least important barriers to using technology.

Similar challenges were found in the international setting. Yang and Huang (2008) argued that although ESL teachers in Taiwan believed that students might benefit from the utilization of technology in instruction, they faced barriers that made integration difficult to implement. These teachers highlighted barriers such as lack of appropriate training workshops, lack of personal guidance and consultancy, lack of suitable instructional software and hardware and time constraints.

#### *F. Critiques of Teachers in Multimedia Use*

It is also important to review research from the teachers' perspective. Even though there are many advantages in using multimedia in teaching, some articles consider disadvantages such as wasting time, distracting students' attention, and other problems. Bungum (2006) reported that teachers placed a high value on the products made by the students when they use technology. But the researcher also expressed concerns about the overreliance of teachers on a heavily technology instructional method which was time-consuming and neglected salient elements specified in the formal curriculum. He found that most teachers who participated in the study decided to allow students to spend the necessary time to make quality products. In the studies by Common Sense Media (2012) and Pew Research Center (2012), it was noted there is a widespread perception among U.S. teachers that students' constant use of digital technology is hampering their attention spans and ability to persevere when facing challenging tasks. Although the studies represented only the subjective views of teachers and should not be definitive proof that widespread use of computers, phones, and video games in education affects students' ability to focus, the fact that they teachers observe students for long hours every day makes the findings significant. Common Sense Media (2012), a nonprofit organization in San Francisco, reported that teachers described what might be called a "wikipedia problem", in which students have grown so accustomed to getting quick answers with a few keystrokes that they were more likely to give up when an easy answer eluded them.

Moreover, some researchers found that using too much multimedia in teaching may make students grow tired of it. McKinnon, Nolan, and Sinclair (2000) noted the continuous overuse of technology might result in students developing a less positive attitude toward it. The study of 415 secondary students in New Zealand found that students' motivation toward technology dropped once the use of the computer became part of the daily classroom instructional routine. Richtel (2012) also found that teachers often felt they had to work harder to capture and hold students' attention. He interviewed an English teacher at Troy High School in Fullerton, California, who was worried that technology was causing a deeper shift in how students learned, and, based on the proposition that the era of constant entertainment might end one day, also wondered if teachers were adding to the problem by adjusting lessons to accommodate the shorter attention spans.

Furthermore, some articles revealed that some multimedia tools have an adverse effect on both teaching and learning. Common Sense Media (2012) surveyed 685 K-12 teachers in the U.S. concerning how they think entertainment media affected students' academic and social development and found that 71 percent of teachers considered entertainment media to be detrimental for developing writing skills. In addition, Salem (2013) assessed how instant and text messaging applications such as Blackberry text messages (BBM) and WhatsApp affect the way Arabic-speaking students from Kuwait learn English as a second language. The study of 211 primary and secondary school students found that the use of instant and text messaging shortcuts and abbreviations has an adverse impact on developing vocabulary, spelling and grammar skills. This was supported in articles by Aziz, Shamim, and Avais (2013) and Rankin (2010), who studied the same problem and agreed with Salem's findings.

In addition, it has been conceded that teachers should pay attention to the most effective methods to make multimedia a more helpful teaching tool. Canning-Wilson and Wallace (2000) suggested that teachers using videos for listening comprehension in a foreign language classroom should present them in segments as opposed to presenting them as a whole. Students being exposed to constant visual stimuli might easily be distracted from the auditory component, making the learning process ineffective. Thus, although video was a popular tool among students, language teachers should be clear about the educational purpose that video served in the classroom before using it. Therefore, it was not only important for teachers to learn how to integrate multimedia into teaching, but also essential that they investigate how to use it efficiently.

### III. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to produce an overall picture of the current environment of multimedia technology in Northern California Chinese language classrooms, to look at TCFL teachers' use of multimedia in their classroom practices, and to consider the factors that affect decisions regarding the use of multimedia in their teaching. The following sections describe the context of the study and the methods used in the questionnaire survey and the case studies.

#### *A. Survey Setting and Procedures*

The study is designed on a quantitative survey basis. Surveys, typically in the form of questionnaires, are one of the most commonly used approaches of collecting data on attitudes and perceptions from a large pool of participants. Surveys allow researchers to gather information that participants can report about themselves, such as their beliefs and

motivations (Mackey & Gass, 2005). An online survey was designed for Northern California Chinese Language teachers to fill out through the university's Qualtrics Survey Tool<sup>1</sup>. The topic of the survey is *Survey for Northern California Chinese Language Teachers Incorporating Multimedia into Teaching Chinese*. A total of 250 teachers in Northern California were contacted via email on June 22, 2014, using the Confucius Institute database of 215 teachers of Chinese as a foreign language at public or private K-16 or adult schools. We supplemented the Confucius Institute list of teachers with 35 participating teachers at the *2014 Summer Institute for Chinese Language Teachers* at San Francisco State University<sup>2</sup>. The link to the online survey was sent, and teachers had one week to complete and submit the survey online.

### B. Participants

After three email requests and a few individual phone calls extending across the seven-day period, a total of 75 TCFL teachers completed and submitted the survey (a return rate of 30 percent). The participating teachers included 57 females and 18 males. Sixty percent of the participants were above 40 years old. Mandarin and Cantonese were the native language of most teachers. Teachers differed in terms of years of teaching experience, student grades, students' language level, and language program. The sample was determined to be representative of the TCFL teachers in Northern California.

### C. Instrumentation

The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire-based survey. The theoretical foundations of the study were established based on the current perspectives and trends of multimedia use in foreign language teaching. After setting the theoretical framework of the study, interviews were conducted with three TCFL teachers of local schools to specify the layout and content of the questionnaire. Afterwards, the survey was drafted based on theoretical perspectives and advices based on feedback received from a panel of six professors and experts in education, TCFL and ESL teaching.

The survey contained 29 questions that were designed in two parts. The first part of the questionnaire contained 14 multiple choice questions that collect basic background information from the participating teachers. The second part consisted of 12 multiple choice questions and three open-ended questions about four themes: frequency of use, availability of multimedia technology, preparation and training opportunities, and barriers in multimedia use. In particular, one question provided a scale table which asked how frequently teachers used various ICT and multimedia tools (from "never" to "always"). Another question contained a table asking teachers which ICT and multimedia tools were used to serve differing language domains in a Chinese language classroom. The three open-ended questions attempted to provide participants a chance to elaborate on their answers to previous questions in their own words.

## IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Study results are organized and discussed around the following themes: (1) frequency of multimedia use; (2) availability and accessibility; (3) teachers' preparation and training; and (4) barriers to technology use.

### A. Frequency of Multimedia Use

Teaching the Chinese language involves exposing students to a variety of language domains that make up language learning, including pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, listening, speaking, comprehension, writing, Chinese characters, as well as the culture of the population that primarily speak the language. Table 1 presents, of all multimedia tools that were reported to be primarily used in a Chinese language classroom for a language domain, the percent that each multimedia tool was the primary tool used. Videos and audios were primarily used in developing pronunciation and listening skills. PowerPoint and images were primarily used in teaching vocabulary, grammar, and Chinese characters. Animation was more likely to be primarily used in introducing Chinese culture and developing listening skills.

<sup>1</sup> San Francisco State University's Qualtrics Survey Software is a web-based survey tool for creating and conducting online surveys. All survey data collected using Qualtrics surveys follow the university's Confidential Data Policy.

<sup>2</sup> The *2014 Summer Institute for Chinese Language Teachers* was held from June 15 to 21, 2014. A total of 35 local teachers participated in the seven-day integrated training curriculum at San Francisco State University.

TABLE 1  
PERCENT OF A MULTIMEDIA TOOL REPORTED TO BE PRIMARILY USED FOR A LANGUAGE DOMAIN

	Pronunciation	Vocabulary	Grammar	Chinese Characters	Chinese Culture	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Images	6%	29%	19%	34%	21%	5%	20%	24%	24%
PPT	10%	27%	44%	29%	19%	7%	14%	26%	17%
Audios	49%	12%	8%	7%	7%	36%	22%	9%	4%
Videos	19%	12%	11%	8%	26%	27%	21%	17%	10%
Animation	7%	7%	8%	11%	16%	15%	10%	7%	11%
Online games	5%	12%	7%	10%	5%	8%	7%	10%	16%
Social networking sites	3%	2%	1%	1%	6%	2%	6%	8%	17%
Aggregate number of multimedia tools primarily used for the domain	98	129	72	117	188	165	121	89	70

Notes:

Results were based on responses to Question 17 on the survey;

For each language domain, teachers who responded that they did not primarily use a multimedia tool for such domain were excluded respectively from the analysis of the domain presented in this table;

Since teachers were allowed to select multiple primary multimedia tools to serve for each language domain, the percentages presented in this analysis were based on the aggregate number of tools reported to be primarily used for the domain. For instance, teachers reported they primarily used a total of 98 tools when teaching pronunciation; forty-nine percent of the 98 tools were audios.

*B. Availability of Multimedia Technology in Chinese Language Classrooms*

In order for TCFL teachers to integrate multimedia technology into their curriculum, the technology must be available and accessible to them. The rationale behind increasing the availability of ICT in a Chinese language classroom is based on the assumption that their availability will increase teachers' use of multimedia tools, and subsequently lead to effective teaching and positive learning outcomes.

Table 2 shows the percent of TCFL teachers who reported having computers, the Internet or SMART boards in the classrooms. Results indicate that computers and the Internet were reportedly available and accessible to about three in four Chinese language classrooms. Sixty-three percent cited having projectors in their classrooms, and 28 percent reported having SMART boards in their classrooms.

TCFL teachers' availability and accessibility to these ICT varied by class characteristics, including student grade, program type, and instructional level. For example, college, high school and adult school teachers were in general more likely to have computers, the Internet, and projectors in their classrooms than junior high school, elementary school and kindergarten teachers. The availability of SMART boards in a Chinese language classroom did not significantly differ by student grade (between 24 percent and 33 percent).

There were also differences in the availability of ICT among program types. Teachers from regular language classes and Chinese immersion programs were more likely to have computers, the Internet, and projectors in their classrooms than those from after school programs, weekend Chinese schools, and private classes. Regular language classes were less likely, however, to have SMART boards in the classrooms than after-school programs, private classes, and Chinese immersion programs (30 percent compared with 35 percent, 40 percent, and 50 percent).

The availability of ICT in classrooms also varied by instructional level. Teachers in advanced level classes were more likely to report having more computers (80 percent), the Internet (90 percent), and social projectors (70 percent) than those in beginning level and intermediate level classes. The availability of SMART boards in a Chinese language classroom did not, however, significantly vary by instructional level (between 25 percent and 29 percent).

TABLE 2  
PERCENT OF TCFL TEACHERS REPORTING AVAILABILITY OF AND ACCESSIBILITY TO INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES IN THE CLASSROOM

Class characteristics	Computers	The Internet	Projectors	SMART boards
All classrooms	73%	72%	63%	28%
<i>Student grade</i>				
K to 2	63%	54%	50%	29%
3 to 5	68%	60%	44%	24%
6 to 8	67%	67%	52%	29%
9 to 12	80%	90%	67%	33%
13 to 16	81%	81%	81%	25%
Adult school	71%	71%	57%	29%
<i>Program type</i>				
Regular language classes	84%	92%	70%	30%
After school program	71%	47%	35%	35%
Weekend Chinese school	42%	47%	58%	21%
Private classes	67%	73%	47%	40%
Chinese immersion program	83%	100%	100%	50%
Other	75%	75%	88%	25%
<i>Instructional level</i>				
Beginning level	71%	75%	59%	29%
Intermediate level	75%	75%	59%	27%
Advanced level	80%	90%	70%	25%

Notes:

Results were based on cross tabulations between Question 18 and questions on class characteristics on the survey: Question 13 (student grade), Question 12 (program type) and Question 14 (instructional level);

Teachers making multiple selections on the student grade, program type and instructional level of their classes were included in the analyses of the respective selections;

Computers include iPads and tablets.

### C. Preparation and Training Opportunities

The survey of multimedia use in TCFL instruction asked teachers a couple of questions regarding their preparation and training on the following topics: their perceptions of familiarity towards multimedia use; their preparation for class materials; the extent to which collaboration with other teachers contributed to the use of multimedia technology in teaching or their understanding of technology; and their participation in professional development purposes.

To answer Question 15 on the survey – “Which of the following information and communication technologies and multimedia tools are you familiar with?” – teachers selected multiple ICT and multimedia tools that they were familiar with using for instruction. Figure 1 shows that images, PowerPoint, audios, and videos received more than 84 percent of selections, whereas around half of the teachers reported they were familiar with using animation in class. Online games and social networking sites were the least likely for teachers to be familiar with, receiving less than 37 percent of selections. Results show that TCFL teachers regarded themselves as having the capabilities and skills to use different types of technologies in their teaching such as operating computers and the Internet, using multimedia tools such as images, PowerPoint, audios, and videos, and integrating multimedia presentations to enhance teaching and learning.

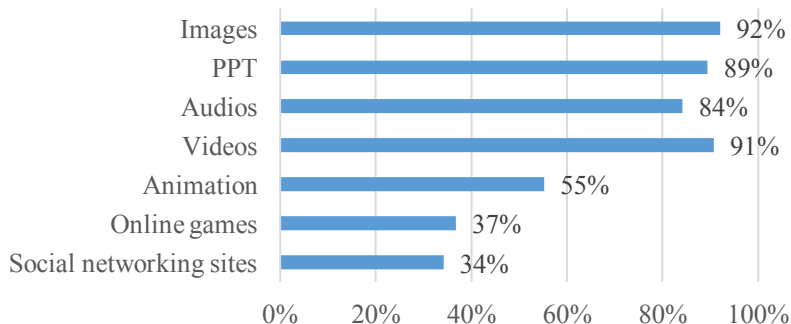


Figure 1. Percent of TCFL Teachers Reporting Being Familiar with Multimedia Tools for Instruction

Notes:

Results were based on responses to Question 15 on the survey;

The number of responses available for this analysis is 75.

The analysis of teachers' perceptions of familiarity toward ICT and multimedia tools drew comparisons with their frequency of use. This revealed that TCFL teachers integrated more multimedia technology into their classes when they



possessed higher degree of technology self-efficacy. The finding was supported by ChanLin et al. (2006), who found that teachers that felt they had knowledge and competency in using technology for language domains more likely integrated it into the classroom.

Multimedia technologies that were of less familiarity and usage to the TCFL teachers were not necessarily a disvalue to these teachers. Though the analysis shows that many teachers perceived they did not possess the competencies to integrate SMART boards, or tools such as animation, online games and social networking sites into their classes, they admitted in their responses to Question 21 on the survey – “Which multimedia skill(s) do you need to learn or improve in the future?”, that they would need to learn or improve these skills in the future. Figure 2 show that teachers were more likely to indicate the need to learn SMART board skills (25 percent) than to improve on their skills for computers and the Internet. They were also more likely to indicate the need to learn about animation (36 percent) and online games (39 percent) than to improve on their skills of the tools they were familiar with in images, PowerPoint, audios and videos. TCFL teachers generally did not view social networking sites as a tool that could benefit their teaching (13 percent).

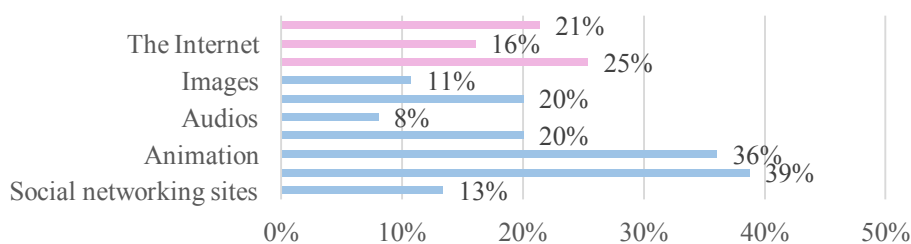


Figure 2. Percent of TCFL Teachers Reporting Need to Learn or Improve Multimedia Skills in the Future  
 Notes:  
 Results were based on responses to Question 21 on the survey;  
 Pink bars represent ICT, while blue bars represent multimedia tools;  
 The number of responses available for this analysis is 75.

**D. Teachers’ Barriers to Multimedia Use**

TCFL teachers who conducted the survey were asked on whether they encountered the following barriers to their use of multimedia technology for instruction: influence from colleagues, school requirement, making teaching less effective, deficiency in student performance, lack of school funding, and contradiction to personal pedagogical approach. The section first presents information on the number of TCFL teachers who perceived these to be barriers, followed by an examination of other barriers and problems encountered by these teachers. An investigation of differences in barriers by teacher and class characteristics is the conducted. The final section explores the relationships between barriers reported by teachers and selected language domains.

Question 25 on the survey – “Which one of the following do you think most contributes to the lack of multimedia use in teaching Chinese at your school?” – attempted to collect data on teachers’ perceptions of barriers to multimedia use in class through both close-ended and open-ended components. Teachers were encouraged not only to select their main barrier from a range of potential barriers but also to provide in their own words that were not best described in the choices. Of the 73 respondents, 17 of them provided their own descriptions of their major teaching barriers. Both close-ended and open-ended portions of the responses were collectively used for the analysis presented in Figure 3.

The major barrier contributing to the lack of use of multimedia technology for instruction most frequently reported by TCFL teachers was lack of school funding (38 percent of teachers). In addition, 18 percent reported personal pedagogical approach, 14 percent reported school requirement, and ten percent of teachers reported outdated or unreliable computers or the Internet as their major barriers. One TCFL teacher regarded school requirement as the major impediment to his use of computers in class because he was not even allowed to use his own. The lack of institutional support as a major impediment to technology use was supported by Al-Senaidi et al. (2009) in their study of faculty members in Sultanate of Oman.

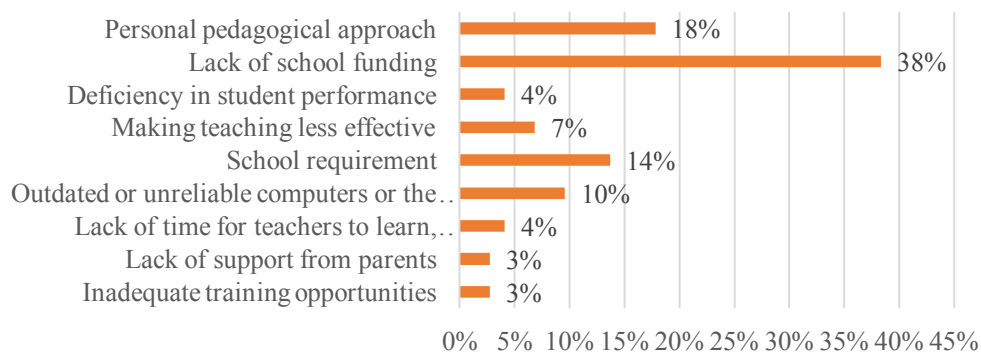


Figure 3. Percent of TCFL Teachers Reporting their Major Barriers to Multimedia Use for Instruction

Notes:

Results were based on responses to Questions 25 on the survey;

Teachers reporting “others” provided their major barrier in their own words and were compiled with other responses in this analysis; The number of respondents available for this analysis is 73.

Furthermore, less than ten percent of teachers pointed out making teaching less effective, lack of time for teachers to learn, prepare, and implement multimedia technology for class, deficiency in student performance, inadequate training opportunities, and lack of support from parents as their major barriers. The finding that lack of time not generally viewed as the major impediments was contrary to those found in previous research (Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2012; Ismail et al., 2010; Al-Senaidi et al., 2009; ChanLin et al., 2006). An explanation to the contrary is that in these previous studies, the availability of technology resources in classes were not as much of a concern to the participating teachers as to the TCFL teachers of this study. As discussed in the earlier section, computers and the Internet were available to just under three in four Chinese language classrooms, forcing roughly one in five teachers to either bring in their own computers and the Internet or ask students to bring in theirs to classes. The finding that lack of school funding was most cited as the major barrier might help support the explanation.

Inadequate training opportunities and lack of support from parents were the least likely to be cited as their major barriers at three percent each. Despite the previous section shows that close to half of the teachers had never received training on multimedia skills and only 16 percent had received training more than two times a year, just three percent of the teachers perceived the lack of training opportunities as their major barrier. This was supported by the previous section that teachers felt they generally possessed the necessary competencies to integrate technology into their classes. Previous studies explained that, without appropriate institutionalized training for teachers in using technology, teachers found it difficult to realize the true value and effectiveness of integrating multimedia in teaching (Project Tomorrow, 2014; Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2012).

## V. DISCUSSION

The objective of this field study was to investigate the current use of multimedia technology in teaching Chinese as a foreign language in Northern California, as well as the barriers and challenges that TCFL teachers have encountered in their practice. The literature review discusses that not only is there a shortage of TCFL teachers in Northern California, but there is also low self-efficacy among current teachers as they are preparing for a shift of role from traditional sources of knowledge to facilitators of learning using technology. Despite a wide array of research that have been conducted to investigate the effectiveness of integrating multimedia technology into TCFL, a dearth of research is available on TCFL teachers’ perspectives on multimedia use.

An online survey was developed to collect data from 75 local TCFL teachers in Northern California. The survey investigated teachers’ accounts on the current multimedia environment, their feelings of efficacy, as well as factors contributing to their use or lack of use of multimedia. Findings in this study indicate that most TCFL teachers in Northern California recognized the benefits of multimedia technology for themselves and for their learners. Even though ICT were available to only three in four Chinese language classrooms, most teachers who taught in those unequipped classrooms provided their own technology to their classes.

Information and communication technology and multimedia tools can be integrated into virtually any classroom situation. The key for teachers is to focus on what language domains they are trying to accomplish in the curriculum, and then to identify an appropriate combination of ICT and multimedia tools that can help them accomplish the goal. Based on the survey responses, certain tools were more likely used than others to accomplish specific language domains: TCFL teachers primarily used videos and audios in developing pronunciation and listening skills; PowerPoint and images were primarily used in teaching vocabulary, grammar, and Chinese characters; animation was primarily used in introducing Chinese culture and developing listening skills; the Internet was primarily used in introducing Chinese culture and developing reading skills; computers were primarily used for developing listening and speaking skills, as

well as introducing vocabulary and grammar. SMART boards were primarily used in introducing Chinese culture and developing writing skills.

These patterns showed that not every language domain is best supported by every tool. No single tool can be expected to address all classroom objectives. In the context of TCFL, sorting multimedia technology by language domain is a step towards learning how to apply the right technology to a given task. By no means is the most frequently used tool necessarily the *best* approach for the domain; determining the *best* tool for a task would require empirical tests. This is also not the intent of this study to imply recommendations or endorsements for *the* tool for a language domain. Nonetheless, the fact that a tool was most frequently used for a language domain supported that there were benefits in using the tool and that the tool worked with many teachers.

In terms of multimedia competencies in integrating multimedia into TCFL, most teachers felt they were competent enough in using multimedia technology. TCFL teachers did not view a lack of training opportunities as their major barrier to multimedia use, but most teachers felt the need for more training opportunities, particularly the less frequently technology such as SMART boards, animation, and online games. In terms of factors hindering teachers' use of multimedia, most teachers felt that the lack of school funding was the most critical factor. It is clear that TCFL teachers were more willing to adopt multimedia in their teaching if they gained support at the institutional level.

The findings of the survey need to be considered in light of three limitations. First, the survey items were mainly drawn from empirical evidence and current trends of multimedia use in foreign language teaching, as opposed to from theoretical models. Second, the survey items regarding barriers focused on too few major categories of the reported barriers: school requirement, ineffective teaching, deficiency in student performance, personal pedagogical approach, lack of school funding, and influence from colleagues. Many subtle areas of barriers such as low feelings of efficacy, lack of time preparing, lack of technical training, and lack of access to multimedia technology were either under-presented or excluded by the participants on the survey due to their time consideration to complete the survey. Third, the sample size was too small to conduct statistical tests from the quantitative data collected via the questionnaire. Fourth, the quantitative, survey-based study suffered from a lack of qualitative understanding of the problem. A mixed method of questionnaires and focus group interviews with selected teachers could have led to better and more in-depth understanding of the problem. Overall, findings from this study were limited. It is recommended future studies validate and extend the results found in this study.

Future research can explore how to design and develop a curriculum for professional multimedia training classes for all TCFL teachers in the U.S. Another option is to investigate the efficacy of various multimedia in helping to engage students in learning the Chinese characters, or the effects of appropriate uses of images on improving students' learning. Any related research subjects can help TCFL teachers have a better idea about what multimedia skills to learn and to incorporate into their teaching.

#### APPENDIX. SURVEY FOR NORTHERN CALIFORNIA CHINESE LANGUAGE TEACHERS INCORPORATING MULTIMEDIA IN TEACHING CHINESE

##### 北加州地区中文教师使用多媒体教学情况调查

###### Section 1: Basic Information / 第一部分：基础信息

Q1. Name / 姓名: \_\_\_\_\_

Q2. Gender / 性别:  Male / 男  Female / 女

Q3. Age / 年龄:  20-30  31-40  41-50  51-60  61 and above / 61 岁及以上

Q4. What is/are the name(s) of the school(s) you are currently teaching at? / 您现在在哪些学校任教? 请注明学校名称: \_\_\_\_\_

Q5. How would you define the multimedia used in the classroom?  
您是怎样定义和理解课堂教学中使用的“多媒体”的? \_\_\_\_\_

Q6. What is your native language? / 以下哪种语言是您的母语?

English / 英语  Chinese / 普通话  Cantonese / 粤语  Other / 其它语言: \_\_\_\_\_

Q7. What is the highest level of degree you have achieved? / 您获得的最高文凭是什么?

High School Diploma / 高中毕业文凭  Two-year college / 专科文凭  B.A. or B.S. / 学士文凭  M.A. or M.S. / 硕士文凭  Ph.D. / 博士文凭

Q8. In which region did you achieve your highest level of education? / 您在哪里获得您的最高文凭?

U.S. / 美国  China Mainland / 中国大陆  Hong Kong / 香港  Taiwan / 台湾  
 Other country or region / 其它国家或地区: \_\_\_\_\_

Q9. In which field did you achieve your highest level of education? /您在哪个领域获得您的最高文凭?

Teaching Chinese as a second language /对外汉语专业领域

Chinese literature or linguistics /中国文学或语言学中非对汉语专业的其它学科

English literature or teaching English as a second language /英美文学或教授英文作为第二外语专业

Education /教育学领域

Other field /其它领域: \_\_\_\_\_

Q10. For how long have you been a Chinese language teacher? /您做汉语教师多长时间?

1-5 years /年  6-10 years /年  11-20 years /年  21-30 years /年  31 years and above /年及以上

Q11. Do you have a teaching credential? /您是否已考取教师资格证?

Yes (Please select the type of teaching credential) /是 (请选择教师资格证类别)

A. Multiple Subject Teaching Credential /多科小学教师证

B. Single Subject Teaching Credential /单科中学教师证

C. California Professional Clear Single Subject in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language /加州单科对外汉语教师证

No, I don't have a teaching credential. /不, 我没有考取教师资格证

Q12. In which Chinese language program(s) are you teaching? /您在哪种中文项目中任教? (可多选)

Regular Mandarin classes /全日制学校中文项目  After-school program /中文课后班项目

Weekend Chinese school /周末中文学校

Private classes /私人课程

Chinese immersion program /中文沉浸项目

Other program /其它项目: \_\_\_\_\_

Q13. To which grade(s) do you teach Chinese? /您教授哪个年级汉语? (可多选)

K-2  3-5  6-8  9-12  13-16  Other grade /其它年级: \_\_\_\_\_

Q14. What level(s) of Chinese courses do you teach? /您教授哪个级别的汉语课程? (可多选)

Beginning level /初级汉语

Intermediate level /中级汉语

Advanced level /高级汉语

Section 2: Use of Multimedia in Chinese Teaching /第二部分: 使用多媒体辅助汉语教学

Q15. Which of the following multimedia tool(s) and resource(s) are you familiar with? 以下哪些多媒体教学工具和资源是您所熟悉的? (可多选)

PowerPoint  Audios /音频  Images /图像  Videos /视频  Animation /动画

Online games /线上游戏

The Internet /互联网

Computers including iPads and tablets /电脑包括平板电脑

SMART Boards /电子白板

Social networking sites /社交网站

Q16. How often do you use the following multimedia tools and resources in teaching Chinese in class? (If your answer is "Never", please specify reasons.)

您在课堂教学中使用以下多媒体教学工具和资源的频率是怎样的? (请选择您认为合适的选项作为答案。如果您的回答是“从不”, 请注明原因)

Definition /定义:

✓ Every time /每次

✓ Often, in about 90% of the chances I could have /很经常, 频率大概为 90%

✓ Usually, in about 70% of the chances when I could have /经常, 频率大概为 70%

✓ Sometimes, in about 50% of the chances when I could have /有时, 频率大概为 50%

✓ Occasionally, in about 30% of the chances when I could have /偶尔, 频率大概为 30%

✓ Rarely, in less than 10% of the chances when I could have /很少, 频率低于 10%

✓ Never /从不

	Every time 每次	Often 很经常	Usually 经常	Sometimes 有时	Occasionally 偶尔	Rarely 很少	Never (Reasons) 从不 (原因)
PowerPoint / 演示文稿							
Audios /音频							
Images /图像							
Videos /视频							
Animation /动画							
Online games / 线上游戏							
The Internet /互联网							
Computers or tablets /电 脑或平板电脑							
SMART Boards / 电子白板							
Social networking sites / 社交网站							

Q17. In which area(s) do you primarily use each of the multimedia tools and resources in teaching Chinese in class? (Please select at most 3 areas for each tool. If your answer is “Never”, please specify reasons.)

您主要在以下哪个部分中使用各种多媒体教学工具和资源进行汉语教学？（每种多媒体教学工具请限选三项。

如果您的回答是“从不”，请注明原因）

	Pronun- citation 语音	Vocab- ulary 词汇	Grammar 语法	Chinese Characters 汉字	Culture 文化	Listening 听	Speaking 说	Reading 读	Writing 写	Never (Reasons) 从不 (原因)
PowerPoint / 演示文稿										
Audios 音频										
Images 图像										
Videos 视频										
Animation 动画										
Online games 线上游戏										
The Internet 互联网										
Computers, iPads or tablets / 电 脑或平板电脑										
SMART Boards 电子白板										
Social networking sites 社交网站										

Q18. What multimedia tool(s) do you have in the classroom? /您教室中有哪些多媒体工具？（可多选）

PowerPoint     Audios /音频     Videos /视频     The Internet /互联网

- Computers, iPads and tablets /电脑或平板电脑      SMART Boards /电子白板  
Projectors /放映机      Not applicable /没有多媒体工具  
Other /其它多媒体工具: \_\_\_\_\_

Q19. Which multimedia tool or resource do you think is the most useful in teaching Chinese? (Select one)  
 您认为哪种多媒体工具或资源对汉语课堂教学最有帮助? (限选一项)

- PowerPoint    Audios /音频    Images /图像      Videos /视频    Animation /动画  
Online games /线上游戏      The Internet /互联网    Computers, iPads & tablets /电脑或平板电脑  
SMART Boards /电子白板      Social networking sites /社交网站  
Other /其它多媒体工具或资源: \_\_\_\_\_    Not applicable /都没帮助

Q20. Which multimedia tool or resource do you think your students like the most? (Select one)  
 您认为学生最喜欢您课堂教学中使用哪种多媒体工具或资源? (限选一项)

- PowerPoint    Audios /音频    Images /图像    Videos /视频    Animation /动画  
Online games /线上游戏      The Internet /互联网    Computers, iPads & tablets /电脑或平板电脑  
SMART Boards /电子白板      Social networking sites /社交网站  
Other /其它多媒体工具或资源: \_\_\_\_\_    Not applicable /学生都不喜欢

Q21. Which multimedia skill(s) do you want to learn or improve in the future? Why?  
 您今后想学习或提高哪些多媒体技术? 为什么? (可多选)

- PowerPoint    Audios /音频    Images /图像    Videos /视频    Animation /动画  
Online games /线上游戏      The Internet /互联网    Computers, iPads & tablets /电脑或平板电脑  
SMART Boards /电子白板      Social networking sites /社交网站  
Other /其它多媒体技术: \_\_\_\_\_    Not applicable /都没有

Reason /原因: \_\_\_\_\_

Q22. How do you usually prepare multimedia resources for class teaching? (Select all that apply)  
 您通常如何获取多媒体教学资源? (可多选)

- Do-It-Yourself /自己制作      Downloading from the Internet /网上下载  
Borrowing from others /借用他人资源    Recommended by others /他人推荐  
Other /其它方式: \_\_\_\_\_

Q23. Have you ever participated in any training courses on multimedia skill(s)? If yes, how often?  
 您是否曾参加过关于多媒体工具使用技巧的培训? 如果是, 频率是多少?

Yes /是 (How often /频率: \_\_\_\_\_)

No, I have not participated in such training. /不, 我没有参加过这种培训。

Q24. Which of the following do you think most contributes to the availability and use of multimedia in teaching Chinese at your school? /下列哪个因素对您使用多媒体教学影响最大? (限选一项)

- School requirement /学校规定及要求      Making teaching more effective /提升教学质量  
Influence from colleagues /同事影响      Improvement in student performance /提高学生成绩  
Availability of school funding /学校资金支持      Personal pedagogical approach /个人教学方法  
Other /其它原因: \_\_\_\_\_

Q25. Which of the following do you think most contributes to the lack of multimedia use in teaching Chinese at your school? 下列哪个因素是限制您使用多媒体教学的最主要原因? (限选一项)

- School requirement /学校规定及要求      Making teaching less effective /降低教学质量  
Influence from colleagues /同事影响      Deficiency in student performance /学生成绩下降  
Lack of school funding /学校资金匮乏      Personal pedagogical approach /个人教学方法

○Other /其它原因: \_\_\_\_\_

Q26. Have you ever collaborated with teachers of other subjects in the use of multimedia in teaching?

您是否曾跟其它科目的老师一起合作使用多媒体教学？

○Yes /是 (How have you collaborated /你们是如何进行合作: \_\_\_\_\_)

○No /不 (Reason /原因: \_\_\_\_\_)

Q27. Are there any online resources or websites you think are the most useful in teaching Chinese? (Please specify)

您认为哪些网络资源或网站对您进行汉语教学最有帮助？请列举。

Q28. If applicable, what problems have you encountered when using multimedia in teaching Chinese in class?

如果您使用多媒体进行课堂教学，您在使用过程中有什么困难？

Q29. Do you have other suggestions or comments? /您是否有其它意见或建议？

I really appreciate your concerted effort in filling out the survey that is part of the research project for my Master's thesis. This research project guarantees respondent confidentiality; the survey data will be integrated and analyzed in a form that will make it impossible to determine the identity of the individual responses. The data that will be used and the outcome will all be used solely for the subject at hand, and will not be reported outside the research project. The original survey forms will be disposed at the end of the research project. Thank you!

感谢您志愿接受并耐心填写此问卷，此调研为本人做研究生论文所用。我将用以下方式保护您提供的资料：我会将问卷答案键入电脑后，把您的姓名改成编号，再将纸本问卷予以碎纸销毁。本调查研究结果将以综合结论的方式公布，并不会包括可辨识的个人资料。谢谢！

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# Exploring the Role of Computers in Knowledge Construction of Young Learners in a Constructionist Classroom

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**Abstract**—This is an exploratory study which investigates a young learner constructionist classroom's knowledge constructions by using computers. It is part of an on-going research which had ten participants ranging between 6-7 years of age. However, in this study only three participants out of the ten have been covered. The study was conducted in a project-based classroom where the participants had to build artefacts for knowledge construction. Data was collected through field observations, semi-structured interviews, learner journals and learner logs. The evidence of knowledge construction was found in the artefacts made by the participants. The results show that using computers to mediate the participants' learning at different stages facilitated meaningful interactions between participants and peers and participants and facilitators, encouraged autonomy and provided itself as a source of information for exploration of ideas, which had a positive impact on participants' knowledge construction.

**Index Terms**—knowledge construction, constructionism, project-based, young learners, mediation tool, computers, artefact building, peer/facilitator interaction, autonomy

## I. INTRODUCTION

The computer is a powerful tool, which has the potential to not only support learners in their process of knowledge construction but also to improve their social interactions and create a positive environment in the classrooms (Clements & Sarama, 2003; McCarrick & Li, 2007 cited in Spink et al., 2010; Klinzing, 1985).

Studies show that children engage with computers with confidence and ease and enjoy working on them (Binder & Ledger, 1985 cited in Clements & Nastasi, 1992). According to Papert (1998 cited in Haugland, 2000, p.2) "...computers have an impact on children when the computer provides concrete experiences, children have free access and control the learning experience, children and teachers learn together, teachers encourage peer tutoring, and teachers use computers to teach powerful ideas." Turkle and Papert (1990) suggested the importance of computers as more of a concrete physical artefact which did more than computation but provided "a context for the development of concrete thinking" (p.346).

Constructionism, a cognitive learning theory, explains how knowledge is constructed in the minds of individuals, and how students apply their previous knowledge to further build or reconstruct new knowledge (Sripongwiwat, et al., 2016). In this learning method, learners construct their knowledge by making meaningful artefacts which are shareable (Papert and Harel, 1991) and in the process they use past and present experiences to reconstruct new knowledge. Technology is seen as a tool which can facilitate the process of artefact building, allowing individuals to develop their ideas and express themselves in a more independent way, thus developing learner-centeredness.

This study was conducted in a young learner constructionist classroom and is a part of an on-going research. The focus of this paper is on the use of computers in a young learners' constructionist classroom environment, and how they construct knowledge through computers; this research addresses the question:

How did the use of computers facilitate knowledge construction in young learners at different stages of learning in a constructionist learning environment?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Constructionism is not only a theory of education developed by Seymour Papert (Falbel, 1993), but also pedagogy of learning (Papert, 1980, 1987 cited in Griffin, 2018). It is constructivist in nature and has a mix of concepts from Jean Piaget's constructivism and Vygotsky's socio cultural theory (Fostnot, 2005; Ackermann, 2001). For Piaget, children

are more like explorers, who explore the world around them and use their experiences to construct their understandings (Edwards, 2005; Palmer, 2005; Windschitl, 2002 cited in Mills, 2007). In Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory children acquire knowledge from culture through interactions with people in their environment such as adults or their more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978). Papert integrates both individual and social aspects and includes the affective component in the process of learning (Papert, 1980). He showed the importance of the affective component by giving an example of how his playing with gear mechanisms in his childhood influenced his interest in equations and further explained how through LOGO learners were encouraged to explore geometry as they enjoyed working on it (Papert, 1980). Papert (1987) also explains that constructionism is about reconstruction and not transmission of knowledge and "learning is the most effective when part of an activity the learner experiences as constructing a meaningful product" (p.1). In constructionism individuals are builders of their own knowledge (Papert, 1980) and constructionism focuses on 'learning to learn' (Ackermann, 2001).

Computers provide a broad range of contexts for learning (Papert & Harel, 1991). Studies done earlier have shown the benefits of computer use by children such as in their literacy, social, cognitive and language development skills (Clements and Sarama, 2003; McCarrick and Li, 2007 cited in Spink et al., 2010). In their research, Spink et al. (2010) found that the use of computers could create collaborative behaviours in learners. Help from peers was also found useful while querying information on the Internet. The study also showed that children who are 4-5 years old use the Internet for both –web queries and browsing (Spink et al., 2010). Various studies (Hoven, 2006; Winke & Goertler, 2008; O'Bryan, 2008 cited in Hayta & Yaprak, 2013) show that if learners are trained in using technology, they benefited the most from their learning.

For the above reason computers occupy an important place in constructionism (Papert and Harel, 1991). For example, MIT Media Lab created a visual programming system called 'Scratch' that helped learners to engage in concrete experiences. Through using this computer program learners could create, develop and share their stories or thoughts with others or even make animations, game, art, music, etc. (Lamb & Johnson, 2011; Beynon, 2017).

Papert (1996) also mentions the significant role of the Internet as an empowering force. He refers to its dominant spirit which allows access of the same resources to everyone. Papert and Caperton (1999) describe the holistic and transformative characteristic of computers in knowledge production and distribution through learning stories in which learners explored and sought for information on the Internet based on their personal needs and interest.

The use of a computer in the constructionist learning environment has been explained as a tool which provides people with a wide range of opportunities to try out new ideas including those ideas or things which individuals may have never tried out before or done rarely and to improvise on things that had been done before (Falbel, 1990 cited in Harel & Papert, 1990). Implementing constructionism at the school level therefore could help learners to construct knowledge with enthusiasm and interest. In order to implement constructionism in classrooms, the project-based approach can be used. Both the approaches of learning have commonalities in them such as they are both learner-centred, emphasize learner autonomy and engage learners in real-world tasks that are personally meaningful to them (Han & K. Bhattacharya, 2001).

Lee (2015) conducted a case study on young children's learning processes by exploring their working with iPads to make their learning meaningful. The participants were two preschool children ages 3-5. The participants used an iPad with an app dealing with math, social studies, and science. They used the iPad for 45 minutes, twice per week, for one semester. Finally, at the end of the semester, there was a post assessment done. It was found that introduction with iPads helped in improving participants' interactions with their peers and teachers. They engaged in discussions with their teachers and peers during their task on the iPad and even worked together to solve problems. Their motivation increased as they engaged with the digital media and had fun.

Another study, was conducted by Cavallo, Papert and Stager using constructionism as a basis to create a learning environment for a juvenile detention facility in Maine (Stager, 2005). The objective was to engage severely at-risk students in this facility in long-term projects that were based on their personal interest, expertise and experience. These students prepared personally meaningful artefacts, using computers and other tools made available to them. It was found that the learners were completely engrossed in their work of creating new artefacts, interacting with each other about their products, and the process of making them. They showed positive student behaviour and curiosity.

### III. CONTEXT OF THIS STUDY

#### A. *Learner Levels*

The school within the purview of this study is a school with a project-based learning approach that follows constructionism as its learning pedagogy. It had mixed age classes. The learners were of three levels- New Learners (6 – 10 years), Intermediate Learners (11 – 14 years) and Pre Advanced Learners (14-18 years). Their levels were determined based on learners' abilities and age. For example, for the age range of 6-7 years, New Learners' level, the criteria was the ability to work, understand, and conduct basic communication with peers and facilitators in Thai/English.

#### B. *Division of School Time*

The school time table was divided into- Project time (50%), LG (Learning Guide) Time:-Thai, Math and English (30%) and other subjects-Art, Sports, Club and Reading Time (20%). Below is a summary of the division of school time:

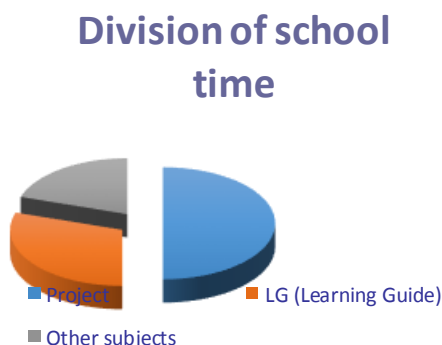


Figure 1: Division of School Time

**C. Role of Project Facilitators**

Project classes were comprised of at least one Thai and one foreign native English speaking facilitator. Both the facilitators had to facilitate learning activities in the classroom, prepare learner observation reports (biweekly), follow up on learner journals, provide feedback to learners, design and conduct classroom activities and games and conduct reflections on the learners’ work. The main job of both the facilitators was to ensure learner engagement and provide learners access to all the learning resources. The foreign facilitator did various hands-on activities with the main aim of motivating learners to speak and use English; this was the main job of a foreign facilitator.

**D. Project Phases**

The phases in which this project was conducted included project selection, planning, learning, preparing for the exhibition, exhibition and post-exhibition. The figure shown below provides a summary of the project phases:

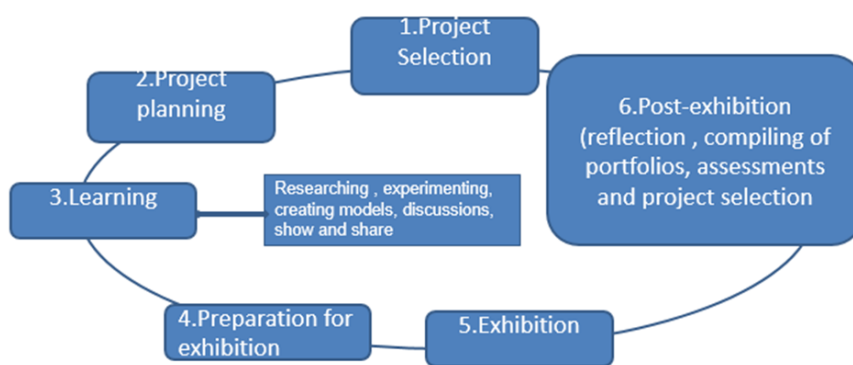


Figure 2: Summary of Project Phases

**1. Project Selection:**

The process of learning began with learners presenting and selecting their learning topics. The aim of this learning stage was to get learners to explore and present their learning topics to other learners of the same classroom. They negotiated with others and explained to others why their topics were interesting so that they could get their topics included as the main learning theme.

The learners of this study created their mind maps for their topics with the help of facilitators and using computers installed. The learners used the computers in the classroom to find more information about their topics of interest. They had also received ideas from their parents before they made their own mind maps in the class. After the mind maps had been created they presented their topics to the class. After the presentations, the learners voted for the three most interesting learning topics out of the ten choices they had by raising their hands. In this study, the three topics that the learners chose were -Beetles, Oceanography and Bananas. The project, therefore, was named BOB.

**2. Project Planning:**

After project selection, the next step was to discuss with the learners their learning plan such as the topics which they would like to cover first, second and third and also plan out the places for their field trip. The objective of this stage was to plan the project’s learning sequence according to learner choice to generate greater learners’ involvement. In this

stage, the learners raised their hands and expressed what they wanted to learn while the facilitators questioned them and created a large plan on the whiteboard. An example of a learning plan copied by a learner from the board is as below:

Week	Topic
1	Beetles
2	beetles
3	Beetles Field trip insect garden
4	oceanography
5	oceanography
6	oceanography
7	samaras
8	Samaras
9	Samaras
10	Preparing for exhibition
11	Preparing for exhibition
12	New model selection
13	New model selection

Figure 3: Example of a learning plan

### 3. Learning:

In this stage learners began to learn and create their learning models (any public entity like a story, presentation, a model, mind map, etc.) which was aligned to the topic chosen for that week by them. The learners learned through various activities designed by the facilitators but choices were given to the learners to select for themselves. These activities involved searching for information, constructing artefacts, going on field trips, collaborating, communicating, sharing and reflecting. The aim of this learning phase was to explore and to learn about the project learning themes.

### 4. Preparation for exhibition:

Learners prepared for the exhibition in the last two weeks before the exhibition. The aim of this learning stage was to plan for the exhibition such as- decide the products that the learners wanted to exhibit which showed what they had learnt -their knowledge constructions, games or shows that they wanted to show, etc.

### 5. Exhibition:

On exhibition day, learners presented their artefacts (which could be games, models or presentations on future board) in groups or individually to their parents, peers and facilitators, which were set up in different areas of the classroom. The aim of exhibition was for learners to present their learnings and share it with others. At the end of the exhibition, parents and facilitators had a reflection session, a small group meeting in which they all talked about the project execution and learners' progress.

### 6. Post Exhibition:

Learners along with the facilitators reflected on and assessed the whole exhibition planning and execution phase to judge whether it had been successful. They also created their portfolios and put all of the material received from their project and other classes into it. The aim of this learning stage was to reflect upon learners' learnings throughout the term, if they had been successful in showing and sharing their learnings during the exhibition and what could they do to further improve their knowledge constructions and presentations.

### E. Project Classroom Physical Environment

In the project classroom of this study, there were 10 computers installed inside the classroom for the learners to use individually. The environment in the classroom was mostly informal, and learners sat around a large, movable table next to each other and with their facilitators. The learners were free to move around in the classroom as they did their assigned work. There was a large whiteboard in which facilitators had a corner for writing down the agenda or the day's plan and used it during facilitation. One whole wall on the opposite side of the whiteboard had a dream garden made out of paper and learners kept adding beetles, butterflies, grass, etc. on the wall as shown below.



Figure 4: Picture of the dream garden

### F. Participants

There were 3 participants involved in this study- 2 boys (Bruce and Pan) and 1 girl (Jenny). Bruce, a 6-year-old boy, could speak and understand English, although not fluently. He needed help to read and write in English/Thai and while browsing on the Internet. Pan, who was a 6 year old boy, could speak and understand English to the extent that he could talk about how he was feeling, what he wanted and what he liked or disliked. He could read and write some basic words and sentences, but needed help to spell words. He could browse on the Internet with some help. Jenny was a 7- year- old girl, who was rarely heard speaking in English. She could read and write with help. She was good in reading and writing in Thai and could also browse independently on the Internet.

## IV. METHODOLOGY

### A. Data Collection

Data collection was mainly through field observations. The other instruments used for data collection were semi-structured interviews, learner journals and logs. The researcher was given consent from the project facilitators and learners' parents for the study. The study was conducted over 12 weeks from 17 September 2012 to 4 December 2012.

The unstructured non-participatory observations were done in project time in order to examine the classroom activities and learner interactions with their peers and facilitators. These observations helped to explore how learners constructed their knowledge.

Semi-structured interviews were done four times during the term after each theme was completed and before the exhibition with the learners. This provided the learners' perspective about their feelings, emotions and attitudes. A translator's help was used to conduct these interviews to make the communication in Thai and English more fluid as the interviews were conducted in Thai.

Journal writing had been a part of the project and learners had to write in their journals daily; therefore, the researcher used it to explore learners' feelings primarily from their perspective. The journals were unstructured and were written every day in Thai/English.

Learner logs designed by the researchers provided information about learners' feelings, interactions and knowledge constructions in the project class from the learners' point of view.

### B. Data Analysis

The data was analysed by examining the stages in which the data showed learners' knowledge constructions using computers such as the Project selection phase, Learning phase and Preparation for exhibition phase. In this study, the phase of post exhibition has not been covered as the researcher observed learners till the exhibition phase.

The knowledge construction was identified by looking into the artefacts created by the learners and the process of creating the artefacts involved their computer use.

## V. ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The data below shows and explains the knowledge constructions of learners in the learning phases mentioned above to explore how learners at different stages of learning constructed knowledge using computers.

### A. Project Selection Phase

#### 1. Pan's Knowledge construction: About LEGO:

The observation dated 29.8.12 shows that Pan went to Google and then screamed and called "T.X how to spell Wiki?" Then he typed it on the computer. He also asked the foreign facilitator (T.X) to explain to him what was written on it and copied it down. He wrote LEGO in his notebook. He was again observed typing and this time he wrote "Wiki" on his own (using his last notes) and then he also typed "LEGO". He then asked the Thai facilitator (T.Z) about the LEGO city (there was a picture in Wikipedia of a LEGO city), and she responded by telling him about the LEGO building at NASA. Next, Pan and T.X discussed LEGO on Wikipedia. He asked her about what was written in English and highlighted the lines on the computer and wrote it down. He also had conversations with his friends such as Greg about the LEGO city. He made a mind map about LEGO and showed his Thai facilitator that LEGO was made of - plastic and that plastic is heated to 232 degrees Celsius. He finally presented his mind map in English as below:

*"Hello my name is Pan.*

*Today I will tell you about LEGO.*

*I want to look at factory from LEGO. I want to learn about history and manufacturing. The plastic is heated to 232 degrees Celsius."* (Observation dated 29.8.12)

His construction of understanding about LEGO happened through the use of a computer while finding information of his interest. He needed help from his facilitators to spell words in English and understand the sentences written in Wikipedia. His use of the computer generated meaningful interactions between him and others which further helped him to build his knowledge about LEGO. As he browsed and saw the picture of LEGO city on Wikipedia, it made him curious and interested. In his interview dated 29.11.12 when he was asked how he had learnt some English words he said, "By computer". In his interview dated 26.9.12, when he was asked what he did when he did not understand some

things in English, he said (as translated by the translator):

*"He found spellings of names and information using Wikipedia."*

Even though his topic did not get voted to become one of the learning themes, he, however was able to build his understandings about the topic that he wanted to present to his peers and also presented it successfully.

2. Bruce's knowledge construction: About beetles:

On the same day, according to the observation of 29.8.12, Bruce looked up information about "Beetles" with the help of the Thai and foreign facilitators and discussed Beetles at length. The foreign facilitators also explained to him how beetles had become stuck in a raisin and were there for 15 million years as he kept looking at different websites containing images of beetles. The Thai facilitator showed him the beetles found in Thailand. He wrote down his mind map in English with help from the foreign facilitator.

Researcher's observations of 29.8.12 (project selection day) show Bruce intently looking at pictures of various insects on Google Images, and the facilitators encouraged him further by helping him to explore, find and talk about the information he wanted to know. An example from the classroom observation of 29.8.12 which shows his interest in the activity is given below:

*(The Thai conversations were translated from Thai to English in the classroom.)*

*"Bruce went to T.Z (Thai facilitator) for help. Bruce showed T.Z pictures of insects... Bruce's really impressed by beetles and keeps looking at it...Bruce was trying to finish his mind map on beetles and asked some spellings from T.X...Bruce screamed "T.X look .... insect fighting"...Bruce was sharing with T.Z some more pictures of beetles. ..Now T.Z and Bruce were looking at beetles of Thailand...T.X tells Bruce how these beetles get stuck in resin and are there for 15 million years...He read with T.X about 100 million types of beetles in the world on the Internet."* (Observation dated 29.8.12)

He developed his understanding about beetles as seen from what he wrote on his mind map - *"Beetles -body system, where does he come from and 100 million."* He made this mind map only after he had found information about beetles on the computer with his facilitators on the project selection day. He had built his understandings about different types of beetles and wanted to know more about them.

Using computers as a learning medium gave Bruce an opportunity to explore what he liked and communicate with both of his facilitators meaningfully. He looked at beetle images intently as that was what interested him the most and helped him to further explore the topic further. Facilitators not only helped him find information but also explained what was written in English/ Thai in the websites about beetles such as reading about the number of species or types of beetles in the world and how beetles become stuck in a raisin and are there for 15 million years.

### B. Learning Phase

Jenny's knowledge construction: Sea animals' food chain:

In the learning phase, Jenny developed her understandings about sea animals' eating habits with a task by making a sea food chain sheet with information about sea animals eating habits under the 'oceanography' theme.

Her positive feelings during class time was clearly evidenced in her learner log of 9.10.12 in which she circled a happy face under the project feeling of that day. She chose to write in her learner log about the work she had done on this day with her friends: "searched information" on the computer. Jenny along with her group had constructed the following understandings about sea animals (translated into English) as follows:

*The starfish are the enemies of conch shells.*

*Sea lions eat penguins. They are lovely and smart.*

*The sea horses eat shells, shrimps, worms and crabs. They don't have a backbone, like a sponge.*

*Whales eat sea lions and small fish. Their enemies are humans and sharks. They are also an endangered species.*

*Penguins eat fish. Sea lions are their enemies.*

*Dolphins are smart.*

Below can be seen a picture of the food chain sheet created by Jenny and her friends:



Figure 5: Picture of the food chain sheet created by Jenny and her friends

The class observation dated 9.10.12 showed that Jenny had worked in a group on this day looking for information about her favourite sea animals and their eating habits. Jenny and her team researched information on the computer in Thai. The facilitators gave them the choice to find information from computers or any other resource.

Jenny could Google in Thai on her own, which she confirmed in her interview dated 26.9.12. She found information about the starfish and gave it to Pearl, who was gathering information and also researching some information about sea lions on the computer. Fae the third team member, on the other hand, was looking for pictures of blue whales on Google. Jenny looked at the images on Google and was observed looking for information about starfish and colouring the starfish image on the paper. In a classroom discussion on the same day she had mentioned that she liked starfish because "it was like a star." She passed that information to her group member, Pearl and finally, after all the information was compiled, the sea animals' information sheet was ready.

On 11.10.12, which was after the above mentioned activity, during a food chain activity in which the learners were invited to the board to draw pictures of sea animals that were herbivores, carnivores and omnivores, Jenny and Pearl were seen drawing pictures of a starfish, a sea lion, a sea horse and a dolphin in the section under carnivorous sea animals. It was observed that Jenny and Pearl both used the food chain sheet that they had researched information to make their sea animals.

Jenny chose to prepare a fishing game for the exhibition which showed her understandings about sea animals' eating habits according to the observation dated 22.11.12. Her interview dated 29.11.12 shows that she had suggested this game for the exhibition:

*Translator to Jenny : What will you present in the exhibition?*

*Translator to the interviewer: She will create a game about fishing. The fishing game is... when you can catch a fish you have to answer it's omnivore, carnivore and what this is prey or is predator.*

*Interviewer: Okay. And who gave you that idea Jenny?*

*(Translator asked Jenny)*

*Translator: She think by her own.*

Computers helped her and her team members to explore information on the sea animals that they liked. The ability to access information easily on her own may have made her feel more in control of her knowledge construction. The facilitator's designed activity gave her a chance to choose what she wanted to research within the topic. Her collaborative experience while working in the group was enhanced by the intervention of computers as she had a source to not only find new information but also to show her finds to her peers.

Since Jenny was interested in the ocean theme, she also created a story about sea animals by using the 'Scratch' program which is not only an evidence of her understanding about sea animals but shows how computers promoted engagement and helped in providing her with concrete experiences. Her journal dated 3.10.12 shows that she wanted to download "Scratch" and so asked her father to help her: "I asked my father to download program "scratch" for me." She presented her created Scratch story book in the exhibition which had a story about three fish and a shark. The story translated from Thai to English was about three fish friends who never played with one of the fish in the group. One day a shark attacks the fish. All escape but one. The fish that is stuck takes refuge in a boat which is underwater and manages to save herself from the shark.

During the learning phase, Scratch was introduced in the classroom through a story of a beetle on a large screen, followed by learners who enacted the story and later created their individual stories in their drawing books. After drawing pictures on Scratch, they were helped by facilitators to learn how to use a paintbrush on 'Scratch'. They were also encouraged to explore other functions on Scratch on their own. Jenny finally presented her story on Scratch to her facilitators and peers on 22.11.12. She seems to have built an understanding that there are big sea animals in the ocean that eat smaller animals like the fish. As she worked on Scratch, she developed her creativity skills. Additionally, she was encouraged to try out new functions to program, thus promoting her self-learning.

### C. Learning Phase

Pan's knowledge construction: About Goblin sharks:

In the preparation for exhibition phase, Pan was the only learner who was found using a computer to make his 'Goblin Shark' book for the exhibition. He constructed his understandings about 'Goblin sharks' on 26.11.12 while preparing for the exhibition, using Wikipedia. Pan made a book as an artefact to present in the exhibition, using computers and getting help from his facilitators. He wrote the following information in English in his 'Goblin shark' book.

*"The goblin shark, Mitsukurina owstoni, is a deep sea shark. It eat squid, crabs, and deep-sea fish. Goblin Shark. It live is deep sea."*



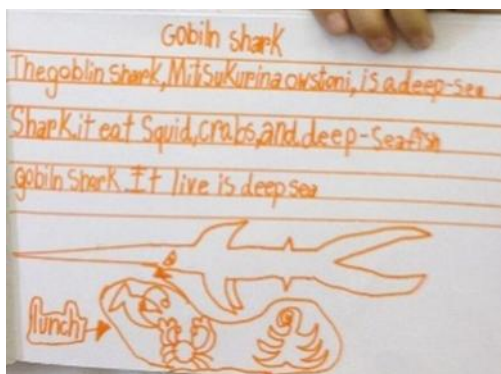


Figure 6: Pan's preparation for his 'Goblin Shark' book

Pan enjoyed making the goblin shark book for the exhibition, as he confirmed in his interview dated 29.11.12, excerpted below:

(Interview excerpt of 29.11.12)

*Interviewer: So Pan, you're making a book. Do you like that? Do you want to do it?*

*Pan: Yes*

Pan mentioned in the same interview his keenness to write in English, information about the Goblin sharks as below:

(Interview excerpt 29.11.12)

*Interviewer: He has written in English right? Why not in Thai?*

*Translator: (Told Pan what the interviewer asked in Thai)*

*Pan: I know in Thai everything. Everything in Thai.*

*(Pan continued to speak to the translator in Thai)*

*Translator: He knows in the Thai language about the shark. He is very interested in the shark in English version.*

He had researched information on Wikipedia and written about goblin sharks in his book, according to the observation of 26.11.12. He asked his foreign facilitator to explain the information written on Wikipedia in English; the facilitator in turn helped him by explaining some sentences and highlighting the important points for him to write. With the help of computers Pan could find information about the sea animal he liked the most-sharks. He had help from his facilitators to read and understand text in English.

The findings of this study show that in all the learning phases discussed above, computers were used as a learning mediation tool for exploration of information that the learners were interested in. In the process of exploring information on the computers, learners meaningfully interacted with their facilitators and peers to talk about their findings on the computer and if they had any problems understanding the text written in the computer.

Computers provided learners a sense of freedom to find information that they liked thereby making them feel more autonomous. This helped them to build their understandings about the topics of their interest. The findings show the potentiality of computers to be used in such a way that it allows learners to obtain formal knowledge through concrete experiences which are personal to learners and with which they can relate with. Computers allowed the learners to engage with them playfully and explore, leading to different knowledge constructions.

As learners worked on the computers they appeared to be completely engaged as they could explore different images in their areas of interest and could listen and see what their peers were doing. Computers were placed in the classroom in such a manner which allowed learners to walk freely and see what their peers did and how they worked. Learners were provided computers as a resource for learning and could be used by them as and when they needed.

It was also found that having basic skills of reading and writing in English/Thai and basic knowledge of going to the browser such as using Google helped the learners to query and browse on the Internet. Pan and Jenny were much more independent in their exploration process on the computer as compared to Bruce, who needed a facilitator to be with him most of the time.

Computers were used in the process of artefact building such as building food chains, making mind maps and making books. The use of computers in the process of artefact building was effective when the facilitators told learners what was expected from them to find on the internet and yet provided them the freedom to browse interesting images, videos and webpages and when learners were helped to browse the internet or spell words and/or explained sentences written in English by the facilitators.

#### D. Discussion

In this study the participants, built their understandings about areas of their interest, using a computer as a learning tool. They were given specific tasks by their facilitators related with making artefacts and finding information to make those artefacts. As they engaged in the process of searching information that interested them and was of their choice on the computer, they constructed knowledge. The computers installed in the classroom played an important role in the participants' process of knowledge construction. According to Hayta and Yaprak (2013), Cord-Mounoury (1999 cited in Kartal, 2005) categorized functions of the Internet such as searching for topics on the internet promoted and



encouraged communication, collaborative and independent learning and provided a great source of information for both learners and facilitators.

The different aspects of computer that helped participants to build their knowledge have been discussed below.

#### 1. Encouraging learner autonomy

Autonomy involves freedom to learn through having choices at various stages of learning and learners having control of their own learning. According to Lee (1998) learner choice is important in autonomous learning and providing choice to learners in their learning helps “to give students a sense of ‘ownership’ of their learning and thereby add to their intrinsic motivation” (Brown 2001, p. 47 cited in Condrat, 2014). The ability to access information of their own choice easily on their own or with some help from a facilitator and peers’ computers may have made participants feel more in control of their knowledge construction, as they had a chance to choose what they wanted to research within their chosen topic. These ideas of participants were not judged by the facilitators. As a result participants felt encouraged and autonomous as they had a say in their learning and more control in it.

Technology has a potential to provide control to learners in their learning and provide them with a sense of responsibility for their learning and encourage self-motivation (Ushioda, 1996 cited in Darasawang & Reinders, 2010). In this study, participants did not have to only depend on their facilitators or peers for information, instead they had found computers as an alternate source to find information according to their likes. Computers helped the participants of this study by providing itself as a resource for inquiry and information and a tool for exploration of ideas. In all the three cases discussed earlier, computers were used to find information about participants’ areas of interest. In this study, computers engaged participants with an interface and the potentiality of its being used in multiple ways in the same manner as Papert (1998 cited in Haugland, 2000, p.2) mentioned the use of computers and their impact on children through concrete experiences which are more personal to them (Ackermann, 2001). This in turn may have helped the learners to feel autonomous.

#### 2. Creating meaningful interactions between peers and facilitators

Learners have the need for meaningful classroom experiences; they prefer engaging in solving real world problems and working together and learning from each other (Dunleavy, Milton and Crawford 2010 cited in Taylor and Parsons, 2011). The participants in this study tried to communicate with their foreign facilitators when they found something interesting on the Internet and/or if they had a query or needed any help to find information that interested them. Participants also shared information with their peers during group activities. While sharing information with their peers the participants may have internalized and externalized ideas, combined each other’s contributions and built their understandings. Sharing of information in a group is considered significant in knowledge building (Scardamalia, 2002). Researchers (Genishi, 1988; Genishi, McCollum, & Strand, 1985; Hungate & Heller, 1984 cited in Clements & Nastasi, 1992) found that in a computer environment, even if children worked alone, they talked to their peers and consulted with them. Also, children engaged in teaching and helping each other in an environment with computers (Paris & Morris, 1985; Wright & Samaras, 1986 cited in Clements & Nastasi, 1992). Additionally, in Papert’s constructionism, social interactions are significant in the process of learning or cognitive development (Ackermann, 2001).

### VI. IMPLICATIONS

This study aims to provide a better understanding of the role of computers in a constructionist learning environment of a young learner classroom. It especially indicates the importance of computers in encouraging exploration, learner autonomy and generating meaningful interactions during the knowledge construction process. Learners using internet can expand and find more information in their domain of interest and sometimes even develop their interest in other domains by reaching a new area while browsing the Internet. Papert and Caperton (1999) also described the holistic and transformative characteristic of computers in knowledge production and distribution. Providing learners a choice at different stages of learning and an easy access to computers can make them feel autonomous and help them to have more control on their learning. Learners have also been found to prefer autonomy in their own learning (Carlson, 2005; Hay, 2000; Glenn, 2000 & Tapscott, 1998 cited in Taylor & Parsons, 2011). Computers may also provide opportunities to learners to share their new findings with their peers. These would be findings of learners’ choice and of their interest and therefore personal to them. Their interactions with their peers would thus be more meaningful.

Educators who are involved in the area of young learners’ education should provide learners with concrete experiences while using computers as a learning mediation tool. This could be done only when they are provided choice in their learning such that learning is more personal to them and they can relate to it.

Artefact building activities should be designed in such a way that young learners relate with those activities and are motivated to work on them. They should be provided with clear direction from the facilitators for the activities with examples, however they must get enough chance to choose and decide their topics of interest. The help provided by the facilitators must be such that learners do not feel limited or guided too much and have the space for themselves to make errors and explore.

### VII. CONCLUSION

In this study, it was observed how using computers as a learning mediation tool helped in the knowledge construction

of young learners. Computers not only provided learners specific information about areas of their interest but also stimulated learners to browse and find more information. Young learners, when provided with computers, had a sense of control in their learning process. They built their understandings by meaningfully interacting with their peers and facilitators as they had something to show and share with them on the computer. Facilitators' support helped learners to effectively use computers in their knowledge construction as they received freedom to practice their choice, enough space to explore on their own and help with their reading and writing words as and when they needed.

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# Reconceptualization of Local Wisdom through Kelong Makassar: A Semiotic Review of Michael Riffaterre

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**Abstract**—This study employs a qualitative descriptive research design. The data in this study are words in the lines and stanzas of Kelong Makassar containing the concept of Makassar local wisdom. The techniques of data collection users are reading, observation and document study. The data analysis technique used in this study is the interactive model of data analysis developed by Miles and Huberman (1992). The data analysis includes data collection, data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing/verification. The data were analyzed to obtain the concept of local wisdom through the meaning of Kelong Makassar. The results of this study reveal the meaning of Kelong based on the review of Michael Riffaterre's indirection of meaning and show that (1) displacement of meaning in this analysis was found through figurative language in the form of metaphor, metonymy, pars pro toto and personification, (2) distortion of meaning was found through ambiguity and contradiction, (3) creation of meaning was found through enjambment and typography.

**Index Terms**—reconceptualization, local wisdom, kelong, indirection of meaning

## I. INTRODUCTION

Local wisdom is the reflection of cultural constellations and is a very complex concept of civilization; serving as a sign in every aspect of life. Therefore, each tribe in Indonesia makes local wisdom as their cultural richness that must be preserved. Nasaruddin et al. (2011, p.11) argue that local wisdom is often conceptualized as local knowledge and local genius used as a view of life, science and various activities carried out by local communities in overcoming problems regarding life needs which are also increasingly complex.

Research relevant to this study was conducted by Razi Bezar et al. (2016) entitled Semiotic Analysis of Place and Time in Poems of Badr Shakir al-Sayyab. This article was published in the Journal of History Culture and Art Research Vol. 5, No 4, December 2016. This study analyzed Sayyab's poetry using a descriptive, analytical method. This research analyzed spatial cues that help find the beauty of Sayyab's poetry and its hidden treasures of intellectual knowledge. Furthermore, relevant research was also carried out by Lerrri alfayanti et al. entitled Symbolic Meanings of Among Tebal Ritual in Novel Genduk By Sundari Mardjuki. This research illustrates the symbolic meaning of the among ritual, namely the symbolic meaning of ritual offerings consisting of white, yellow, red, and black tumpeng (cone-shaped dish), symbolizing the four elements in human beings. This research also describes the way of life of the tobacco farmers of the slopes of Mount Sindoro reflected in the among ritual.

A related study was also conducted by Aytakin entitled On the Tracks of Literary Structure in Literary Work (a Sumerian Poem). The results of this study include abstract literary interpretation and analysis of the structure of literary texts from real expressions. This research is in line with Globe's research (1974) entitled The Literary Structure and Unity of the Song of Deborah, which discusses the meaning of poetry in the Deborah song.

In contrast to the above studies, the current study attempts to investigate the meaning contained in the literary work of Kelong Makassar and efforts to maintain Kelong as a medium to preserve local wisdom, which is the basis of national character. Also, it is used as a medium for character education of the young generation, primarily based on local wisdom in South Sulawesi in general and Makassar in particular. The reason for this research is to reveal and develop in detail and comprehensively the reconceptualization of local wisdom in Makassar literature, especially in

Kelong as one of the efforts to preserve local culture. Therefore, this study was conducted to reveal the meaning of Kelong Makassar as cultural wealth.

Another underlying reason for this research is that Kelong Makassar is one of the cultural expressions of the people of Makassar and South Sulawesi in general that need to be explored, maintained and preserved by means studying it. Also, Makassar literary works contain cultural values that can be used as a medium to develop children's character education as the nation's next generation. Thus, this study was conducted under the title *Reconceptualization of Local Wisdom through Kelong Makassar: A Semiotic Review of Michael Riffaterre*.

Michael Riffaterre (1984) in his book *Semiotics of Poetry* suggests that there are four things to be taken into consideration in understanding and interpreting a poem. Those include: (1) poetry is an indirect expression, expressing something with another meaning, (2) heuristic reading and hermeneutic (retroactive) reading, (3) matrix, model, and variance, and (4) program. One of the four concepts of Riffaterre used in this study to investigate the reconceptualization of local wisdom in Kelong is the concept of indirection of meaning given that Kelong is a unique form of oral literature the meaning of which cannot be understood directly without the help of approaches/theories.

Referring to the background above, the problem in this study was generally formulated as follows: how is the form of a reconceptualization of the meaning of local wisdom in Kelong Makassar based on Michael Riffaterre's semiotic approach? The problem can be specified as follows: (1) what is the meaning of Kelong in terms of displacement of meaning? (2) what is the meaning of Kelong in terms of distortion of meaning? (3) what is the meaning of Kelong in terms of creation of meaning?.

This research is expected to provide theoretical and practical significance. Theoretically, (1) this research is expected to be a reference for other researchers planning to develop the values of Kelong Makassar related to the application of character education in learning models at the expected level. (2) This research is expected to help educators foster the local character of their students through literacy learning of Makassar Kelong as one of the lessons in literary arts and culture subject and at the same time preserving the local wisdom as the ancestral heritage of Makassar people, which has gradually been eroded by modernization in all aspects of life. (3) This research is expected to contribute in terms of science to education, especially in the field of literature.

Practically, (1) this research is expected to provide information to all components of society as a connoisseur of literature about the need to maintain the values of local wisdom as an educational tool for the community, especially for children as the nation's next generation. (2) This study is expected to enrich the researchers' knowledge, primarily related to the application, utilization, development, and preservation of local wisdom as a guide to living in society.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. *Local Wisdom*

In the context of anthropology, local wisdom means indigenous or local knowledge or local genius, which is the basis of cultural identity. According to Sibarani (2012), local wisdom is a conceptual idea that lives in society, grows and develops continuously in a society that regulates its life from the sacred to the profane. Local wisdom is the result of the adaptation of a community derived from life experiences communicated from generation to generation. Local wisdom is a local knowledge that is used by a community to survive in an environment that integrates with a system of beliefs, norms, culture and is expressed in the traditions and myths adapted for a long time. Local wisdom is a view of life, knowledge, as well as various life strategies in the form of activities, carried out by local communities in overcoming problems in meeting their needs.

### B. *Literature*

#### 1. Definition of Sastra (Literature)

The word of literature comes from Sanskrit (sastra), a loanword, which means a text containing instructions or guidelines, from the word sas, which means instruction or teachings, and tra, which means tools or means. Literature is the result of creative activities or artworks in the form of writings or texts that uses language as a medium to express or describe life, humanity, or reality.

#### 2. Oral Literature

Oral literature is part of folklore in the literary genre (Suwardi, 2009, p.17). This is by the main characteristics of folklore such as (a) its dissemination and inheritance as a literary work build the world through words because words have energy. It is through this energy that the image of a particular world is formed as a new thing. Those words also have documentary aspects that can penetrate space and time beyond the capabilities of other aspects of culture. Makassar's oral literary works still exist in the midst of people's lives, although many are not well developed. However, there are still many efforts made by various parties to preserve, maintain and develop Makassar oral literature, as in the form of research with diverse objectives.

#### 3. Makassar Literature

Makassar literature is all the art products born creatively with enthusiasm and written in the Makassar language (Basang, 1975, p.3). According to Basang (1975, p.3), Makassar literature in the past was written in three types of letters, namely the ancient Makassar letters, Arabic letters, and the new Makassar letters. Makassar Literature can be deepened through oral literary works of the existing community. In terms of its form, Makassar literature consists of

three types, namely poetry, prose, and rhythmical verse. Basang (1975, p.4) adds that Makassar literary works belonging to poetry are doangang, paruntuk kana, kelong, dondo, aru, rapang, and pakkiok bunting. Meanwhile, those belonging to prose are rupama, pau-pau, and patturioloang and those belonging to rhythmical verse are royong and sinrilik.

### C. *Kelong*

Kelong is a type of Makassar literary work that has high value in terms of both content and form of expression because it has its characteristics different from other literary works. Kelong contains messages that can be used as learning materials for its connoisseurs. Hakim (1998, p.1) stated that Kelong is a type of poetry (Makassar pantun). Kelong is one of the most well-known and developing forms of literary work in the community, especially those with Makassar cultural background and those speaking Makassar language. Kelong is a type of Makassar literature in the form of poetry. Concerning its form, Kelong, especially traditional Kelong, has similarities with pantun in Indonesian literature, for example having four lines in one stanza, having rhyme, and having no title. Kelong is a type of Makassar poetry as Poetry can realise the life period of poets through signs of time and place. Signs and forms can also record internal formats, music, and lyrics, which are consistent with the content of poetry (Pashaki, 2016).

### D. *Michael Riffaterre's Semiotics*

Semiotic cannot be separated from the term symbolic. Both of these terms tend to be used interchangeably, but Kristeva in Sadehi (2012) suggests that semiotic and symbolic references to two interdependent aspects of language. Semiotics is defined as the matriarchal aspect of language that shows the speaker's inner drives and impulses, while symbolic is the aspect of language governed by rules, which shows itself in grammar and syntactic structure.

The literary phenomenon is a dialectic between texts and readers. According to Riffaterre (1984, p.1), in a broader context of literature, poetry cannot be separated from the concept of text. If the poem is not considered a closed entity, we cannot always distinguish poetic discourse from the literary language. Riffaterre's semiotic theory can be used in understanding the meaning and teachings of manners, which are one's particular character contained in poetry. (Setiawan et al., 2017)

The literary phenomena, however, is dialectic between text and reader if we are to formulate rules governing this dialectic, we shall have to know that what we are describing is perceived by the reader. We shall have to know whether he is always obliged to see what he sees, or if he retains individual freedom. Also, we shall have to know how perception takes place. Within the broader realm of literature it seems that poetry is peculiarly inseparable from the concept of text, if we do not regard the poem as a closed entity, we cannot always differentiate poetic discourse from the literary language.

Michael Riffaterre (1984) in his book *Semiotics of Poetry* suggests that there are four things to be taken into consideration in understanding and interpreting a poem. Those include: (1) poetry is an indirect expression, expressing something with another meaning, (2) heuristic reading and hermeneutic (retroactive) reading, (3) matrix, model, and variance, and (4) program (Salam, 2009, p.3).

## III. RESEARCH METHOD

### A. *Type of Research*

This study is a qualitative study that leads to culture-oriented library research, based on cultural phenomena. The data was presented empirically. The empirical data in question is contained in the literary work of Kelong Makassar as a medium of the written presentation.

### B. *Research Focus*

There are three main focuses of this study, namely first revealing the displacement of meaning in Kelong Makassar, second revealing the distortion of meaning in Kelong Makassar, and third revealing the creation of meaning in Kelong Makassar which is one form of local wisdom of the Makassar community.

### C. *Definition of Terms*

The terms used in this study include: (1). Kelong literature is a form of Makassar literary work as poetry that uses the Makassar language as its medium. (2) Local wisdom refers to local ideas that are full of wisdom and embedded values and that are followed by local people. (3) Reconceptualization means conventionally rebuilding the pre-existing concept through understanding. (4) Semiotics is a theory that considers social phenomena (society) and culture assign. Semiotics also studies systems, rules, conventions that allow these signs to have meaning.

### D. *Research Design*

By the paradigm used, the design of this study is a qualitative descriptive research design. This is based on the consideration that several methodological principles related to the presence of researchers, research location, data and data sources, the data collection procedure, research instruments, data analysis, and data validity are in line with the characteristics of qualitative research design.

### E. Data and Source of Data

The data in this study is in the form of Kelong Makassar containing meaning based on the local wisdom of the Makassar people. The meaning in question is determined in the forms and types of Kelong to be analyzed. Furthermore, the data were analyzed based on a semiotic theory with the concept of indirection of meaning.

### F. Techniques of Data Collection

(1) Reading, The researchers collected Kelong Makassar scripts to be analyzed and then read them repeatedly and carefully. (2). Observation, The researchers collected information from trusted informants about the truth of the values contained in the literary works based on the character possessed by the Makassar community as the owner of the analyzed literary works.

### G. The Technique of Data Analysis

Data analysis was performed during the data collection process and after the data was collected. The data analysis technique used in this study is the interactive model of data analysis developed by Miles and Huberman (1992). Miles and Huberman argued that activities in qualitative data analysis were carried out interactively and took place continuously until complete in order to reach data saturation.

### H. Research Instruments

In this study, the researchers act as the main instrument. As the main instrument, the researchers surveyed to determine the literary works to be, and that contained the elements studied, namely the values in the literary work of Kelong Makassar. This study is a qualitative descriptive study that requires.

### I. Data Validity

In the data analysis, there is a possibility of different interpretations. Thus triangulation and assessment of the results of data analysis from several experts, colleagues, and the analysis process through relevant theories are required so that the validity of the research findings can be accounted for. The experts in question are those who meet the requirements, have adequate knowledge and experience in the field of literature and culture of Makassar, academics who teach language, literature, and culture of Makassar, researchers, and practitioners in the field of language, literature, and culture of Makassar.

## IV. RESULTS

This study deals with three problems, namely the meaning of kelong based on the displacement of meaning, meaning of kelong based on a distortion of meaning, and meaning of kelong based on the creation of meaning. In this respect, Riffaterre argues that poetry is an indirect expression and those three things cause the indirection.

### A. Displacement of Meaning

Displacement of meaning occurs when a sign changes from one meaning to another. Generally, figurative words replace the meaning of something with something else. In kelong Makassar, there is a displacement of meaning through figurative language in the form of metaphors, metonymy, pars pro toto and personification.

#### a). Metaphor

According to Sadehi and Abdullah (2015), metaphor, alliteration, and other poetic devices are part of the semiotic aspects of language. Diegnan in Ahmed stated that metaphor could be defined as a word or phrase used to talk about an entity or quality other than the meaning intended. The metaphor is found in the following kelong;

- (1) Kuminasaiko sunggu  
Kutinjakko matekne  
Manna pucuknu  
Tangkennu matekne ngaseng

The word matekne in the kelong above is a metaphorical word, which means sweet. This word gives a different meaning in terms of analogical comparison. Matekne, which means sweet, is a metaphor for happiness. Similarly, the word pucukna means the youngest shoot or leaf of a plant. If this word is related to the context of the sentence, this word gives a different analogical meaning. Pucukna is a metaphor for grandchildren. The word tangkenna, which means stalk, analogically means children. Therefore, Kelong means a prayer from someone who expects people he/she is praying for to get happiness for their families including their children and grandchildren. This is confirmed by the last line of this kelong, matekne ngaseng, which means all is sweet and is the metaphor for all is happy.

#### b). Metonymy

Metonimie is often called the substitution of a name. This is the use of an attribute of an object or the use of something very close and related to the object to replace the object (Pradopo, 2007, p.77). The Kelong text that contains metonymic change of meaning is found in the following data;

- (2) Karaeng Alla Taala  
Karaeng mappakjaria  
Ia kusomba



### Ia tong kupaknganroi

In data (2), the word *kupaknganroi* means 'asking'. The word *nipaknganroi* is the metonymy of the word *appalak*, which also means 'asking' but in a different context. In this case, even though both have similar meaning, the context of using these words in a sentence is not always the same. *Nipaknganroi* is a polite word while *appalak* is a rude word.

#### c). Personification

Personification is a figure of speech where human qualities are given to objects or ideas. Inanimate objects are described as being able to act, think, and so on like humans. Poets from the past until now have widely used personification. Personification makes a description come alive, besides giving clarity and an accurate reflection. Personification is found in the following data.

- (3) Battu ratemak ri bulang  
Makutaknang ri bintoeng  
Apa kananna  
Bunting lompo jako sallang

In data (3) above, personified expressions treat the moon and stars like living things that we can communicate with them; *Battu ratema ri bulang* 'I have been to the moon', *makutaknang ri bintoeng* 'asking the stars'. *Apa kananna* 'what they said', *bunting lompo jako sallang* 'you will have a big wedding party'. These expressions seem to imply that the questioner gets an answer from the stars. These expressions have deep meanings although they are personified as inanimate objects are considered as living things. Indeed, humans will always expect blessings from their Creator when they do or will do something.

#### d). Pars Pro Toto

*Pars pro toto* is a figure of speech where the name of a portion of an object, place, or concept represents its entirety. The expression containing *pars pro toto* is presented in data (4) below:

- (4) Papisangkana ri katte  
Pakabellai ri ati  
Na nitunrai  
Eroka makgaul sala

In data (4) above, the second line indicates *pars pro toto*. It reads *Pakabellai ri ati* 'keep it away from the heart'. The expression is a *pars pro toto* because the heart here refers to the human. Overall, the meaning of *kelong* in data (4) above is that humans must always remember God, who created them, obey His commands and avoiding things He has prohibited.

### B. Distortion of Meaning

Distortion of meaning according to Riffaterre (1984) occurs when a poem contains ambiguity, contradiction, and nonsense. In this study, no-nonsense data was found. Distortion of meaning is only found in the figurative language of ambiguity and contradiction, which consists of irony, litotes, and hyperbole. This is presented in the following data.

#### a. Ambiguity

Ambiguity is the ability to express more than one interpretation. Ambiguity can be found in the following data:

- (5) pappisangkaNa ri katte  
Pakabellai ri ati  
Na nitunrai  
Eroka makgaul salah

The data (5) above shows that there is an ambiguity in the line *pappisangkaNa ri katte* 'His prohibitions towards you. The ambiguous meaning appears in the word *katte* which can mean 'you' which is a polite greeting in the Makassar language and can also mean 'we' or first-person plural in the Makassar language. The ambiguous meaning is also shown in the line *Pakabellai ri ati* which means 'to be kept away from the heart'. The line can mean being kept away from the heart/soul and can also mean being kept away from humans or human life. Overall, the *kelong* above contains advice to humans that we are obliged to stay away from His prohibition to be always on the right path and to avoid committing sins.

#### c). Contradiction

The contradiction is a conflict between two opposing or contradictory things. Contradiction distorting meaning in *kelong* Makassar is reflected by three figures of speech, namely irony, litotes, and paradox. The irony is a figure of speech stating something that is contrary to its actual meaning. Litotes is a figure of speech aimed at expressing something with humility, while paradox is a statement that may seem contradictory but yet can be true or at least makes sense.

Irony can be found in the following data (30). It is aimed at someone who likes to drink alcohol.

- (6) Guru tonji punna ballo  
Santeri punna palase  
Mammaca tonji  
Punna nia jukuk langga

An ironic expression is found in the first line *guru tonji punna ballok* "palm wine is also a teacher". This line contains sarcasm to someone who likes to drink alcoholic beverages (palm wine is considered a teacher) whereas its actual

meaning is that palm wine is bad for health, prohibited in Islam (the majority of Makassar people are Muslims). In the second line, the term *santeri* is generally only used in the context of a *pesantren* or a place to study the Koran. This is very contrary to the first line that palm wine is considered a teacher. Then, sarcasm are also found in the third and fourth lines, *mammaca tonji* 'only praying' *punna nia jukuk langga* 'when offered grilled fish'. The third and fourth lines indicate that someone who likes to drink alcohol only prays when they are served grilled fish.

Overall, the meaning of *kelong* expresses sarcasm to someone who likes to drink alcoholic beverages. The actual meaning to be conveyed is, alcohol is bad for health. Therefore, it is prohibited in Islam. We should live on the right path, do something without expecting anything, and do not do a good deed if only oriented to a moment's pleasure.

Litotes can be seen in the data (35) below,

- (7) Tikring kamma anne mae  
 Ri pakrasangang sunggua  
 Naniak tonja  
 Pakrasangang kamaseku

In the data (7), litotes is found on the line *ripakrasangan sunggua* "in a rich country", and in the line *pakrasangang kamaseku* "my poor country". Litotes in the first line refers to the humility of a person recognising the wealth of a country. Meanwhile, he also humbles himself to recognise the poverty of his country. In terms of litotes, this *kelong* means a person's humility to acknowledge the strengths of others and admit that he lives in deprivation.

Hyperbole figure of speech can be found in the following data (8):

- (8) baya-baya tea tappuk  
 Biseang tea taklingge  
 Palingge sai  
 Nanicinik barania

In the data (8) above, hyperbole exists in each line, such as *baya-baya tea tappuk* "the cut resistant rope of a sailboat" which shows the confidence of a person in the middle of the ocean. This is confirmed by the next line *biseang tea taklingge* 'a boat that cannot swing', which describes the strength of the boat. Logically, *biseang* is a small boat that has limitations as, in the middle of the ocean, it can be hit by a storm at any time. With high confidence, the sailor shows his bravery through words as found on the *Kelong* line above. Furthermore, hyperbole is also found on the line *palingge sai* 'try to swing my boat', which shows the courage of the sailor and of course is only a challenge in the form of words as an ordinary human being who has weaknesses. This is confirmed by the following line, *nanicinik barania* 'to see who is brave'. In general, the meaning of *kelong* in the data (33) shows the confidence of the Makassar sailors who are brave and not afraid to challenge the ocean even though they only use simple equipment. This is also a form of responsibility of Makassar men as the backbone of their family.

### C. Creation of Meaning

According to Riffaterre (1984), the creation of meaning is the granting of meaning to everything that is generally considered to have no meaning, but it has deep meaning in a poem such as the meaning produced by rhyme, semantic equivalence, symmetry, and typography. In this study, the creation of meaning arises from enjambment and typography.

#### a). Enjambment

Enjambment in poetry (*kelong*) is defined as the running over of a sentence or phrase from one poetic line to the next, without terminal punctuation. Data containing enjambment is found in the following data (1):

- (9) kuminaiko sunggu  
 kutinjakkiko matekne  
 manna pucukna  
 tangkenna matene ngaseng

The third line shows the creation of meaning, *manna pucukna* 'even the shoots', and the fourth line, *tangkenna matetekne ngaseng* 'the twigs are all happy'. This is indicated by the second word of the third line, *pucukna*, and the first word of the fourth line, *tangkenna*. These two words are a series of the same object that cannot be separated. The meaning created is that although the shoots and stalks are two different things, both reflect an inseparable combination. The actual meaning is that happiness in life takes place due to togetherness among humans who support each other and pray for one another.

#### b). Typography

Typography in poetry is the arrangement of lines, verses, sentences, phrases, words, and sounds to produce a physical form that can support the content, taste, and context. Typography is an important thing that distinguishes poetry from prose and drama. All data in this study represent typography. The form of *kelong* has its characteristics like in the following data (2),

- (10) Asmbayangko nutambung (2)  
 Pakajai amalaknu (2)  
 Nanu jarreki (1)  
 Kananna anrong gurunnu (2)  
 Asmbayangko nutambung (8)  
 Pakajai amalaknu (8)

Nanu jarreki (5)  
 Kananna anrong gurunnu (8)

Data (2) shows the characteristics of lines in kelong; a unit to support meaning. Unity of sound in each line is a syntactic unit in the form of words or groups of words with 2/2/1/2 pattern, and the pattern of syllable on each line is 8/8/5/8.

## V. DISCUSSION

### Indirection of Meaning in Poetry

An essential characteristic of poetry according to Michael Riffaterre (1984) is that poetry expresses concepts and objects indirectly. Simply put, poetry says one thing for another. This is what distinguishes poetry from the language in general. Poetry has a particular way to convey its meaning (Faruk, 2012:141). Poetic language is semiotic while everyday language is mimetic. Poetry's indirection of meaning takes place due to the displacement of meaning, distortion of meaning, and creation of meaning (Riffaterre, 1984).

#### 1) Displacement of Meaning

Displacement of meaning occurs when a sign changes from one meaning to another when a word represents another word. In this study, the displacement of meaning is found in metaphor, metonymy, personification and pars pro toto. The four types of figurative language are comparative that can lead to the displacement of meaning, but the meaning that emerges is the one that is close to the meaning referred to. This is presented in data (1),(2),(3), and (4).

#### 2) Distortion of Meaning

Distortion of meaning occurs because of ambiguity, contradiction, and nonsense. Ambiguity can occur in words, phrases, sentences, or discourses due to the emergence of different interpretations according to context. The contradiction arises because of the use of irony, paradox, and antithesis. Nonsense refers to words that have no meaning (not in the dictionary) but have "magical" meanings according to the context (Salam, 2009, p.4). In this study, no data was found to distort meaning due to nonsense. Distortion of meaning is caused by ambiguity and contradiction which consists of irony, litotes, and hyperbole. This is reflected by data (5), (6),(7), and (8).

#### 3) Creation of Meaning

In this study, the creation of meaning occurs because of text space organization including enjambment and typography. Enjambment is the continuation of a sentence without a pause beyond the end of a line, couplet, or stanza. It gives rise to the intensity of meaning or lyrical meaning. Typography in a text does not mean anything, but in poetry, it has meaning. This can be found in data (9) and (10), each of which comes from enjambment and typography.

## VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the results of data analysis, it can be concluded that three things cause the indirection of meaning: (1) displacement of meaning, found in metaphor, metonymy, personification, and pars pro toto which are comparative figures of speech. The words contained in the lines can bring out hidden and different meanings behind the textual meaning of kelong, (2) distortion of meaning in kelong Makassar, shown in ambiguities and contradictions consisting of irony, litotes, and hyperbole. The words in kelong lines can show ambiguity that gives rise to distortion of meaning. The irony, litotes, and hyperbole give rise to sarcastic meanings in contrast to textual meaning. (3) The creation of meaning found in this study occurs due to enjambment and typography.

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# The Rebellious, Untamed Mare: Morrison's Heroine Sula

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**Abstract**—In her novel *Sula*, Toni Morrison creates one of the few black heroines to deliberately enhance the role of a pariah. This paper tries to unfold the rebellious attitude against the norms of the black community that mainly revolves around male's centered society. Sula considers herself a free spirit who challenges and goes beyond all the boundaries; she dares to confront every aspect of that society. Her personality is remarkably evolved since childhood, whether with her relation with her grandmother; her mother or her friend Nel Wright as well as with her lovers. Being raised in household of strong women shapes the person she becomes; fearless, rebellious and daring.

**Index Terms**—Morrison, *Sula*, rebellious, the loss of innocence, friendship, norms and customs, black community

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since the 1970s and 1980s, black women writers have come into their own and their voice now resounds throughout the world. But it has been a long struggle for recognition. Black women's stories celebrate the role of women in a communal survival. They show how women survived “to become mistresses of their own private and increasingly, their public world” (Busia, 1988, p.29).

During the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, many African-American women writers of fiction changed their writing from anti-slavery to sexism and racism. “But in their fiction, the theme of sexism was not prominent” (Young, 1993, p.48).

From the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century until World War I, the United States progressed rapidly, becoming an industrial nation strongly competing with European nations. In spite of the migration of black Americans towards the North and the better opportunities and good payment, the social status of African-American women remained unchanged.

In the early 1940s, Richard Wright and other male writers became the dominant figures of African- American writing.

In the 1960s, the American nation was in turmoil. There was a belief among African-Americans that black men and women were unified in their fight for freedom. But gradually, black women began to experience “a sense of betrayal with respect to their match-revolutionary brothers” (Russell, 1991, p.86).

From the antislavery and women rights movement of the nineteenth century, continuing through the black women rights movements of the 1960s and 1970s, up till today's contemporary black feminism, black women writers asked to have their voices back, ([africandiasporaphd.com](http://africandiasporaphd.com)) since the two centuries of struggle had silenced them. Their voices now resound throughout the world asking for recognition.

Black women writers, through every type of literature, fiction, nonfiction, poetry, essays, autobiographies and others, gave voice to the buried stories of the black women, which expressed their lives, and reflected all the difficulties and sufferings, black women faced in existing in a society full of violence. Mary Helen Washington in her book *Midnight Birds: Stories of Contemporary Black Women Writers* (1990, p.17) writes:

Black women are searching for a specific language, specific symbols and specific images with which to record their lives and even, though they can claim a rightful place in Afro American tradition and the feminist tradition of women writers, it is also clear that for purposes of liberation, black women writers will first inscribe their name, their own space. ([baadalsg.inflibnet.ac.in](http://baadalsg.inflibnet.ac.in))

The 1980s and 1990s were important periods in which a growing number of magnificent women writers and critics emerged such as Toni Morrison, Alice Walker, and Maya Angelou. They represented the latest flowering of this tradition of black female writing. Those writers have changed the face of black American literature and their appearance marked a further significant development. Their writing showed unique characteristics which emerged from their unique position of being black female and artist. Their voices have been heard widely in published works and academia. They showed how women have survived in order to get recognition. Barbara Christian (1980, p.240), demonstrated how and why the emergence of African- American novelists is important. Morrison and other women writers, as Christian stated, criticized the white and black communities for their devaluation the African- American women. With their

criticism, they gave a voice back to the black women and the problems they faced:

Black communities are clearly one of the many audiences Morrison and Walker addressed their first novels, for both works critique those communities and insist that they have deeply internalized racist stereotypes that radically affect their definition of woman and man (othes.univie.ac.at).

In her Nobel Lecture in 1993, delivered in Stockholm, Morrison demonstrated how through her novels, she could reflect the world of the black people, and how language could shape the human reality. Through her own use of the spoken and written words, she has created new spaces for readers, to bring their imagination and their intellect to the complex, cultural, political, social and historical issues of her time (docplayer.net). She places high value on the freedom of black women, and deals in her writing with the community's fright of change and for the most the significance of womanly relationship. In her essay "Rootedness: The Ancestors as Foundation," (1984) she writes:

If anything I do, in the way of writing a novel or whatever I write, isn't about the village or the community or about you, then it isn't about anything. I am not interested in indulging myself in some private exercise of any imagination ... which is to say yes, the work must be political. (p.339)

## II. THEMATIC CONCERN

In her novel *Sula*, as (McKay, 1988, p.5) declares, Morrison creates one of the few black women heroines "to deliberately embrace the role of a pariah" (repositorio.ual.es).

Morrison's *Sula* spans the years 1921 to 1965. In *Sula* we enter the world of The Bottom, the black section of the town up in the hills of Medallion, Ohio. The Bottom is a land promised to a slave by his master as a reward of freedom, but the antithesis of its meaning. The master, realizing that the bottom land was fertile, and the top land was unyielding, tricked the slave into acceptance of the hilly land. When the slave blinked at this, the master stated "the land is 'high' up from us ... but when God looks down, it's the bottom. That's why we call it so. It's the bottom of heaven best land there is" (*Sula*, p. 5).

*Sula* in form and content is about "gaps, lacks, missing subjects, and ambiguous psychic space, all of which must be 'filled' and interpreted by the reader" (Grant, 1988, p.94). Morrison has commented in her narrative technique in *Sula* as Tate asserts (1989, p.125): "My writing expects, demands participatory reading. ... It's not just about telling the story; it's about involving the reader. The reader supplies the emotions. The reader supplies even some of the color, some of the sound. My language has to have holes and spaces and the reader can come into it."

Morrison's *Sula* is about the lack of freedom of black women and "the community's fear of change and experimentation and above all the importance of female friendship" (Wisker, 2000, p.61). The basic theme of the novel concerns the friendship of two girls growing into womanhood; Sula Peace and Nel Wright. In the framing of their story in the community of the Bottom, "we have the setting that moulds them into who they are... the community is the context within which these women search for self-definition" (Russell, 1991, p.96). Barbara Christian sees it thus: "the story is not only about Nel Wright and Sula Peace; it is most emphatically about the culture that spawns them" (Black Women Novelists, 1980, p.153). And this culture, this place and the people who inhabit it, give the reader some of "the most intriguing and complex characters to unfold in black American literature" (Russell, p.96). Toni Morrison explained to Robert Stepto (1979, p.214) in an interview:

When I wrote *Sula*, I was interested in making the town, the community, the neighborhood, as a strong character as I could ... because the most extra-ordinary thing about any group, and particularly our group, is the fantastic variety of people and things and behaviour and so on (shodhganga.inflibnet.ac.in).

Sandi Russell (1991) comments that in *Sula* "the forces of Nature are essential" and inextricably linked to life, death and time, Images of water, fire, earth and wind pervade the novel and are signals or omens of events as well as relating to the personalities of characters" (p.97). The image of nature's forces, semiotically, indicate the forces that interweave the complexities of the novel's major characters and are responsible for who they are.

*Sula*'s environmental circumstances are responsible for shaping her independent rebellious character. *Sula* comes from a line of non-conventional woman, a household where "women simply loved maleness for its own sake" (*Sula*, p.41). Her grandmother, Eva Peace, is forced to take desperate measures to save her children from starvation after her husband abandons them: she purposely loses a leg on the railroad track in order to collect the insurance money.

*Sula*, who is neglected as a child, grows up in a crowded household governed by her powerful grandmother, with a gentle mother who is devoted to the practice and pleasure of her desire. The scene in *Sula*'s imagination when she is alone in the attic indicates her wild sensuous and untamed personality:

*Sula* ... wedged into a household of throbbing disorder constantly away with things, people, voices and the slamming of doors, spent hours in the attic behind a roll of linoleum galloping through her own mind on a gray-and- white horse testing sugar and smelling roses in full view of someone who shared both the taste and speed. (*Sula*. pp. 51 - 52)

*Sula* finds in her friend Nel Wright the opposite of her own nature. As children they share each other's dreams of

freedom and excitement, but there is a special knowledge they both share; because "they discovered years before that they were neither white nor male, and that all the freedom and triumph were forbidden to them" (Ibid. p.52).

As Sula grows into womanhood, she fights against the prescribed role for black women of the community to 'make someone else.' And because there is no other definition in her life, "she's like water and assumes the shape of whatever holds her" (Morrison, Talk at Conference, 1985).

The water is a symbol of the supreme sky, and stands for purity, but in this case, it is compared to the shapeless, aimless Sula. Toni Morrison sees this as a metaphor for the talented black woman "whose gifts are not taken seriously" (1985).

Living with her mother Hannah in the house of her grandmother Eva, Sula originally draws her world view from both women. However, her incapability to find meaning in the prearranged domestic roles of the women of the Bottom, coupled with her desire to be "distinctly different" (*Sula*, p.118), indicates how Sula is spiritually and physically alienated. "She had no center, no speck around which to grow" (Ibid. p.103):

Her weirdness, her inexperience, her yearning for the other half of her equality was the consequence of an idle imagination. "Had she paints, or clay, or knew the discipline of dance... had she anything to engage her tremendous curiosity and her gift for metaphor, she might have exchanged the restlessness and preoccupation with whim for an activity that provided her with all she yearned for. And like any artist with no art form, she became dangerous". (Ibid. p.121)

In most of her novels, Morrison repeatedly "translates the body itself into political speech" (Rigney, 1991, p.25). Eva's act of self-mutilation in *Sula* reflects the determination to stay alive, but it is also a statement representing poverty and circumstances of life for black women. As Eva endures the mutilation of her leg, so also Sula cuts off the top of her won finger to protect herself and Nel from offensive white boys and also successfully to issue a warning. Using her body, Sula confronts these white boys: "If I can do that to myself, what you suppose I'll do to you?" (*Sula*, p.47). Even the white boys understand how dangerous she is. Self-inflicted marks constitute the most original development in Morrison's employment of this form of projection:

As opposed to congenital or acquired marks perceived as signs of distinction, the self-inflicted mark transforms the bodily text into a form of heroic dialogue between characters and adversity, and the signifier into a fully realized signification. The act of marking is appropriated by the oppressed individual in order to retaliate against the oppressor (Harding and Martin, 1994, p. 23).

Self-disfigurement is a metaphor which represents the individual's direct hostility with oppressive social forces crucial in white domination. Marks become an imaginative representation of racial difference. "Because self-mutilation functions as a literary figure, self-mutilation is liberational and contrasts sharply with all the other forms of violence done to the self-portrayed in Morrison writing" (Willis, 1982, p.39). The cruel dilemma of self-mutilation already experienced by Eva and Sula becomes an explicit gesture of rebellion.

Sula's birthmark sits in her eyelids as a sign of her "exceptional destiny" in the Bottom community. Her birthmark is a "constantly renewed symbolism expressing Sula's personality as a response to other" (Harding and Martin, 1994, p.22).

Sula, like the serpent her birthmark sometimes represents, "challenges the arrested innocence guarded by Nel's mother" (Otten, 1989, p.32). She fulfills Nel's will to be free of her mother Helene's smothering goodness, a desire Nel first shows on the trip to New Orleans. "Nel felt both pleased and ashamed" (Ibid. p.32) to witness the 'stricken' look of the two black soldiers on the train when they see Helen's 'dazzling smile' at the white racist conductor. Their 'bubbling hatred' manifests "something of her [Nel's] own unconscious desire" (Ibid. p.32).

When she returns to Medallion, she stares at her mirror and, in open rebellion, declares her transformation into another stage of her life: discovering 'me-ness' and self-love. Nel's spoken words of assertion of selfhood are indications of pride and certainty of identity, a creative act that makes Nel self-reliant. She imposes herself against familial obligation. For Nel, the mirror reflects not a concept called Nel, but something 'other':

There was her face, plain brown eyes, three braids and the nose her mother hated. She looked for a long time and suddenly a shiver ran through her. "I'm me," she whispered. "Me".  
Nel didn't know what she meant, but on the other hand she knew exactly what she meant. I'm not Nel. I'm me." (*Sula*, pp. 28-29).

The narrator concludes, "The trip, perhaps, or her new found Me-ness, gave her strength to cultivate a friend in spite of her mother" (Ibid. p.29). Helen drives "her daughter's imagination underground" (Ibid. p.16). Sula animates Nel's will to power. Sula becomes the "Other" and fulfills the role attributed to the "double" as stated by Karl Miller: "one self does what the other self can't. One self is meek [i.e. Nel] while the other is fierce" (p. 45). Sula articulates what Miller calls "the rule of contraries, which is another name for the double, with its constant inversions and reversal" (p. 45). Sula and Nel counter-balance each other, "They exist in tenuous balance as they grow to womanhood – Nel leans on Sula, and Sula seeks reassurance in Nel's ordered world" (Otten, 1989, p.34). They together share the loss of innocence "in a series of expressions ... when they are both twelve, the age of accountability" (Ibid. p. 4). By this time Nel is no longer interested in straightening her hair with hateful hot comb, and both she and Sula strike a new theme –

"me." They secretly rejoice when the young black men praise them and call them "pig meat" and "smooth vanilla crotches" (*Sula*, p.50).

At this age of heightened sensitivity, Sula suffers a severe shock when she overhears her mother says "I love Sula but I don't like her" (*Ibid.* p.57). Twelve years old Sula escapes with Nel into the bright sunny day to the river where they fling themselves "into the four-cornered shade to taste their lip sweet and contemplate the wildness that had come upon them suddenly" (*Ibid.* p.58).

On the edge of sexual awakening, while lying on the grass, "their foreheads almost touching, their bodies stretched away from each other at a 180-degree angle. ... Underneath their dress flesh tightened and shivered in the high coolness, their small breasts just now beginning to create some pleasant discomfort when they were lying on their stomachs" (*Ibid.* p.58).

The scene indicates the burial of their childhood "and foreshadows a demonic if unwitting will to power" (Otten, 1989, p.35). They each begin to undress a twig" by stripping it down to a smooth creamy innocence" (*Sula*, p.58), and begin to dig the ground until Nel makes "a small neat hole that grew deeper and wider with the least manipulation of her twig" (*Ibid.* p.58). Sula imitates her until they make the two holes "one and the same" (*Ibid.* p.58). When Nel's twig breaks, she throws the pieces into the hole they have made:

Sula threw hers in too. Nel saw a bottle cap and tossed it in as well. Each then looked around for more debris to throw into the hole: paper, bits of grass, butts of cigarettes, until all of the small defiling things they could find were collected there. Carefully they replaced the soil and covered the entire grave with uprooted grass. Neither one had spoken a word (*Sula*, pp.58- 59).

This richly sexual moment signals their imminent passage into experience, their joint fall from childlike innocence. "It occurs when Sula tempts the recently arrived boy Chicken Little to climb a tree by the river" (Otten, 1989, p.35). The dynamics of Toni Morrison's body language is visualized through the attitude of the two girls towards males.

Morrison's body language is dramatized through the actions of the rebellious, violent Sula. Sula's experiences in life are somehow rooted in her capacity to begin violence. She accidentally, drowns Chicken Little who appears at the moment she and Nel begin to discover their own sexuality while lying together on the grass. She begins playfully swinging Chicken Little around and around so vigorously that he slips from her hands into the river. They watch Chicken Little drown. "Guilty, they stare at darkened water, no longer able to claim innocence" (Otten, 1989, p.35). Ironically, Nel tells the nearly hysterical Sula, "You didn't mean to. It ain't your fault" (*Sula*, pp.62-63), trying to preserve an innocence she has herself lost. Although Nel thinks she has done nothing, she feels "convicted and hanged" (*Sula*, p.65). Nel herself does not recognize her guilt for "it is she and not Sula who taunts Chicken" (Otten, 1989, p.36).

The loss of their innocence gradually leads to their separation; their bodies emphasize the distance between them at Chicken Little's funeral: they did not touch hands or look at each other during the funeral. "There was a space, separateness between them" (*Sula*, p.64). They sit passively during the ceremony with unfolded hands, "like pairs of raven's wings" (*Ibid.* p.65), suggesting a sense of total helplessness. They leave Chicken's funeral, walking home with "their fingers ... laced in as gentle a clasp as that of any two young girlfriends trotting up the road on a summer day wondering what happened to butterflies in the winter" (*Ibid.* p.66). The scene effectively evokes the sense of lost innocence.

Among the significant moments of Sula's life is her recognition of the "closed place in the water" where he disappears, the "something newly missing" (*Sula*, p.61). By providing Sula and Nel with the secret of Chicken Little's accidental death, "and among the significant moments of Sula's life is her recognition specifically by having Nel provide the strength and support Sula needed at the moment" (Samuels and Hudson-Weems, 1990, p.45), Morrison further unites them in a manner that will "bound them for eternity" (*Ibid.* p.45).

Although Sula who slips Chicken Little's hands, but the involvement, as her grandmother Eva later points out, is clearly theirs together. It is Nel who suggests 'the cover-up' when she tells Sula, "Let's go. We can't bring him back" (*Sula*, p.146). There is a sadistic pleasure which Nel can only confess years later: "She didn't feel bad about the Chicken Little drowning. How come it felt so good to see him fall?" (*Ibid.* p.170). When Eva, years later questions Nel about the accident, Nel tries, consciously, to protect her innocence: she avoids not only the question but the more indirect suggestion of guilt; she denies herself:

Tell me how you killed that little boy?  
 What? What little boy?  
 The one you threw in the water ....  
 I didn't throw no little boy in the river. That was Sula.  
 You. Sula. What's the difference? You was there.  
 You watched, didn't you? ... Never was no difference  
 between you. (*Sula*, pp.168-169)

According to Morrison, although Nel lacks Sula's imagination, "they are very much alike. They complement each other. They support each other" (Parker, 1979 p.253). Sula represents the dark unconscious, "the 'evil' underside of the imagination" (Otten, 1989, p.34) – what Morrison has labeled "a classic type of evil force, yet not freakish or repulsive or unattractive" (Stephens, 1979, p.215). She lives her days exploring her emotions and thoughts; she feels no obligation to please anybody unless their pleasure pleases her. "As willing to feel pain as to give pain, to feel pleasure, hers was an



experimental life" (*Sula*, p.118), which indicates that Sula is a free spirit not bound by external mores and values. She expresses her wild, untamed nature when she declares to Nel:

I got my mind. And what goes on in it.  
Which is to say, I got me.  
Lonely, ain't it?  
Yes. But my lonely is mine (*Sula*, p.143)

Sula becomes a pariah "precisely because she rejects those values that aim at uniformity and stifle the self" (Banyiwa-Horne, 1985, p.31). Her inclination to discard them makes her "evil" to those in the communal who never direct their own freedom of the will. Sula is "evil" because she, unlike Nel, "does not live totally by the law nor surrender completely to it without questioning anything: sometime she is perfectly willing to think the unthinkable" (Stepito, 1979, pp.216-217). She is responsible to no one but herself for the track of her life. Her strength to adopt existential obligation for self is indicated by her assertive declaration: "I got my mind" (*Sula*, p.143), a creative declaration of self-will which to do what one wishes.

The relationship between Sula and Nel is severed only when Nel marries Jude five years later, an unexceptional young man who think of Nel as "the hem, the tuck and fold that hide his raveling edges" (Ibid. p.83). Sula's inventive wildness cannot overcome social pressure or influence of Nel's parents "who had succeeded in rubbing down to a dull glow any sparkle or splutter she had" (Ibid. p.83). Nel becomes prey to convention while Sula escapes it. The wedding of Nel ends the first phase of their relationship. The scene is significant when Nel's final action is to look past her husband toward Sula; despite their separation and different paths, Nel signifies their closeness and intimacy:

A slim figure in blue, gliding, with just a hint of a strut, down the path towards the road. ... Even from the rear Nel could tell that it was Sula and that she was smiling; that something deep down in that liteness was amused (*Sula*, p.85).

When Sula returns, ten years later, her rebelliousness "full blown, a major source of the town's suspicions" (*Sula*, p.79) springs from the fact that she is almost thirty, still unmarried. The verbal exchanges Sula has with her grandmother, signifies the impact the Peace women have on their progeny. When Eva asks: "When you gone to get married? You need to have babies. It'll settle you," Sula flares up "I don't want to make somebody else. I want to make myself," but Eva insists this is selfish, "Ain't woman got no business floating' around without no man" (Ibid, p.92). Sula's existential pronouncement "I want to make myself" is the adult voice, the voice of Sula-as-a-woman that we hear: As McDowell (1988) declares, "Self-definition is a dangerous activity for woman to engage in, especially for a black one, and it expectedly earns Sula pariah status in the community of Medallion. The limitations of black female role are greater in a racist and exist society as is the amount of courage it takes to challenge them" (p.82).

In spite of their year of separation, and their opposite paths, Sula and Nel's relationship recollects its supremacy for each of them. Nel feels changed when Sula returns and this transformation is visualized in Nel's mind as she thinks of Sula's return as a cataract removed from her eyes; revealing her dull, boring, routine life:

It was like getting the use of an eye back, having a cataract removed. Here old friend had come home. Sula, who made her laugh, who made her see old things with new eyes, in whose presence she felt clever, gentle and little raunchy. (*Sula*, p.95)

Laughing with Sula in the old, familiar affectionate way, Nel feels "new, soft and new" (Ibid. p.98), the visual image indicates the women's intimacy throughout the novel. Sula ruptures this closeness between her and Nel by sleeping with Nel's husband, an act of little significance according to Sula's system of values, which Nel rejects. Sula feels sorrow because of Nel's attitude towards her; though sex is 'pleasant' and 'frequent' it is not as remarkable as her friendship with Nel. She has thought of Nel as her other self, but now she is separated from her and from unbounded freedom in life.

McDowell (1989) asserts that Sula's understanding the importance of her relationship to Nel results from self-understanding and intimacy, a process that Nel's marriage to Jude intrudes. "Like so many writers, Morrison equates marriage with the death of the female self and imagination" (p.82). Nel's sexuality is expressed not from her own pleasure, but rather, for the pleasure of her husband "and in obedience to system of moral judgment and moral virtue. It is impossible for her to imagine sex without Jude" (*Sula*, p.82). After she finds him naked with Sula, she regards her thighs – the metaphor for her sexuality – as "empty and dead ... and it was Sula who had taken the life from them ... the both of them ... left her with no thighs and no heart, just brain raveling away" (Ibid, p.110).

Sula intends no harm to Nel, believing her a "version of herself which she sought to reach out to and touch with an ungloved hand" (Ibid. p.121). The tactile image semiotically indicates how close and intimate Nel is to her, so she is surprised by Nel's rejection suddenly realizing that Nel has become "one of them," part of the town "and all its way" (Ibid. p.120). Sula offers no explanation for her behavior; she makes a distinction between sex and friendship – a view that Nel, attached to social conventions, does not share. As Sula explains later, she betrays her friend merely "to fill up an existential void" (Harding and Martin, 1994, p.103). Her relation with Jude is merely to fill space emptiness in her life, and to take revenge on the society which treats her like a pariah.

Jude's subsequent departure left Nel with "thighs [that] were really empty" (*Sula*, p.110). As Keith Byerman (1985) notes, "the loss of Jude is the loss of identity and the loss of life ... [Nel] now becomes a 'woman without a man' and is unable to raise her eyes. For this change she blames Sula, who without a sense of ownership, cannot conceive of Jude as

an object to be taken" (p.198); Sula tell Nel: "What you mean take him away? I didn't kill him I just fucked him If we were such good friend, how come you couldn't get it over?" (*Sula*, p.145).

Sula gives expression to her own sexuality in a way "in which men have done ... for generations; she seeks to satisfy herself not others and is willing to have sex without committing herself emotionally to her partners, discarding them as she wishes" (Peach. Linden. "Chapter 3 Sula (1973)", Springer Nature, 1995).

Sula assumes the nature of the free black man, which is an aspect of Sula's freedom of sexuality to which Morrison herself has drawn attention in an interview:

Sula is a masculine character in that sense. She will do the kind of things normally only men do, that is why she is so strange. She really behaves like a man. She picks up a man, drops a man, the same way a man picks up a man, drop a man, the same way a man picks up a woman. And that's her thing. She's masculine in that sense. She's adventuresome, she trusts herself. She's not scared, she really ain't scared. And she is curious and will leave and try anything. (Harper and Stepto, 1979, p. 227).

Sula is sexually free, like her mother Hannah. But unlike her mother, she uses the men in the same way that they would use her. With Ajax, who loves the female power in Sula as he has loved it in his own mother, Sula assumes the upper position during their lovemaking which signifies her enjoyment of sex for its reflection of her own power.

With Ajax, Sula finds companionship with a man for the first time. During their lovemaking, she begins to imagine herself as an archaeologist digging through the layers of her lover's body in search of the mystery of his being. "After craving her way through the layers of black, gold and alabaster, she breaks through to loam. In that fertile medium she imagines herself mixing with him" (Harding and Martin, 1994, p.90): "I will water your soil, keep it rich and moist. But how much? How much water to keep the loam moist? And how much loam will I need to keep my water still? And when do the two make mud?" (*Sula*, p.131). With this new desire to join with Ajax and create something with him, comes the urge to bind him to her. The sexual images of moist fertile mud signify sexual fulfillment.

Sula begins to imitate the community values held by Nel. She cleans the untidy house, and for the first time stands before a mirror, "trying to decide whether she [is] good-looking or not" (*Sula*, p.13). This new-found concern with her reflected image "forebodes and adoption of the self-negating standards of femininity" (Harding and Martin, 1994, p.70) Sula tries to see herself as others see her, through the eyes of others, not of herself.

Ironically, Sula's new desire for stability, for nest, makes her lover think spontaneously of flight, "an urge derisively rendered literal by Morrison as Ajax tries to remember the date of the air show in Dayton" (*Sula*, p.71). This attraction to flight signifies his lack of commitment.

An earlier incident establishing Morrison's theme of the ambiguity of good and evil is Eva's crime of causing her son Plum's death. Eva's son Ralph (called Plum), returns from the First World War "shell-shocked and psychologically broken" (Samuels and Hudson-Weems, 1990, p.31). "Playing God" (*Sula*, p.31). Eva burns to death her drunken and broken son when she realizes that he wants to crawl back into her womb rather than to function like a man ([www.viterbo.edu](http://www.viterbo.edu)). For Morrison, the relationship with the mother is always ambiguous, "revelatory yet destructive, even for women" (Rigney, 1991, p.14); but the male desire to return to womb, to reenter the mother, is more often related negatively with a submission of consciousness or a death wish. Eva justifies her burning to death of Plum to her daughter Hannah:

I ain't got the room no more even if he could do it. There wasn't space for him in my womb. And he was crawling back. ... I had room enough in my heart, but not in my womb. ... I birthed him once ... God have mercy, I couldn't birth him twice ... So, I just thought of a way he could die like a man not all crunched up inside my womb, but like a man ... a big man can't be a baby all wrapped up inside his mamma no more; he suffocates ... But I held him close first. Real close. Sweet Plum. My baby boy (*Sula*, pp.71-72)

Plum's death visualizes Eva's power as what Barbara Christian calls "primeval Earth Mother Goddess: she both gives life and takes it away. She performs a ritual killing inspired by love – a ritual of sacrifice by fire" ([www.viterbo.edu](http://www.viterbo.edu)). Yet, Eva "pays the price for her violent love" (Otten, 1989, p.32) when she cannot save the innocent Hannah from death by fire.

Hannah is burnt while tending a fire in the back yard. Eva tries desperately to save her first-born child, while Sula stands watching without fear; Sula recalls the scene on her deathbed to Nel. The disturbing distance she feels from her mother is clear when she offers no help at all – "I stood there watching her burn and was thrilled. I wanted her to keep on jerking like that, to keep on dancing" (*Sula*, p.147).

Sula, like the Peace woman in her family, is left alone. On her deathbed, she is visited by Nel, but their painful meeting does not bring reconciliation. Moreover, Sula questions Nel's belief of what is right and what is wrong according to her understanding and to the norms of the society, which indicates Nel's clinging "to her lost innocence by repressing the side of herself that Sula mirrors like the prototypal serpent in Eden" (Otten, 1989, p.42). Sula attempts to question Nel's certainty in their last conversation, with significant references to the ambiguity of good and evil:

She opened the door and heard Sula's slow whisper.

"Hey girl." Nel paused and turned her head but not enough to see her  
 "How you know?" Sula asked.  
 "Know what?" Nel still wouldn't look at her.  
 "About who was good. How do you know it was you?"  
 "What mean maybe it wasn't you. Maybe it was me." (*Sula*, p.146)

Sula thinks as Nel leaves her: "So, she will walk on down that road, her back so straight in that old green coat ... thinking how much I have cost her and never remember the days when we were two throats and one eye and had no price" (Ibid. p.147).

It is a very evocative image for what women can be to each other, "the priceless they achieve in refusing to sell themselves for male consent, the total worth they can only find in each other's eyes" (Smith, 1979, p.191). Though the two of them might share a common vision suggested by "one eye", their needs and desires are different; evidenced by their "two throats".

Even in her death, Sula is unable to be free of Nel. She dies alone, but her dying comment – "wait'll tell Nel" (*Sula*, p.49) – is seen an appeal to the other half of her equation. Twenty-five years later, Nel, at Sula's grave, respond to the appeal directed to her soul by her lost friend:

"Sula?" she whispered, gazing at the tops of trees "Sula?" All the time,  
 all the time, on her chest and came up into her boat. "We was girls  
 together," she said as though explaining something. "O Lord, Sula"  
 she cried. "girl, girl girl, girl". (Ibid. p.174)

Nel mourns her lost friend, mourn the loss of self; the process of mourning and remembering leads to intimacy with the self which consequently leads to making intimacy with others possible. Perhaps Nel's cry, in the last line of the novel, "a primal scream beyond and above the language, is a reinstatement of the semiotic from which her own mother has separated her as well as herself" (Rigney, 1991, p.104): "It was a fine cry – loud and long – but it has no bottom and it had no top, just circles and circles of sorrow" (*Sula*, p.147). The cry is described as beyond and above language, reflecting the extreme pain Nel has been suffering from that no language can express. It is also an indication of the separation of herself from the other self 'Sula' by her mother and the society's norms and the traditions which she submits herself to.

### III. CONCLUSION

Sula's personality is shaped through her environmental circumstances which form her rebellious, independent character. Her grandmother Eva Peace loses her legs purposely in the railroad track to collect the insurance money and support her family which indicates her will to survive.

Sula fights against the prescribed roles for black women, insisting that she wants to be herself, distinct from others.

Sula's capacity to begin violence is evidenced when she protects herself and Nel from a group of abusive white boys by slicing the top of her finger, a sign of warning to them of how dangerous she is.

Her ability to begin violence is also evidenced when she accidentally drowns Chicken Little. She swings him vigorously and lets slip from her hands into the nearby river.

Sula and Nel complement each other; Sula animates Nel's will to power, while she finds in Nel the opposite of her own nature. One is meek while the other is fierce. Their closeness to each other is described by the narrator as if they are one eye and two throats.

When Sula returns to Medallion years later, she does not accept the domestic prescribed role of the black women. She expresses her free will sexually, using men for her own pleasure, and discarding them. While lovemaking, she assumes the upper position as a sign of her control.

She, unwittingly, severs her friendship with Nel by one sleeping with her husband. In her opinion, Jude simply fills in a space in her empty life, and it is her way to take revenge on the society which treats her as a pariah.

With Ajax, Sula tries to fit in with in with the community values by cleaning the untidy house, and even taking care the way she looks, because with him she finds companionship with a man in the first time in her life. But Ajax proves to lack commitment.

Twenty five years after Sula's death, Nel comes to realize that she has blamed Sula for her own failure in life, and has missed her all the time. Her loud cry at the end of the novel utters the extreme pain of the loss that no language can express.

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# Developing Instructional Design Model of Speaking Skill for First Year Undergraduate Students

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**Abstract**—This study was conducted to search for Contextual Teaching and Learning model suitable for developing English speaking skill for first-year students of undergraduate study of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Universitas Bandar Lampung. In teaching speaking, especially for Second Language and Foreign Language Learners, it was assumed that learning speaking by using tailored instructional design model could accelerate student speaking development. The result of this study should construct a model which is suitable for developing English speaking skill in the first year of undergraduate study.

**Index Terms**—instructional design, contextual learning, speaking skill, undergraduate level

## I. INTRODUCTION

Talking about English nowadays, people will focus on speaking skill. It happens because communication is everything in this era. English as a global language means that English influences the daily life of many people. Students are forced to learn English because of society demand. An employer wants a worker who has good communication skill. Byrne (2010) as cited by Bruner, Sinwongsuwat, and Radic-Bojanic (2015) provides an example on the fact that CEO and major companies in Asia demand their workers to have good English proficiency for international investment. This is why speaking becomes one of the most important skills to master.

In Indonesia learning to speak English properly is difficult. The result of learning English for at least six years from junior to senior high school has not been optimal for mastering the four basic skills of English language. This happens because most teachers in Indonesia still use mother language more than the English language in a teaching-learning situation even though they are actually teaching English. Most of the students who are in an undergraduate study now learned their subjects using the old curriculum of 2006 where learning is not integrated between subjects. The subjects were even categorized based on whether each subject was aimed to form student personality, skill or knowledge. This made student unable to relate the lessons to other related topics or subjects since they were used to the complete separation of them. It made the students unable to apply their knowledge in their daily life.

Consequently, when the students enter university, lecturers and educators in the university are forced to review and reteach the students' years of knowledge that they should have had learned before. Language is a skill and must be practiced and used in a real-life situation. The actualization of university students as the next generation is recognized from speaking ability (Darmuki, 2017). Unfortunately, students tend to use English exclusively inside classroom. Due to their limited use of English, they still have many difficulties in using English in their daily life. Since the students did not use English to speak regularly enough to be fluent in speaking, the lecturers are forced to think of a way to design the lesson as close as possible to the situation that happens in real life. This is where contextual learning comes forth.

Contextual learning is an integrated learning in which student learns a topic from different activities that are connected to real life situation (Schunk, 2012). For example, when a student learn about directions the student might learn new vocabularies about them, listen and watch videos about them, draw direction maps, practice asking and giving directions in a role play, etc. The activities are designed for the student to become an active participant in their learning experience. In order for the student to improve their speaking skill and use it actively, contextual learning is chosen as it provides a link between topics of discussion and a real life application and it also retains the experience in long-term memory for future use in life (Surdin, 2018). Still using the same topic about directions, if the student travels

abroad either for work, vacation or further study, they could use their knowledge to ask directions to the locals (in case they are traveling to remote areas without internet, Google maps, or low cellphone battery). They will recall their previous experience they had in a role play. They can also go to a tourism site where there are many foreigners and try to help them when they ask how to go to a certain place. The situation above illustrates the importance of learning with constructivism.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

### A. *The Concept of Speaking Skill*

English is an international language used by people all over the world. The communication which occurs among people is often direct or oral speech. (Asakereh and Dehghannezhad, 2015). If asked which skill is the most important one, people will most likely answer speaking. This is because many people gauge their mastery of language from their speaking ability. (Richard, 2008).

In the present time where job is open to everyone all over the world, a good English skill is a must. The ability to use English actively opens better chances and opportunities. It was explained by Baker and Westrup (2003) as cited by Baniabdelrahman (2013) that students' speaking ability will increase their chance of getting a job offer and gaining promotions. It is proven from Byrne's (2010) example as cited by Bruner, Siwongsawat, and Radic-Bonjalic (2015) that CEO of Asian major companies made English proficiency compulsory for their workers as it is an international investment.

However, speaking skill is not something that can be learned easily. Many experts agree that it is a very difficult skill to master. One of the experts, Shumin (2002), as cited by Oradee (2012) states that learning to speak a new language is very difficult. Speaking skill is very complex and there are many things that need to be taken into consideration in learning it.

Florez (1999) as cited by Sakale (2012) defines speaking as a formulation of thoughts to form correct meaning based on a topic or situation, participants, environment and the purpose of speech. The definition shows the complexity of speaking since there are many factors that need to be accounted. The definition shows that in speaking, people are processing things internally by constructing a format inside their mind. Then, they will connect it with meaning based on context and the goal of speaking. After that, they will absorb information from the environment and their participant reaction before using their speech.

Another definition of speaking which is similar but even more complex comes from Scriver (2005) as cited by Asakereh and Dehghannezhad (2015) who says that mastering speaking a person needs to have enough knowledge in vocabulary, grammar, culture of the target language, genre, speech acts (noun, pronoun, adverb, adjective, etc.), register (speaking choice of channel influenced by field, tenor and mode), discourse (knowing how to organize speech), and phonology (how to sound words). Contextual learning that adds new information to their prior knowledge, learning and practicing the knowledge before applying it in a real life situation (Hudson and Whisler, 2008) is in line with the steps in speaking. Therefore, the application of this learning might be worth trying in developing speaking skill.

### B. *Contextual Learning*

There are many definitions of contextual learning (Satriani, Emilia, and Gunawan, 2012) which make inconsistencies on the meaning of Constructivism (Schunk, 2012). Hyslop-Margison and Strobel (2008) and Simpson (2002) as cited by Schunk (2012) said that constructivism is not a theory but an epistemology or the way and process of learning. Satriani, Emilia, and Gunawan (2012) claimed that autonomy learner gained motivation from contextual learning. Students become more active in lessons and they are able to connect better what they learned with their life. This implies that student gains more learning autonomy in contextual learning.

Surdin (2018) has a similar opinion with Satriani, Emilia, and Gunawan (2012). He said students construct their knowledge on their mind by using the information they got academically. They will relate that knowledge with what happens in their daily life. In order to do this, Surdin (2018) emphasizes the importance of storing information received in brain long-term memory. Khaefiatunnisa (2015) supported his view as she stated constructivism as "...*meaningful learning which can help students put the material they have learned in long-term memory.*"

There are many strategies used in constructivism; among them are cooperative learning and inquiry. Cooperative learning is one of the most common strategies used in classes that have abundance of materials and many students in a class. Classes that require many practices like speaking and working in small groups will allow students' equal opportunity in speaking. Satriani, Emilia, and Gunawan (2012) stated that students are not able to gain much when they learn by themselves. This notion is supported by Khaefiatunnisa (2015) arguing that students learn better in groups since they could exchange pieces of information and ideas with other members to gain more and better understanding of the lesson.

Meanwhile, Khaefiatunnisa (2015) stated inquiry is one way of the students to derive knowledge from their own experience and enhance their mind for original ideas and thinking critically. Schunk (2012) defines inquiry as a learning that encourages students to make and solve a problem or a situation. The students then apply the knowledge derived from the experiences in a new situation. This as previously stated, proves that contextual learning is suitable to be used

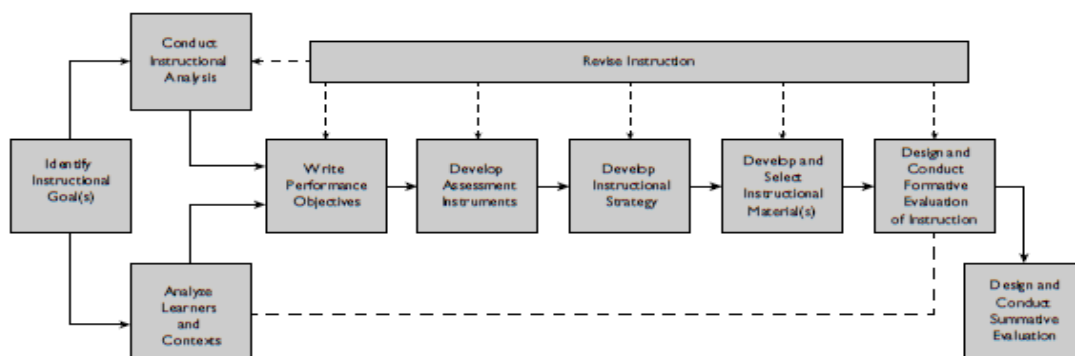
in developing speaking skill which half of the process (forming sentences, connecting them with meaning based on their knowledge of topic discussed and situation happening around them) is happening inside peoples' mind.

C. Instructional Design

Instruction is normally defined as a set of events embedded in purposeful activities that facilitate learning (Gagne et.al., 2004). This made people assume that instruction came from outside influences. In reality, there is an internal mental process in order to process knowledge gained from instruction. Therefore, in a wider scope, instructions are a set of activities used by the teacher in order to engage students. (Gagne et.al., 2004). This made an instructional design more effective when designed with activity such as cooperative learning, reflective learning (giving and receiving feedbacks), problem-solving and critical thinking (Gagne et al., 2004).

Gagne et.al. (2004) stated there was no a single best model of instructional design because designers tailored instructional design based on what the designers believed to be true. They designed the models based on their principles and theories which affect the students' learning process. This is supported by the University of Michigan in 2003 which listed Penn State University four parts of Instructional Design definition. In the Instructional Design as a discipline, it is said that Instructional Design is the knowledge about research and theories on the process of instructional strategies (Brown and Green, 2016). This is one of the reasons to design instruction personally despite the time and cost consumed.

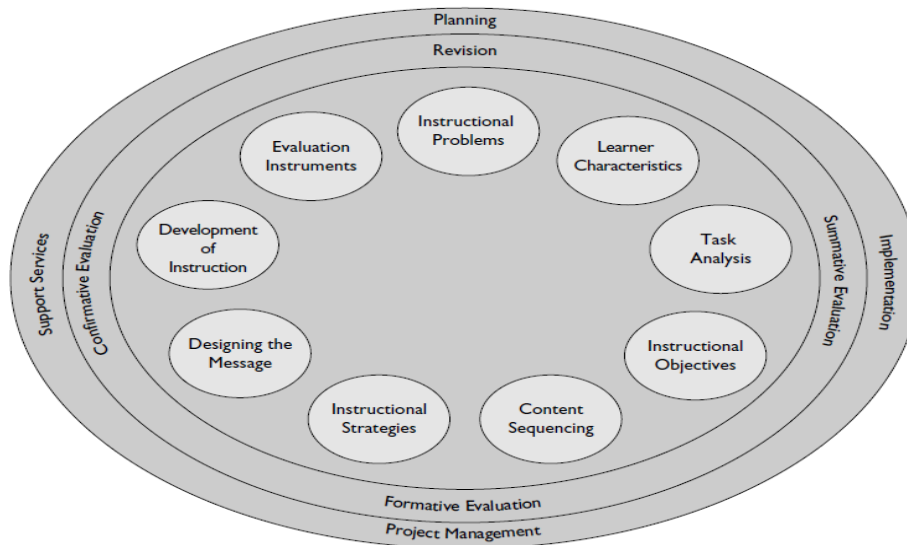
Below are popular Instructional Design models which are obligatory to be known as a guide for instructional designers through ADDIE process (Analyze, Design, Develop, Implement and Evaluate) (Brown and Green, 2016). Therefore, ADDIE is also used as a prescriptive model on instructional design. Molenda (2003) as cited by Brown and Green (2016) suggested on the actual use of ADDIE. ADDIE is actually used to describe the process of making instructional design model, not a model of instructional design. However, Brown and Green (2016) stated ADDIE could be used to compare or contrast one instructional model with another.



Source: Brown and Green (2016)  
Figure 2.1 Dick and Carey's Instructional Design Model

The first model is Dick and Carey's Instructional Design Model. By designing this model, Dick and Carey tried to deviate from the classic classroom instruction. In their time, teaching-learning process put a heavy burden in students. The model they made changed the system into a learning that chose the content based on components of the context.

The second model needs to be paid attention to is Kemp, Morrison and Ross's Instructional Design. Different from Dick and Carey's, Kemp, Morrison and Ross's model is not designed in sequence. It is designed with oval shape without arrows to show that each step could happen at any order or even simultaneously. This model offers more flexibility in teaching-learning process. However, the instructional model in this study will use ADDIE model as a guideline because it is the base of many successful instructional models.



Source: Brown and Green (2016)

Figure 2.2 Kemp, Morrison and Ross's Instructional Design Model

#### D. Assessing Speaking

Due to the various criteria to be considered in speaking, it is not easy to assess it. Many teachers adopt or adapt rubrics in order to make assessment easier. Rubric also helps the teacher make sure they are giving the fairest assessment possible to their students. There are two kinds of rubrics used for assessment. They are holistic rubric and analytical rubric. The holistic rubric is evaluating or scoring overall components of communicative competencies together (Latifa et.al., 2015). In contrast with a holistic rubric which only listed criteria that teacher is going to assess, analytical rubric needs a teacher to: list criteria, group the criteria, and score each criterion before getting the final score (Wiseman, 2012; Latifa et.al., 2015). This kind of scoring, while time consuming (Wiseman, 2012), will give more insights of students' capabilities.

This study needs a more detailed assessment without prolonged time consumptions of analytical rubric. Therefore, Practical Rating Rubric of Speaking Test or in short, P2RST developed by Latifa et.al. (2015) was chosen for this study. This rubric was made because Latifa et.al. (2015) saw the need to make a rubric which is non-time consuming and practical. They combined the nature of holistic rubric which is short and practical with analytical scoring that is more detailed and developed them into P2RST. Below is the detail of P2RST rubric by Latifa et. al. (2015).

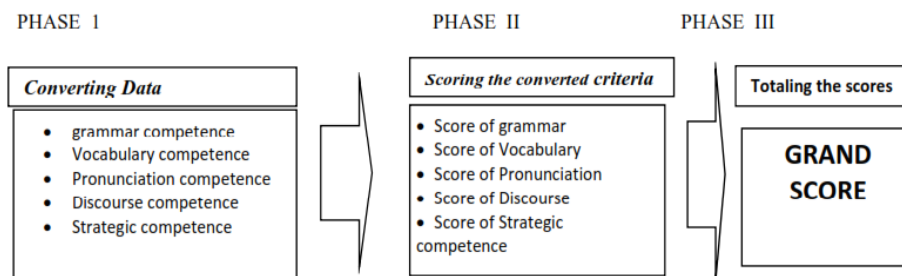


TABLE 2.1  
THE LAST REVISION OF P2RST RUBRIC

Scale	Descriptors
0	The speaker is not able to use the rule of (vocabulary competence, syntactic competence, pronunciation, discourse competence, strategic competence) on his or her utterances at all.
1	The speaker is able to perform (vocabulary competence, syntactic competence, pronunciation, discourse competence, strategic competence) ,but The speaker still makes many (approximately 57% to 75 %) ungrammatical production. The speaker only produced the related vocabulary (approximately 25% to 49%). The speaker still makes mispronunciation approximately 66-86 %. Speaker disconnected discourse (approximately 67 to 83.3% disconnected meaning) and hesitation in an utterance.
2	The speaker is able to perform (vocabulary competence, syntactic competence, pronunciation, discourse competence, strategic competence) even he or she still makes some ungrammatical production/unrelated vocabulary/mispronunciation/ disconnected discourse/ hesitation in an utterance. Even, he or she still makes some lacks of formality (approximately 50 % to 60%. The speaker only produces 38% to 50% of words and still employs a number of times to recall the words. The speaker still makes some mispronunciation (approximately 50% to 62%). The speaker still produces some unconnected utterances (approximately 50% to 66%) The speaker still has some problems to communicate his/her meaning (approximately 50%).
3	This level describes that the speaker is able to perform (vocabulary competence, syntactic competence, pronunciation, discourse competence, strategic competence) in (he or she still makes few ungrammatical productions/unrelated vocabulary/mispronunciation/disconnected discourse/hesitation in an utterance. The speaker still makes few lacks of formality (approximately 10-30%) The speaker is able to produce approximately 67-90% of related words but still employs a few times to recall the words. The speaker still makes few mispronunciations (approximately 10-33%). The speaker still makes few unconnected meanings in communication (approximately 33%). The speaker still has a problem to communicate his/her meaning (approximately 16.7%).
4	This level describes that the speaker is able to perform (vocabulary c ompetence; syntactic competence, pronunciation, discourse competence, strategic competence) with no mistakes. Seems no mistakes in grammar Speaks very fluently and seems there is no difficulty to produce words. Utter the words, phrases, sentences close to native' pronunciation The speaker has fluently uttered the language which seems there is no problem in communication.

Source: Latifa et.al. (2015)

There are three phases in P2RST rubric as illustrated in the figure below.



Source: Latifa et.al. (2015)

Figure 2.3 P2RST Scoring Mechanism

P2RST descriptors will be used to convert data and match it with the scale to give a score for each criterion. The score of each criterion will be totaled to get the grand score. Latifa et.al. (2015) separate the descriptors and the scoring phases of P2RST. The researcher will adapt the descriptors of P2RST with the criteria for speaking skill and combine them into one. An adjustment is made to ensure the assessment is appropriate to use for analyzing participant level of English. The adjustment is also intended to make the rubric easier to use. Below is the result of the adaptation;

TABLE 2.2  
ADAPTATION OF P2RST RUBRIC

Scale	Criteria	Descriptors	Highest Score
1	Content Development	Speakers are able to speak approximately 10-34 % of the content. Speaker mispronounces approximately 70 % of the time. Speaker produces approximately 10-34 % related vocabulary. Speakers are able to make connected utterances approximately 10-34%. Speaker almost always hesitates, pauses and recalls words.	6
	Pronunciation		3
	Vocabulary		3
	Coherency		6
	Performance		6
2	Content Development	Speakers are able to speak approximately 35-60 % of the content. Speaker mispronounces approximately 50 % of the time. Speaker produces approximately 35-60 % related vocabulary. Speakers are able to make connected utterances approximately 35-60%. Speaker still hesitates, pauses and recalls words.	12
	Pronunciation		6
	Vocabulary		6
	Coherency		12
	Performance		12
3	Content Development	Speakers are able to speak approximately 61-80% of the content. Speaker mispronounces approximately 30 % of the time. Speaker produces approximately 61-80 % related vocabulary. Speakers are able to make connected utterances approximately 61-80%. Speaker makes few hesitations, pauses and recalls words.	16
	Pronunciation		8
	Vocabulary		8
	Coherency		16
	Performance		16
4	Content Development	Speakers are able to speak approximately 81-100% of the content. Speaker mispronounces approximately 10 % of the time. Speaker produces approximately 81-100 % related vocabulary. Speakers are able to make connected utterances approximately 81-100%. Speaker seems to not hesitate, pause and recall words.	20
	Pronunciation		10
	Vocabulary		10
	Coherency		20
	Performance		20

### III. RESEARCH METHODS

The study is a qualitative research using ADDIE model to design the instruction. The participants of this research were semester 1 students of Teacher Training and Education Faculty of Universitas Bandar Lampung majoring in English Education. There were 53 students in the semester. They had Speaking I class once a week for 100 minutes. They did not really use English outside the classroom. This study was expected to help students develop their speaking skill. This model will hopefully engage the student in teaching-learning process, encourage them to practice, and use English outside the classroom.

The data of this research were gathered through reviewing theories, student speaking skill analysis, and observation. The analysis test will be scored using an adaptation of P2RST Rubric and counted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

### IV. DISCUSSIONS AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

#### A. Instructional Design for Speaking Skill

By following ADDIE steps for Instructional Design and theories of Contextual Learning, a possible Instructional Design Model for speaking skill is presented below.

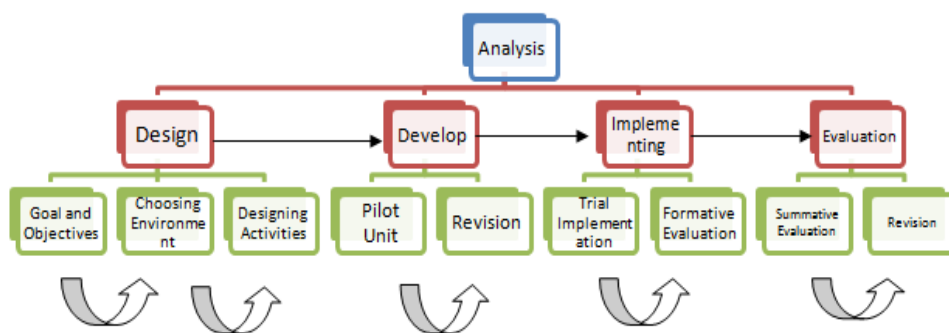


Figure 4.1 Instructional Design of Speaking Skill

In ADDIE, the steps are in sequence as illustrated in the figure below;

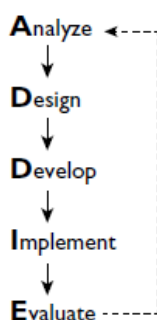


Figure 4.2 The ADDIE Model of Instructional Design (Brown and Green (2016)

In this model, every step from the design to evaluation should be based on the result of the analysis. After getting the result of the analysis, the next step is designing the teaching-learning process. There are three steps to be done in sequence; Goal and objectives (what student needs to be able to do after the whole teaching-learning process), choosing environment (in this step the teacher needs to choose what they would like to have; strict classroom learning, embedded in online learning, place-based learning, etc.) and designing activities (based on the goals and objectives formulated and environment chosen for the teaching and learning process).

After finishing the design, it should be tested to see whether the design is suitable for the target students. There needs to be a separate initial unit which needs to be tested to the student. The result of the unit will be analyzed before being revised according to the student level. When revising the design, previous steps and initial analysis results should be referred to for revision. The other alternative is to make an observation sheet when the pilot unit is commencing and seek experts from inside or outside to score the design. They will be able to give feedback on whether the initial design fits with the design objectives. They will also be able to observe and comment on students’ teaching-learning process throughout the pilot unit.

The fourth step is implementing the developed design to a limited number of the students for a longer period of time. The result from the pilot unit might be promising but the design might not be suitable for a longer length of time. Throughout the teaching-learning process, both the design and the student speaking assessment will be revised to help the student gain an optimum result in the study. Therefore, applying the design for a semester in one academic year is recommended. This will help gain a wider scope of result in the design, student reception on it and their speaking development.

Lastly, based on the implementation, there is a major evaluation in the form of summative evaluation. Based on the evaluation, there will be a revision for each step of the instructional design. If the final result cannot reach the goals and objectives of the design, there will be a major revision for each step of the design or even a complete do-over before a discussion on another implementation. If the majority of students meet the goals and objectives of the design, there might be some minor revision before the design is formally launched on a larger scale.

*B. Analysis of Student Speaking Skill*

To know the student speaking skill and level, participants received a test to measure their speaking skill.

TABLE 4.1  
LEARNER ANALYSIS SCORES

No	1. Class A	2. Class B	No	3. Class A	4. Class B
1	67	65	14	72	58
2	66	59	15	57	61
3	65	72	16	70	59
4	68	46	17	51	60
5	58	60	18	55	65
6	73	64	19	48	63
7	65	63	20	74	60
8	61	61	21	53	55
9	48	52	22	61	63
10	46	62	23	57	58
11	68	52	24	54	66
12	49	65	25	59	65
13	63	66	26	63	55
			27	71	

At glance, Class A students had a large gap of skill between students. Some students perform extremely well while others perform poorly. Class B did not have big gaps between students except for one student who scored high on the test. The Pre-Test result was calculated using SPSS independent t-test. There are two hypotheses in the research; the test shows there is significant difference between the two groups (Hi) and there is no significant difference between the groups in their speaking ability (Ho).

TABLE 4.2  
STUDENT SPEAKING ANALYSIS RESULT

Group Statistics

	Kelompok	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Nilai	1	27	60.81	8.353	1.608
	2	26	60.58	5.442	1.067

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
								Lower	Upper	
Nilai	Equal variances assumed	7.413	.009	.122	51	.903	.238	1.945	-3.666	4.142
	Equal variances not assumed			.123	44.899	.902	.238	1.930	-3.649	4.124

Based on the calculation, the result showed that both classes had a small gap of only 0.23 on their speaking ability. If the result of the statistic calculation is higher than the p- value 0.05, it means there is no significant difference between the two groups. Since the result was 0,903, there was no significant difference between the groups.

The t-value also showed there was no difference between both classes. The t-value was 0,122 and close to 0. As the p-value and t-value of the pre-test were 0,903 and 0,122 respectively, it could be concluded that there were no significant differences between the two classes in their speaking ability.

The following charts show a more detailed result of students from the tests carried out. The indicators used for scoring are taken from the P2RST. They are content development, pronunciation, performance, coherence, and vocabulary. In the test the students were given a topic they were familiar with and asked to speak for 2-3 minutes.

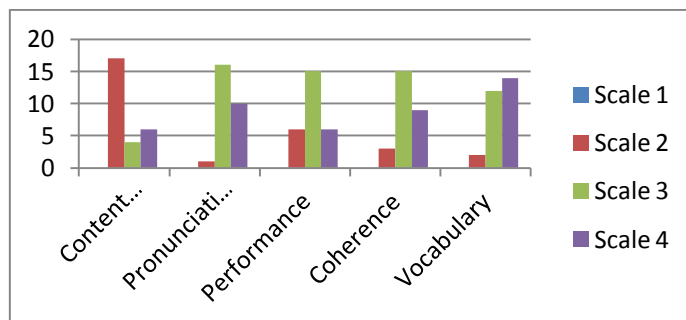


Chart 4.3 Class A Learner Analysis Based on P2RST Descriptors

It could be seen from the test result that none of the students was on scale 1. Class A consisted of 27 students and more than a half of them struggled on the content development. They were familiar with the topic because they had learned about it or had encountered it somewhere but they were still unable to elaborate it. The number of students encountered difficulty was one in pronunciation, two in vocabulary, three in coherence and six in performance. The rest of the student did not have problems in the indicators listed and had great vocabulary range.

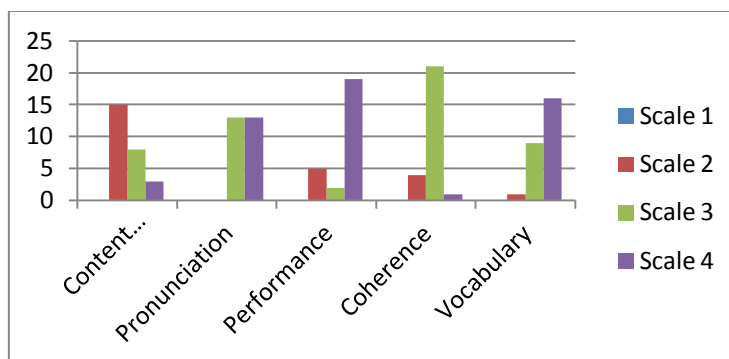


Chart 4.4 Class B Learner Analysis Based on P2RST Descriptors

Class B contained 26 students. In this class the students had the same problem as those of the class A in content development as more than half them was on scale 2. Unlike class A, this class did not have a problem at all in pronunciation. The number of students at scale 3 and 4 were similar. Five students had problem in performance, four in coherence, and only one in vocabulary. While it was not necessarily a problem, there was only one student with great coherence. In the previous class there were 9 students who had great coherence. However, this class was superior in terms of performance compared to class A students. The design should be made in order for all students able to not only develop on their weakness but also strengthen their already acquired skill. Since both classes had problems with content development and performance, the design was more focused on these skills.

C. Design of Instruction

Goal and Objectives of Design

In the design, the goal and objective are very important to ensure first-year undergraduate students are able to develop their speaking skill. Below is the table detailing the goal and objectives of the instructional design based on the analysis result and in reference to the P2RST rubric.

TABLE 4.5  
INSTRUCTIONAL GOAL AND OBJECTIVES

Instructional Goal	Students are able to develop their speaking skill.
Instructional Objectives	Students are able to expand their knowledge to respond to various topics.
	Students are able to pronounce sentences correctly.
	Students are able to retain and retrieve vocabularies learned in conversations.
	Students are able to speak in sequence and on topic.
	Students are able to speak confidently and fluently.

For the first year of undergraduate study in Universitas Bandar Lampung, the students learn an upgraded version of topics they have already learned in their previous education. For example, they will learn again how to introduce themselves by speaking their complete biography. They will talk about their big extended family instead of their small family. They will learn how to describe things and persons in details instead of in a few sentences, etc.

Choosing Environment

Due to time constraint in speaking class where students learned 90 minutes per meeting in big class, LMS learning is chosen as an embedded content to facilitate student learning outside classroom situation. LMS Schoology which can be

assessed from [www.schoolology.com](http://www.schoolology.com) is considered because of its similar setting as Facebook. This makes the students more familiar in navigating the site (Maning et.al., 2011). The Schoology has three main features; Courses, Groups, and Resources. 'Courses' is a place for students to learn. 'Groups' is a place for the student to interact with each other and 'Recourses' is a place where the content of the lesson is compiled. Using Schoology LMS is hoped to expand their knowledge about the topic. In the end, the student will be able to speak in various topics and connect the knowledge with related topics easily.

Besides using Schoology to facilitate learning, the students will also learn outside the classroom (place-based learning) by performing their speaking in real life situation. For example, when they learn how to describe a place, the student will go to the place and record a video of the place. They will talk about their chosen place throughout the video based on the length of video instructed in the task. Similarly, when they are tasked to give direction to someone, they could do role play with their friend or partner of the task. Then, they can ask someone to record their interactions. This activity will also boost their performance skill which is one of the big problems in both classes. Both Schoology and place-based learning allow the students to cooperate and make inquiries to their friends and teacher online which reflect contextual learning.

#### **Designing Activity**

The activity will be designed in Schoology Resource feature. The content of the lesson is planned to elicit students to speak more. Since the students have difficulties in expanding their topics in speaking thus making them perform poorly, the activities will emphasize heavily on speaking in various common topics before moving forward to weightier topics like political issues or educational trends.

In the classroom, students will learn by answering inquiries from the teacher, learning in groups with their friends and having a role play about the topic learned. Outside, they will learn from LMS Schoology to expand their knowledge about the topic they learned. The classroom activity emphasizes the speaking practice while the activity in Schoology will focus on how to make the student absorb information and retain it for a long time. After learning a topic, the students are expected to make a video of their using the topic in real life situation.

#### *D. Developing Instructional Design*

The design is developed based on the result of the pilot unit. Depending on its success, the design will be developed to be similar to the pilot unit or completely different from it. This step will continue until the most suitable design for the student is found.

#### *E. Implementation*

The design is planned to be implemented for the first year of undergraduate study of Teacher Training and English Education of Universitas Bandar Lampung for a semester. Throughout the implementation, there will be formative evaluation. Formative evaluation is a small scale evaluation held to solve small and immediate problems occurred in the implementation process. It is also used to revise any content of study and learning process in order to optimize student learning experience. (Brown and Green, 2016).

#### *F. Evaluation*

After the implementation in the semester, the design will be reviewed using the summative evaluation to know whether the major goal of the study is achieved and the effectiveness of using the design. Below is the illustration of both formative and summative evaluation from from Fizpatrick, Sanders, and Worthen (2004) as cited by Brown and Green (2016) that will be used as guidelines for the evaluation.

Criterion	Formative Evaluation	Summative Evaluation
Purpose	To determine value or quality	To determine value or quality
Use	To improve a program or instruction	To make decisions about the instruction's future or adoption
Audience	Program administrators and staff	Program administrators and/or potential consumer or funding agency
By Whom	Primarily internal evaluators, supported by external evaluators	External evaluators, supported by internal evaluators in unique cases
Major Characteristics	Provides feedback so program personnel can improve it	Provides information to enable program personnel to decide whether to continue it, or consumers to adopt it
Design Constraints	What information is needed? When?	What evidence is needed for major decisions?
Purpose of Data Collection	Diagnostic	Judgmental
Measures	Sometimes Informal	Valid and Reliable
Frequency of Data Collection	Frequent	Infrequent
Sample Size	Often Small	Usually Large
Questions Asked	What is working? What needs to be improved? How can it be improved	What results occur? With whom? Under what conditions? With what cost?

Source; Brown and Green (2016)  
 Figure 4.1 Difference of Formative and Summative Evaluation

Based on the table above, formative evaluation is suitable to be held in the implementation step because doing it the value and quality of the design could be known. The feedbacks from this evaluation could be used to improve the design. This evaluation could be done frequently with small samples. Problems in the design will be detected faster so solution could be delivered swiftly in this evaluation. The methods of measurement do not have to be formal so it is easier to carry out. However, in the design of evaluation step, it is recommended to use summative evaluation.

The reason of doing summative evaluation might be the same as that of formative evaluation but, when formative evaluation seeks to improve the design, summative evaluation wants to seek whether the design should be continued or cancelled. The feedbacks in this evaluation mostly came from outside experts ensuring more objective answers. The evaluation is in a large scale with bigger samples. From this evaluation, some problems which could not be seen due to formative evaluation limited sample which might be a major problem for the design could be encountered and started to be addressed. The measurement used in summative evaluation needs to be made as valid and reliable as possible unlike in formative evaluation which adopts flexible measurement. This nature of summative evaluation will minimize the error in the evaluation result.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The instructional model of this study is created to develop the first year of undergraduate study students of Teacher Training and English Education Faculty of Universitas Bandar Lampung. The model is designed to counter the weakness of first-year students in content development and performance in the speaking class without leaving out other assessed aspects in the speaking skill. Contextual learning is chosen because it allows the students to not only learn about knowledge in the classroom but also practice the knowledge which makes them able to grasp the lesson better and enable them to retain the knowledge to use in the future. ADDIE model is chosen as the guideline of the model. The result of the previous step in the design will influence how to proceed to the next step. The instructional design has not been tested. It has limited usability (as it is made for developing speaking skill) and scale (it is only in the first year of undergraduate study). Further study to expand the model into a different skill or on a bigger scale is also possible.

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# A CLEC-based Study on the Spatial Metaphor of HIGH Collocations

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**Abstract**—Metaphor is conceived as understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another. Metaphor is pervasive not just in language, but also in our thoughts and actions. The conceptual system is metaphoric in nature. Previous studies on metaphor are done through linguistic researchers' intuitive analysis. Few quantitative studies have been done to metaphor from corpus and the perspective of learners in second or foreign language learning. This paper, based on CLEC corpus, attempts to explore the relationship between spatial metaphor and second language acquisition and learning. Using 'HIGH' as a spatial measurement adjective, the paper hopes to understand different types of metaphorical collocations of HIGH in CLEC—a Chinese EFL learners' corpus, and to indicate the relationship of metaphor output ability with learners' language proficiency. The studies have demonstrated eight types of HIGH collocations from Chinese EFL learners and the metaphor output ability is directly related to the learners' language proficiency.

**Index Terms**—metaphor, conceptual metaphor theory, spatial metaphor, CLEC, HIGH collocations

## I. INTRODUCTION

Metaphor is usually defined as “a figure of speech that, for rhetorical effect, directly refers to one thing by mentioning another” (<http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/metaphor>). In other words, for most people, metaphor is an extraordinary rather than ordinary language in that it is a rhetorical device with the poetic imagination (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003), so metaphor can be treated as a language alone, which has no connection with thought and action. However, Lakoff & Johnson (2003) believe that metaphor inherently exists in the conceptual system depicted through language, thought and action. Such a statement has thus greatly changed metaphor from its language level to a conceptual level and the birth of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff, 1993) has broadened the studies in cognitive linguistics.

In metaphor research, most studies on metaphor are conducted based on researchers' intuitive analysis, and few quantitative studies have been done to understand how EFL learners are using metaphor in actual uses. In 1990s corpus was introduced into metaphoric studies (Xue&Xiang, 2018) and was widely accepted as scientific by its huge amount of data and convenient information extraction. Therefore, corpus-based metaphorical studies (CBMS) were booming in the past several years. Until now, basing on corpora, some researchers have studied interlingual and Orientational Metaphor, like “UP” and “DOWN”(Liu & Liu, 2006); interlingual and structural metaphor, like “grammar structure” (Wang, 2009); and there were also some works concerning about interlingual and Ontological Metaphor (Gong & Zhou, 2009).

Some studies (Xu, 2014) have shown that a good understanding of metaphor may promote second language acquisition. This paper, through investigating CLEC corpus on Chinese EFL learners' uses of HIGH in different collocations, attempts to understand the learners' metaphor output abilities in spatial metaphor and explore from quantitative and qualitative aspects the uses of different collocations with HIGH.

This body of the paper unfolds in 4 parts. In the first part, the definition of Conceptual Metaphor Theory is introduced. In the second part, an analytic review is done on the development of CBMS; in the third part, CLEC corpus is used to explore the relationship between spatial metaphor and second language acquisition and learning. The research questions, the methods, and the criteria for the study of HIGH collocations are included in this part; in the fourth part, the results of the study are displayed and discussed.

## II. UNDERSTANDING CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR THEORY (CMT)

According to Lakoff and Johnson (2003, p.5), “the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another”. They further assert that the conceptual system, which structures what one thinks, what one acts and relates to other people, is metaphoric in nature (2003). However, what should be treated with caution, according to Lakoff and Johnson(2003), is that one may sometimes think and act somewhat automatically along some patterns and such patterns are not quite obvious in terms of the conceptual system. Therefore, language, sharing the same conceptual system with thought and action, can be employed as an important source of evidence to understand the

conceptual system.

In accordance with CMT (Lakoff & Johnson, *ibid.*), metaphor can be classified into three parts: Structural Metaphor, Orientational Metaphor and Ontological Metaphor.

Structure Metaphor is one that is metaphorically structured in terms of another (Lakoff & Johnson, *ibid.*). In the sentence of ARGUMENT IS WAR, the concept ARGUMENT can be referred to as a situation in which two or more people strongly disagree with each other. And WAR occurs when there is fighting between two or more countries or between opposing groups within a country, involving a large number of soldiers and weapons. So through mapping, that is, when we map WAR into the ARGUMENT, we are aware that participants are in different groups, who defend their own opinions and the argument result could be either to win or to lose.

Ontological Metaphor contained two parts: Container Metaphor and Entity and Substance Metaphor. In Container Metaphor, the surface is equal to the target domain and its content means source domain. Lakoff and Johnson (*ibid.*) claim that the content is highlighted with respect to its amount, density, centrality, and boundaries. Entity and Substance Metaphor usually regard abstract ideas as entity, so Entity and Substance Metaphor can fulfill the following purposes: referring, quantifying, identifying aspects, identifying causes, setting goals and motivating actions (Lakoff & Johnson, *ibid.*). For example, the sentence LIFE IS A JOURNEY is a typical Container Metaphor. Another typical example is RAISING PRICE. Generally, only physical things can be moved or lifted to a higher position or level. PRICE cannot be seen, nor can it be touched. It is an abstract concept. By RAISING PRICE, people can consciously compare the former and the current price, then find out the reason of raising, and take some actions.

Orientational Metaphor organizes a whole system of concepts with respect to one another (Lakoff & Johnson, *ibid.*). Based on Orientational Metaphors, a concept of Spatial orientation emerges, which refers to using physical direction to organize another concept, like, UP/DOWN, HIGH/LOW, and so on. Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p. 15) have used spatial metaphor to explain how UP and DOWN have organized another concept. In the concept of HAPPY IS UP; SAD IS DOWN, such expression as "I'm feeling up; That boosted my spirits; My spirits rose; You're in high spirits" are often used to express the happy feelings. In our daily life, an erecting posture generally indicates a positive emotional state. With such an image map adding to human's emotion, positive words are related to happy and bright feelings. On the contrary, when people say "I'm feeling down; I'm depressed; He's really low these days; I fell into a depression; My spirits sank", (*ibid.*) the downward words are used to express the sadness as drooping postures typically go along with sadness and depression. Besides, CMT has included many other interesting Spatial Metaphor hypothesis, like such sentences as: MORE IS UP, LESS IS DOWN; GOOD IS UP, BAD IS DOWN; HIGH STATUS IS UP, LOW IS DOWN; HEALTH AND LIFE ARE UP, SICKNESS AND DEARTH ARE DOWN, and so on.

Lakoff and Johnson's Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) (2003) recognizes five tenets of conceptual, that is, 1) Metaphors structure thinking; 2) Metaphors structure knowledge; 3) Metaphor is central to abstract language; 4) Metaphor is grounded in physical experience; and 5) Metaphor is ideological.

### III. THE DEVELOPMENT OF CORPUS-BASED METAPHOR STUDIES (CMBS)

Corpus has promoted the development of linguistics and formed a new linguistic branch, corpus linguistics. As a relatively scientific research tool, it was booming in 1980s. According to Alice (2005), corpus was a collection of linguistic data held in machine-readable form. And Wang (2012) defined it more comprehensively as real and authentic materials in a large scale, being stored in and supported by computer technology, following linguistic rules.

Corpus, in addition to the significant storage capacity of huge amounts of message, can perform retrieval with the aid of computer technology. So far researchers have built up various corpus databases to meet different research objects, like the earliest corpora Brown corpus, constantly updated; the large scale English native speakers' corpus, such as BNC and COCA (researched and developed by Lancaster University); Chinese native speakers' corpus CCL; Corpus of specific purpose: Yang's Corpus-based Analysis of Chinese Learner English (CLEC); Wen and Wang's Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners (SWECCCL), and so on. Corpus development, together with the development of studies from other linguistic fields, has increased human understanding of language.

Corpus has also boosted the studies of metaphor. Since previous studies of metaphor are based on researchers' intuitive analysis on language, CMT studies, via a corpus-based approach, has proved correctness of CMT with corpus (Wu, Zhang, et. al. 2016) and shed new light on the empirical and social aspects of cognitive linguistics (Sun, 2012). In addition, the combination of the two can provide a quantitative approach to study EFL learners' metaphor use. Wang (2015) studies Chinese EFL learners' verb collocations and has found that L1 may have a negative transfer to L2's noun and verb acquisition. Chen (2018) comes to a similar conclusion in her study and she further points out that Chinese EFL learners' metaphor use is limited in type and quantity. Besides, Shi and Tang (2018) have also found that in terms of high frequency metaphor, Chinese EFL learners have displayed similar performances as those of native speakers; but they are low in frequency of using metaphor. Besides, filtrated methods have also enriched corpus studies, for example, by Antconc, Wordsmith, Wmatrix as well as the development of CMT and SLA.

Up to now, previous studies on spatial metaphor have made some achievements, but only a few of them focus on High and its collocations. After studying BNC corpus, Zhou and Zhang (2003) found that HIGH and LOW mainly had five target domains: quantity, hierarchy, condition, sense and time. By studying the entitative collocation of HIGH in English and Chinese, Chen (2010) found that the collocation of HIGH had many common points in the field of high

frequency collocations, but it had great differences in marginal collocations. Similarly, Liu (2012) found that Chinese and English had many common points in the aspect of HIGH collocation, but the culture, history and cognition contribute to the differences in creating the collocations. Those studies have promoted the understanding on HIGH and its metaphors. As there are only a few researches, the metaphorical study on HIGH and its collocation is still very necessary.

#### IV. A CLEC- CORPUS STUDY ON HIGH COLLOCATIONS

Corpus-based metaphor studies in the field of foreign language teaching not only can increase the understanding of the quantity and quality of metaphor use from Chinese ESL learners, but also can help the learners to raise their awareness in building up a well-designed metaphorical system in English language learning, thus improving their language proficiency.

According to Wienold and Rohmer (1997), the relationship within spatial measurement adjectives is that size < length < distance < depth < height. In this study, the author of this paper takes HIGH\* as an example to investigate two questions:

- 1) In Chinese EFL learners' corpus, how many metaphorical types of HIGH are there?
- 2) Is metaphor output ability closely related to their current language proficiency?

##### A. *The Instrument of the Study*

Corpus-based Analysis of Chinese Learner English (shortened as CLEC)(Yang, Gui & Yang 2005), is one of the earliest learners' writing test corpora to study Chinese EFL learners' English learning. It contains five sub-corpora: St2 collects high school students' composition; St3 is the composition of College English Test Band 4(CET4); St4 is the writing test of texts of College English Test Band 6(CET6); St5 contains daily compositions of freshman and sophomore English-major students. And writers in St6 are better at English as they are junior and senior English- major students. The corpus totally has a million words, and each sub-corpus has 200 thousand words.

Although CLEC is famous for its authentic materials, various topics, clear classifications and huge amount of storage capacity (Yang, 2005), it is only a huge database. To deal with the corpus, the author has chosen Antconc, developed by Laurence Anthony (2011) to analyze and study monolingual data, as the retrieval tool. Antconc is chosen because it has many functions, like Concordance, Concordance Plot, File View, Clusters, N-Gram, Collocate, Word List and Keyword List. It is a simple but efficient tool.

Metaphor recognition is a key issue in corpus-based metaphor research and some standard recognition criteria are important.

Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) was firstly proposed by Pragglejaz Group (2007). Therewith, this group has updated the criteria and developed Metaphor Identification Procedure & Vehicle Identification procedure(MIPVU). The two procedures agree that a metaphor is generated when its basic meaning is different from its contextual meaning. This paper has chosen MIP as the criteria.

According to Pragglejaz Group (2007), the MIP works in four steps.

First, any lexical unit in a text is examined based on the context, that is, what comes before and after the lexical unit; second, other meanings of the lexical unit should be found in other contexts, e.g. from the dictionaries. The criteria for the basic meanings are that they are not necessarily the most frequent meanings of the lexical unit; they can be more concrete [what they evoke is easier to imagine, see, hear, feel, smell, and taste], related to bodily action, more precise (as opposed to vague), and historically older. Third, if the lexical unit has more basic meanings in other contexts than the given context, we should decide whether the contextual meaning of the lexical unit is different. If there is any difference, the fourth step is to mark the lexical unit as metaphorical.

##### B. *The Research Procedure*

This paper takes CLEC as the target corpus and Antconc as the retrieval tool, following MIP to resolve two research questions: Chinese EFL learners' metaphorical production and the relevance between the production and their actual language proficiency.

To solve Question 1, this paper has adopted the following four steps. First, uploading the whole CLEC to Antconc and making a retrieval of "high\*" (\* means high and its variants), and cloning the retrieval data to the Microsoft Program of Excel. Next, following MIP to cancel original meaning and picking out metaphor collocates, which appear at least ten times. Then, according to their metaphorical meaning, dividing them into different groups and tabulating the collected data into Table 1. At last, drawing conclusions of Question 1 through the table.

And to answer Question 2, the author has used the filtration function of Excel to reprocess Table 1 by separating it according to sub-corpus and set up each one's own list to make comparisons. Typical expressions are picked out to answer the question.

#### V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Studies (Xu, 2014) have shown that a good understanding of metaphor can help students develop and acquire the conceptual thinking and action through the learning of the target language. This paper has taken HIGH and its

collocations as an entry point, analyzing the writing tasks in CLEC and then studying them from the perspective of Spatial Metaphor. This paper has found that Chinese EFL learners are equipped with the metaphor output ability.

#### A. *Understanding Varieties of Metaphorical Types of HIGH in Chinese EFL Learners' Corpus*

Table 1 is the results of Question 1. It can be found that there are nine types of metaphor of HIGH and its collocations. Sorted from more to less, they are: quantity, hierarchy, quality, speed, time, degree, emotion, and sense. Each type has no less than two subsets, besides emotion. Table 1 only displays high frequency metaphorical meaning, and the low frequency collocations, the collocations which are less than 10 are not taken into account.

To clearly explain those metaphorical meanings, the author randomly picks out 16 typical examples (the sequence number of each example is corresponding to the sequence number in Table 1):

E.g.

1. If a man or woman gets a high salary, he or she will lead a comfortable life. (St6) (number)

2. Now I have graduated from the college. I get high scores in all my subjects, especially in English. (St5) (rate)

The principle of QUANTITY metaphor (Example 1 and Example 2) is that HIGH means more while LOW means less. It is oriented from learners' experience of height. If a children(A) is 150cm and his friend(B) is 160cm, B is taller than A from the visual comparison. And such experience is mapped into learners' cognition that 160cm is higher than 150 cm. Whether in number or rate, SALARY or SCORE, can be represented with number in certain condition, and if a number is more than another, students think it is higher. Therefore, HIGH means more in this situation.

3. All modern wars need high technology, and high technology needs professional soldiers. (St6)(advanced)

4. But if you are in a higher position, and I could do more skillful job (St 6).(status)

The HIERARCHY metaphor is quite similar to Lakoff and Johnson's view (2003) that HIGH STATUS IS UP; LOW STATUS IS DOWN. And such metaphor can be explained from learners' knowledge of social class. In slavery society and feudal society, people were divided into several classes.

While a triangle can be used to explain such relationship among people, the author of this paper is more inclined to employ the concept of mountain. Upper class is considered similar to the top of the mountain. They are built over the underclass. At the same time, they enjoy more priorities than the underclass. With such experience mapped into people's mind, people have also classified matters into different classes. That is, after dividing the same things into different classes, if one of them is quite excellent, he enjoys a higher rank. And in Example 3 and Example 4, HIGH TECHNOLOGY and HIGH STATUS are working in this way.

5. In a highly developed city to find a good job is very difficult. (St4) (well)

6. The people's living standards are higher and higher. (comfortable)

The principle of QUALITY metaphor can be explained by Lan's statement of physical health. Lan (1999) claims that HIGH is closely connected with the physical health, because healthy people could stand straightly and feel comfortable, while unhealthy people would usually lie down on the bed or even died. Therefore, people have formed an image that being good or comfortable is HIGH. And that's why in Example 5 and Example 6, learners describe good things and comfortable feelings as HIGH.

7. So, the combat effectiveness will not be high and their will to fight will not be firm. (efficiency)

8. China is developing in a high speed. (quick)

The SPEED metaphor means that rapidity equals to HIGH. Such mapping can be traced back to ancient China. At that time, tools were simple and rare. And stature could be a favorable factor. Generally speaking, a tall person could do more things than short ones. For example, if a tall person and a short person go out to find food, there is no doubt that the taller ones can pick up fruit in higher place and harvest more food at the same time. So learners map such images into speed. If one thing is quick or efficient, we'd like to describe as HIGH, just like the Example 7 and Example 9.

9. It is high time for us to deal with this problem. (st4),(top)

10. The body is strong, so the life expectancy is high(St3) (long)

Besides the mapping which comes from human experience, natural experience can also influence our concept. A typical example is that the solar activity has greatly shaped the TIME metaphor. In ancient time, light was a very important resource for people to do housework or farm work. Their life was greatly affected by the sun. Without advanced technology and science, ancient people had such misunderstanding that in the morning, the sun was the highest, because the temperature was lower than the noon. Such situation was suitable to do housework or farm work. That's why people use high time to express a thing that is urgent to do. However, in Example 11, learners' usage of LIFE EXPECTANCY IS HIGH is transferred from Chinese way of thinking "gaoshou", which refers to a phenomenon that a person lives quite a long life. After searching in COCA, the author found that the co-occurrence of LIFE EXPECTANCY and HIGH's frequency is only ten times. And native speakers usually use INCREASE to describe such phenomenon. The relationship between language and cultural norms has indicated that metaphorical thinking is also greatly influenced by people's cultural background.

Table 1 HIGH and its collocations' metaphor types in CLEC

Types	Metaphorical meaning	Typical examples	Percentage
quantity	1. number	e.g. high score/salary	35.14%
	2. rate	e.g. high infant mortality	
hierarchy	3. advanced	e.g. high technology/education	27.82%
	4. status	e.g. high social position	
quality	5. Well/good	e.g. high developed city/ high intelligence	10.33%
	6. comfortable	e.g. high living condition	
speed	7. efficiency	e.g. the combat effectiveness	9.70%
	8. quick	e.g. economy increase in high speed	
time	9. top	e.g. high time to deal with the important social problem	5.09%
	10. long	e.g. higher life expectancy	
degree	11. big	e.g. high pressure	3.97%
	12. Heavy/important	e.g. think highly of	
emotion	13. happy	e.g. high spirit	2.70%
sense	14. touch	e.g. high temperature	2.38%
	15. hear	e.g. sing highly	

11. People live in high pressure(St5). (big)

12. The problem is that they think too highly of the society. (St6)(heavy)

The formation of DEGREE metaphor can be explained from people's recognition about big objects. Take a square block of wood as an example. With the same length and width, the higher one must be larger in volume. Such imagination was mapping to abstract matters. If people think an abstract matter that is difficult, hard, and important, they may form an image of a high object, just like Example 11 and Example 12.

13. and we are all in high spirits. (St2) (happy)

When we explain the EMOTION metaphor, Lakoff and Johnson's theory (2003) is very helpful. They claimed that drooping posture typically goes along with sadness and depression, while an erecting posture goes with a positive emotional state. When a person is happy, he may hold his head high and his mouth is upward.

14. If you throw the frog into the water with high temperature, the frog will jump at once(St4). (touch)

15. But they didn't say that couldn't see the cloth and sing highly praise for the cloth. (hearing)

The SENSOR metaphor in CLEC mainly contains two types: HEARING and TOUCH. Zhou and Zhang (2003) have also paid attention to this phenomenon and they think the sound BIG or SMALL is determined by people's figures. A taller person usually is stronger and can phonate loudly, which can be used to explain Example 15. The reason of high temperature is indirectly mapping from quantity. The hotter it is, the bigger is the number in the thermometer. When people feel hot, they are consciously aware that the temperature number is increased.

*B. Understanding the Relationship between Metaphor Output Ability and the learners' Language Proficiency*

This paper has also found that language proficiency is closely related to metaphor output ability. English major and higher level students are equipped with more metaphorical expressions with HIGH. From Table 1, QUANTITY is the most frequently used metaphor of HIGH, so the author will further explore its collocations by analyzing their subsets.

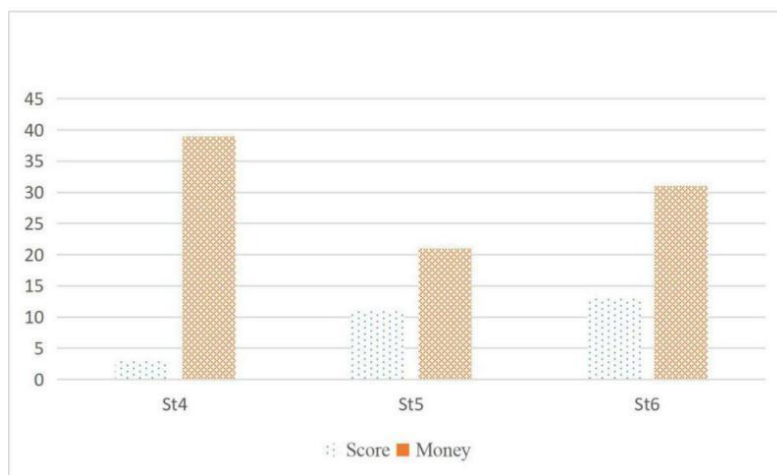


Figure 1 The usage of score and money with HIGH in ST 4-6

In the concept of number (Figure 1), there are two major topics: money and score. It is because people's experience can greatly affect their thinking methods and their topic selections. Score is a common topic in all these five sub-corpus, and it is more common in middle and low level students' compositions. However, university students, especially those with high grades, are under more pressure from their future careers. Among St4, St5 and St6, money is more frequently used.

From Table 2, we can draw the conclusion that whether in incoming or outgoing aspects, the used expressions of ST6 are more than ST4 and ST5. As St4 refers to junior and senior non-English majors, St5 freshman and sophomore of English-major students, and St6 junior and senior English majors, the language proficiency ST6 is higher than ST4 and ST5, which corresponds to the results—metaphor output ability is directly relevant to the learners' proficiency.

Table 2: the expressions of MONEY in ST 4-6

level	Expression of money
ST4	Incoming: high profit; high income; charge high; high reward; high pay; high earning; high salary; high expenses; high wages Outgoing: high cost; pay high money; high price
ST5	Incoming: high cost; high income; high-paid job; high salary; high payment; Outgoing: high price; high tuition and expenses
ST6	Incoming: high paid job; high pay; high income; high payment; high salary; high award; high profit; Outgoing: high cost; high medical expenditure; high expenses; high medicine fees

The result of this paper is quite similar to the study from Zhou and Zhang (2003), who studied HIGH and LOW by studying BNC, a large scale native English speaker corpus. They divided their results into five types (from more to less): quantity, hierarchy, condition (emotion & quality), sense (hearing, smell, visual) and time. As their paper studied two dimensions, the author has picked out some relevance information and data, and tabulated a new table (Table 3). Both of this paper and Zhou and Zhang's result (2003) showed that from HIGH collocations used by Chinese EFL learners and English native speakers, quantity, hierarchy, and quality have shown high-frequency in Spatial Metaphor.

Certainly there are some differences in the two studies in that that Chinese EFL learners have frequently used TIME metaphor of HIGH, but they seldom use SENSE metaphor. However, native English speakers are just the reverse. It proved Lakoff and Johnson's opinion(2003:20) that "our physical and cultural experience provides many possible bases for spatialization metaphors. Which ones are chosen, and which ones are major, may vary from culture to culture". The study has confirmed that cultural perception, as an important part in conceptual system, may have positive or negative impact in the interlanguage phase in Chinese English Speakers.

TABLE 3  
THE METAPHOR STUDY OF HIGH IN BNC (FROM ZHOU AND ZHANG, 2003)

Types	Metaphor	Percentage
quantity	Number	20.0%
	Degree or density	26.1%
hierarchy	Social status	5.5%
	General hierarchy	11.7%
Condition	Quality	8.4%
	Emotion	3.5%
sense	listening	1.9%
	smelling	0.1%
	Visual sense	0.1%
Time		1.1%

## VI. CONCLUSION

This paper, through CLEC corpus, has studied the Spatial Metaphor of HIGH collocations from Chinese EFL learners. Incorporating Lakoff and Johnson (2003)'s Spatial Metaphor theory, this study has shown that Chinese EFL learners have used eight types of metaphors with HIGH and its collocates in their writing, and the metaphoric expressions are closely related to the learners' language proficiency. The higher the learners' English proficiency is, the more metaphors the learners can produce. In addition, the results have also demonstrated the existence of interlanguage in Chinese EFL learners' English learning. The examples from CLEC-corpus have indicated that Chinese conceptual system may have some positive or negative influence on learners' English metaphor expressions. In fact, if two languages share some similar conceptual ideas, Chinese EFL learners' metaphor expressions are understandable; otherwise, the HIGH collocations may carry some Chinglish elements and may be confusing to English native speakers.

Therefore, in the future, more studies on metaphor uses from EFL learners should be done so that the research findings can be integrated to language teaching to raise learners' awareness of the different conceptual systems of different languages.

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# A Survey and Analysis of Mobile Learning of Local Undergraduate College Students\*

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**Abstract**—Mobile learning is a new learning mode with the increasing popularity of multimedia technology and Internet application. It not only emphasizes the learner's subjective status and initiative, but also helps learners construct meanings through various forms of interaction (Qiu,2019). This paper investigates the basic situation of students' mobile learning based on smart phones in local colleges and universities by means of questionnaire survey and interview. It also analyses the main problems and reasons of students' mobile learning based on smart phones in local colleges and universities, and explores relevant countermeasures and suggestions.

**Index Terms**—local undergraduate colleges, mobile learning, survey

## I. INTRODUCTION

Since March 2015, when Premier Li Keqiang put forward the "Internet +" action plan at the third session of the Twelfth National People's Congress, "Internet +" has rapidly become a hot word. The mixed teaching mode and multi-element interactive learning environment supported by modern information technology, such as Internet and intelligent equipment, are the inevitable trend of foreign language education reform in Colleges and universities. (Zhai Shujie, 2017)

In the latest edition of College English Teaching Guidelines (2017) issued by the Ministry of Education, it is clearly pointed out that in the Internet era, the use of modern teaching methods should actively adapt to the learning characteristics and learning styles of college students in the new era, and pay close attention to the latest development of mobile learning theory. Conditional colleges and universities can design and construct "mobile English learning platform". Therefore, mobile learning is "mutual". The development direction of foreign language education in Colleges and universities in the era of Internet plus.

## II. DEFINITION OF CORE CONCEPTS

The "Wireless Andrew" research project launched in 1994 was the first mobile learning research project in the world. After the project was launched, the global mobile learning research project was launched. It was not until 2000 that mobile learning was introduced to China by Dr. Kiegen. After nearly ten years of research and development, China's mobile learning research has made unprecedented development. Mobile learning (M-Learning) is a new type of digital learning mode which combines the development of mobile technology and digital learning technology. In Europe and the United States, M-Learning or M-Education is generally referred to, and in China mobile learning or mobile education is generally described(Qiu,2019).

At present, there are different understandings about the definition of mobile learning from different perspectives, which can be roughly divided into three categories: first, mobile learning as a new form of distance education; second, mobile learning as an extension of e-learning; third, from the perspective of cognitive learning, mobile and situational characteristics of mobile learning make it a brand-new one. Technology and learning style. Mobile learning is a new form of learning that uses wireless mobile communication network technology and wireless mobile communication equipment (such as mobile phone, PDA, Pocket PC, etc.) to obtain educational information, educational resources and educational services. Compared with other forms of learning, mobile learning has the characteristics of convenient learning, individualized teaching, rich interaction and context relevance (Ye Chenglin et al., 2004). In Finland, mobile learning is defined as a new way of learning using mobile devices because of the increasing demand for geospatial mobility and flexible learning, which is co-sponsored by Ericsson, Insite, Telenor Mobile and IT Fornebu Knowation (Qiu,2019).

To sum up, we can generalize the definition of mobile learning as follows: mobile learning is an extension of digital learning, which means that learners can obtain information, resources and carry out learning anytime and anywhere

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\* Fund projects: Shandong Social Sciences Planning Research Project "Analysis and Mechanism of College Students' English Mobile Learning Adaptation from the Perspective of Dynamic System Theory" (17CWZJ16), "A Study on the Development Model of College Freshmen's English Learning Adaptation from the Dynamic Perspective"(16CWZJ08); Shandong Education Science Planning Project "Application of Mobile Micro learning Based on Mobile Phone Terminal in College English Teaching" (BCGW2017011); Taishan University Teaching Reform Project "Research on the Reform and Practice of College English Teaching Guided by the Output-oriented Approach" (201846)

with the help of miniaturized mobile computing devices and mobile interconnection technology (Qiu, 2019).

### III. REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH STATUS AT HOME AND ABROAD

#### A. *Mobile Learning*

Mobile learning is a new learning mode with the increasing popularity of multimedia technology and Internet application. It not only emphasizes the learner's subjective status and initiative, but also helps learners construct meanings through various forms of interaction. In view of the important role of mobile learning for learners, the academic community has also discussed mobile learning of English. Domestic research on English mobile learning mainly focuses on the following five categories: the first is the theoretical model of English mobile learning, which involves the construction and exploration of mobile English teaching or learning mode. The second category is the research of mobile English learning technology, which mainly focuses on the design and development of mobile English learning system. The third category is the research on the construction of English mobile learning resources, including the design and application of mobile learning resource packages, and the exploration of the integration of information technology or assisted mobile digital learning resource system with English curriculum. The fourth category is the practical study of English mobile learning, which aims to focus on the application and Empirical Study of mobile learning in English language competence training, including the empirical study of English listening, speaking and writing teaching and the application of vocabulary learning. The fifth category is the survey of the current situation of English mobile learning, aiming at investigating and analyzing the current situation of college students' English mobile learning, putting forward improvement strategies to improve the efficiency of mobile learning, and providing reference for future research (Qiu, 2019).

The classification of English mobile learning research abroad is similar to that in China. It mainly involves the exploration of theoretical models or methods, the technical research of improving English vocabulary level and overall language level, the practical research of improving learners' English listening and writing skills and two or more skills, as well as the exploration of the use of English Mobile Learning strategies(Qiu,2019).

#### B. *Survey and Research on the Current Situation of Mobile Learning*

Wu Beibei (2012) conducts a questionnaire survey on College Students' mobile learning, statistics and analysis of the survey results, summarizes the current situation of College Students' mobile learning, and in-depth analysis of the problems and causes of mobile learning. Zhang Yumei (2012) analyzed the current situation of mobile learning of Yinchuan University students through questionnaires, aiming at understanding the mobile learning equipment, attitude and behavior that college students often adopt, in order to provide reference for the development of mobile learning system and learning resources(Qiu,2019). Tao Yao et al. (2012) selected five representative universities in Wuhan as the subjects of the survey. By means of questionnaires, interviews and other methods, based on the summary of the current situation of College Students' mobile learning using smart phones, the paper puts forward some pertinent suggestions and countermeasures. Deng Lijun et al. (2013) investigated and analyzed the use of resources, emotional attitudes, behaviors and needs of students in mobile learning in Jiangnan University by means of questionnaires, pointed out the problems existing in the process of College Students' mobile learning, and put forward their own opinions and suggestions on the development of mobile learning(Qiu,2019). Lujiang (2014) surveyed the types and performances of mobile learning devices used by current campus learners, the types and presentation forms of mobile learning resources that college students tend to use, the easily accepted mobile learning mode, the personalized needs of mobile learning situations, the learners' attention and persistence in mobile learning, and the attitudes and expectations towards mobile learning. This paper analyses the causes and solutions of the problems in mobile learning. Liu Minna (2014) used questionnaire and interview methods to investigate the basic situation of mobile learning of normal students based on smart phones, analyzed the main problems and reasons of mobile learning of normal students based on smart phones in local colleges and universities, and explored relevant countermeasures and suggestions. Lin Moujin and Huang Huibin (2014) analyzed the current situation of College Students' understanding of mobile learning, the conditions of mobile learning, the utilization of mobile learning resources, the selection of mobile learning content and the effect of mobile learning through a questionnaire survey of mobile learning among college students in Xiamen City. In view of the existing problems, some suggestions and strategies were put forward to improve the efficiency of mobile learning among college students. Yang Lin et al. (2014) surveyed and analyzed the current situation of mobile learning by using smart phones among college students in Gansu Province through statistical questionnaires, explored the needs and expectations of students for mobile learning, and put forward conclusions and suggestions for future research on mobile learning(Qiu,2019). Chen Ping (2014) analyzed the current situation of mobile English learning among students in Wuhan City Vocational College through questionnaires, aiming at understanding the understanding, interest, application, demand and learning obstacles of mobile English learning among higher vocational students, with a view to providing practical and credible data reference and guidance for the improvement of mobile English teaching and learning. Yang Liyuan and Li Jiawei (2015) focused on questionnaire survey, integrated literature analysis, statistical description and other research methods, selected Jiaying College students as the research object, investigated and analyzed the current situation of college students' English mobile learning, and put forward improvement strategies: attaching importance to the promotion of mobile learning, facing the role of mobile learning, setting learning goals scientifically, enhancing

self-monitoring awareness, and benefit. Build a mobile learning platform with social tools(Qiu,2019).

It can be seen that in recent years, researchers at home and abroad have focused on a single theoretical model, technology and design research, resource construction, strategy use or practical application of mobile learning. Multidimensional comprehensive research on English mobile learning needs to be carried out. The Ten-Year Development Plan of Educational Informatization (2011-2020) issued by the Ministry of Education in 2012 indicates that higher education informatization is an effective way to promote higher education reform, innovation and quality improvement, as well as an innovative frontier in the development of educational informatization. It also proposes to promote the modernization of educational content, teaching means and methods by promoting the deep integration of information technology and education and teaching. No. 5. Mobile learning, with its advantages of mobility, wireless, portability and resource sharing, will not only fill the gap of traditional learning, but also become a new hotspot of educational informatization ((Qiu,2019, Huang Zhenyi, 2017). In view of this, the purpose of this paper is to carry out an investigation and Study on the current situation of mobile English learning in local undergraduate colleges and universities. The purpose of this study is to investigate and analyze the current situation of mobile English learning among college students, and put forward improvement strategies to improve the efficiency of mobile English learning, and to provide reference for future research.

#### IV. ABOUT THE SURVEY

This research mainly adopts the methods of questionnaire survey, interview and descriptive statistical analysis, and makes use of the self-made questionnaire of mobile learning status of local undergraduate students based on smart phones to investigate the students of Taishan College, and carries out in-depth interviews with some students, in order to understand the factors affecting and restricting normal students' mobile learning based on smart phones. The questionnaire refers to Liu Minna's (2014) Questionnaire on the Current Situation of Mobile Learning for Normal Students Based on Smart phones, which is divided into two parts: The first part is the awareness of using smart phones to carry out mobile learning, because the consciousness state will determine the follow-up behavior of people engaged in certain things, so it is necessary to first understand that local undergraduate students use smart phones to open. Develop the awareness of mobile learning. The second part is the specific behavior of mobile learning using smart phones, including how to do and what to do, mainly investigating the ways and contents of students' access to resources through mobile learning.

A total of 425 questionnaires were collected and 24 invalid questionnaires were excluded. A total of 401 valid questionnaires were obtained. The questionnaires were sent to 500 normal students of different grades in liberal arts, science and engineering, such as Chinese language and literature, mathematics, bioengineering, history, museology, accounting, electronic information, musicology, mechanical engineering, etc. 24.4%. The survey data were analyzed by SPSS16.0. The experimental results were obtained and the conclusions were summarized.

#### V. QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

##### A. Awareness of Local College Students' Mobile Learning Using Smart Phones

As shown in Table 1, 357 students (89.03%) said they knew "mobile learning", while only 9 students said they did not, accounting for only 2.24% of the total number. This result is quite unexpected, because in previous studies (Liu Minna, 2014), only 10.9% of students knew mobile learning and 69.6% of students did not know it. This shows that in recent two years, with the continuous improvement of mobile technology, local undergraduate students began to gradually understand mobile learning. But in contrast, in the second question, "whether to use smart phones for learning or access to learning materials", the proportion of students who often, occasionally, rarely and never use smart phones is 22.19%, 14.46%, 59.35% and 3.99%, respectively. Especially, the proportion of students who seldom use smart phones for learning or access learning materials reaches an astonishing 59.35%. That is to say, although students know that smart phones can be used for English learning, they still use them as a communication tool rather than a means of learning in real life. Among the questions of whether mobile learning is feasible or not, 30.17% of the respondents think that mobile learning can be considered, 13.47% think that it can only be used as an assistant learning tool, and 52.62% think that mobile learning has a great development space. It shows that local college students are very optimistic about mobile learning based on smart phones. This is also quite different from previous studies (Liu Minna, 2014). Finally, 65.84% of the respondents expressed their willingness to use smart phones for mobile learning, 22.19% of the respondents expressed their willingness, and the ratio of the two was 88.03%. It can be seen that most local undergraduate students expect mobile learning very much, which is consistent with the results of the previous question.

TABLE 1  
LOCAL COLLEGE STUDENTS' AWARENESS OF MOBILE LEARNING USING SMART PHONES

Question	Option	Number	Proportion	P
Do you know mobile learning?	Yes, I know.	357	89.03%	<0.01
	Yes, but it's very vague.	35	8.73%	
	No.	9	2.24%	
Have you ever used a smart phone for learning or consulting learning materials?	Always	89	22.19%	<0.01
	Sometimes	58	14.46%	
	Seldom	238	59.35%	
	Never	16	3.99%	
Do you think mobile learning is feasible?	Yes.	121	30.17%	<0.01
	Can only be used as a supplementary means	54	13.47%	
	There is a lot of room for development.	211	52.62%	
	Not at all.	15	3.74%	
Are you willing to use mobile phones for mobile learning?	Very willing	264	65.84%	<0.01
	Could try	89	22.19%	
	Reluctant	34	8.48%	
	It is a waste of time.	14	3.49%	

### B. Specific Behavior of Local College Students in Mobile Learning Based on Smartphones

In the survey of mobile learning behavior of students in local colleges and Universities Based on smart phones, the results of the survey (see table 2) show that the author adds two questions on the basis of Liu Minna's questionnaire (2014). One is the proportion of students using mobile phones for leisure and entertainment, the other is the proportion of students discussing problems with their classmates through Wechat. The results of the questionnaire show that 74% of students have more than one day. The number of students who use mobile phones for recreation is less than one time a week and never use mobile phones is only one person, which indicates that the main function of most students' smartphones is communication and entertainment. Of course, we can also see that many times a day or once a day using mobile phones to discuss problems with classmates through voice, through Wechat to discuss problems with classmates, electronic dictionaries, notebooks and other items occupy a large proportion of students, especially to obtain the assignments and tasks assigned by teachers, the proportion of one time a day and many times a day is as high as 86%, which shows that in classmates. At the same time, the majority of teachers have realized this trend, and gradually began to learn "mobile teaching". Few students discuss problems with their classmates through short message, which shows that the traditional function of short message on mobile phone is gradually replaced by communication APP such as Wechat. Of course, we should also see that the frequency of students doing such problems as listening to recorded courses, reading teacher's course notes and sending their questions to teachers after class is relatively low, which shows that there is little interaction between students and teachers, and most of them do so. It is a one-way connection, either students use mobile phones to take notes, or teachers assign homework, students passively accept, lack of communication links. Moreover, students seldom take the initiative to use mobile phones to learn, often in the completion of homework or encounter questions, new words and other situations is to play the mobile learning function of mobile phones, lack of initiative.

TABLE 2  
SPECIFIC BEHAVIOR OF LOCAL COLLEGE STUDENTS IN MOBILE LEARNING BASED ON SMART PHONE

Question	Many times a day		Once a day		Once a week		Less than once a week		Never	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Entertainment	298	74%	76	19%	25	6%	1	0%	0	0%
Discuss with your classmates through voice calls	87	22%	126	31%	155	39%	32	8%	0	0%
Discuss problems with classmates through short messages	4	1%	45	11%	43	11%	58	14%	250	62%
Discuss with your classmates through Wechat	177	44%	98	24%	65	16%	59	15%	1	0%
Electronic Dictionary Function	201	50%	55	14%	76	19%	60	15%	8	2%
Teaching Materials	98	24%	87	22%	155	39%	50	12%	10	2%
Use spare time to listen to recorded courses	56	14%	55	14%	44	11%	136	34%	109	27%
Notebook as Key Information	185	46%	98	24%	76	19%	22	5%	19	5%
Reading the teacher's Lecture Notes	48	12%	56	14%	65	16%	100	25%	131	33%
Reading or reading papers	178	44%	122	30%	77	19%	21	5%	2	0%
Obtain assignments and tasks assigned by teachers	288	72%	58	14%	33	8%	16	4%	5	1%
Searching for Learning Materials on the Internet	121	30%	87	22%	67	17%	97	24%	28	7%
Send your questions to the teacher	33	8%	57	14%	98	24%	101	25%	111	28%
Sharing Learning Materials with Students	41	10%	79	20%	205	51%	49	12%	26	6%

VI. ANALYSIS

From the survey results, with the progress of technology, the functions of smart phones are becoming more and more convenient. As a young people who are easy to accept new things, college students follow the trend of fashion and have a strong ability to accept and apply information tools. Therefore, the application of mobile phones is gradually penetrated into the learning process. In fact, they have adopted the way of mobile learning unconsciously. The exhibition of learning. Most of the respondents have some knowledge about mobile learning. In the actual application process, most of the learners have used smart phones to carry out mobile learning, and are confident about mobile learning. However, in real learning and life, mobile learning based on smart phones is only one of the many learning methods for students, and has not gained a dominant position. At this stage, mobile phones play more functions of communication and entertainment among local college students.

Through questionnaires, we found that local undergraduate students can use mobile phones to take notes, check teachers' homework, check new words, read books or papers, etc. They can also use Wechat software to discuss problems with their classmates through voice calls. This shows that although students know mobile learning, they do not realize that what they are doing is mobile learning, and there is little interaction between students and teachers, most of which are one-way links, either students use mobile phones to take notes, or teachers assign homework, students passively accept, lack of communication links. Moreover, students seldom take the initiative to use mobile phones to learn, often in the completion of homework or encounter questions, new words and other situations is to play the mobile learning function of mobile phones, lack of initiative. The mobile learning based on smart phones of local college students is emerging, but the initiative needs to be improved.

VII. CONCLUSION

From a realistic point of view, with the impact of the trend of smart phone use, most normal school students have often used smart phones to carry out mobile learning, such as memorizing words, practicing listening, consulting knowledge and information, but learners do not really realize that their learning is mobile learning, there is no clear understanding of mobile learning, mobile learning methods and concepts are more. It is impossible to talk about it, which will lead to the majority of learning behavior is completed without planning and purpose. Passing time, passively completing tasks and consulting new words become the main motivation of mobile learning. Mobile learning has a certain foundation in local colleges and universities. We should strengthen students' awareness of using smart phones to carry out mobile learning and enhance their initiative to carry out mobile learning.

With the application of 4G, 5G network and smart phone technology becoming more and more mature, the network services of smart phones and operators become more and more commercialized. While mobile phone manufacturers and network operators make profits, they should pay more attention to the educational functions of mobile phones. Mobile learning based on smart phones has broad application prospects. Therefore, smart phone developers should attach importance to the mobile learning function. Develop and develop mobile learning-oriented smart phones to meet the needs of mobile learning groups in Colleges and universities. In addition, schools should carry out the construction of intelligent campus as soon as possible, reduce the cost of students' network use, and give some incentives for mobile

learning activities by using mobile phones, so as to increase the initiative of students to carry out mobile learning.

Although the mobile learning of undergraduate students based on smart phones is still immature, and there are even big problems, with the continuous development and maturity of Internet 4G and 5G technology and the improvement of people's learning awareness, local colleges will keep pace with the times, constantly innovate the teaching and learning methods, and gradually realize and attach importance to smart phones as a learning society and lifelong learning. The convenience brought about by mobile learning based on smart phones will inevitably continue to develop and progress in the information society.

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# Foundation Program English Language Learner Profile: A Case Study in Oman

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**Abstract**— This paper addresses the concept of the foundation program English language learner profile, its meaning and utility, and explores contextual variables that might have caused success or failure of the students enrolled in the foundation English language courses in tertiary education institutions in Oman. In more detail, it reports on the findings of the study that focuses on foundation English language program context-specific internal and external factors to highlight a variety of learner profile attributes shaping students' personality and equip them with 21st century skills. A bilingual questionnaire in English and Arabic is used to provide detailed descriptions of the learner profile, discuss experiences, achievements and challenges of the students of the foundation program exit level English language courses at the Centre for Preparatory Studies at Sultan Qaboos University. The results demonstrate that the analysis of the learner profile attributes can serve as a guide for informing future decisions about the foundation program English language curriculum design and implementation to enhance students' academic success.

**Index Terms**— learner profile, English language courses, foundation program students, skills, Oman

## I. INTRODUCTION

In the 21st century, the demands of the learners and other stakeholders are becoming more powerful, and to align with this new scenario, numerous changes are taking place in language education in terms of teaching, learning, materials and methods of instruction. Some of these changes are shifting from the 'jug and mug' concept to the 'kindling thought' concept, from textbooks driven teaching to research based teaching, and from time-bound teaching to outcomes-based approaches. Teaching is centered around learning processes. Students need to acquire different skills to meet the stiff market competition for which today's learners must own responsibility of their learning. The biggest challenge that both teachers and students face today is coping with technological explosion and its interface in teaching and learning. These changes have created an awareness of the necessity to change and improve the preparation of students for productive functioning in the incessantly changing and highly demanding environment (Bar-Yam et al., 2002). In facing this challenge, it is necessary to consider the complexity of the language education system itself, the multitude of problems that arise out of this complexity and their redressal. One of the key issues to focus on and which plays a vital role in meeting the 21st century demands is, learners' profile.

Learning is a highly complex activity and each learner is unique. Every student conceptualizes learning differently. Learner profile is a public statement of the desired student outcomes arising from common values and vision about the nature and purpose of education. These attributes are generally identified by key stakeholders and educators because these descriptors are instrumental in policy making and practice. Students must become self-directed learners, flexible and critical in their thinking because of the globalization and technological advancements. Educational administrators have focused more on learning environments, establishing more problem-based, collaborative and student-centered classrooms to represent the complex learning situations learners may face in a real- life work environment (Waterman, 1997).

This paper mainly focuses on the concept of learner profile, its meaning and utility. It reports on a study undertaken by the authors to explore the situational context responsible for the successful implementation of the English language component of the foundation program in tertiary education institutions in Oman. In this on-going study, one of the important areas was foundation program students' preconceptions, views and perceptions which form the first part of the paper. The second part details the study, the primary findings of the learner profile, student perceptions and how their responses express their attributes. The paper ends with reiterating the need for learner profiles, their role in the process of learning and accordingly, making pedagogical changes to suit the requirements of the 21st century teaching and learning.

## II. BRIEF LITERATURE REVIEW ON LEARNER PROFILES

Literature on learning and learner profiles states that the three important aspects of learning that need to be considered in developing learner profile are cognitive aspects, conative aspects and affective aspects (Bullock, n.d.).

The cognitive aspect explores the psychological changes that take place as learners attain and understand new materials and ideas. According to Eisner (2000), Bloom made his taxonomy as a system for evaluation and assessment, and additionally, a down to earth apparatus for creating higher mental procedures and guidance for sequencing. He further says, that the peculiarity of scientific categorization lies in its hierarchical order. Each level of scholarly movement is subject to the one(s) beneath and is required for the one(s) above. To work at the Bloom's (2001) highest intellectual categorization – 'creation', a student will need vital learning, skills to comprehend, investigate and combine knowledge to create something new, resulting in self-development and the growth t/ development of the nation. Ausubel and Robinson (1969) argue that the most important factor influencing meaningful learning was not the child's stage of development, but the quality, clarity and organization of his or her present knowledge. According to them, new knowledge that cannot be adapted into the framework of the individual cognitive structure is 'rote'. Student success in learning depends on various factors. One of these factors is the effect of learning styles. Learning style includes preferred ways of learning in terms of absorbing, managing, and processing information, which is obtained either by remembering, reasoning, and/or problem solving. The studies by Schön (1991) and Boud, Cohen and Walker (1993) demonstrate that often reflecting on changing concepts is the key to effective learning. Heffler (2001) contends that categorizing students into preferred learning styles helps to link these styles to quality outcomes. To sum up, the cognitive aspect of learning of a learner profile should include the attributes of reflective and critical thinkers and knowledgeable learners.

The conative aspect examined by Bullock (2011), looks at personal intention and self-efficacy, and "explores the meta-cognitive notions of responsibility for, and awareness of, one's own learning" (p.2). The conation is described as "the drive that determines the nature and extent of involvement in a task" (ibid.). Drive is a form of motivation. Motivation, according to Ryan and Deci (2000), is not a single construct but a highly complex and multi-faceted thrust or drive. In Bruner's view (1996), autonomous learning is possible from the effort of discovering or experiencing and adapting concepts. He uses the term "scaffolding" to describe the structured assistance that more informed individuals give to learners to encourage them to develop new skills, attitudes or understanding. Thus, the conative aspect of the learner profile should contain the attributes of learners being an inquirer, exhibiting integrity, honesty and owning responsibilities of their learning.

The importance of the affective domain of learning was recognized in Bloom (1956), and later gained much attention of the educational researchers. Pintrich and Schunk (1996) argue that people's expectation for success is one of the most important predictors of achievement. According to Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy theory, a high self-perception of capability leads to high levels of effort and persistence and ultimately to high levels of achievement. Fouzder and Markwick (2000) suggest that students who see success as being within their control are more likely to adopt appropriate learning strategies. Thus, the important attributes of the affective domain in a learner profile advocates caring, risk-taking and being balanced.

Studies focusing on learner profile show that knowing about individual students does have a measurable positive impact on achievement (York, 2014). Teachers require the knowledge of the unique skills that every child brings to the classroom in order to target instruction towards students' needs – a pedagogical approach with strong empirical support (Connor, Morrison, Fishman, Schattschneider & Underwood, 2007; O'Connor, Dearing & Collins, 2011). A learner profile is a documentation about an individual student. Its purpose is to get a complete picture of the individual's current status or development and to take measures for the future development of the learner. Learner profiles may incorporate data such as learner's skills, strengths, interests and passions, likes and dislikes, potential barriers to learning, attitude to learning and so on. The profile can also describe a learner's needs, wants, plans and goals.

Learner profiles can be used to construct viable connections, create comprehensive and inclusive classrooms, build effective relationships, and understand technological differentiations or adaptations that may be needed for individual students. A teacher can also get to know its effectiveness in guiding instruction. Learner profiles encourage student ownership and motivates students to learn anywhere and at any time. It also reminds students of their understanding of the expected learning outcomes and their achievement of these outcomes. In the entire process of teaching and learning, it gives directions to teachers and policy makers to make changes if required. In short, it applies to all- student, teacher, parent or administrator, for continual learning. Research states that the Learner Profiles are worthy of study because of its central place in the overall curriculum (Poole, 2017). Further, Kelly Edmonds (n.d.) is of the opinion that it is important to have learners' profiles in order to design courses that best suit them. A complete picture of student's learning preferences and challenges can be reflected in the learner profile and, according to Carol Ann Tomlinson (2017), it can be shaped by the categories of learning styles, preferences, culture and gender.

While developing a learner profile, the attributes of the profile are first to be considered. The attributes showcase the values inherent to education - providing a long-term vision of education. Thus, it is a set of ideals that can inspire, motivate and focus the work of learners and teachers, uniting them in a common purpose (IB learner booklet,2006).

The first attribute to be considered is a 'balanced learner'. Being honest, having a good character with integrity are the foundation stones for a balanced success of a learner. The second is caring for others, society and the nation. The



commitment to caring leads to making a positive difference in the lives of other learners and the nation at large. Being a good communicator is the third attribute which confirms the levels of confidence and clarity a learner has. Being an inquirer makes a learner to think and nurture his/her curiosity to develop further in reaching his/her goals. A learner needs to explore knowledge across a range of disciplines to engage with issues that have local and global relevance. So, a learner should be knowledgeable and open minded to seek and evaluate different points of view of different people. Without reflection, a learner goes blindly in his/her way of thinking and learning.

Being a reflective learner promotes academic success. If a student lives by his/her principles, he/she can create the world he/she lives in. A learner, therefore, should maintain his integrity by being principled.

Learners must be ready to take risks, if they want to move and grow from the known to the unknown. Critical and creative thinking are the important attributes of a learner profile. These attributes cannot be developed in isolation. These are intertwined with other factors in preparing students to meet the changing scenario and the changing demands of the society. The development of these attributes mainly depends on the curriculum, instruction, teachers and institutional support. Opportunities need to be provided in the curriculum and its implementation depends on the nature and the flexibility of the curriculum. The success of the instruction is hidden in teachers' qualifications, their effectiveness in embracing changes, understanding students' needs and styles of learning. Institutional support is a major factor in the delivery of instruction. All these factors put together result in effective implementation of the curriculum.

### III. THE STUDY

This part of the paper discusses and explains the primary findings of the effectiveness of the learner profile in the successful implementation of the foundation program English language courses offered by the Centre for Preparatory Studies of Sultan Qaboos University in Oman,

The foundation program at the Centre for Preparatory Studies of Sultan Qaboos University has a long history of development, utilizing the expertise of many professionals, and is guided by several documents. One of these documents is the standards prescribed in the Oman Academic Accreditation Authority (OAAA) Standards document. The foundation program English language curriculum, which was initially implemented at Sultan Qaboos University in 2010, is now part of a larger unified foundation program curriculum, which consists of four components covering the areas of the English language, mathematics, computer skills, and study skills.

The foundation program courses are based on the learning outcomes which state the skills and strategies the students are expected to use upon completing each course in the corresponding areas. The outline document of each course includes the objectives of the Centre and the mapped learning outcomes. In addition, it also aligns with the university's objectives and graduate attributes. The course outline also includes course information such as assessment matrix, materials, pacing schedules and any other information deemed important to students.

To find out the effectiveness of the learning outcomes, several modes of gathering information are followed including included formative and summative assessment scores, completion of students' 'can do' lists, and student participation in various extracurricular activities. Having such facilities for learning in place, it is still important to find out the factors that are contributing to the successful implementation of the foundation program. Therefore, this study emerged out of this eagerness to explore more into the role of the situational factors in the implementation of the foundation program to successfully prepare students to meet the challenges of the 21st century. While exploring the contextual factors responsible for the effective implementation of the program, the authors noticed the role of learner profile and its centrality in implementing the curriculum. One of the important areas in the on-going study is students' preconceptions, views and perceptions of the foundation program.

#### A. Methodology

To explore in detail foundation program learner profile and students' views on their learning experiences, a bilingual questionnaire in English and Arabic was developed, and the ethical approval was obtained from the Center's Research Committee. The data in the questionnaire were put under three sections. Student profile and background, including gender, age, and region in Oman, constituted section one, student understanding of the general education principles formed section two and the knowledge and skills students gained from the foundation program constituted the third section. The second and the third sections of the questionnaire focused on students' understanding of such core principles of general education, as communication skills, quantitative reasoning, computer literacy and critical thinking skills, and sought students' responses on their experiences of practicing these skills in the foundation program English language courses. The questionnaire was posted online and made available to students of the exit level courses in the foundation program at the Centre for Preparatory Studies of Sultan Qaboos University.

#### B. Participants

In total, 301 foundation program students of Sultan Qaboos University participated in the study. Data revealed that there were differences in terms of age, school education and the regions in Oman from where students came from. These features of the learner profile were important and needed investigation to decide their effectiveness in the success of the foundation program.

Out of all study participants, 84.3% were in the age group of 18 to 19 years, 8% were 17 years of age, one student was 16 years old and students who were 20 years and above constituted 7.3 % of the sample. Regarding gender frequency, 162 (53.8%) were males and remaining 139 (46.2%) were female students, making males marginally more than female students. Almost all students (98%) attended public schools in all governorates of Oman before joining the university. Only 6 students (2%) received school education from private schools in Oman before coming to the university. These 301 students represented 10 governorates of Oman. The highest number of the students who participated in the study were from Al Dakhiliyah region (79 participants) followed by the Muscat region (56 participants). Next came Al Batinah North (40 participants) and Al Batinah South (37 participants) respectively. Al Sharqiyah North was represented by 33 students and Al Sharqiyah South by 18 students. Twenty-seven students represented Al Dhahira region. Al Buraimi (6 students), AL Wusta (3 students) and the governorate of Musandam (2 students) were least represented.

### C. Results and Discussion

The findings related to students' understanding of the general education principles cover their communication skills, critical thinking, computer literacy and quantitative reasoning skills.

Most of the participants (90%) understood the importance of communication in the 21st century. Only 4% of the participants responded they were not sure of the importance of communication. Others (6%) said it was not required. On the statement, how communication skills helped students in their other subjects and studies, 85% responded very positively saying that it did help them in their studies. Nearly 50% of the respondents also said that teachers encouraged communication in the classroom.

All students responded to the 5 questions on critical thinking. Nearly half of the students (48.2%) knew the meaning of the term 'critical thinking'. However, most of them were not sure of some aspects, including the concept of critical thinking (40.9%), whether it was important for them to study and acquire critical thinking skills in the English language foundation program courses (57.6%), and whether their teachers were encouraging them to develop critical thinking skills (66.1%). Also, 41% of the students were not sure whether critical thinking helped them in their study.

The majority of the participants (71.8%) responded positively to the term 'computer literacy'. According to them, computer literacy was important for students in the foundation program courses. 74% of the students said that being computer literate was helpful for their studies. However, 41.2% responded that they were not sure whether teachers encouraged the use of computers for language learning. The reason could be that certain components of language learning are best learnt through discussions and practice in class.

More than half of the students who participated in the study (55%) said they were not sure of the meaning of the term 'quantitative reasoning'. Nearly half of the students (50.9%) said that it was not necessary for the students in the foundation program courses to know about quantitative reasoning. Surprisingly, 64.5% of the respondents said that they were not sure whether teachers encouraged quantitative reasoning in their classes. 43.2% of the students were not sure whether quantitative reasoning would help them to study.

As for writing, most of the students (51.8%) were not sure whether they could write logically, using strategies of drafting, revising, editing and so on. They were also not sure whether they could write for specific audience, identify relationships between textual and graphical information. Regarding using variety of structures in their writing, nearly half of the students (60.1%) said they were unable to use or were not sure of using different structures in their writing and evaluating and synthesizing information from multiple sources without plagiarizing. About writing a thesis statement or developing the main idea, 61.4% students said they could not or were not sure of writing correctly the thesis or the main ideas.

Many students (32.9%) were not sure of using standard English vocabulary. Half of the students (45.8%) said they were able to identify arguments for and against a certain issue in a text. However nearly half of them (45.2%) said they were unable to or were not sure of identifying for and against ideas for a certain issue in a text and argue convincingly. While presenting information, 51.2% students expressed their ability to use visual aids effectively, while the others said they were not able to /or were not sure of using visual aids effectively.

Regarding knowledge and skills in using quantitative reasoning, half of the students (63.4%) said they understood the concepts and they could apply the skills learnt in different contexts while 43.6% expressed their inability to understand /were not able to or not sure of applying skills to real world tasks. Students responded in a similar way to this skill as they responded to statements on quantitative reasoning. 61.8% of the students understood the relationships of key components, networks, data storage and software programs. Only 40% of the students were able to store and retrieve data from within the computer and or via network virtual drive. Though 23.9% of the respondents were not sure of effectively organizing, managing and presenting data using computer applications, 51.5% were able to use computer applications effectively.

The areas which require critical thinking were justifying an opinion, constructing and asking questions, identifying main and supporting ideas, considering other's opinions and effectively managing their time. 62.5% of respondents were able to justify an opinion, 58.1% were able to construct and ask questions, 68.5% were able to identify main ideas and write supporting details. 49.8 % responded positively for considering other people's opinion, and 48% said they were able to manage their time effectively.

The findings of the study demonstrate that the concept of communication, both written and spoken, is clear to most of the students, though lack of vocabulary hinders their communication. This area - lack of vocabulary- is also reflected in their writing skills. Some students do not recognize the encouraging tasks used in class to promote communication, and most of them believe that foundation program students need to know about communication, and communication skills are important to them in their study. The concept of critical thinking is understood by the majority of the respondents but, according to them, they are not always able to think critically and apply these skills appropriately in real world tasks. Like the communication tasks in the class, students are not always able to recognize the encouraging efforts of their teachers in developing their critical thinking skills. Computer literacy is understood by the students as a concept but application of different programs is limited. This is also reflected in their writing and presentation tasks. The concept of quantitative reasoning is not clearly understood by majority of the students. This is possibly the reason of why the importance of acquiring quantitative reasoning skills is not clear to many students and they fail to identify the encouragement given by teachers to develop reasoning to promote mathematical skills. According to students, there is a lack of application of quantitative reasoning in their foundation program courses. This is reflected in their responses stating that when students make presentations, they are not always able to support their views using graphs, tables and charts in which percentages, numbers, decimals and ratios are used.

Overall, though the general education principles which are required in the 21st century are well understood by the foundation program students, they need more venues for application of these principles. Also, the area of critical thinking needs more attention in the curriculum as well as in the delivery of instruction. As for the learner profile attributes, the student's responses show some missing areas related to critical thinking skills, self-directed learning, digital and media literacy, and taking initiatives. This situation can be improved by fine tuning the learning outcomes. As an additional help to comprehend the expected outcomes, the learning outcomes can be redrafted as 'Can-do' statements which will make it easy for learners to assess their own progress. For example, critical thinking attribute of the learner profile (learning outcome: will be able to argue in favor of an issue and convince others) can correspond to a can-do statement "I can speak confidently and argue and express my ideas clearly." Such initiative if implemented properly can result in student's better academic adjustment and development. However, a word of caution needs to be added. Achieving these skills and meeting the attributes cannot be done in one or two semesters; it is a long learning process. Students therefore need to be initiated into it as early as possible and the learning to continue until they graduate. Also, it is important for the English language foundation program curriculum to incorporate activities and challenging tasks based on the areas discussed because it is necessary to provide opportunities for the students to acquire and apply the acquired skills to real tasks at hand. The expected objectives of learning English should be comprehensible to the students. Teaching methodologies should match the learner profiles to meet the 21st century requirements and various approaches to teaching/learning like, skills-centered, project-based, problem-based, task-based and team-based should be used to ensure maximum student engagement.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

By analyzing the learner profile attributes, it is much easier to identify the factors responsible for the success of any teaching program, and the foundation program at tertiary education institutions in Oman is not an exception. The learner profile has an important role in shaping the personality of Omani foundation program students and equipping them with all necessary skills required for their future academic studies and work. It may function as a guide for redesigning the foundation program curriculum, rethinking teaching methodologies and rewording the graduate attributes aligning with the societal demand. Learning outcomes can thus be written based on the expected attributes and then writing the 'can-do' statements.

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# A Comparison of Chinese and English Compliments\*

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**Abstract**—It is particularly known that more interactions of people all around the world are on more broader level with the development of society. People are able to exchange their ideas or positive feelings with each other with different languages. We know that the language carries the culture, and different cultures will cause the speech act expressed with the different ways. Therefore, as a speech act, compliments in various languages are also covered by the cultures all over the world. Due to the differences of cultural background, the customary culture and factors of cultural judgement vary from nations, so that people should pay more attention to the ways of compliments and responds. Compliment has its specific meaning and functions both in Chinese and English, as well as other languages. However, language environment is too important to be without for compliment and the expression of compliment response also varies from different cultural context. In addition, people have various emphasis when they compliment others, Sometimes, not all compliments will be considered to be a praise, if the compliments aren't expressed in proper ways, the recipients may feel ill at ease, even irritated. In order to use the compliments in appropriate ways and make responds properly to attain expected effects, the author is mainly to make comparison between Chinese and English compliments. The comparison contains complimentary contents, such as appearance, weight, friendship and possession, response patterns and characteristics of Chinese and English compliment responses. The author also wants to mater the skills of appropriate compliment expression by contrasting Chinese and English compliment on some aspects.

**Index Terms**—compliment, complimentary contents, semantic structures, compliment response, Chinese and English

## I. INTRODUCTION

People all know that compliment is a quite universal linguistic phenomenon which with a wide range of applications and a high frequency of use. It is applied to attain many different purposes like congratulations, greetings, invitations in different countries. As a social communication language, the compliments can not only shorten the social distance between communicators, but also can make friendly contacts and maintain normal social relationship. In different cultural background, the communicative function of compliments cannot be neglected, because compliments can produce positive effect on interpersonal relationship if they're used in proper occasions. Identically, the compliment response also plays an indispensable role in social communication. If the respondents don't take appropriate compliment response strategies, the compliments may have contrary influence. In order to avoid the embarrassment, misunderstanding, confusion in intercultural communication and strengthen the social relationship between communicators by using compliments. Therefore, making a contrastive analysis of Chinese and English compliments and their response uses from different aspects will help people get some knowledge of compliments and their responses in different occasions or among different people and can establish and maintain harmonious interpersonal relations in cross-cultural communication.

Many scholars at home and abroad have studied compliments and compliments responses from different aspects. For example, Shi Jiawei has summarized the main sentence structure of Chinese and English compliments and also put forward that people in the west often praise their family members. While in China, it's contrary to the West. The closer they are, the less compliments between them. Cen Jing proposed four factors that have influence on the patterns of compliment response through analyzing the cultural differences' influence on language production. These four factors are social status, correlation, topic of the conversation and age of communicators. And He Mingzhi considered that the compliment response could be divided into three categories, these are Direct acceptance, Corrective acceptance and Nonacceptance. Besides, according to the survey data of American linguistic scholars, like Wolfson, manes and Herbert, Wang Jijie and Xu Zhenghua drew some conclusions under the condition of comparison with Chinese compliment. They found that about 43.1percents Chinese compliment response can be converged into Herbert's six kinds of agreed response strategies and 31.3percents compliments and their response strategies have Chinese characteristics. Tang Aijun and Huang Jianbin's reserch on compliment responses among Chinese showed about 11percents people accept compliments directly,14.7 percents accept indirectly, and the rest are refusing compliments. That is to say, the majority of Chinese people choose to refuse when they meet someone's compliments, but the west often say these kinds of

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responses are dishonest. In addition, the foreign scholars, like Pomerantz and Herbert have done much research on compliment responses and Pomerantz attributed the form of compliment responses to two conflicting principles. The first one is Agreement, the other is Avoid self-praise.

In this thesis, the most difficult matter is to make a comprehensive understanding of Chinese and English differences in compliments use through large amounts of scholars' research and survey data and summary the author's own opinions. As a Chinese, it's very easy to understand the cultural values of compliments in various aspects, especially in our daily life. But as a person who regards English as a second language, it's difficult to understand English cultural values in compliments. Therefore, the more correlative knowledge people get, the easier to master English compliment skills. This thesis focuses on comparison of English and Chinese compliments in part of its bearings. The author wants to draw some conclusion by making a comparison to make the contrast more vivid, concrete and easier to understand so that people can apply compliments and compliment responses to social communication under perfect control.

## II. COMPLIMENTS AND COMPLIMENT RESPONSES

As we all know, compliment is a common phenomenon in all kinds of languages. They play a vital part in interaction, especially in international activities. In order to get acknowledgement of this speech act, the author is going to analyze the definition and functions of compliments and their responses.

### A. *The Definition of Compliment*

"Compliments, as a kind of speech act, is considered to be closely related to politeness. It is the expression of praise, admiration, approval, etc."(Oxford Dictionary,1997, p.283).In *Modern Chinese Dictionary*: "Compliment, a verb, means to convey someone's love to the advantages of people or things with words."(version5, 2010, p.171). A compliment is a speech act which explicitly or implicitly bestows credit upon the addressee for some possession, skill, characteristic, or the like, that is positively evaluated by the speaker and addressee. Compliment is a quite universal linguistic phenomenon which with a wide range of applications and a high frequency of use. In short, compliment is a kind of speech act to show the speaker's appreciation, agreement, support and admiration to others. What's more, compliments can also start topics, end conversations naturally and even can get rid of embarrassing situations..Unlike the other speeches, compliments are barely filled with negative vocabulary. In general, compliments include two parts: the speaker's complimentary contents and the responds of the recipient. Therefore, it's not difficult to find that compliments and compliment responses are "adjacency pairs". They must appear as rational and targeted pairs, or compliments cannot attain the expected effect.

### B. *The Functions of Compliment and Compliment Responses*

It is universally acknowledged that the compliments can not only shorten the social distance between communicators, but also can make friendly contacts and maintain normal social relationship."Compliments can act as the complements of greeting; and sometimes, compliments can strengthen the appreciation; compliments can start or end conversations. The proper topics that started by compliments are able to activate the recipients interested in; compliments can also create a harmonious atmosphere for the speakers and recipients to express the nice wishes. Therefore, compliments are able to push forward the conversations, get rid of dilemma and eliminate estrangement. Furthermore, compliments can be applied to persuade and encourage someone."(Xi Yuxia, 2009). Identically, appropriate responses can make the same effect, because compliments and compliment responses are "adjacency pairs". That's to say, compliment responses are to compliments what lips are to teeth. Both do coexist so that they can have the same effect.

## III. COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE COMPLIMENTS

Compliment is a common-used speech act. When it comes to compliment between Chinese and English, most people believed that Chinese is reserved and it's rarely to see a native Chinese speaker compliments someone directly, while English is prefer to show their emotions without hesitation. The reason why they differ in many aspects is that compliment, as a speech act, is covered by different cultural backgrounds. There will cause opposite influences and let the speakers or recipients get into embarrassing situations in daily interaction, international interaction in deposits. Consequently, the author wants to make comparison on complimentary contents and complimentary forms of Chinese and English compliments to avoid misunderstanding and embarrassment.

### A. *Complimentary Contents of Chinese and English Compliments*

Compliment, as a speech act, it's not only show praise for something or someone, but also reflects the social and cultural values of the users. Different values cause differences. The author tries to make comparison on some complimentary contents between Chinese and English. This part mainly focuses on appearance, weight, friendship and possessions. These four topics are highly mentioned in people's conversations at home and abroad. But compliments expressed with different ways due to the variation of cultures and differ in many values.

#### 1. Compliments on appearance

The ancient said, "Everyone wants to be beautiful."Both Chinese -speaking people and English-speaking people have the same opinion. Therefore, appearance-involved compliments are ubiquitous and never limited by age, social status,

occasions and familiarity. However, Chinese and English also have many differences. For example, in English, appearance-concerned compliments are dominant. People are generous to show their compliments about others' appearance, especially something new, like new haircut, new clothes and shoes and etc. These compliments are concerned with varnished beauty and time-efficient. For instance, "You look beautiful today!" In this sentence, we can pay attention to two main words: "look" and "today." The first word illustrates that the compliment highlights the speaker's personal feelings rather than the essence of recipient's beauty. The word "Today" states the timeliness of this compliment, not yesterday or forever, just attain importance to "today". By comparison, Chinese used to compliment others' natural beauty and these compliments aren't time-limited. "A born beauty." is considered to be the highest evaluation to others' appearance. They often say "You are beautiful, you are a born beauty." This compliment highlights the beauty of the recipient's rather than the speaker's own feelings. In addition, compliments on appearance have gender differences between Chinese and English. People in English, whatever males or females, never mind to compliment others or receive compliment from others. Males can compliment both males and females about their appearance directly. Females are the same with males. Whereas, people in Chinese have a habit which is different from English habits. The compliments usually happen among females. Females are able to compliment females without quantitative and age limitation. But it's impolite for males to compliment females' appearance directly, in particular, specific body parts, because females may think it's frivolous.

## 2. Compliments on weight, friendship and possessions

As we know, "weight" is a sensitive word in daily conversations. In China, if people say: "You are fatter than before." That will be regarded as a compliment to the recipient's good living conditions. "fat" is often relating with "wealthy" and "a feature of officer" in China, because most people believe that it is the rich man who is able to eat well and have a high-quality life to put on weight. On the contrary, people do not take it as a compliment if someone says: "You've put on quite a lot." They think the "fatter figure" is a sign of their declined physical quality and if get fatter, they will consider it means they are too lazy to do some exercises and taking a causal approach to diet. So people will take this kind of compliment as an impolite speech act and even will misunderstand that's an irony. Therefore, weight is not suitable to be used as compliment contents in English interactions. But with the blending of various cultures, Chinese is gradually to receipt "weight lost" as a compliment, too.

Under the circumstance of Chinese traditional cultures, friendship plays a significant role in daily interactions. There is a duty of responsibility among friends. They maintain an invisible affiliation among themselves so that they usually choose to go through thick and thin together. Friends have preference for mixing things and emotions up. This connection is based on emotions and oriented by interpersonal relationship. The responses for friends and strangers are usually different. However, English focus much more on activities, interests and works. They have no need of sharing thick and thin together and tend to separate favors and matters cleanly. So whatever strangers or friends, if they do favors for others, they always get "Thank you." for respond. We often hear this sentence in our daily life:

"You have so much money!" There is no doubt that it is a compliment in China. It seems that the rich men are extraordinary. The more money someone has, the more successful he is, hence people are delighted to compliment someone who has large amount of possessions. Whereas, the effect in English-speaking countries is other than in China. Personal possessions is no longer the judgement criteria of success. Because they advocate self-made possession rather than inherited property and take money as the sign of living standards' improvement. Therefore, "You have so much money!" is not a compliment in English-speaking countries.

## B. Semantic Structures of English and Chinese Compliments

Manes and Wolfson concluded that "compliment has a high degree of regularity in the study of compliment." (Holmes, Brown, 1987, p.529). The forms of English compliments barely can be regarded as formula. Manes and Wolfson categorized the English compliments into nine types and the first three forms with a high-frequency use, especially the first form which takes over 50 percents. The author mainly mentions the first three forms to summary the characteristics of English complimentary forms. Here are the three forms:

1. NP +be/look +(really/very)+AP+(PP).(53.6%)

Eg: Your dress is/looks (really) beautiful.

2. I (really)like/love+NP.(16.1%)

Eg: I really like/love your shoes.

3. PRO/NP+be+(a)+(really)+(AP)+NP.(14.9%)

Eg: That's a really wonderful model plane.

From the research on these kinds of compliments, Manes and Wolfson (1981) also found that there are almost positive adjectives, like nice, good, pretty or beautiful, and Verbs, such as "love" and "like", as well as some formulaic sentence structures, for example: "I love/like....." In English, the key words in compliments are centre on adjectives and verbs, but in Chinese, according to the research on Chinese compliments of Ye(1995), words centre on adjectives for 54.5%, adverbs for 27.4%, noun for 15.8% and verbs for 2.3%. But most Chinese adjectives are different from English adjectives, English adjectives are full with boundary meanings. Let's take "good" for instance, "good" can not only be used to modify a person's character, appearance, clothes, etc, but also can modify everything good. In other words. English adjectives in compliments mainly to show general meanings. However, many adjectives in Chinese

compliments need to pay much attention to the detailed meanings, or it will cause the opposite meaning and irritate the addressees, especially the use of some idioms with historical allusions in China. As for the verbs both in English and Chinese compliments differ in the use of “like” and “love”. It’s common to see the compliment “I like your nice clothes.” in English, but it’s not a compliment for a Chinese-speaking person. Here is a conversation between an English speaker and a Chinese speaker to show the reason.

A: You have got a nice coat!

B: Thank you. My sister bought it in Shanghai. Do you really like it?

A: Oh, yes. It’s fine, I like its beautiful color.

B: Well, if you really like it, I will ask my sister to buy one for you.

(Li Yanfen,1999,(On Cultural Distinction Between the East and the West in English and Chinese Praises))

From this conversation, we are not difficult to find that A just wants to start a topic by compliment B’ coat, but B misunderstand A’s meaning which A wants to buy the same coat. Therefore, the structure “I like or love...” is rarely found in Chinese compliments, because it’s easily misinterpret that someone desires for something, and it’s also out of the step with habit of Chinese expression.

#### IV. COMPARISON OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE RESPONSES TO COMPLIMENTS

A: If you meet an American woman and say: “You are so pretty.”She will responds two words.

B: What are they?

A: Thank you. If you meet a Chinese woman and say the same words, she will also answer with two words.

B: “Thank you?”

A: No, “Buzz off.”

(Quoted from a Chinese talk show, cited in Chen,1993, p.49-50 )

From this talk, we can see two diametrically opposite results due to the cultural conventions: American woman is very happy and glad to accept the compliment while the Chinese woman is very irritated and angry to refuse it. In order to make proper responds to others’ compliments when participate in cross-culture social activities. The author mainly aim to make comparison on compliment responses strategies and characteristics between Chinese and English.

##### A. *Patterns and Characteristics of Chinese and English Compliment Responses*

As a part of compliments, compliment responses always vary from various cultural contexts. Many scholars have done many specialized researches on compliment responses about its patterns, maxims and differences which caused by cultural diversity at home and abroad. American linguist, Herbert, summarized 12 compliment response patterns that people almost from different countries possess:

1,appreciation token	2.,praise upgrade
3,comment acceptance	4,comment history
5,reassignment	6,return
7,questioning	8.scale down
9,qualification	10,disagreement
11,no acknowledgement	12,request explanation

According to Herbert’s categories, there are many response patterns to concerned compliments and these patterns are summarized from different people and occasions. Just like a person’s habit, different kinds of languages may have different emphasis duo to the customs of language expression. Because more and more people who possesses diverse cultural contexts have a high-frequency use of compliments and compliment responses, the combination pattern emerged at the right moment. People are apt to choose the most proper way to give a respond to others’ compliments. Among these 12 patterns, the author holds the view that pattern 5,6 and 8 are responses which are equipped with rich Chinese national characteristics. Most Chinese tend to make respond to compliments like this:

(1)

A: You are such a good player..

B: You played it well, too. (return)

(2)

A: Your scarf is fashionable.

B: Yeah , my sister bought it from Beijing. Do you know Beijing? (reassignment )

(3)

A: You did a good job.

B: Oh, just so-so. (scale down)

As we can see, the conversations above are Chinese-style compliment responses. People used to respond the compliments in a modest way and these response patterns can embody the mutual concession, politeness and courtesy characteristics of Chinese. By contrast, patterns 7 and 10 are suit the English expression. Let’s see some examples again:

(4)



A: I admire your hard offering.

B: You've never seen the other side of me. (disagreement)

(5)

A: I like your T-shirt, it's so smart.

B: Really? Isn't it bad? (questioning)

Those two examples show that people in English used to be straightforward to respond others' compliments. They dare to express their own ideas directly. That's also meet their on-limits and direct principles. The other response patterns, except what the author have mentioned above, have consensus functions both in Chinese and English. In addition, more and more people from different countries tend to use the combination pattern, that is, people mix two or more kinds of response patterns to make response and this is a new trend of compliment responses nowadays. The reason why this trend appeared is that different cultures mingled gradually. Although many researches show when someone is complimented by others, most Chinese used to reject or elude compliment while English recipients prefer to agree with the speakers.

#### B. *The Reason of Compliment and Responses Differences between English and Chinese*

As everyone knows, compliment, as a speech act, always carries the culture of this language. In English, compliment preferentially starts with the first person while compliment usually begins with the second person in Chinese. That is, American have a strong sense of self-awareness and independence, and the culture of this nation put the emphasis on individuality, including personality, values and dignity. Because deeply influenced by Christianity, people in the west dream to be a independent person who is faithful to his own feelings, as well as a person who has strong self-awareness. individualism is their most important and basic values, they has made no secret of their self-confidence and sense of honor, they also rejoice with the wild excitement for success. On the other hand, America is a emerging nation of immigrants so that they think everyone is equal and there is no lowliness and nobleness. In most west families, Dads will say "Thank you" to their sons if sons do some favour for their dads. That is also the reason why most English speakers choose to agree with others' compliments. On the contrary, China is an ancient which has a feudal culture for more than 2000 years. Therefore, there still exists unequal ideas among Chinese. So when meet the speakers' compliments, Chinese always take rejection, return or scale down for the first action and sons are rarely get "Thank you." from their dads if sons help their dads to do something. What's more, most Chinese have preference for living or working together with groups and group benefit is the most crucial benefit. They don't have strong individualism and dare to express their own feelings if his social status is lower than others. For Chinese, The compliments are mean to shorten the distance and maintain a friendly relationship with others. In addition, Chinese used to behave modestly and keep courtesy when they participant in interactions, so they are not generous with expressing their true feelings to others. In short, those differences between Chinese and English are caused by the various cultural contexts.

#### V. CONCLUSION

As a speech act, compliment has its specific meaning and functions both in Chinese and English, as well as other languages. However, language environment is too important to be without for compliment and the expression of compliment response also varies from different cultural context. In addition, people have various emphasis when they compliment others, let's take the content "appearance" for instance," appearance" always come firstly in English while in Chinese, it's not the primary one. Compliment is also a speech act which has rich formula features, in particular, the compliment responses which possess boundary patterns both in Chinese and English. But compliment and compliment response may express with different ways, because language carries the nation's social and cultural characteristics. In English, people mainly stress on individualism, they dare to show their sincere feelings and try their best to keep equal position with others. But Chinese are careful to compliment others and keep modesty and be polite to others' compliment because of the deep cultural inheritance and deposits. There still exists many complimentary differences caused by different cultural diversity and need people to find out. It is indispensable to comprehend the west people's expression principles in real life. Duo to the differences of cultural background, the customary culture and factors of cultural judgement vary from nations, so that people should pay more attention to the ways of compliments and responds. So sometimes not all compliments will be considered to be a praise, if the compliments aren't expressed in proper ways, the recipients may feel ill at ease, even irritated. In order to use the compliments in appropriate ways and make responds properly to attain expected effects, this thesis is mainly to make comparison between Chinese and English compliments. The comparison contains complimentary contents, such as appearance, weight, friendship and possession, response patterns and characteristics of Chinese and English compliment responses. Only take a positive attitude to master and respect different cultures, people can properly use various languages to get along well with others.

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# Manner and Result in English Verb Roots\*

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**Abstract**—manner/result complementarity hypothesis (MRC) proposed by Rappaport Hovav and Levin (1998, 2010) holds that a verb root cannot lexicalize manner and result meaning components simultaneously at a time. It has generated much interest and controversy among researchers. In spite of much evidence for it, researchers have also put forward a variety of arguments against it. This paper reviews arguments against the MRC hypothesis, reexamines the data these counterarguments are based on and reveals that these arguments do not pose real challenge for the MRC hypothesis. Counterexample verbs which are proposed to entail both manner and result actually lexicalize only one, either manner or result, and manner and result are indeed meaning component lexicalized in verb roots rather than aspectual focus.

**Index Terms**—manner, result, verb roots, lexicalized meaning

## I. INTRODUCTION

Verbal meaning complexity at the lexicon and syntax interface has long been an intriguing topic, which inspires linguists' investigation from various approaches. On the one hand, linguists adopting constructionist approach believe that the meaning of verbal roots may be built with no constraint on its complexity, and in particular the role of a verb is only to provide a coherent semantic frame that evokes "a generalized, possibly complex states or events that constitute a cultural unit". (Goldberg, 2010, p. 41) On the other hand, lexical semanticists hold verbs' ontological categorization constrains the complexity of verb meaning and the lexical property of a verb associated with its ontological type is important to determining or constraining its argument expressions. Regarding the controversy, an effective way to check the validity of these arguments is to follow one of these approaches making a hypothesis about the nature of the lexical meaning of verbs and the interaction between lexicon and syntax and then see whether the empirical data are consistent with the hypothesis. The manner/result complementarity hypothesis proposed by Rappaport Hovav and Levin (1998, 2010) is such a hypothesis which can be used to check the validity of the theoretical positions at the lexicon and syntax. Based on their observation of the meaning components lexicalized in ontologically different types of verbs and their distinct grammatical behaviors, Rappaport Hovav and Levin (1998, 2010) suggest a systematic lexical gap in verbal meaning which they call manner/result complementarity:

1) Manner/result complementarity: Manner and result meaning components are in complementary distribution: a verb may lexicalize only one.

(Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 2013, p. 50)

As the MRC hypothesis is claimed to be a general principal constraining the lexicalization patterns of the entire lexicon, it has generated much interest and controversy among researchers. In spite of much evidence for it, researchers have also put forward a variety of arguments against it. The counterarguments approach the issue mainly from two different angles. Some researchers (Beavers and Koontz-Garboden, 2012; Goldberg, 2010) focusing on the lexical entailments of verbs propose some counterexample verbs which seem to encode both meaning components simultaneously in English. Other researchers (Mateu and Acedo-Matellán, 2012; Rapoport, 2012) reject a verb root view of the MRC, i.e., whereas they admit there are linguistic phenomena corresponding to the MRC, they do not accept that it is held at the lexical level. Rather they either argue that it results from different syntactic configurations which verbs appear in or believe that it is reflected through the differences in aspectual focus.

The paper reviews these two main arguments against the MRC hypothesis, reexamines the data these counterarguments are based on and reveals that these arguments do not pose real challenge for the MRC hypothesis. Counterexample verbs which are proposed to entail both manner and result actually lexicalize only one, either manner or result, and manner and result are indeed meaning component lexicalized in verb roots rather than aspectual focus. The paper starts with a review of the lexical approach to lexicon and syntactic interface and the motivation for the MRC hypothesis. Then it moves forward to investigations of proposed counterexample verbs to the MRC and arguments against the MRC as a lexical constraint. A conclusion is reached in the final section.

## II. LEXICAL APPROACHES TO LEXICON AND SYNTAX INTERFACE AND MRC

The MRC hypothesis has its roots in the theoretical orientation that the behavior of a verb, particularly its argument

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realization patterns, is largely determined by its meaning. Adopting predicate decomposition approach, Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995) and Rappaport Hovav and Levin (1998, 2010) make distinction between structural and idiosyncratic meaning encoded in verbs. Only a small set of the information related to linguistic representation is included in their structured lexical representation. The lexical decomposition of a verb is made up of both aspects of meaning. While the idiosyncratic part is encoded in terms of constants, the structural part is encoded in terms of a small set of lexical-semantic templates formed via various combinations of basic eventive predicates such as ACT, CAUSE, BECOME, etc. and constants such as STATE, MANNER, THING, PLACE, INSTRUMENT, etc. The basic inventory of event structure templates are listed in (2).

2) Lexical Semantic Templates

- a. [x ACT <MANNER>] (activity)
- b. [x <STATE>] (state)
- c. [BECOME [x <STATE>]] (achievement)
- d. [[x ACT <MANNER>] CAUSE [BECOME [y <STATE>]]] (accomplishment)
- e. [x CAUSE [BECOME [y <STATE>]]] (accomplishment)

(Rappaport Hovav and Levin, 1998, p. 108)

As manner and result roots belong to different ontological types and thus have distinct positions in event schema: a manner root can only be modifier of the primitive predicate ACT and a result root is the argument of the primitive predicate BECOME, as in (3a) and (3b). It is also proposed that a root has only one position in an event structure. Thus it is predicted that there will be no single verb involving an event structure associated with two distinct positions ruling out the formulations like (3c) and (3d) and then leads to the emergence of two natural classes of verbs: manner and result verbs.

- 3) a. [x ACT<MANNER>]
- b. [[x ACT] CAUSE [y BECOME <RESULT>]]
- c. [[x ACT <ROOT1>] CAUSE [y BECOME <ROOT2>]]
- d. [[x ACT <ROOT>] CAUSE [y BECOME <ROOT>]]

The classification of verbs into manner or result type is also supported by independent semantic notions underlying the two types of verbs: manner and result verbs are associated non-scalar and scalar changes respectively in their lexical semantics. Drawing from studies of scale structure in lexical semantics (Kennedy, 2001; Kennedy and McNally, 2005) Rappaport Hovav and Levin (2010) propose a scale is ‘a set of degrees—point or intervals indicating measurement values—on a particular dimension (e.g. height, temperature, cost), with an associated ordering relation’. A scalar change in an entity involves a change in the value of one of its scalar-valued attributes in a particular direction. They also emphasize that though all dynamic verbs involve change, result verbs differ from manner verbs fundamentally in involving scalar changes, as they lexically specify a scale which represents an attribute of their argument and a change in value of this attribute in a particular direction along the scale. For instance, as explained by Rappaport and Levin (2010) the verb *warm* describes a change associated with a scale on the dimension of temperature, and the scale is made up of values in an increasing order, so the argument it predicates of undergoes a measurable change from a lower temperature to a higher one and thus it is regarded as scalar change. In contrast, manner verbs lexicalize non-scalar changes which are complex and cannot be characterized by an ordered set of values of a single attribute. For example, the verb *jog*, also illustrated by Rappaport and Levin, involves a specific sequence and pattern of movements of legs, though different from the action of walk, but collectively these movements do not represent a change in the values of a single attribute and thus cannot be measured by a scale, so it involves non-scalar change.

### III. COUNTEREXAMPLE VERBS IN ENGLISH

As noted by Husband (2011), the ultimate validity of the MRC rests on negative evidence. It is the lack of verbs which contain both meaning components that supports the hypothesis. An obvious way to falsify the MRC is to name counterexamples. One group of alleged counterexample verbs to the MRC are so-called manner of killing verbs proposed by Beavers and Koontz-Garboden (2012) in (4).

4) Manner of killing verbs: crucify, drown, electrocute, guillotine, hang

They develop a series of diagnostics for both a result and a manner component in a verb’s meaning. Based on their tests, they claim these verbs encode both meaning components violating the MRC. As to result components, using result denial test ‘but nothing is different about X’, object deletion tests and restricted resultative tests, they compare these verbs with canonical manner and result verbs and point out that these manner of killing verbs entail at least some result. For example, they illustrate with result denial tests and point out that these verbs pattern with canonical result verbs such as break disallowing denial of result, distinct from canonical manner verbs such as sweep without result entailments.

- 5) a. Tracy swept the floor, but nothing is different about it.
- b. \*Shane just broke the vase, but nothing is about it.
- c. \*Jane just drowned/hanged/crucified Joe, but nothing is different about him.

(Beavers and Koontz-Garboden, 2012, pp. 9-10)

Similarly, in object deletion tests, these verbs also show similar grammatical behaviors with result verbs such as

*shatter* disallowing object deletion, different from manner verbs such as *scrub*, as illustrated in (6). These tests lead them to the conclusion that these verbs must entail result meaning components.

- 6) a. All last night, Kim scrub.  
 b. \*All last night Kim shattered.  
 c. \*All last night Shane drowned/crucified/electrocuted.

(Beavers and Koontz-Garboden, 2012, pp. 12-13)

Likewise, using selectional restriction tests on subjects, denial of action and complexity of action tests, they conclude that the manner component in these verbs is also truth-conditionally entailed. For instance, these manner of killing verbs place selectional restriction on their subjects, patterning with other canonical manner verbs such as *scrub* and *wipe* in (7).

- 7) a. The hammer broke/shattered the vase.  
 b. \*The earthquake scrubbed/wiped the floor.  
 c. \*The wind hang/crucify Jesus.

(Beavers and Koontz-Garboden, 2012, pp. 18-19)

In addition, based on denial of action tests these linguists also claim the manner component can be identified. Assuming causation is entailed in (8), they believe the ungrammatical status of the sentence is attributed to the contradiction between the entailed action in these verbs and the absence of action indicated in the context. Thus they summarize these verbs also lexicalize a manner component.

- 8) \* The governor crucified the prisoner, but didn't move a muscle—rather, after taking office she failed to issue a pardon!

(Beavers and Koontz-Garboden, 2012, p. 22)

In the following part, I will also have a close look at these verbs to check whether they lexicalize both meaning components simultaneously. A careful reanalysis of the actual uses of these verbs and the linguistic tests used by Beavers and Koontz-Garboden indicate that these verbs encode result but not manner and thus are merely result verbs.

Before the analysis of the actual uses of these verbs, it should be noted that not all manner of killing verbs proposed by Beavers and Koontz-Garboden are relevant to the MRC (Rappaport Hovav, 2015). While the MRC is considered in terms of its role in construction of verb meaning and verbs are often regarded as the default lexical unit the MRC applies to, it should be noted that the MRC is a lexical generalization about what is encoded in roots, which according to Rappaport Hovav and Levin (2010, 2015), are minimal meaningful elements of verbal meaning, but not verbs. Depending on what kind of lexical inventories and morphosyntactic structures available in a language, the grammatical unit of root may or may not overlap with that of verb. For example, in English many verbs such as *run* and *wipe* are mono-morpheme and thus the MRC applies to these monomorphemic verbs directly. However, as also noted by Rappaport Hovav and Levin (2010), in languages where verbs are productively formed by stems and affixes, the MRC only holds of the roots, the minimal meaningful lexical units rather than verbs. Therefore, one needs to be very cautious when judging whether a verb violates the MRC, since even in languages in which mono-morphemic verbs are the norm of verbal construction, there may be verbs built on two or more morphemes or through morphological derivation. The apparent counterexamples *electrocute* and *guillotine* fall into this type. Obviously, *electrocute* is formed by combining the two morphemes, *electro-* and *execute*. *guillotine* is denominal verb and the complexity of its meaning results from the complexity of the meaning related to the artifact noun it is derived from and from a rule of semantic interpretation accompanying a morphological derivation (Kiparsky, 1997; Levin and Rappaport Hovav, 2015). Therefore, *electrocute* and *guillotine* do not strictly negate MRC and the focus of the following discussion will be the three verbs *crucify*, *drown* and *hang*.

As to the meaning component of result of these verbs, Beavers and Koontz-Garboden state explicitly that they believe it to be 'death', but they also argue that what result is encoded is not important, since their tests indicate these verbs at least entail some result. However, besides direct evidence for or against a lexical entailment of death in these verbs, it is also important to reveal the exact nature of result if they do entail this sense, because it will help to determine whether these verbs lexicalize an additional manner sense. First, contrary to Beavers and Koontz-Garboden's belief, it is shown that these verbs do not entail the meaning component of death. Researchers (Husband, 2011; Aldridge, 2012) notice that these verbs may be used in sentences where no death is entailed, as seen in (9). Though these verbs are conventionally associated with a result sense of death giving us a strong impression that these verbs always bring about death, conventional meaning is irrelevant to the present issue, and death is not their entailed meaning component.

9) a. Ruben Enaje...is noted for being crucified 26 times...he has been crucified every year since 1985 on Good Friday

b. A man hung himself by a belt in his closet... two days later he walked out of the hospital.

c. We did find some limited case studies of adults who drowned in cold water and who occasionally survived

(Aldridge, 2012, p. 8)

Then it leaves us to determine whether these verbs lexicalize other result components. Though death is not the entailed meaning component of these verbs, I agree with Beavers and Koontz-Garboden that these verbs do encode certain result. To be specific, I argue these verbs specify acquisition of a highly specific property denoted by the invariant component of meaning in the root. For example, the verb *crucify* must entail somebody's acquisition of a

property “being hung up in a particular configuration”. In fact, it is exactly the result the verb lexicalizes, namely, being nailed to a cross. Similarly, the verb *drown* entails an entity’s acquisition of a property ‘being submerged in an ambient substance’. (Rappaport Hovav, 2015) This is verified by the fact that though as discussed above inferred death sense may be absent in some uses of these verbs, the meaning component concerning the acquisition of this highly specific property is constant across all uses of these verbs. As can be seen in (10), in the uses of these verbs, the acquisition of a kind of highly specific property by a theme denoted in the root cannot be cancelled.

- 10) a. \*The governor crucified the prisoner, but he was not nailed to a cross.  
 b. \*The governor hanged the prisoner, but he was not dropped with a rope around his neck.  
 c. \*The governor drowned the prisoner, but he was not submerged in an ambient liquid substance.

As these verbs do encode result component, it is no wonder that these verbs pass the tests developed by Beavers and Koontz-Garboden aiming to identify result component of meaning. For example, the result denial test ‘nothing is different of X’ just indicates there is certain result, these verbs obviously will be attested to pattern with canonical result verbs. The same is true for object deletion tests. Since these verbs specify the acquisition of a new property by a theme, as a structural argument of BECOME the theme must be syntactically realized in line with the argument realization rule proposed by Rappaport Hovav and Levin (1998).

Since these verbs do entail result, the remaining task is to show they do not encode manner; otherwise they would be counterexamples to the MRC. In fact, if the exact nature of result is clarified, it is not difficult to prove the manner is absent in their lexical meaning. As discussed above, if the result meaning of these verbs is acquisition of the highly specific property denoted by the root, then there is no other meaning component encoded in these verbs. For example, as the verb *hang* specifies the result as acquisition of a property of being dropped with a rope around one’s neck, then that is all about the lexical meaning and there is no additional meaning component concerning manner.

However, Beavers and Koontz-Garboden claim these verbs must involve an action by the agent, because using a negligence situation to deny an action (action denial test) results in contradiction as illustrated in (9), repeated as (11) below.

- 11) \*The governor crucified the prisoner, but didn’t move a muscle—rather, after taking office she failed to issue a pardon!

(Beavers and Koontz-Garboden, 2012, p. 22)

I argue that this test cannot be used to identify an action by the agent; rather it only proves that the external argument ‘the negligent governor’ is not a proper causer for the result specified by these verbs. In other words, given the context of (11), a causative relation cannot be naturally constructed between the governor and the result that the prisoner was crucified. That’s why (11) is contradictory. Note that Beavers and Koontz-Garboden assume with supporting context in (11) there is an entailed causation, but their assumption is not verified and even more seriously it is this assumption that makes them misidentify an action involved in these verbs. Neelman and van de Koot (2010) argue that for an external argument to be a proper causer of an event, the external argument must be identified as the crucial contributing factor (CCF). In addition, Neelman and van de Koot also point out that for some causative verbs the intentionality of an external argument is critical for deciding whether the external argument can be regarded as the CCF, though the action by the external argument is irrelevant. For example, the verb *murder*, though as a result verb not specifying manner or means, it only selects an external argument with intentionality to be the CCF, as seen in (12).

- 12) a. \*The earthquake murdered the family.  
 b. \*John murdered Mary by accident.

Verbs selecting external argument with intentionality to be CCF are incompatible with a causative relation resulting from negligence, since negligence is prototypically regarded as unintentional. However, as noted by Rappaport Hovav (2015) the transitive use of verbs *electrocute* and *crucify* in Beavers and Koontz-Garboden’s example in particular predisposes the association of the verb with an external argument with intentionality, this is contradictory to the negligence situation. That’s why (11) is unacceptable.

A more direct evidence for the absence of manner in these manner of killing verbs is that these verbs allow inanimate subject, as seen in (13)

- 13) a. Presumably one of [Basil] Clark’s more imaginative underlings concocted the fiction that he had been buried up to his neck near the high tide point and left there for the rising sea to drown him....finally the waters drowned him.

(Rappaport Hovav, 2015, p. 7)

- b. Without realizing that the cord had become wrapped around her neck, Mary jumped from the bridge, and the cord snapped taut and hanged her.

(Aldridge, 2012, p.10)

More significantly, the verbs *drown* and *hang* also participate in unaccusative-causative alternation, as in (14), though it is observed that verbs which impose restrictions on external argument cannot be used in this way. This provides further evidence that these verbs do not specify any manner executed by an external argument.

- 14) a. The man drowned.  
 b. At that time you could hang for stealing.

To summarize, Beavers and Koontz-Garboden’s claim that some manner-of-killing verbs also lexicalize manner is

merely an illusion. These verbs do not necessarily involve an action by the agent, and rather they only require external arguments with intentionality in their causative uses. Instead of posing selectional restrictions on subjects, with proper context these verbs allow inanimate subjects. Some of them also participate in causative-unaccusative alternation. Therefore, it is clear from the discussion above that these manner-of-killing verbs only encode result but not manner, and they are result verbs.

Focusing on purported counterexamples to the MRC proposed by Beavers and Koontz-Garboden this section analyzes the actual uses of manner of killing and argues that these verbs lexicalize only result meaning component. Therefore, they do not pose real challenge for the MRC hypothesis.

#### IV. MRC AS A LEXICAL CONSTRAINT

Other researchers admit that there are linguistic phenomena corresponding to the MRC, but they deny it as a principle operating in the lexicon. For example, Mateu and Acedo-Matellán (2012) argue the relevant linguistic phenomena corresponding to the MRC result from different syntactic configurations. Rapoport (2012) abandoning both the syntactic view of Mateu and Acedo-Matellán and a verb root view of Rappaport Hovav and Levin argues that what the MRC reflects is just a switch in aspectual focus. Focusing on the counterarguments from the two approaches, this section reexamines the empirical evidence corresponding to the MRC and argues semantic notions of manner and result based on verb root are well motivated.

Mateu and Acedo-Matellán (2012) propose a syntactic approach to the MRC. According to these linguists, verb roots are not inherently typed as manner or result and the conceptual components encoded in verbs are not constrained in its complexity. Roots can integrate into syntactic structure in any way. The precise meaning of the verb in a sentence is determined by how and where the root is integrated into the syntactic structure. The MRC results from different configurations roots are associated with. A result sense is read off if a root appears as the predicate of a small clause through incorporation and a manner sense is interpreted if a root is an adjunct of *v*. Since a root cannot possibly take two distinct positions in syntactic structure, the MRC follows.

Note that the lexicalist approach proposed by Rappaport Hovav and Levin (1995, 1998, 2010) and the syntactic approach adopted by Mateu and Acedo-Matellán (2012) are not completely incompatible. They share at least two points. First, the two approaches have a consensus on the bipartite nature of meaning, i.e., verb meaning components are made up of two parts: the structural meaning and idiosyncratic meaning. They both recognize that it is the structural meaning of a verb that affects a verb's argument realization patterns and other grammatical behaviors. Second, as to the MRC, they both adopt a verb root view that a root has only one position in certain structure ruling out the possibility that a verb root is associated with two positions simultaneously.

However, the two approaches also contrast with each other concerning the nature of the structural meaning. Rappaport Hovav and Levin consider the structural meaning to be represented as event structure, which is determined by the semantics of the predicate, whereas Mateu and Acedo-Matellán argue the structural meaning is not determined by the lexical predicate but by syntactic construction. In fact, it is just their different theoretical positions as to the nature of structural meaning that makes them to interpret the linguistic phenomena corresponding to the MRC differently. The evidence to support the syntactic approach is that the most prototypical result verb break can be interpreted as either manner or result sense when it takes different positions in syntactic structure, as in (15)

- 15) a. He broke into the room. [<sub>vP</sub> [<sub>v</sub>√BREAK <sub>v</sub>] [<sub>SC</sub> [<sub>DP</sub> he] [<sub>into the room</sub>]]]  
 b. The glass broke. [<sub>vP</sub> <sub>v</sub> [<sub>SC</sub> [<sub>DP</sub> the glass] [<sub>√BREAK</sub>]]]

(Mateu and Acedo-Matellán, 2012, p. 6)

Nonetheless, Rappaport Hovav (2015) argues that the meaning component of manner should be differentiated from the relational notion of manner, as in principle both manner and result roots may be used as event modifier representing relational manner as in (46a). In this case, though the root is used to modify the whole event, its truth conditional content/ontological type is still that of result. She further explains that a verb root sometimes can be used to modify an event type which it is not prototypically associated with. An example Rappaport Hovav provides is the way construction which describes moving along a path in a particular manner. It has been observed by linguists (Goldberg 1995, Jakendoff 1997, among others) that verbs in this construction in their unmarked uses do not normally select the way complement and they are often manner verbs, but sometimes result verbs can also be used, as in (16)

- 16) The woman's 13-year-old, who broke his way out to safety, says he woke up to find his whole house on fire.

(Rappaport Hovav, 2015, p. 3)

As to this case, though the result verb break is used to modify a transitional motion which is different from the change encoded in its lexical meaning, the truth conditional content or the ontological type remains unchanged, namely, a result one.

In addition, concerning the problems that the syntactic approaches to argument realization face in general, Kiparsky (1997) points out that even a pure syntactic structure has to make crucial reference to conceptual knowledge and thus requires a semantic representation of the predicate. For instance, in Mateu and Acedo-Matellán's analysis of the manner-of-killing verb guillotine, they argue the syntactic argument structure of the verb in (17a) corresponds to its use

as a causative predicate of change-of-state as in (17b). In this case the root is the complement of an abstract P element that expresses ‘Terminal Coincidence Relation’.<sup>1</sup> However, they also explain that structurally nothing prevents (17a) from being interpreted as involving a structure like (17c); rather it is just pragmatically ill-formed. In a sense, by saying this they admit that the semantics of the predicate is important to constrain which syntactic structure it may be associated with.

17) a. They guillotined Mary.

b. [vP [DP They][v' √ GUILLOTINE [PP=SC [DP Mary] [P' PTCR √GUILLOTINE]]]]

c. # [vP [DP They] [v' [v √GUILLOTINE v] [DP Mary]]]

(# on the reading: “They created Mary guillotining/with a guillotine”.)

In fact, the semantics of the predicate *guillotine* provides essential reference for proper syntactic structures to be built. As Kiparsky (1997) notes denominal causative verbs refer to generically intentional activities and if an action is named after a thing, it involves a canonical use of the thing. Thus the verb *guillotine* derives its prototypical meaning from the canonical use of the thing that it named after, i.e., a piece of machine used to cut off people’s head. Only based on this conceptual component of the predicate, may the selection of relevant syntactic structure be possible. Similarly, Rappaport Hovav also observes that even the syntactic approach makes implicit distinction between conceptual and relational notion of manner representing the former as (18a) and the latter as (18b). More essentially, as proposed by Rappaport Hovav and Levin (2010), the semantics of manner and result verbs can be well delineated as scalar and non-scalar changes independently, so it is possible to tease the lexicalized meaning components of verb root out from those contributed by particular contexts.

18) a. [v' [v √SMILE] [√SMILE]]

b. [v' [v √SMILE v] [DP their thanks]]

Therefore, it can be seen that conceptual knowledge is indispensable in explaining the notions of manner and result, and they cannot be reduced to merely different syntactic configurations.

Rapoport (2012) proposes the MRC derive from differences in aspectual focus rejecting a root view of the MRC proposed by both Rappaport Hovav and Levin as well as by Mateu and Acedo-Matellan. According to her, the minimal semantic unit which determines the syntactic structure that a verb may appear in is not the root; rather a verb may be composed of two different types of atomic meaning components, manner atoms (manners, instruments, means) and result atoms (states, locations), which freely and independently merge syntactic structures with different argument realization patterns and aspectual properties. Variable grammatical behaviors of a verb are all derived from a single lexical entry. A manner or a result atom projecting distinct aspectual features each is associated with only one part of a syntactic structure. When interpreting a structure, only one part of the structure can be foregrounded with the other being backgrounded. The impossibility of foregrounding two parts of a structure simultaneously results in the MRC.

In Rapoport’s approach, verbs with variable grammatical behaviors can be explained directly by the free projection of different atomic meaning components into syntactic structures, so it does not have the problem of the proliferation of lexical entries on one hand, and on the other, it also saves the trouble of formulating interface or mapping rules such as template augmentation based on event structures. In a sense, it is theoretically economical and effective in tackling the lexicon and syntax interface. However, there is also an obvious problem with it: free projection of meaning atoms and proposed aspectual focus lead to undergeneralization of verbs which otherwise fall into natural classes based on their ontological type, manner or result. According to Rapoport (2012), based on how verbs are composed up with different types of atomic meaning components, they can be divided into three types: verbs with a manner atom, verbs with a result atom and verbs with both manner and result atoms, as in (19).

19) a. Verbs with a manner atom: run, jump, laugh

b. Verbs with a result atom: arrive, enter, advance, cool, melt

c. Verbs with both manner and result atoms: cut, melt, break, hit

As to verbs with only one type of atomic component either manner (19a) or result (19b), there is no disagreement upon the interpretation of grammatical behaviors of these verbs between Rappaport Hovav and Levin’s lexicalist approach and Rapoport’s atom theory, since no matter how the meaning unit is named, manner/result atoms or manner/result verb roots, their different grammatical behaviors are basically determined by the meaning components encoded in the lexical entries. The two approaches do show contrast in interpreting grammatical behaviors of verbs which are claimed to have both types of meaning atoms in Rapoport’s approach in (19c). It can be seen that these verbs crosscut the ontological types of manner and result verbs in lexicalist approach. Rapoport mainly bases her argument on verbs which show the grammatical behaviors of both manner and result verbs. Generally, she considers the properties of verbs that can appear with constructions or time adverbials which show the durative aspectual feature as hallmarks to indicate they contain manner atoms. According to her, for example, concerning the meaning atoms that the verb *cut* contains, whereas generally its result atom is focused to indicate a result state of a clear separation in its prototypical uses as in (20a), it is also possible to focus its manner atom when it is used in progressive aspect, with durative time adverbial, or in conative construction in (20b-d). Rapoport explains that in either case both meaning atoms are present,

<sup>1</sup> In Hale and Kayser’s 2002 sense: A TCR involves a coincidence between one edge or terminus of the theme’s path and the place, while a central coincidence relation (CCR) involves a coincidence between the center of the theme and the center of the palce)



but only one can be focused at a time.

- 20) a. Jane cut the ropes in ten minutes.  
 b. Jane was cutting the bread for an hour.  
 c. Jane cut the ropes for ten minutes.  
 d. Jane cut at the ropes for an hour.

(Rapoport, 2012, pp. 4-9)

Rappaport Hovav and Levin (2013) also address the variable behaviors of the verb *cut* proposing it lexicalize only one meaning component manner or result in each use with the other one dropping out. Probably, at this stage it is difficult to tell which approach is more tenable.

However, some other verbs which are also claimed to contain both manner and result atoms, such as *hit* and *break*, pose a challenge for Rapoport's atom theory, because these verbs never defocus the meaning atom that is assumed to be the lexicalized meaning component in the roots in Rappaport Hovav and Levin's (1998, 2010) approach and alternatively focus the other meaning atom. For instance, Rapoport claims that *break* contains both a result atom 'being dysfunctional' and a manner atom 'using forceful means' (Rapoport, 2012, p. 2), but in its various uses, the manner atom cannot be focused. Using Rapoport's tests to detect the aspectual focus associated with manner atom, *break* cannot be used in conative construction as in (21a) and it is incompatible with durative time adverbials as in (21b). Similarly, the verb *hit* is also assumed to have both a manner atom 'using forceful manner' and a result atom 'being at the point of contacting' (Rapoport, 2012, p. 2), but it does not exhibit the aspectual focus of the result atom, as it is not compatible with framed time adverbial 'in X time' as in (21c). Then if these verbs contain a type of meaning atom which cannot be aspectually focused, how could one possibly know there is indeed such a meaning atom in the semantics of the lexical entries? Rapoport proposes that only the manner atom associated with "wielding of a particular instrument" can be focused (Rapoport, 2012, p. 8), and there is no focusable action associated with "implementing forceful means", but the fact is that though both the verb *break* and *hit* are associated with a manner atom "forceful means/manner", the action expressed by *hit* in (21d) but not by *break* in (21a) can be focused. Therefore Rapoport's argument that verbs such as *break* and *hit* contain two types of meaning atoms are not convincing; rather these facts are better to be understood as these verbs contain only one meaning component result or manner, thus conforming to their ontological categorization suggested by Rappaport Hovav and Levin (1998, 2010). Correspondingly, it is also better to treat verbs like *cut* as polysemous verbs with different meaning components lexicalized in each use. It is more tenable to regard the MRC as a constraint operating in the lexicon rather than differences in aspectual focus projected from different meaning atoms.

- 21) a. \*Jane broke at the vase.  
 b. \*Jane broke the vase for two minutes  
 c. \* Jane hit the door in a minute.  
 d. Jane hit at the door.

This section has examined arguments which question the validity of the MRC as a lexical constraint. It reveals that manner and result cannot be reduced to either different syntactic configurations or differences in aspectual focus. A root view of the MRC that manner and result are conceptual notions constrained by verbs' ontological type is supported.

## V. CONCLUSION

Focusing on the MRC hypothesis, the paper reviews the lexicalist approach to lexicon-syntax interface and the theoretical framework related to the MRC has been explicated by introducing the theoretical motivation for the MRC hypothesis, semantic notions of the manner and result verbs. Manner of killing verbs in English, which are proposed to constitute counterexample verbs to the MRC are discussed and demonstrated that they actually lexicalize only the meaning component of result but not manner and thus do not undermine the validity of the MRC. Two approaches which observe the linguistic phenomena corresponding to the MRC but deny its status as a lexical constraint are also reviewed and shown that the MRC cannot be understood as only deriving from different syntactic configurations or merely differences in aspectual focus. Rather it is a viable principle operating in the lexicon.

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# Teachers' Self-efficacy and Performance in Teaching Literature in the Interest-based Classes at Senior High School

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**Abstract**—Teacher's self-efficacy is a specific phenomenon that can be seen as one of the contributors to the process of learning and effective teaching. Teacher self-efficacy was investigated at two Senior High Schools (SMAN 1 and SMAN 2) in Kendari, and proved its importance in the interest-based classes at senior high schools in Kendari. Findings revealed two major methods employed in the research study: 1) interviews conducted in the form of an open interview with 5 teachers; and 2) observation was focused on teachers teaching materials, classroom management, as well as the enthusiasm of the teacher during the learning process takes place. Based on the finding, this study argues that teachers have high confidence in their ability to teach literature because they ascribe high value to their performance. However, the self-efficacy of teachers did not have an impact when applied in practice. In the classroom observation, these elements generally did not show up. This shows that the dependence of teachers on textbooks is not accompanied by an increase in the ability of teachers to ask questions to the students during the learning process, so that the high self-efficacy of teachers does not produce learning achievement is high. This goal can be achieved by giving more opportunities and experiences for teachers to improve the quality of learning.

**Index Terms**—teachers' self-efficacy, performance, teaching literature, interest-based class

## I. INTRODUCTION

Self-efficacy has become an important concept among educational researchers, since Albert Bandura introduced the concept in the 1970s through social learning theory. It is an individual's belief in his ability to perform a task or action required to achieve a particular result. The level of self-efficacy is different in every person (Bandura, 1997). In education, two kinds of self-efficacy matter. One is students' self-efficacy in relation to their own beliefs about their competence and performance, both actual and perceived, in specific content areas. The other is teachers' self-efficacy about their ability to impact change in student performance and achievement in the classroom. In fact, self-efficacy of teachers is a central phenomenon that can be seen as one of the contributors to the process of learning and effective teaching.

Teacher efficacy (short for teacher self-efficacy) has been associated with several factors of teaching effectiveness. For instance, research has noted impacts of teacher self-efficacy on rates of teacher retention and attrition (Billingsley, 2004). Teacher efficacy related to their classroom management has also been demonstrated as key to teacher burnout (Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. 2000); and teaching assistants' self-efficacy in teaching literature by its sources, personal assessments, and consequences (Mills, N., 2011).

One study investigated factors that contribute to special education teacher attrition and retention, Billingsley (2004) addresses four major themes: teacher characteristics and personal factors, teacher qualifications, work environments, and teachers' affective reactions to work. Problematic district and school factors lead to negative affective reactions to work which may lead to withdrawal and eventually attrition. It assumes that there are some teachers who remained calm and confident to face the problem that was happening so that they carried out their duties and responsibilities as usual.

Concerned with teachers' self-efficacy, Gibson and Dembo (1984) proved that the self-efficacy of teachers is a significant contributor to individual differences in the effectiveness of teaching. While Coladarci (1992) was concerned with the degree of teachers' sense of efficacy, as well as other hypothesized influences on commitment to teaching. It seems that the commitment of teachers has been considered an important factor in influencing teacher satisfaction and retention of teachers.

Furthermore, various teaching practices and teacher behavior can affect student performance (e.g., Tschannen-Moran, M., Hoy, A. W., & Hoy, W. K. (1998); and Goddard, R. D., Hoy, W. K., & Hoy, A. W. (2000). Accordingly,

researchers have successfully documented how self-efficacy affects other constructs such as self attainment and learning achievement.

In class management, one study examined the direction and time-frame of relationships between perceived self efficacy in classroom management and the three dimensions of teacher burnout (Brouwers, A., & Tomic, W. 2000). Henson (2001) asserted that teacher self-efficacy is an important variable which influences a teacher in selecting classroom management approaches. While, other researchers also proved the influence of self-efficacy of teachers to the elements of teaching for example, Pajares (1996) proved that the self-efficacy is closely related to the academic performances; Zimmerman, (2000; 82) revealed that the self-efficacy was considered a highly effective predictor of students' motivation and learning. However, factors that might influence teaching practices and teacher behavior have received less attention in teaching literature.

More specifically in the context of education and schooling in Indonesia, 2013 curriculum incredibly emphasizes the activeness of learners in the learning and teaching process. The curriculum of the school emphasizes appreciation of the learner as a unique person. Learners are encouraged to have awareness as a part of an international community in participating as a world citizens (Chairani, 2015). It means that, the curriculum must be designed by giving opportunity to learners to improve the differences in skill and interest, one of them is the quality of teaching language and literature, both Indonesian and English, as the one of the curriculum needs to be addressed. It is the target of English learning and teaching in senior high school to enable the learners to use English language to communicate. In other words, the target is to make learners who are able to use English language functionally for their daily conversation both in oral and written form.

Therefore, the present study investigates teachers' self-efficacy in relation to New Curriculum recently implemented in Indonesia. This qualitative study examines the perspectives of five Indonesian teachers of literature regarding their own sense of teacher efficacy and their ability to deliver effective literature instruction within the New Curriculum frameworks. As such this study addresses the following questions: 1) How do teachers generally perceive their own teacher self-efficacy for teaching literature within the New Curriculum framework? 2) How are the teachers' self-efficacy related to their teaching experience? 3) How are the teachers' senses of self efficacy associated with their beliefs about students' ability?

#### *A. Significance of Teacher Efficacy in Teaching Literature in Indonesia*

The concept of self-efficacy comes from Western culture so that it may be different in interpretation when applied in teaching culture in Indonesia. Some statements in the self-efficacy instrument come from an instrument developed by researchers at Ohio State University. These instruments are used to measure self-efficacy and student learning outcomes that have been processed through a rigorous validation process. Thus, it is likely there will be a mismatch between the cultural aspects of self-efficacy in Indonesia. However, efforts to find and identify what was in the minds of teachers must still be done to improve the quality of teachers and the quality of student learning.

With growing insistence of education reform in Indonesia, teaching and teacher quality is a hot issue that must be addressed wisely. Teachers and schools are increasingly required to meet the standards of education. More specifically, in the context of education and schooling in Indonesia, the quality of teaching language and literature (both Indonesian and English) needs to be addressed. It has long been recognized that literature is an important factor in the development of quality human character and is even used as one indicator in determining the human development index (HDI). Therefore, the process of learning and appreciation of literature among students is one area that is interesting to study. Results of research and knowledge about the process can enrich our understanding of how teachers and students look at the importance of literature.

Literature-based learning, character and locality are very effectively implemented within the subjects of language and literature. Literature-based learning can improve students' ability to become better learners, and even become better readers and writers; it is more effectively to improve student learning through the writing narratives. In this case, literary learning requires students to be good readers, good listeners and good responders. This is what shapes the character of the students, with more formidable.

Teaching literature cannot be separated from the teaching of the language even though it seems their basic competencies are separately. In the Indonesian education, the term "language and literature" tends to be interpreted separately. The tendency often leads to proposals that language and literatures should be taught by different teachers. Based on the findings of Harras (2003), there are 91.6% of respondents "agree" to separation of the literary languages with respect to the autonomy of teaching literature. This indicates that language and literature should separate.

Teaching literature is considered good and true when aesthetic perspective and an emphasis on the viewing angle is adopted. This is in line with the opinion of Rosenblatt, "To teach literature correctly is to emphasize the aesthetic stance and to de-emphasize the efferent." (1978, p.22-47). It means that students can not only identify what is contained in literary works such as background, character and characterization, as well as the storyline, but they can also identify what lies beyond the literary works such as the authorial intent, symbolism, narrative and so on.

#### *B. Self-efficacy*

Self-efficacy is a concept formulated by Bandura (1997), professor of psychology at Stanford University on social learning theory. According to Bandura (1997, p.3), "efficacy is a major base of action. People guide their lives by their

beliefs of personal efficacy Self-efficacy refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments." Thus, this efficacy is the belief that encourages individuals to do and achieve something.

Self-efficacy is only one small part of the whole complex picture of human life, but it can provide a better understanding of life in terms of human capabilities. The diversity of human capabilities is recognized by the theory of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy theory is an attempt to understand the functioning of human life in self-control, setting the process of thinking, motivational, affective and psychological conditions (Bandura, 1997, p.36). Through this perspective, self-efficacy is believed to make people able to interpret and translate the factors internal and external to the action. However, it should be emphasized that different individuals have different abilities in reading their minds and looking at their environment.

Self-efficacy does not grow by itself, but is formed in the triangular relationship between personal characteristics, behavioral patterns and environmental factors (Bandura, 1997). Thus, this relationship is natural, personal and social, and it may require a long and complex process for creation. According to Bandura (1997), there are four sources of information that provide an important contribution to the formation of self-efficacy: (1) the experience of personal success (enactive mastery experiences), (2) experience of outcomes on others as a model (vicarious experiences), (3) praise and social rewards (verbal persuasion and other related social recognitions), and (4) a state of psychological and affective individual (physiological and affective states). The fourth source is what will be explored in this study to measure the level of self-efficacy of students in reading and writing foreign languages.

Basically self-efficacy is not specific to certain individuals because this is a general concept. Bandura (1997) argues that self-efficacy is the ability of the public consisting of aspects of cognitive, social, emotional and behavior, and the individual must be able to process these aspects in order to achieve certain goals. He cautioned that self-efficacy is a multi-purpose instrument for this concept not only relates to the ability, but also able to gain confidence that the individual can do various things in various conditions. In other words, self-efficacy is acted as generators of human capabilities. Therefore, it is not surprising if one has a strong self-efficacy, then he or she is motivated and even showed extreme view in the face of a situation.

### C. *Teacher Efficacy*

Studies on teacher self-efficacy have largely been conceptualized within Bandura's (1994, 2002) notion of self-efficacy. Teacher self-efficacy has been defined as the extent to which a teacher is confident enough to his or her ability to promote students' learning (Bandura, 1994). According to Bandura, human behavior is motivated by the interaction of two kinds of expectations: self-efficacy and outcome expectancy; the former referring to peoples' judgments of their capability to undertake and successfully execute a specific task in a specific context, and the latter judgments about the consequences that this performance would bring about.

Smylie (1989) recognized that teachers with high self-efficacy are much more likely to provide opportunities for student communication by using a variety of models to meet the needs of all learners (working individually, in pairs, and in groups). Also a research has substantiated that teachers with high levels of self-efficacy are more likely to divide the class into small groups rather than teaching the class as a whole, thereby allowing the opportunity for more individualized instruction (Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Thus, it can be concluded that teachers with high self-efficacy allows providing a better learning process.

### D. *Indonesian Teacher Education and New Curriculum as the Research Context*

Indonesia has modified its course of study 10 times from 1947 KTSP (School Level Based- Curriculum). Ministry of education and culture of Republic of Indonesia has already revealed the new course of study for Indonesia's education. It's known as the 2013 course of study. The implementation of the 2013 course of study has some effects in many ways in which somehow. The results should be in positive or negative. The benefits square measure the nice normal ability, the constructive approximation technique, and therefore the continued ability from elementary school to SMA (high school). Firstly, the graduation normal ability is regular. Per KTSP, the themes had to be fastened to take care of it. On the contrary, the 2013 course of study, the determination of graduation normal ability had to be fastened initial before the themes. Secondly, the 2013 course of study completes the approximation technique supported the students' ability. The new course of study fulfils 3 main parts of education: information, skill, and perspective. Information is evidenced by the lesson generally. Talent is from their sensible lesson like sports and perspective is mirrored by implementing the extra time for faith subject. seeable of character building and faith subjects square measure inserted into the 2013 course of study a lot of. The 2013 course of study is meant endlessly from elementary school to SMA. Specifically, the SMA ability could be a continuance from elementary school and secondary school (SMP).

In this regard, the government ought to specialize in making ready several things to implement the new course of study. A minimum of there are square measure 3 vital things should be fastened. They're the textbook, teacher training; education governance. The foremost important preparation is that the textbook. If the course of study is revised, and therefore the textbook is unchanged, as a result the new course of study can appear as if an impotency. It suggests that one thing that appears as threatening as a tiger, however doesn't stand up to a challenge. The government ought to prepare supply books for academics and students, and in fact each contents square measure completely different. Following distinguished readiness is academics coaching. During this case the implementation of the course of study is

completed stage by stage that the teacher coaching also will be applied endlessly. If the implementation starts from the first grade, the fourth grade, the seventh grade, and therefore the tenth grade, a minimum of the academics National Examination (UN) agency can be a part of just about five hundred.

The last eminent issue that should be fastened is that the education governance. The ministry has meant the stage of the education governance. For that reason, the education governance for the 2013 course of study is additionally adjusted like the report administration book. Surely, ever-changing the course of study can modification four aspects: the content standards, method standards, graduation standards, and assessment standards. If four standards within the KTSP square measure modified in order that the report administration book, all of those changes mean that the new course of study very wants a giant set-up to be done by the government.

Therefore between KTSP and therefore the 2013 course of study create some variations and resemblances. It will be an honest facet and a nasty facet so. So as to manage the surprising impacts, well-preparation of the government is totally required. The implementation of 2013 course of study has round-faced several polemics. If the 2013 course of study is enforced in within the 2013/2014 school year, the government, teachers, and each person enclosed should support the modification by doing significantly in their own authorities.

While imposing many changes in the learning process from the previous curriculum, the government implemented it after only a one-year trial. Meanwhile the 2013 curriculum had the noble goal of imparting real-life knowledge to students it was a total failure in its implementation. As with any curriculum, teaching literature at school definitely oriented literary knowledge and literary appreciation. That orientation can be lowered to knowing, doing, and being literary; appreciation, expression, and production of literature; or can be formulated in terms of understanding, doing, and enjoying literature, all of which can be contextualized more widely, can be discussed with other texts. Whereas some of investigations have identified consistent relationships between teachers' efficacy beliefs and certain antecedent factors, researchers not yet to understand fully the connection between school context and efficacy beliefs. For example, many of the studies examining this relationship still inconsistent results.

Moreover, whereas researcher investigated the relations of contextual factors to teacher efficacy beliefs, few (if any) examine possible mechanisms that might mediate or explain these relationships. The purpose of this study was two-fold: The purpose was to examine what is the level of teachers efficacy, how is teacher efficacy related to experience level, beliefs about ability, what interaction happens between teachers' efficacy toward their performance – a factorial analysis, and whether there is any influences of teachers' efficacy and their performances.

## II. METHODS

In particular, this study aimed to identify teacher perceptions about their own teacher self-efficacy for teaching literature within the New Curriculum framework; their performance in teaching literature related to their years of teaching experience; and their self sense of efficacy associated with their beliefs about students' ability. The variable studied these perceptions measured using an open-ended and semi-structured interview. Data for a phenomenological study is collected by a number of methods, such as interviews and observation. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) stated: "In focusing the interview on the experienced meanings of the subject's life world, phenomenology has been relevant for clarifying the mode of understanding in a qualitative research interview". The interview method was chosen as it encouraged discussion about teacher experiences with their teaching process. The reason to use individual semi-structured interviews as this was the best method to gather data on each individual's personal attitudes and perspectives.

Generally, qualitative interviews attempt to allow researchers to understand the world from their participants' points of view and also to unfold the meaning of people's experiences, as well as to uncover their lived world based on scientific explanations (Bogdan & Biklen, 2006; Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Merriam, 2007). Therefore, in this paper, it tried to explain how participants from a particular context experience having a gifted and talented child in their life. Hence, interviewing the participants seemed to be the most appropriate method to achieve this objective.

The target population for this study is the secondary public school teachers who taught students in grade 9 through grade 12 in two high schools - Private High School (SMA) - in Kendari. The subject was 5 teachers of 12 total teachers involved themselves voluntarily. Before the study is done, all the teachers asked to sign a consent form for data collection.

An interview conducted in the form of an open interview on 5 teaches at the time when the teacher does not have a teaching schedule. All the answers or their statements recorded on audiotape. The questions raised related to the planning, implementation, evaluation of learning and performance improvement activities of professional teachers at school or outside of school. The audio recordings were then transcribed. Classroom observations also conducted to strengthen the data collected through interviews, classroom observation is necessary to be done. This observation is focused on several activities of preparation of teachers teaching materials, classroom management involves asking questions, giving feedback and modeling, as well as the enthusiasm of the teacher during the learning process takes place.

## III. DISCUSSION

In the following subsections, it presents the findings of the research questions in the order in which are presented above. Several key themes emerged from the data, firstly describe findings relating to teacher self-efficacy for teaching literature within the new curriculum framework, (research question 1); and then explain how the self-efficacy related to their teaching experience (research question 2); finally, present the teacher's self senses of efficacy associated with their beliefs about students' ability (research question 3).

#### A. Teaching Literature within the New Curriculum Framework

In the era of today's technology and communication, English as an international language has more dominant role. It can be predicted that quite a lot of students who would be interested to learn English more intensively by taking English language and literature subject. In the 2013 curriculum, the textbooks for interest-based class at senior high schools based on the core and basic competencies that have been issued by the Government of Indonesia. Based on the characteristics of curriculum, teaching materials are presented more in the form of activities to do student, either individually or in groups. Such activities are designed by considering the factors diversity of topics, situations, contexts, and appeal so that students are not easily bored, on the contrary they could learn in a pleasant atmosphere.

One of the data for example, teacher aware of one of the rules of 2013 curriculum that they mostly requires their prime professional challenge as developing their own subject matter and its pedagogies and establishing its relevance to their students, together with ensuring that they had the skills to implement the goals of the discipline in the question. It described as I (Interviewer) and R(espondent) as follows:

*I: Do you follow the 2013 curriculum?*

*R1: "Yes, we follow the curriculum".... "we teach as usual as in the curriculum, there is already a class syllabus for interest-based class that is different from the regular one", however, R3 noted "Yes, I follow that curriculum. In 2013 curriculum, the involvement of the teacher is only 30%, where 70% is done by the students themselves"; while R4 noted that "following to the 2013 curriculum, a classroom activity are 75 percent for students and 25 percent for teacher".*

It indicated that the involvement of teacher in 2013 curriculum, students to be involved at least 75 % in the learning process. But with regard to the teaching materials, teachers sometimes prepare materials or students allow to searching for their own materials.

*I: Could you tell me about the available collections of literature for being tough and kinds of literary texts you use as teaching materials?*

*R1: "Actually it prepared not too prominent that schools are prepared, so teachers who initiated the search for literary material itself", but R3 commented: "...learners much find materials by themselves or I just did some improvements in the materials to make students more interesting.... , there are some kinds of English literature that I taught such as song, novel, drama and poetry.", while R4 said: "...only instructed what students have to prepare and then search for their own material.", and R5 noted: "The material is difficult to find because not many books available on ..., thus most students searching or browsing the internet."*

It mostly described that teachers do not always use the material which is provided by school to teach the students in literature class, but sometimes when it is possible, ask students to prepare their own materials.

Concerned with the ways of the teachers delivered their lesson, teachers applied some strategies that attempt to be actively involved and try to find the right methods as cooperative learning which may in the different methods, such as discussion, peer group and other as noted as follows:

*I: What strategies do you use to reach the target in learning?*

*R1: "I always do strategies in vary", R4 noted that: "I applied in varies for example cooperative method. For strategy, I don't tick only one strategy because I worried if students get bored."*

*I: How about the method you apply?*

*R3: "I just focus on students' centered; therefore the learners much find materials by themselves."*

*I: How the way you applied that method?*

*R4: "Well, in managing small or big group discussion of students, I put them randomly.", while R5 noted: "I use a scientific approach, dominant by applying the student-centered and group discussions."*

It seems that teachers try to have a direct influence on students to be connected with the students' minds. Teachers do not tick with only one strategy but use the same technique repeatedly. Moreover, in managing small or big group of students, teacher put them randomly, so students grouped in small or big group discussion. It also avoid student dominating the small group.

By those statements above, it is good to support teacher and students need as the materials interesting for them, because it talks about story, poem, novel and others. Besides, it is based on their own choices because students choose materials based on their own interest. That is why, the learning environment more enjoyable for them since it is their own choice. Furthermore, the teachers try to make students more active in learning in which the students search for the learning material and put into students-active strategy. However, teachers do not give further information into what kind of technique the teacher uses other than that the technique is from cooperative learning method.

#### B. Teachers' Self-efficacy and Teaching Experience

The finding is in line with teachers' self-efficacy concerning with their professional identity or teaching experience. As in the curriculum of 2013, English language and literature be one option as an interest-based class. In handling the class, one of teacher faces many challenges in applying the teaching literature. Therefore, teachers in the interest-based class asked if must or not to be trained before the school decides to apply the syllabus or lesson plan. Here is how one teacher educator described the resistance:

*I: Before starting to teach in interest-based class, is there any special training for teachers before teaching literature?*

*R1: "No special training. We teach as usual as in the curriculum, there is already a class syllabus for interest-based class that is different from the regular one, while R3 noted: "Actually, I have been trained before are allowed to teach English literature class", and R4 said: "Yes, It must be. I got a kind of training."*

In accordance with applying the syllabus or lesson plan, not all teachers follow a kind of training. The reason that course syllabus already provided for interest-based class, in terms of the teaching and learning process they teach adjusted with signs of syllabus. Teacher made it clear that they could plan, develop, and implement their teaching according to their own intentions and wishes. This also seems to be the situation in handle English language and literature class with 20 to 30 students in it. Teachers described this as follows:

*I: How many students you teach in English language and literature class?*

*R1: "30 student", while R2 said: "There are 23 students", and R3 noted: "It consist of 20 students", but R4 said: "34 students for 2 classes"*

The total student is categorized as effective classroom since his classroom is consist of 20 students. Logically, because English literature class based on students own choice; therefore it is real interest-based class which means students must be face different motivation with one of literary fields, whether it is drama, poetry, or novel. Teachers described their thoughts as follows:

*I: How do you motivate your students in teaching literature?*

*R4 argued: "Because my job is teaching, so I must fulfill it. Students choose English class, means it based on their own motivation on their interest over the subject of literature. So, I determine the students' motivation from what they have chosen among other optioning classes."*

*I: Let me know then, how do you see the students' motivation in learning literature.*

*R3: "Students are motivated to choose and learn English through literature in this interest class. It can be analyzed through the total students. I only teaches 20 students even the others have more."*

It simply that teachers motivated their students to choose and learn English through literature in this interest class. The reason may through the total students small class size only 20 students. However, in the process of teaching the students to analyze the text, teachers should experience themselves in deliver how to appreciate the literary works as the following descriptions:

*I: So, what kinds of literary texts you use as teaching materials? Let me know in details.*

*R3: There are some kinds of English literature that I taught such as song, novel, drama and poetry. In the process of learning, I share some materials. For example in the teaching of song, I ask students to find song, and then analyze it. But sometimes I found a song by myself then analyzed it together through the involvement of technology such as LCD projector.*

*I: So, how about teaching short story?*

*R3: "Well, short story is the easiest part of teaching literature. This is because the stories are always interesting for them."*

*I: So how about prose fiction or drama?*

*R3: "Oh, you mean students' appreciation of novel, it is quite hard to involve the learners in the real reading of novel since the time allocation is limited and the numbers of pages of novel are quite a lot to be learned in the classroom. While teaching of drama is quite different, because I apply the role play."*

In the process of analyzing above types of literature, teacher did not involve the learners in the experience of real analysis. He only taught them the theory about analyzing those kinds of English literature, but sometimes he involved students with only the simple analysis, such as intrinsic elements. It can be argued that this is because the capacity of the learners which is of course different with the capacity of the university students. He doesn't think that his learners will be able to do that.

### *C. Teachers' Self-efficacy and Their Beliefs about Students' Ability*

In line with teachers' self-efficacy concerning with their beliefs about their students ability, respondent 1 (R1) argues about the assessment or the evaluation she applied:

*I: What about the assessment? I mean, the evaluation method used*

*R1: Assessment used in this school is adapted to the assessment guidelines ... for example if there is a novel task, they look for themselves then asked to find anything in the novel.*

*I: So according to you, is more prominent for those who took literature classes.*



*R1: Yes ..., they are more prominent participating in interest-based class ... they intensively studied literature because it was their chosen majors. But generally in a class he will be dominant in the following literature lesson so the results will vary.*

It means that, she uses two kind of assessment; written test or oral performance. She uses both of the types to assess students' comprehension in novel, drama, poetry, and so on. She uses the assessments that seem appropriate with the course. While respondent 3 (R3) argues if he allows students to know how to analyze the intrinsic element elements of literary work:

*I: Do they analyze those types of literary works? I mean all the elements.*

*R3: I didn't involve the learners in the experience of real analysis. I only taught them the theory about analyzing those kinds of works. It because the capacity of the learners which is of course different with the capacity of the university students. I don't think that our students will be able to do that. Even, sometimes I involved them with only in the simple analysis, such as intrinsic elements.*

In the teaching process, he only asks the students to find simple literary works then analyzed it together through the involvement of technology such as LCD projector.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

In relation to this, most teachers said in interviews that they were applying some teaching approaches for example, applying the method of cooperative learning approach although it takes a lot of time in preparation. It is understandable that teachers have to bear the burden of a heavy curriculum in the education system in this country.

Based on the results of the qualitative data processing discovered important things that need attention. Self-efficacy of teachers does not have an impact when applied in practice teaching. These findings can be interpreted to mean that the teacher should demonstrate behaviors that reflect the elements of self-efficacy.

In the classroom observation, these elements are generally not appear even teaching approach was not indicated as when the process of cooperative learning, teachers do not demonstrate efficacy themselves by observing and following the discussion process of students in the learning process. In this case, during the interaction of group discussions in the classroom, the teacher should monitor the process of group discussion. So, it appears if there is no missing link between what is believed, said and practiced by the teacher.

Classroom observation results showed that reliance on textbooks is not accompanied by an increase in the ability of teachers to ask questions to the students during the learning process. Basically, the diversity of questions can provide more opportunities and experiences for students to learn a variety of things. Most of the questions asked only in the low cognitive level (recall or rote) by the teacher. However, most of them give time to the researcher to conduct classroom observations showed great enthusiasm. The enthusiasm is shown by a variety of feedback and reinforcement needed by students and countenance reasonable, physical movement, and seriousness during the learning process, although there are some teachers who looked stiff, cold and may be "disturbed" by the presence of researchers in their classroom ,

There are several conclusions that can be drawn in this discussion. Firstly, teachers may intentionally or unintentionally exaggerate their state of self-efficacy in order not to lose face in the eyes of others because they are not familiar with the practice of self-assessment that the self-assessment is not conducted objectively and realistically. Secondly, the research instrument used to measure self-efficacy was not able to quantify what exactly should be measured in spite of all the instruments have been processed through the validation process. Finally, there may be a "mismatch" between the cultural aspects of self-efficacy. However, efforts to find and identify what was in the minds of teachers must still be done to improve the quality of teachers and the quality of student learning. Based on the results of scanning the literature available in a variety of sources, this study is an attempt to document the state of self-efficacy of teachers in teaching the material literature in English language teaching at the level of high school, but this study will be more beneficial and has external validity high if followed up with research next.

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# Task-based Approach to Develop Intercultural Communicative Competence in College English Education\*

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**Abstract**—Intercultural communicative competence (ICC) is a hot topic in foreign language teaching and learning. This paper discusses about task-based approach to develop students' intercultural communicative competence in SUSE English class. In so doing, this paper provides theoretical foundations of concepts about intercultural communicative competence and task-based approach. Meanwhile, this paper describes the feasible tasks used in real class and find it is possible to develop students' intercultural communicative competence in Chinese educational context.

**Index Terms**—intercultural communicative competence, task-based approach, English class

## I. INTRODUCTION

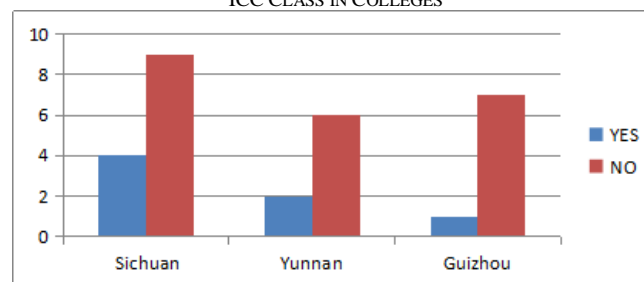
With the rapid development of world economy and technology, particularly, the acceleration of globalization, people all over the world are largely involved in interactions with different people from diverse cultures. Moreover, the communication and cooperation between China and other countries have tremendously increased since the implementation of “One Belt and One Road” policy. Given the incoming numerous intercultural communications, it is argued that college English education should take the responsibility to equip college students (global village citizens) with intercultural communicative competence (ICC) in the process of their English learning, otherwise students will face unpredictable communicative barriers and misunderstandings during the communication.

However, considering the popularity of English learning and teaching in China, the actual awareness of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) to classroom language teaching and learning has been the subject of very little attention. Regardless of these urgent external requirements, college students to some extent even never hear about ICC let alone learn it from class. Therefore, there is a widely held truth that college English education must integrate with proper content and approaches to cultivate and improve students' intercultural communicative competence.

## II. CURRENT PROBLEMS OF COLLEGE ENGLISH EDUCATION

From the view of macrocosmic, although *Guidelines on College English Teaching (2017)* has clearly pointed out that there are three sets of courses, namely, English for General Purposes, English for Specific Purpose and Intercultural Communication, colleges still lack the detailed normative document to guide college English teaching. As a result, there are fewer specific intercultural communicative class arrangements for college English class, especially colleges of the western provinces in China. (The following statistics is mainly based on Sichuan, Yunnan and Guizhou provinces).

TABLE 1.  
ICC CLASS IN COLLEGES



\* This study and this paper is supported by SUSE's teaching reform “The Study on Developing Students Intercultural Communicative Competence in College English” ( Number: JG-1860)

On the basis of the incomplete statistics, it is not difficult to see that fewer colleges have opened this class among the three provinces even including those “Double First Class” colleges. Meanwhile, even colleges have opened it; this class is only aimed at English majors. In addition, colleges also lack the efficient regulation mechanism to control the effects from real class except the only national criterion CET-4 and CET-6, to say nothing of tests about the intercultural communicative competence.

From the view of microcosmic, on one hand, for college English teachers, some of them surely have realized the importance of intercultural communicative competence, while others are not aware of this, which may be illustrated by this following questionnaire and statistics. (In order to make the questionnaire easier be understood, the author only designs five questions and mainly examines teachers’ attitude to ICC in class)

**Questionnaire (for teachers)**

Please make the judgment as soon as you see the questions and mark the corresponding number before each question: 5= totally agree, 4= agree, 3= not sure, 2=disagree, 1= totally disagree

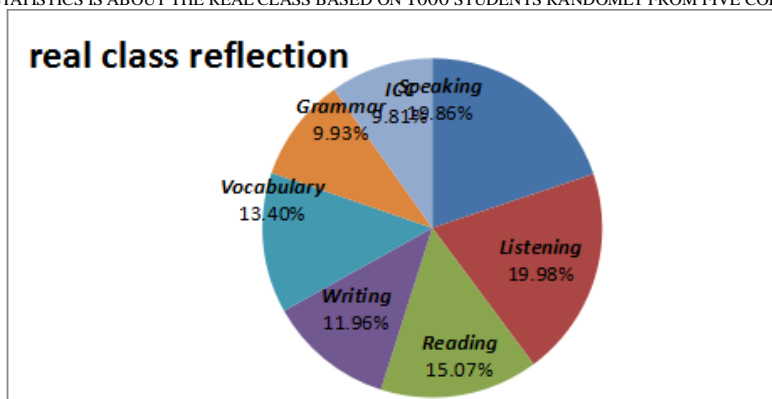
1.	I always implant foreign cultural knowledge in my English class.
2.	I believe that language points teaching is more important that cultural knowledge.
3.	I believe that students can communicate with foreigners well after learning this basic cultural knowledge.
4.	I believe that there is of little importance in Chinese culture study in English class.
5.	There are enough materials about ICC in textbooks.

**The Result from the Questionnaire**

	Largest Value	Smallest Value	Mean	Standard deviation
Q1	2	5	4.17	.747
Q2	1	5	3.02	1.330
Q3	1	4	1.80	.854
Q4	1	5	3.63	1.148
Q5	1	5	3.30	.939

Form the statistics, it is true that over 90% teachers have paid attention to this problem, but this does not mean teachers will put it into use in class. From the result, it is easy to find that only about 60% teachers hold that learning cultural knowledge is more important than language points learning so that some teachers still insist on teaching grammar and vocabulary rather than knowledge about ICC. This is well reflected by the real practice in class. (Table 2)

TABLE 2.  
THE STATISTICS IS ABOUT THE REAL CLASS BASED ON 1000 STUDENTS RANDOMLY FROM FIVE COLLEGES.



Furthermore, only one third teachers find it is necessary to learn Chinese culture for ICC as well as foreign culture for ICC in class partly because they believe both cultures are the basis for ICC besides those isolated language expressions and usages. Additionally, most of teachers argue that until now there are no suitable books for developing communicative competence.

On the other hand, for most college English learners, intercultural communication learning is not included in their English class as it has been proved in the table 2, which the content about ICC occupies the very small part in the whole class. From Table 2, it can be seen that intercultural learning is solely for English majors and other related majors except college English class. On earth, college students hold what kind of attitude to ICC? (The author also designs five questions and mainly examines students’ attitude to ICC.)

**Questionnaire (for students)**

Please make the judgment as soon as you see the questions and mark the corresponding number before each question: 5= totally agree, 4= agree, 3= not sure, 2=disagree, 1= totally disagree

1.	I always learn foreign cultural knowledge from my English class.
2.	I believe that language points teaching is more important than cultural knowledge.
3.	It is easy to get enough materials from textbooks.
4.	I believe that learning foreign culture as well as learning language points.
5.	I don't like communicating with foreigners.

**The Result from the Questionnaire**

	Largest Value	Smallest Value	Mean	Standard deviation
Q1	1	5	2.62	1.129
Q2	1	5	2.47	.921
Q3	1	5	3.41	1.135
Q4	1	5	4.38	1.148
Q5	1	5	2.03	.827

From the result, firstly, more than 90% students hope to learn something related to foreign culture and believe that it is useful to communicate with foreigners. In other words, students have strong desire to be good communicator after graduation. Secondly, less than 50% students admit that they gain little from the English class because traditional teaching still concentrates on language aspects, (speaking, listening reading and writing) and ignore the cultural aspects during the teaching process. Thirdly, contrary to teachers, students hold positive attitude to textbooks so that they can find enough materials from books as well as Internet. Last but not the least; students are not clear about the concept intercultural communicative competence through the learning process

To conclude, despite the great progress about English teaching and learning achieved in the past years, teacher-centered and lacking awareness of intercultural communicative competence still dominate in the class. What's more, there is no consistent culture teaching systematically finished because of the limited class and suitable materials (textbooks). Currently, there is an emergency for colleges to reform English class, though lots of researches have been done to change the present situation, the most feasible way is to transform the teaching method. However, considering these popular teaching methods, the task-based approach can be regarded a good way to change it, which aims to enhance intercultural communicative competence and contribute to a wider educational goal of better understanding the world.

### III. LITERATURE REVIEW

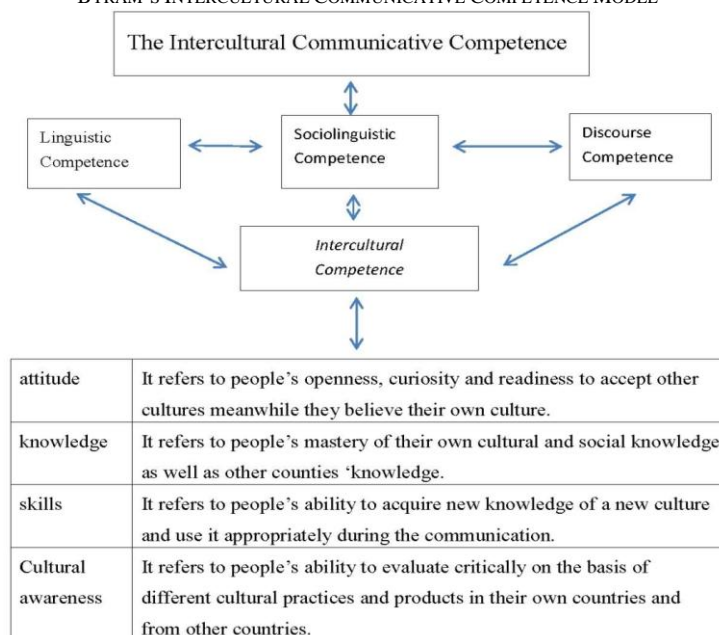
In order to better carry out the English class reform, it is of necessity to have a good command of the two concepts: intercultural communicative competence and task-based approach.

#### A. Intercultural Communicative Competence

The concept "communicative competence" is firstly derived from Hymes (1972), which refers to deal with producing and understanding sentences that are appropriate and acceptable to a particular situation. (Hymes: 1972)) During the 1970s and 1980s, this term has been continuously defined and redefined until Canale and Swain (1980, 1981) provided a new definition about it: it has been defined as a synthesis of an underlying system of knowledge and skill needed for communication.(Canale: 1980) Later, some researchers pointed out that there were five elements in this concept, such as Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor (2006) pointed out five components: discourse competence, linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, intercultural competence and strategic competence. As it can be noted, this concept has been changed and adapted to the context of its use. What's more, there is an agreement in relation to the truth that a capable language communicator should possess the basic language knowledge as well as the ability and skill to activate the knowledge in the communicative process.

The concept "Intercultural communicative competence" has been widely used and academic researchers have made a consensus on the definition of it. From Byram abroad to Gu Xiaole in China, appropriateness and effectiveness are the indispensable part of the concept. Here are some typical definitions: Chen and Starosta (1998), ICC is depicted as "the ability to effectively and appropriately execute communication behavior to elicit a desired response in a similar way", (Chen and Statosta: 1998 ) Fantini (2006) defines intercultural communicative competence as the complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself. All in all, the intercultural communicative competence is an ability to achieve the specific goal during the communication process. The most influential model of intercultural communicative competence is based on Byram's analysis, that is, intercultural communicative competence includes attitude, knowledge, skills and critical cultural awareness. (Byram: 1996) Actually, in Byram's view, intercultural communicative competence is a complex phenomenon because each component includes many categories and he combines intercultural communicative competence with the other three competences, which could be well elaborated in the following table 3.

TABLE 3.  
BYRAM'S INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE MODEL



Needless to say, the acquisition of intercultural communicative competence is closely correlated to college English teaching. This model is obviously designed for classroom teaching because this model provides a framework of what intercultural communicative competence needs and what kinds of factors will be taken into account while teaching language. In addition, this model highlights the acquisition of intercultural communicative competence in the educational context and cannot neglect that the linguistic competence is the prerequisite for the ICC. In fact, considering the present teaching and learning context, choosing a proper teaching method can make up for it and develop it.

### B. Task-based Approach

There are some popular teaching methods applied in the college English class, such as communicative language teaching approach, situational teaching approach and so on. Most of teachers will first and foremost choose communicative language teaching approach to develop intercultural communicative competence because they believe that intercultural communicative competence emphasizes the ability to communicate with other people from other countries. Actually, this approach to some extent ignores the linguistic competence so that students still lack the basic ability to communicate. Besides, the cultural awareness or cultural values doesn't get enough attentions so that students will not be competent enough to evaluate the situation in which they are in and communicate successfully with other people.

In order to be a competent language user in different cultures, it is necessary to find an integrative approach to combine language learning and culture learning well. That is to say, an approach is helpful to develop intercultural communicative competence through English class. Task-based teaching approach, another efficient teaching method, can be tried in this process. This teaching method was firstly put forward by Prabhu (1987), who argued that it was necessary to have proper activities in real classroom and was related to create conditions for dealing with meanings in classroom. Later, more scholars discussed this approach from different views including Long(1985), Nunan(1989), Willis(1996), Skehan(1998) and Ellis(2003). Nunan classified the task into five components: goals, input, procedures, roles and settings. If the intercultural communicative competence learning has been integrated with this approach, teachers need to analyze what kind of goal in the class, what materials needed in the class, what procedures arranged in class, and what roles teachers and students played. Willis's theory is composed of three phrases: pre-task, task-cycle and language focus. Skehan clearly concluded three steps about English class: pre-task, while-task and post-task. (Skehan: 1998) He comprised Willis's theory into his theory, especially, the third phrase into the first one to lay the foundation for students. Ellis argued that English class should have "modified interaction" tasks based on "input and interaction hypothesis", which also pointed out three steps as other in the class. To sum up, common features of task-based approach mainly include: 1) Tasks are designed for finishing those activities with specific purpose through English; one significant feature is that tasks are meaningful and focus on how to express and transfer their thoughts rather than simply on language aspect 2) There is a similarity between people's life and class task, or the class task could be called representation of life. 3) Tasks are complete communicative activities so they can be recycled and repeated in the class until the goal has been reached. What's more, according to these features discussed above, the college English class should follow the four principles when designing the class: the first one is authenticity principle,

the second one is the form-function principle, the third one is the task dependency and the task chain principle, the fourth one is learning by doing.

#### IV. STUDY ABOUT TASKED-BASED ACTIVITIES USED IN ENGLISH CLASS

The former questionnaire to teachers and students revealed their recognition about the fact that the intercultural communicative competence is lacking in the present English class, so based on what has been discussed in the third part, the final study results are derived from teaching diary (observations of students' behaviors) and interviews plus two tests after task-based approach has been used in the college English class for one term in author's class in SUSE. Surely, this study may contribute to raising the awareness both teachers and students of SUSE and to some extent change the present teaching environment in SUSE.

##### A. The Preparation of the Study

The study is based on the experiences, perceptions, opinions and suggestions of both students and professors of SUSE. The study consisted of three main factors 1) the selection of the participants, (2) the selection of textbooks (3) the objectives of this study. The participants are total 198 students from law and chemistry department to take part in English class. These students' academic level is key issue to consider even though the number is a bit large to be observed. All these students have passed CET-4 which means they have the basic knowledge about English learning. Furthermore, they all are willing to join in this study. Concerning the selection of textbooks, *New Horizon College English* series are adopted in this study, which has been embedded with abundant first-hand materials about foreign cultures. The textbooks are compiled corresponding to the basic requirements of the Ministry of Education, which to cultivate students' elementary abilities (speaking, listening, reading and writing) and to develop their intercultural communicative competence for future effective communication. The study differs from that former study which is mainly concerned about language. This objective of this study is summarized as follows: a) to learn intercultural knowledge b) to cultivate intercultural attitude c) to develop intercultural skills. It is easy to find that the three objectives coincide with the basic requirement of intercultural communicative competence and the following study will fulfill the three objectives

##### B. Tasks Designed in English Class

After having reviewed some researches on task-based approach, the following tasks are intended to aim students a theoretical insight into the key factors of intercultural communicative competence and culture-related activities and real life situations that could be incorporated into regular lesson designs. In this study, the author has mainly adopted Skehan's model: pre-task, while-task and post-task along with some changes from other researchers. In the following part, the author will explain these tasks in details in order to incorporate with intercultural communicative competence. (The author will list some tasks in one semester because of the limited space available) These tasks fulfil the following requirement: 1) the task is centered on students' intercultural communication needs, interests and experiences; 2) the task is meaningful and help students to raise awareness of their culture and foreign culture; 3) the task will equip students with enough intercultural knowledge and strategies to avoid cultural misunderstandings. These tasks presented in the article are interview, role play, case study, problem-solving, and brainstorming and so on. All of them are communicative, but more than that they are proposed as practical classroom activities tackling issues of intercultural communication in a flexible way.

###### 1. Task one: Learning intercultural knowledge

Cultures are different from each other so that students need to accumulate other cultural knowledge as well as own culture in order to make comparisons and contrasts. Sometimes, it is necessary to master some non-verbal behavior knowledge for a smooth communication. (All the materials are from *New Horizon English* book 2) The following records are from teachers' dairies.

Sample one: Lead-in Part in "Dance with Love"

Teaching contents: introduce the different dating styles in different cultures

Teaching methods: Task-based teaching. There are three parts (pre-task, while-task, post-task)

Teaching activities: 1) brainstorming 2) report (comparison and contrast)

Teaching procedure:

1). pre-task ( the activity is brainstorming)

In this step, teacher firstly introduces the topic "dating" and asks students to preview this topic. Then the teacher divides students into four groups to search enough materials about this topic. During this process, students can use internet to gain information or ask teacher to help. In this step, teacher need to tell students that dating is a universal topic but students should be cautious about something related to foreigners' privacy and avoid some misunderstandings during communication.

Response: students conclude that there are four dating types: online dating, speed dating, formal dating and casual dating. Here is a new dating style in China, such as TV dating. They also record what kind of dating style is more popular among young people.

2). While-task (the activity is pretention, questionnaire and problem-solving)

In this step, teacher firstly comment students' findings and tells students that TV dating is also popular in England and America; for example, the program "take me out" in London is also hot. Then the teacher encourages students to do comparison and contrast between China and foreign countries' dating ways. Students need to care about the two questions 1) who should first initiate the date? 2) Who should pay for the date?

Response: After four groups' presentations, students have a command of knowledge about dating and they even talk about the different marriage concepts between China and other countries. During this process, students surprisingly find out some facts are totally different from their original imagination. (this represents a little progress in intercultural awareness) Thus, it will definitely help their future communication.

### 3). Post-task

In this step, teacher evaluates students' work and supplements intercultural knowledge to students. Then, ask students to write a report about a film about Chinese marriage or foreign one.

### 2. Task two: cultivating intercultural attitude

Intercultural attitude, which will influence the communication, cannot be built in one day or one year so it needs a long time to build through materials learning and involvement in lots of practice. Intercultural attitude refers to the attitude that people hold towards to someone with different values, conventions, customs and practices. For intercultural attitude, the primary is to cultivate curiosity and openness to foreign culture. The second is to acknowledge the difference and eliminate prejudice. (All the materials are from *New Horizon English book 2*) The following records are from teachers' dairies.

Sample two: Lead-in Part in "The Money Game"

Teaching contents: introduce different values to money between Chinese and Americans

Teaching methods: Task-based teaching. There are three parts (pre-task, while-task, post-task)

Teaching activities: 1) brainstorming 2) report (comparison and contrast) 3) Role-play

Teaching procedure:

#### 1) Pre-task ( the activity is brainstorming and questionnaire)

In this step, the teacher firstly helps students to learn vocabulary about money. This step is crucial for students to have valid communication especially the topic are fresh for them or else it will hinder the effective communication. Then, teacher can ask students one question "How will you budget your money?" "How will you be a smart consumer?" Actually, students will find it hard to answer because they think this question somewhat interfere in their privacy. Meanwhile, they are doubtful whether foreign students will answer these questions. Surely, it is impolite to ask foreigners about this kind of question when people meet each other for the first time. However, students may ask foreigners' permission to finish the task and they are also curious about their peer's attitude to money (credit card). Here is the supplementary of language focus: Max out credit card; Money is tight. Someone is short on cash. Activate card. Run the card through. etc.

Response: Students gradually learn to communicate friends home and abroad and at the same time they change their attitude to other people. They are willing to share their experience with each other.

#### 2) While-task(the activity is interview and problem-solving)

In this step, teacher encourages students to present their statistics about their questionnaire. They find the similarities and differences between Chinese students and foreign students' consuming habits as well as their credit card situation. In this step, students make interviews with each other to answer questions and record their behavior as well.

Response: Students are excited to finish this task and surprised to find that Chinese students and foreign students have more in common than before. To their surprise, they once again change their attitude to foreign culture following the learning process.

#### 3) Post-task

In this step, students are required to finish a communicative activity. They choose different roles to play and face the same question (they have maxed out their credit card). Then what will happen? Who will they give a call firstly?

### 3. Task three: developing intercultural skills

Intercultural skills include many aspects: the first is to be brave enough to deal with culture shocks; the second is to be capable of consider other people's situation; the third is to be flexible to adapt their non-verbal behavior and verbal behavior; the last is to be adept at learning new culture and so on. (All the materials are from *New Horizon English book 2*) The following records are from teachers' dairies.

Sample three: Lead-in Part in "Language in mission"

Teaching contents: learn to give negative response

Teaching methods: Task-based teaching. There are three parts (pre-task, while-task, post-task)

Teaching activities: 1) brainstorming 2) report (comparison and contrast) 3) opinions-exchange

Teaching procedure:

#### 1) Pre-task

The teacher firstly tells students that the task is to train their conversational skills on the topic "language learning". They focus on "making inquiries and "giving negative response". Of course, Chinese people and people from English-speaking countries have different expressions due to their thinking patterns. As is known to all, making inquiries is the usual verbal goal during conversation. The teacher requires students to make dialogues while using



“making inquiries and “giving negative response”. There are two basic types of inquiries: one is to make request, the other one is get other people’s opinion.

Response: Students at first are not aware of differences between Chinese expression and foreign expression so that they use Chinese way to express. Moreover, they don’t realize that this also will influence communication.

2) While-task (activities: brainstorming, role-play)

Students firstly brainstorm some related expressions and words about the negative response such as: “No, I don’t agree.” “No, I don’t think so.” “I’d rather not...” “I don’t feel like...” and so on. From these expressions, it can be seen that our Chinese way is more direct on this aspect compared with foreign ones. Here are some examples made by students:

- a) A: Will you tell me the whole process?  
B: I’d rather not tell you.
- b) A: People say the language is difficult to learn, what would you say?  
B: I’m afraid that’s not true.
- c) A: What about going swimming with me?  
B: I don’t feel like going swimming today.
- d) A: Do you mind if I smoke?  
B: I’m afraid so.

Students make out four dialogues in which a) and c) are nonsense even though they sound good and use negative response. Moreover, making negative response doesn’t mean use negative expression or vocabulary; on the contrary, it even adopts positive expression like the sentence in d) dialogue.

Response: Students actively join the study and find some mistakes that they have never paid attention before. What’s more, students find team work is more efficient in this process.

3) Post-task

In this step, the teacher asks students to review this topic again and learn to express positive models at their spare time. At the same time, students need develop intercultural communicative competence in this process.

C. Analysis of This Study after One Semester

In this semester, the study indeed arouses students’ interest in English learning and helps them to learn something related to intercultural communicative competence. However, Intercultural communicative competence cannot be separated and the three components of it are closely integrated. There is no doubt that intercultural knowledge and intercultural attitude are prerequisite for intercultural skills. Only if the students take positive attitude and gain enough intercultural knowledge, can intercultural skills be enhanced. During the study, it is not difficult to find that the other two components are also involved in the process even though one of the components has been stressed in one lesson. To sum up, the three components are intertwined with each other to develop intercultural communicative competence.

Before doing this study, the author has provided two intercultural communicative competence tests respectively to record the original level of students’ intercultural communicative competence and changed level after one semester training. These tests are transformed from “Culture Test Model” put forward by Valette (1977) which is composed three parts: five questions about non-verbal behavior, five questions about verbal behavior, and five questions are open-ended questions. (the questionnaire can be seen in the Appendix) This result will be analyzed here to verify one truth that students have slightly changed after the task-based teaching method has been adopted in English class. To be exact, students’ communicative skills haven’t changed a lot, but intercultural knowledge and intercultural attitude have been improved slightly after the semester study, which can be proved in the next table.

TABLE 4  
 PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS OF INTERCULTURAL KNOWLEDGE OF BEFORE AND AFTER THE STUDY

	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	3.7798	60	1.6732	.20643
Post-test	4.5094	60	1.4456	.19734

From the table, it can be seen that the mean score has increased after the study and the standard deviation has decreased after the study. It indicates that students’ intercultural knowledge has improved and the individual’s difference has been narrowed down after on semester. Besides, students become braver to confront obstacles during communications and gradually become a mature communicator.

V. SUMMARY

This paper focuses on the study of developing intercultural communicative competence through English class. Firstly, in this study, the teacher adopts the task-based approach to specify the learning objectives in each class and stresses the input of intercultural knowledge. Through the study, it is feasible to for English teachers to implement culture learning in the Chinese foreign language educational context. Secondly, the English language proficiency of students has also been improved rather than lowered as some teachers expect before the study. In this study, the motivation of students has been aroused and the four basic language skills have been well integrated into this process. For most students, they

acquire more language knowledge than the traditional way of teaching. Lastly, the teacher needs to be patient to students' progress because students need a long time to acquire the details and need a real situation to testify their ability.

#### APPENDIX A. INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE TEST (PRE-TEST)

The test is used about the level of the college students' intercultural communicative competence. Thank you for your participation.

I. In this part, there are ten multiple choice. You can choose the right answer from the three or four choices.

1. In the west, bats are considered be to \_\_\_\_  
A. A sign of fortune      B. a sign of misfortune  
C. A sign of happiness      D. a sign of high score
  2. Robben Island is a( an ) \_\_\_\_  
A. Park      B. prison      C. hospital
  3. \_\_\_\_\_ is not Jack London' work.  
A. White Fang    B. The Million Pound Note    C. The Call of the Wild
  4. What does an owl mean?  
A. A wise guy    B. the sign of bad luck    C. the sign of good luck
  5. Can you tell us the capital of U.S.A?  
A. New York    B. London    C. Washington
  6. ----How are you doing?  
-----  
A. I'm writing a letter to my parents.  
B. Very well, thank you.  
C. That' great.  
D. Not at all.
  7. ----I'm sorry. I forget to leave my email address.  
----  
A. Well, it's OK.    B. No, it's all right.  
C. You are welcome.    D. You are wrong.
  8. On the way to school, you greet your teacher, " \_\_\_\_"  
A. Good morning, teacher      B. Good morning, Mr Smith  
B. Hi, Mr Smith. Where are you going?
  9. Usually American has orange juice, ham, and scrambled eggs for breakfast.  
A. I agree    B. I don't think so    C. I'm not sure
  10. What should you say, when a native English speaker express his gratitude?  
A. No, it is nothing.    B. I am glad to be of help.    C. Not at all
- II. Open Questions:
1. What is your impression about British and American people?
  2. Do you have any interests in west culture?
  3. We often hear that western culture is more superior to Chinese one. What do you think of it?
  4. Do you have confidence in communicating well with foreigners?
  5. Do you think that English class is helpful for your future communication?

#### APPENDIX B. INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE TEST (POST-TEST)

The test is used about the level of the college students' intercultural communicative competence. Thank you for your participation.

1. The Bible was originally written in \_\_\_\_  
A. Latin    B. English    C. Hebrew    D. Arabic
2. " Crossing one's forefinger and middle finger " signifies \_\_\_\_ in English speaking countries.  
A. Good luck    B. sadness    C. respects    D. secretary
3. In business English " in the blank" means \_\_\_\_  
A. Running a business with no money  
B. running a business with bad fortune  
C. Running a business profitable  
D. Running a business at a loss
4. When English speakers part, they usually say \_\_\_\_  
A. So long    B stay here please    C. walk well , please    D. see you later
5. In English culture " white" connotes \_\_\_\_  
A. Death    B. cruelty    C. reaction    D. innocence

6. Usually American has orange juice, ham, and scrambled eggs for breakfast.  
 A. I agree B. I don't think so C. I'm not sure
7. What should you say, when a native English speaker express his gratitude?  
 A. No, it is nothing. B. I am glad to be of help. C. Not at all
1. The British English equivalent for “ 私立学校”is\_\_\_\_\_  
 A. Public school B. council school C. private school D. grade school
2. In British English, to gain the attention of a stranger, speaks often rely on\_\_\_\_\_  
 A. Excuse me B Hello C Miss/MR D Hi
10. What should you say, when a native English speaker express his gratitude?  
 A. No, it is nothing. B. I am glad to be of help. C. Not at all
- II. Open Questions:
1. What is your impression about British and American people?
  2. Do you have any interests in west culture?
  3. We often hear that western culture is more superior to Chinese one. What do you think of it?
  4. Do you have confidence in communicating well with foreigners?
  5. Do you think that English class is helpful for your future communication?

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# The Production-oriented Approach to Teaching English Writing in Chinese Junior High Schools\*

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**Abstract**—With the acceleration of globalization, English communicative competence has become a necessary ability in modern society. The teaching of English writing in junior high schools not only improves students' comprehensive language ability, but also lays a favorable foundation for their future English learning. Writing classes should highlight the importance of writing. But in fact, students' actual output is neglected. The writing classes exist in name only. Based on the above questions, this research attempts to apply the Production-Oriented Approach (POA) in junior high school English writing teaching which is proposed by Chinese scholar Wen Qiufang. This research aims to find the effectiveness of POA in English writing teaching of Chinese junior high schools. We adopt the experimental research approaches, using classroom observation, interviews and tests to collect research data. Taking a class of 50 students in Grade 8 of junior high school as the research subjects, the researcher carries out the production-oriented English teaching experiment for one semester. It has been found: (1) Compared with traditional English instructions, POA can improve the English writing quality and comprehensive language using ability of junior high school students. (2) Both teachers and students believe that POA can stimulate students' positive emotional experience, and students have more opportunities to use language in class. Through "enabling", the quality of students' language output has been significantly improved.

**Index Terms**—production-oriented approach, English writing teaching, junior high schools, experimental study

## I. INTRODUCTION

With the acceleration of globalization, English communicative competence has become a necessary ability in modern society. English writing ability is not only a component of English communicative competence, but also one of the important indicators to measure whether students can use English accurately. However, there are still some problems in junior high school English writing teaching in China.

Firstly, the teaching objectives and results are inconsistent. Some scholars such as Zhang Yaoxue (2008) believe that for a long time in junior high schools in China, English has attached more importance to reading than listening, speaking and writing, and "deaf English" and "dumb English" still exist. Therefore, communicative skills such as listening, speaking and writing must be taught.

Secondly, the teaching contents are unreasonable. The English teaching contents of junior high schools should be turned to practicality. The repetition of English teaching between junior high schools and elementary schools influences the teaching effect. Therefore, the teaching content must be re-planned according to the teaching objectives. At the same time, the current English teaching in primary, middle schools and colleges must be regarded as an orderly whole.

Thirdly, the teaching approaches are improper. Junior high school English in China tends to emphasize on knowledge imparting rather than communicative competence, which is not conducive to the cultivation of students' practical ability. Therefore, the training of practical language skills should be strengthened so that students have the communicative competence to speak and write in English.

The above three problems are exactly "why to teach", "what to teach" and "how to teach" English in junior high schools.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### A. Theoretical System of POA

Production-Oriented Approach (POA) is a teaching theory proposed by Chinese scholar Wen Qiufang for adult foreign language learning in China. Its predecessors are "output-driven hypothesis" and "input-enabled hypothesis". It aims at the reform of English major curriculum and expands to college English teaching. In early 2014, it is revised as

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“output-driven and input-enabled hypothesis”. In October of the same year, it is officially named POA at the Seventh International Symposium on English Teaching in China.

The core of POA includes three parts: teaching principles, teaching hypotheses and teacher-mediated teaching processes. Teaching principles consist of “learning-centered principle”, “learning-using integrated principle”, and “whole-person education principle”. The teaching hypotheses include “output-driven hypothesis”, “input-enabled hypothesis” and “selective learning hypothesis”. Teaching processes consist of three stages. They are “motivating”, “enabling” and “assessing”. Teachers should play a mediate role in the whole teaching process. In one word, teaching principles are the guiding ideology of the other two parts, which determines the direction and overall objectives of the classroom teaching. Teaching hypotheses are the theoretical support of the teaching processes, which needs to be tested one by one. “Teaching processes” are the carrier of realizing “teaching principles” and testing “teaching hypotheses”, and they are also the step and means of realizing POA teaching objectives.

### *B. Theoretical Studies on POA*

Under the background of “post-method era”, Chinese scholars create “Production-Oriented Approach”. It has developed more than 10 years, from the early output-driven hypothesis to the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis, and then to the formation of POA system, all of which embodies the rationality and practical wisdom of researchers at home and abroad, as well as the results of many rounds of classroom action research by front-line teachers.

Based on the theory of the input hypothesis, output hypothesis, and interaction hypothesis, Wen proposes “Output-driven Hypothesis” in 2007. And it is primarily aimed at the reforms on the curriculum and teaching approaches for English majors’ programs.

In 2017, Pu Shi (2017) gives an introduction of POA. Rod Ellis (2017) raises three suggestions to express his understanding of POA, that is appropriate assessment, teacher training and personal expression. Alister Cumming (2017) proposes the design and directions for research. At the same time, he puts forward three suggestions: (1) continuing teaching innovation and expanding it to other fields of education; (2) trying POA with English beginners; (3) further research on POA will make a significant contribution to the theory of second language acquisition. Charlene Polio (2017) has a reflection on POA from the perspective of pre-service teachers. He finds that pre-service teachers do not provide oral feedback as often as experienced teachers when implementing the same set of lesson plans. And they usually have students brainstorm about they already know and do not teach students to understand a text. They often ignore the final step of having students do something with the text. Paul Kei Matsuda (2017) comes up with some ideas about POA. He states that POA makes sense as a way of helping students become active language users. POA allows for teacher professionalism and agency.

Tang Yanhua (2017) analyzes the problems existing in the teaching of college English group activities, and puts forward some suggestions on college English group activities based on the POA theory. She thinks that teachers should design group activities with motivation. Teachers should serve as mediation in enabling step in order to complete the tasks and language output.

Li Lijun, Yu Han and Guo Qi (2017) review the previous researches of POA. Through the analysis of relevant researches, they find that the research of this localized teaching theory has made some achievements. At the same time, there are still some problems in current researches.

Deng Hailong (2018) compares Production-Oriented Approach with Task-based Language Teaching in three aspects: pedagogical principles, teaching hypotheses and teaching procedures.

Tang Yanhua (2018) points out the shortcomings and problems of college English teaching in minority areas. Based on the current situation of college English teaching in minority areas and combining the theoretical system of POA with its Chinese characteristics, Tang tries to analyze the feasibility of POA in college English teaching in minority areas. With the help of motivating in POA, teachers could help students revitalize their accumulated inert knowledge and effectively transform input linguistic knowledge into productive linguistic skills.

In conclusion, after more than ten years’ development, POA has formed a complete theoretical basis. More and more teachers pay attention to this teaching approach and apply it to teaching practice.

### *C. Applicational Studies on POA*

Since Wen Qiufang first proposes the output-driven hypothesis in 2008, POA has formed a theoretical system more than a decade. Many teachers and researchers have carried out teaching experiments to verify its effectiveness.

Firstly, Zhang Wenjuan (2015) tries to apply POA to college English classes for the purpose of solving the problem of separation of learning and using. She presents a teaching design of a unit and mainly introduces the step of “enabling”. In 2016, she makes an experiment in college English class based on POA. The teaching experiment lasts for three weeks. In the process of teaching experiment, Zhang Wenjuan clearly feels the vitality of POA to the classroom. It could stimulate students’ positive emotional experience and students get more chances to use the language. The quality of students’ language output has been greatly improved. In 2017, Zhang Wenjuan attempts to use POA to conduct a two-week classroom experiment on a unit teaching. The results show that there is no significant difference in the total score of the two classes. However, the “language” score of the experimental class is higher than that of the control class. And the experimental class uses more unit target language items in their compositions.

After Zhang Wenjuan, Cao Qiaozhen (2017) explores the mediating role of teachers in POA. In the “enabling” stage,

the role of teachers' scaffolding is mainly manifested in the two dimensions of "vertical scaffolding" and "horizontal scaffolding". Taking Unit 4, Volume 2 of New Generation College English as an example, she elaborates on how to build vertical and horizontal scaffolding step by step in classroom teaching and how to adjust scaffolding for students at different levels.

Based on the previous studies, Chang Xiaoling (2017) believes that although the current compilation of foreign language textbooks has theoretical guidance, there is a lack of in-depth study of theoretical transformation and the compilation process of textbooks. This study analyzes the compiling process of New Generation College English under the guidance of POA, and puts forward "Teaching theory-Action research" Integrated Model to compile textbooks.

In order to test the effectiveness of POA, Zhang Lingli (2017) conducts a semester of teaching experiment. The findings are as follows: (1) The overall level of English in the experimental class is not significantly different from that in the control class, but the listening and writing levels are significantly improved while the reading level is significantly decreased. And there is no significant change in the translation level. (2) Students at high English level in the experimental class improve significantly. (3) Students in the experimental class hold a positive attitude towards POA, and their motivation to learn English is significantly strengthened.

As for enabling, Qiu Lin (2017) thinks it is the difficult point in the process of POA experiment. This research tentatively refines the theoretical principles of language enabling, demonstrates the basic ideas of the procedure design of language enabling step, and objectively analyzes the effect of language teaching in enabling.

Sun Shuguang (2017) proposes the process of setting the output objectives of textbooks and the predictive assessment of the appropriateness of the output objectives by teachers. When designing output objectives, teachers should first study the textbooks carefully, understand what they have now, and keep books in mind. Besides, teachers should analyze the learning and teaching situation, and know what the students need, so as to have students in mind. Finally, the objectives of assessment should be reasonable and teachers should often ask "what objectives are effective" in order to have confidence in mind.

To sum up, many teachers have put POA into practice and proved its effectiveness. Most of the students give feedback that their learning interest and motivation have increased. In addition, their ability in speaking, writing and translating have also improved a lot.

### III. RESEARCH DESIGN

#### A. *Research Subjects*

POA is mainly aimed at middle and advanced foreign language learners. According to European Language Common Reference Framework, target students should be at least A2 or above A2. However, the researcher believes that this approach is also suitable for junior high school students.

This research is conducted in Zhengzhou No.47 Junior High School in Henan province in China. The research subjects are mainly made up of 50 students in Grade Eight. Students in Grade Eight have a solid English foundation and they are willing to take part in different activities. These 50 students are from the same class and taught by the same English teacher—the researcher of this thesis.

#### B. *Research Instruments*

In this thesis, three research instruments are included. They are classroom observation, interview and test.

##### (1) Classroom Observation

It is generally believed that classroom observation is an important source for teachers to acquire practical knowledge. It is also a basic way to collect data, analyze the effectiveness of teaching approaches and get to know the teaching and learning behavior.

In the experimental stage of this study, the researcher invites two teachers to observe the whole teaching process and conducts in-depth interviews with them after class. The two teachers are enthusiastic with 3 years' and 10 years' teaching experience respectively, willing to explore effective teaching approaches. Before the classroom observation, the researcher communicates with the observation teachers, informs them of the teaching plan, the purpose and the content of the observation. The purpose of classroom observation is to observe and assess the implementation and effect of new teaching approaches in the classroom. During the course of teaching, observers are required to record the key teaching steps or events observed in the classroom, the activities of teachers and students. At the same time, they are supposed to assess the effects of specific steps and make suggestions for improvement. After class, the author briefly reviews and discusses the situation of classroom teaching with two observers, and then conducts one-to-one semi-structured interviews with the observers.

##### (2) Interview

In order to fully understand the ideas of students and teachers in the process of POA implementation, the researcher uses interviews directed to teachers and students. Interviews based on students are made before and after the experiment. Interviews based on teachers are only made after the experiment.

On the one hand, interviews based on students are mainly to know about their attitudes towards writing and POA. Before the experiment, five students in the class are selected according to the examination results in high, medium and low levels for interviews. In the process of the interview, the researcher knows about students' writing obstacles and

their attitudes towards writing. After the experiment, there are also five students taking part in this interview. They are selected based on their performance in class. The researcher aims to find the function of POA and students' feedback. On the other hand, two observers also participate in this interview. After each classroom observation, the author conducts one-to-one interviews with two teachers. The interview usually takes place on the day of teaching in the English office of Grade Eight. Interviews based on teachers are to get the problems in the implementation of POA and peer feedback. The contents of the interviews include the assessment of the teaching objectives, contents and approaches of the class, the observation of students' participation, input and harvest in learning. And then the observers give their suggestions for teaching.

### (3) Pre-test and Post-test

Before the experiment, the author carries out a writing test to the 50 students. The results of this test are regarded as the pre-test data for analysis. The writing topic is "where did you go on vacation?". The required words are no less than 80 to fit students' level. The test paper is revised with clear scoring criteria and fair results by the researcher and two other experienced English teachers.

After the experiment, students are tested to check whether the new teaching approach—POA works. And the results are regarded as post-test data. Post-test is conducted at the end of this term. The writing task is to write an email to introduce the places of interest in Beijing. Students are supposed to talk about the experience during the vacation. The required words are about 80 to fit their ability. When all the work is done, the researcher invites two teachers to give marks to this class according to the same standard.

### C. Research Procedures

The first stage of POA is to make some preparation. It is necessary to explain the POA and give some practical examples to students before the experiment. In this way, students can fully understand and accept the POA, and get a sense of achievement in writing class. Teachers should carefully select teaching materials, which is suitable for students in Grade Eight. In addition to choosing appropriate teaching materials, teachers should also consider students' interests and hobbies and introduce topics close to their real life.

In addition, as the teaching model is oriented by the language output of the writing course, the researcher pays special attention to the selection of teaching materials suitable for the writing topics, such as content, theme, length and literary form. At the same time, teachers should give some guidance to students' writing in time. In this way, students can have model essays to refer to, the skills to follow, the content to write, something to say and more ideas to express.

The second stage is the implementation of POA. Before the experiment, the researcher carries out a writing test to the 50 students. The results of this test are regarded as the pre-test data for analysis. At the same time, five students from this class are selected for interview. It aims to know about students in these aspects, such as reading interest, confidence, reading habits, and their understanding to POA.

After the experiment, all the students of this class are tested and the data are collected as the post-test results. Teachers focus more on the content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. The purpose is to test the effectiveness of POA in junior high schools. Subsequently, five students from this class are interviewed again. In order to test their acceptance of POA and the change of their confidence in learning English, five students are selected according to their different performances in writing class. All these data are processed by SPSS 17.0, and the results and analysis are presented in the next part.

## IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

### A. Data Collection and Discussion of Classroom Observation

In order to find out the effect of teaching and collect teaching feedback from multiple perspectives, the researcher invites two colleagues to attend the whole process of teaching. This thesis makes classroom observation on six dimensions: "whether the teaching objective is appropriate", "whether the teaching content meets the students' level and teaching requirements", "whether the teaching approach helps to optimize the learning effect", "whether the teaching process points to the teaching objective", "whether the students' class participation meets the learning requirements", and "whether the teaching objective is achieved". After class, the researcher uses semi-structured interviews to inquire into the six dimensions of classroom observation. At the same time, the researcher asks two colleagues to assess the "advantages" and "disadvantages" of the teaching approach, and answer the questions such as "are you willing to try this teaching approach" and "do you think POA can be implemented in our school".

#### (1) Positive Assessment of POA

Both teachers give positive comments on POA. Following are the characteristics of POA.

##### 1) Teaching objectives are clear.

In the interviews, two teachers agree that "clear teaching objectives" are not only language-oriented, but also cross-cultural communication strategies. This assessment is consistent with the design of this unit's dual objectives of language and culture. Both peer teachers believe that the clear teaching objectives are closely related to the teaching model of "organizing teaching through tasks". The tasks of this unit are the main line of teaching activities and the means to achieve the dual teaching objectives of language and culture. "All teaching activities are carried out around this task".

## 2) Teaching contents are focused.

In addition to the clear teaching objectives, two peer teachers use the word “focus”. Teacher A believes that every step is closely linked and the teaching contents are focused through a task, some materials or activities. She observes that “students are very attentive in class, always following the task”. Teacher B holds that organizing teaching through tasks makes the objectives clear and contents rich as well as focused.

## 3) Learning and using are integrated.

In the assessment of teaching characteristics, Teacher A thinks that teaching focuses on “using”, “letting students learn language through tasks”. Teacher B thinks that there are tasks in every stage and learning materials in every task.

In the teaching design of language learning and using, Teacher B especially admires that it has returned to the essence of language teaching. In her opinion, English teaching in the current middle school goes a little biased. Various teaching slogans have been put forward, such as emphasizing students’ communicative competence, autonomous learning ability, cooperative learning ability and so on. Everything is advocated, but the teaching of language itself is neglected.

After classroom observation, Teacher B repeatedly mentions the essence of returning to language teaching. She believes that “your teaching attaches great importance to language, and binds language learning and using together. I think students will certainly gain a lot.” From the student’s point of view, she feels that “I also learn a lot”.

## (2) Negative Assessment of POA

Two colleagues give specific suggestions on the details of the teaching process. (1) Classes are compact, but they feel busy and tired. It is suggested that more time should be allowed for students to speak in class interaction. (2) The selection of input materials should be able to attract students’ interest and at the same time meet their English level. (3) Teachers should read materials such as humanities, geography, science, astronomy and other fields so as to apply it flexibly in class.

It is worth noting that the two peer teachers have different opinions on the difficulty of teaching tasks and the openness of teaching approaches. Teacher A says, “Teachers give students staged sub-tasks, while providing students with learning materials. The tasks seem to be too simple, which may not give students enough freedom and space to play.” Teacher B thinks that “providing students with materials according to their tasks and letting them learn various forms of language can promote the effect of language teaching.” The different opinions of two colleagues deserve the researcher’s deep consideration.

## B. Data Collection and Discussion of Interviews

In order to fully understand the ideas of students and teachers in the process of POA implementation, the researcher makes three interviews. Interview is used as a necessary supplementation to get more information. Interviews based on students are made before and after the experiment. Interviews based on teachers are only made after the experiment. Two teachers in Grade 8 who attend the classroom observation are interviewed through face to face in the office after class. Ten students are selected for interview after class.

Firstly, from the perspective of students, their demands and acceptance of English writing teaching are understood. Then, from the perspective of teachers, we can acquire the difficulties and problems encountered in English writing teaching, and analyze the causes of the problems and difficulties. After the interview, the materials needed should be sorted out according to the interview records immediately, and the accuracy and authenticity of the materials should be guaranteed at the same time. By comparing and analyzing the results of the three interviews, a clearer understanding of the current situation of teaching and the demands of teachers and students are known.

### (1) Pre-interview

Before the experiment, according to the students’ English level, the researcher selects 5 students for personal interview in order to fully understand the students’ interest in writing, self-confidence, reading habits and cognitive problems, as well as the POA. In the interview, the author simply writes the record, rather than the recording tool. The purpose is to avoid making students nervous and make the interview more natural, so as to get more authentic information. The results of the students’ interviews are as follows.

In the interview, 30% of the students like writing, while the other students are not interested in writing. Students who are interested in writing think writing is easy as long as you master the writing skills. They can fluently tell the major steps to write an essay. While students who are not interested in writing hold that they don’t know how to express their ideas since there are so many unknown words. Half of the students have no confidence in writing and a quarter of the students are confident to writing. The reasons are similar to the first question. Most students believe that the most difficult thing in writing is that they have no idea to write. They don’t know how to form a clear opinion and express it in a correct way. A certain amount of students improve their writing just by reciting the text before the exam. Only 8% of the students write down the good sentences on the notebook. 70% of the students think the current writing teaching approach is helpful, while another 30% think it is useless. Two-thirds of the students have no habit of reading after class. Few students have heard of POA, not to say to apply POA in English teaching class.

The results of students’ interviews show that, only 30% of the students are interested in writing when they are interviewed before the experiment. There are still many students not so interested in English writing. The researcher finds that the main reasons for this phenomenon are as follows: On the one hand, the current writing classes are mainly to deal with the exam, and do not really fit the actual life of students. On the other hand, for some students, there are many difficulties in writing, such as language using, opinion forming and structure making, which lead to their gradual



loss of confidence in writing. Students think that the current writing teaching approach is helpful to improve their English level, but the form is too single and it is easy to get bored. Most students tell the author that they seldom read English newspapers, magazines or novels. For one thing, they find it difficult to read. For another, they do not know which books are really suitable for them. In addition, none of the students know about POA.

The author finds that there are three main difficulties in student' writing. Firstly, students do not know much about the topic and do not form mature views. Some students' opinions are vague. Even if they have opinions, they are not sure whether the opinions are accurate because of the lack of evidence. Secondly, students' language ability is weak. Many words cannot be remembered. They don't know how to express themselves. Thirdly, the time for writing is not enough.

#### (2) Post-interview

The results of the students' interviews are as follows.

After a period of training, about 80% of the students increase their confidence in writing. Almost all students believe that output—input—output model is more likely to stimulate their confidence and ability in writing. Specifically, the awareness of objectives is enhanced, the use of language is more flexible, and the objectives of writing is clearer. Therefore, they actually increase the accumulation of language such as vocabulary, chunks, sentence patterns, and discourse structures, and enrich the knowledge reserve of writing. At the same time, they also give positive comments on diversification.

80% of the students like POA as a writing teaching approach. They feel that this approach can make their point of view clearer, language more accurate, and the structure of the text more logical. Their confidence in writing has also increased considerably. Students think that in writing class, the teacher's guidance is very necessary. Through POA writing teaching model, students' language expression ability has been greatly improved.

Compared with the previous writing teaching, 80% of students think POA English teaching model is more advantageous to improve students' writing ability. Because they can pay more attention to the importance of output when writing, select the input materials suitable for them, and process them mentally in order to make output more effectively. Sixty percent of the students say they would read some small English articles, but 20 percent could read them when time permits. The rest say that they have never read English articles after class.

The reasons are as follows: (1) The teaching objectives and the main line of teaching are clear. Teaching objectives run through the whole process. At the same time, the teaching content is closely related to the writing task, and more targeted. (2) There are many opportunities for practice and a strong sense of participation among students. (3) POA emphasizes learning by using, so students can learn and apply the language flexibly. While in the previous teaching, students only stay in the text of the lesson, failing to apply what is learned. (4) Learning materials are more acceptable, which is closely related to students' daily life. (5) Deeper discussions of the topic are increased. (6) The writing classes are more interesting and classroom atmosphere are more active. (7) The students make clear the direction of their efforts. Some students say that they think their English is good before. Only when they learn this unit do they realize that there is still a long way to go.

In addition to helping learners accomplish their output tasks, the ultimate goal of POA is to promote language learning. In teaching, the researcher designs various "learning by using" language activities, hoping to help students better absorb new language forms through tasks. Therefore, it is also expected to know the students' learning situation of language points through interviews. According to the feedback from the students' interviews after the experiment, 62% of the students think that the language points (including vocabulary, phrase, structure, etc.) in their compositions are effective. The reasons are as follows. (1) Languages are frequently used. Students think that the effect of learning new language projects is good because they will remember the language points when they use them frequently. (2) Consolidation exercises are increased. Many students think that the exercises designed after class play a positive role. (3) Writing tasks drive language learning. The requirements of writing tasks make students unconsciously memorize vocabulary and sentence patterns. (4) Learning materials are easy to absorb.

After the POA teaching experiment in the class, the researcher finds that through interviews with students, their interest and enthusiasm in English learning increased in the whole experimental process. Teachers and students have more interactions. Students are very active in learning. The results show that POA English teaching model can make students feel the joy of active learning, thus improving their learning ability and enhancing their confidence in English learning. In addition, with the improvement of learning initiative, students' English scores are also steadily improving, especially in writing, which also reflects the improvement of their comprehensive ability. The reason why students have improved their confidence is that they have found ways to improve, which is very helpful for English learning. Students believe that reading English books and articles after class can also help improve their writing ability. The results show that in order to improve students' writing ability, it is more effective to make students aware the learning gap at first in order to know what they lack. Students vividly feel that enabling and assessing can help to improve their writing ability. The results show that the output and meaningful use of the target language are helpful to arouse students' enthusiasm and enhance their initiative in learning English. Gradually, it is naturally to improve students' writing ability and comprehensive English ability.

From the interviews, it can be seen that students are becoming more and more familiar with input and output, and can understand the close relationship between them. Before the application of POA teaching model, there is no obvious

concept of input and output in students' minds, let alone the relationship between them.

Owing to the lack of awareness and limited understanding of these concepts, students are often in a passive situation in their daily English learning. In fact, the input and output should not be separated, but should be closely linked to each other. However, after a semester of teaching experiment in their class, students understand that listening and speaking are input, reading and writing are output. Input and output are integrated. Output is the basic form of language communication and the ultimate goal of language learning. However, without comprehensible input, there would be no effective output.

At the very start, many students are afraid of writing essays, and even less willing to let teachers and classmates correct their compositions. And they only read the model essays that teachers provided for them after the practice of writing. However, the situation has changed. After the training of POA, students become more and more active and enthusiastic in English class. Students are more willing to open their mouths to communicate with others and express their ideas. When the composition is finished, students rush to have their teachers correct their compositions. They are no longer afraid of writing English compositions. All in all, with the help of POA teaching model, students' output ability and learning enthusiasm have been greatly improved.

The students' awareness of production has increased significantly. They can clearly realize the positive effect of input on output during the experiment. Therefore, their reading ability has also improved. At first, they are more likely to read the materials given by the teacher obediently. Later, they like reading English newspapers and magazines. Some students also read English original books. Thus, the impact of input and output is enormous.

According to the theory of POA, reading and writing are closely linked and indispensable. With frequent contact with this teaching model, students pay more attention to the use of words and expressions in their daily English reading, so that they can skillfully use them in future writings. In the process of reading, students' understanding of the articles is no longer on the surface. They can refine the main ideas of the articles and sort out the structure and logical order of the text. Through the continuous accumulation of reading, students' knowledge reserves become larger, thus laying a solid foundation for writing and oral expression. The improvement of reading level is surely to improve students' writing level. At the same time, students' knowledge and thinking are expanded with the continuous increase of extra-curricular reading, which is conducive to the improvement of students' writing ability and comprehensive English ability.

At the end of the one-semester teaching experiment on POA, everyone can clearly feel the difference in this class. In the writing class, students change from passive to active. The atmosphere in the classroom is more and more active. In addition, more and more students express their ideas freely and bravely. Students' enthusiasm for learning is getting higher and higher.

In a word, students' English learning habits have changed a lot during the implementation of POA in junior high schools. In the specific steps of motivating, enabling and assessing, this approach enables students to pay more attention to the input contents and consciously select the input materials. In the process of inputting materials and integrating information, students can connect their old and new knowledge, and express it through writing and other output forms, which makes students' English writing easier and better.

However, several students still have difficulties in English writing. Student A tells the researcher that she has poor quantity of vocabulary when she is writing. Vocabulary problems influence the level of language knowledge and communicative competence. Student B holds that the main reason is that he seldom speaks in English class which causes his poor oral English.

Are students' learning difficulties related to the new teaching approaches? After analyzing, the researcher finds that in the past, students have few opportunities to produce on their own initiative. Students who are accustomed to passive listening to the teacher show "pressure" on the sudden increase of output tasks. Student C says, "Our English teacher is very attentive in preparing lessons, and her classes are rich in content. Tasks are always there to be done. We have to concentrate our attention all the time. After several times of POA training, I learn a lot of vocabularies, sentence structures, and some cultural expressions and so on. But it is really a little nervous to speak in the class. If not, I feel good in POA class."

It can be seen that POA provides students with a lot of opportunities for language using. On the one hand, it enables students to realize their learning problems such as poor oral English and inadequate vocabulary in writing. On the other hand, it also brings some output pressures to students. For students accustomed to the traditional "knowledge imparting" classroom model, it may not be adaptive. However, for each small task, the researcher designs an enabling step. Through enabling, students can complete small tasks through teacher-mediated input. This new teaching approach not only gives students the pressure of output, but also prompts students to pay more attention and make greater investment in enabling.

The results of the teachers' interviews are as follows.

In the interview, two teachers give full affirmation to the POA teaching. They believe that the teaching objectives are clear. And there are more investments of students, more interaction feedbacks and more guidance of teachers. During the experiment, teachers teach in the process of students' learning, which stimulates students' input and participation, regulates teaching in the dynamic process of teacher-student interaction feedback, and achieves the predetermined goal step by step. It embodies the advantage of POA, which is different from the traditional teaching.

From the interview of the two teachers, the researcher gets the useful information. Firstly, there are clear teaching

objectives in every writing class. Teacher A says, one of the highlights of teaching is that the class is task-oriented and the objectives are very clear. She affirms the teaching objectives. It is a good idea to put the task into several specific, practical and realistic steps. Secondly, the teaching is targeted. POA asks teachers to play an intermediary role in response to task needs and students' learning gap, so as to facilitate the completion of output tasks. The two peer teachers believe that teaching is very targeted and task-oriented. But every step is based on the problem and gives countermeasures. Thirdly, there are more two-way feedbacks between teachers and students. Unlike the "one-way" teaching model of textbooks, learning by using not only enables students to feel and use it immediately, but also enables teachers to timely understand the gap of students in order to provide necessary systematic guidance, so as to promote "two-way" feedback between students and teachers. Finally, there is more investment in students' language learning. Compared with the traditional teaching approaches, the application teaching rhythm of POA is more compact. In the same class time, the teaching capacity is larger, and students are required to invest more.

In conclusion, two peer teachers have high assessment of teaching design. They believe that under such a design, students can invest a lot. Teachers can aim at students' problems and then predict the effect of teaching.

C. Data Collection and Discussion of Language Tests

The total score of junior high school English writing in China is 15 points. There are two main purposes of data analysis. One is to test whether there is significant difference in English writing before and after the experiment, so as to check whether POA can improve students' English writing scores. The other is to know if there are any changes in students' confidence in learning English. By analyzing the scores of pre-test and post-test, the researcher can have a better understanding of POA on the quality of students' product. The data of pre-test and post-test of the class are analyzed by SPSS 17.0 to see whether there is any significant difference.

A total of 100 samples of compositions are collected, including 50 pre-test and 50 post-test compositions. Following are the detailed steps to analyze the samples.

(1) Scoring. After collecting samples and numbering them one by one on the back of the compositions, the researcher and other two English teachers score the compositions according to ideas, language, and discourse structure. Five-point scoring system is used (one means very poor, two means poor, three means so so, four means good, five means excellent). And the scores of ideas, language and discourse structure are respectively five points.

(2) Statistical analysis. By using SPSS 17.0 statistical software and paired sample T-test, the total scores based on language, ideas and discourse structure of the 50 students' compositions are compared and analyzed before and after the experiment.

TABLE I.  
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre-test	8.9900	50	2.79666	.39551
	Post-test	9.6700	50	2.77123	.39191

TABLE II.  
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

		Paired Differences			95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Pre-test – Post-test	-.68000	1.20695	.17069	-1.02301	-.33699	-3.984	49	.000

From Table I, it can be seen that the mean score in the pre-test is 8.99 while in the post-test the mean score is 9.67. The gap between them is 0.68, which is much higher than that of pre-test. From Table II, it can be seen that there are significant differences in the total scores of the pre-test and post-test compositions (t=-3.984, df=49, p<0.05). At the same time, scores of the pre-test are significantly lower than those of the post-test. It illustrates the quality of students' compositions has improved significantly.

It indicates that compared with the pre-test, students who have been trained in the POA have made some progress in language, ideas as well as the discourse structure. This also implies the fact that after the teaching experiment is carried out, students of this class have substantially improved their English studies in both comprehensive abilities and writing capacity through the POA.

Implementing POA in junior high schools not only has a positive impact on improving students' English writing ability, but also exercises their ability of thinking. At the same time, POA can improve their ability to analyze and deal with complex problems. It can also improve the students' comprehensive language using ability, so that they can truly use what they have learned.

The experimental results show that after one semester's teaching practice, students' English proficiency under the guidance of POA has improved significantly on the whole, and the POA is feasible and effective.

The results of the experiment show that POA can improve students' English writing ability, especially the language

and content of their compositions. This shows that in “enabling” step of POA, students can enrich the content of their compositions. Selective learning from the input materials given by teachers in writing class can help them increase their knowledge reserves, stimulate their writing inspiration and enrich the content of their compositions. In terms of language, POA can make students use the words, sentence patterns and main grammars of this unit more frequently. By providing students a communicative scene at the beginning of this class, students can remember the words of this unit easily. When they try to complete the speaking tasks in group activities, they are supposed to write the words down that they do not know how to express their ideas. And later they look up the difficult words in dictionary, which can leave a deep impression on their minds and use them correctly. By self-assessment and peer-assessment, they can realize their grammatical mistakes and correct them independently.

## V. CONCLUSION

### A. Research Findings

As the initial application of POA, although this study has some shortcomings, the characteristics and effects of teaching are confirmed from three perspectives: students’ feedback, peer teachers’ feedback and the researcher’s experience as a practical teacher. (1) The teaching objectives are clear. (2) The teaching takes tasks as clues and focuses on content. (3) Language learning and using are emphasized in teaching. Through the study of this unit, most students get the knowledge of language, tourism, cultural awareness and cross-cultural communication strategies.

The first use of POA has made the researcher feel the vitality it brings to the classroom. From the feedback of students, peer teachers’ assessment and the researcher’s observation of students’ classroom performance and output results, POA has the following advantages in language teaching.

First of all, POA can provide students with positive emotional experience. On the one hand, the motivating tasks arouse the students’ learning enthusiasm. Teachers use real intercultural communication cases to create real communication situations for students. At the same time, through productive tasks with communicative value, students feel that what they have learned is very useful, which motivates their interest in learning. Colleagues observe that “students are very involved” and “always follow the teacher”. On the other hand, the teacher-mediated “enabling” also reduces the anxiety of students, while allowing students to get a “sense of achievement” in the process of completing the task. Affective factors play an important role in foreign language teaching (Arnold 1999; Brown 2002a). In the process of POA teaching, students can get positive emotional experience.

Secondly, under the new teaching approach, students get more opportunities to use language, which provides a chance for students to improve their language production ability. In the implementation of POA, a big task is divided into three small tasks, each of which requires students to produce, such as introducing places of interest in their hometown, brainstorming, role-playing and so on. This greatly increases the opportunities for students to use language. On the one hand, it makes students aware of their own problems in language using. On the other hand, it also activates students’ inert knowledge. After years of English learning, most students tend to have more inert knowledge and less productive ability. Therefore, creating more opportunities for language using through flexible means in the classroom can promote the transformation of students’ receptive knowledge to productive knowledge.

Finally, POA can improve the quality of students’ language output through “enabling”. Students’ language output has been greatly improved after the teacher-mediated “enabling” in this stage of teaching. It is necessary to provide suitable audio-visual and reading materials and guide students to have selective learning according to the needs of output tasks, which can help students absorb and use new language knowledge.

In addition to promoting learning, POA also contributes to English teaching. It subverts the traditional teaching habits of teachers and urges them to rethink the teaching objectives of the unit with task design as the starting point of teaching. In order to achieve the teaching objectives, teachers should give full play to their subjective initiative in choosing materials, designing teaching activities and helping students complete output tasks.

### B. Pedagogical Implications

Firstly, as a preliminary attempt to apply the POA, this study has limitations in depth. The POA is a new teaching theory. Apart from the teaching research in the process of theoretical formation, few teaching practices and textbooks can be referenced by the researcher before the experiment. Even at the beginning of the experiment, the researcher’s theoretical system is not perfect. At the same time, the teaching steps of “motivating” “enabling” “assessing” of the Output-Oriented Approach completely overturn the traditional teaching mode, and each step has the space to excavate and the value of in-depth research. This research tries to have an overall view of the application of POA, so the breadth of research is greater than the depth of research.

Secondly, the teaching practice lasts for a short time, and the students’ changes and learning effects that can be observed are limited. The POA needs to select the appropriate enabling materials according to the task, so the teaching input materials are not the original curriculum textbooks. Therefore, it is inconsistent with the content of the final test. Continuous adoption of new approaches may affect students’ final performance. Due to the short teaching time in the experimental class, the teaching effect which can be observed is limited.

Thirdly, the teaching effect may be limited by the teaching environment. In the course of this study, although supported by the school leaders and instructors, the present English examination system in middle schools in China is a

summative assessment, which uses a single form of assessment, emphasizes objective questions, and pays attention to difficult words, sentences and comprehension in texts. This is obviously inconsistent with the concept of POA.

Finally, this study is conducted in a junior high school English class. Students' language proficiency, cognitive ability, learning initiative, professional background, and teachers' knowledge of specific teaching situations with their own "practical knowledge" may influence the design and implementation of POA, and further affect the teaching effect of POA. To make POA play its role in junior high school English teaching, it is necessary to make the POA rooted in a broader soil and rely on more teachers to apply it in more teaching situations.

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# Knowledge and Attitudes of Jordanian Dentists toward Speech Language Pathology

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**Abstract**—This study was conducted to assess dentists' knowledge of normal speech-language development (NSLD), speech-language disorders (SLD), and speech-language pathology (SLPy) and to determine their general attitudes toward speech-language pathology (SLPy). A self-administered, web-based questionnaire was emailed to all members of the Jordanian Dental Association Council. 191 completed questionnaire were entered in excel sheet and statistically analyzed with IBM SPSS version 20 software. The respondents demonstrated insufficient knowledge regarding normal speech-language development and speech-language disorders. Additionally, the majority of respondents reported a general impression that the speech-language pathologist has an important role in a health profession team (86.8%). However, they did poorly on the normal speech-language development questions (26%) as well as the speech-language disorders questions (18%). There were no statistically significant differences between different variables - age, gender, years of practice, place of practice and speciality of dentists and dentists' knowledge of speech-language pathology.

**Index Terms**—attitudes, normal speech-language development, speech- language disorders, speech-language pathologist

## I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to communicate is very important; it is sometimes compared to the ability to breathe (Van Hattum, 1985b). People usually communicate to share ideas and feelings that convey messages between persons or groups (McLaughlin, 2007). Communication disorders are defined by the American Hearing and Speech Association (ASHA), which is considered the largest speech and language pathology professional association worldwide, as “an impairment in the ability to receive, send, process and comprehend concepts or verbal, nonverbal and graphic symbol systems” (ASHA, 2017).

The World Health Organization (WHO) documented that 15% of the world's population is disabled, and hundreds of thousands of children suffer from disability in communication due to impairment (WHO, 2017). Speech and language disorders (SLD) are considered a major public health problem because they cause many complications from childhood to adulthood (Vameghi, Bakhtari, Shirinbayan and Hatamizadeh, 2015). Various studies in different countries have documented the prevalence rates of SLD in children in different age group to be between 3.2% and 26% (Beitchman, Nair, Clegg and Patel, 1986.; Tomblin, Records, Buckwalter, Zhang, Smith, O'Brien, 1997; Shriberg, Tomblin and McSweeney, 1999). A study conducted by (Amayrah and Natour; 2012) reported that the prevalence of communication disorders in Jordanian schools was approximately 15%.

Assessment and treatment of communication disorders is usually conducted by a speech-language pathologist (SLP), who is considered a member of a multidisciplinary team, alongside other health professionals such as physicians, dentists, nurses and professionals in the education field and social services (Glover, McCormack, Smith-Tamaray ;2015, Yoon, Steele; 2012). Moreover, such collaboration between professions in the evaluation and treatment of communication disorders has an essential impact on overall patient care. (West and Poulton, 1997; Hall , 2005).

The SLP plays a major role in assessment and treatment of different communication disorders, for instance, language and articulation disorders, voice and swallowing disorders, and fluency and resonance disorders (ASHA, 2017). Furthermore, the SLP addresses different age groups, from infants to elderly people, and is employed in a variety of settings such as universities, hospitals, schools, kindergartens and public and private clinics (Plante, Beeson, 2004)

According to the American Dental Association (ADA), the dentist is responsible for general care of teeth and diagnosis and treatment of oral and dental disease in all age groups, including patients with communication disorders, in addition to cooperating with other professionals on the team (ADA, 2017). A number of studies have reported that a qualified dentist should be characterized by a set of features in order to communicate effectively with patients, such as patience, motivation, organizational skill and communication skills, additionally, good listening and understanding of

the patient's complaint, particularly those of children, because most of them are unable to clearly articulate what or how they feel or respond to questions in connection to describing their pain or symptoms (Armanpreet, 2014, Lowe, 2013).

Despite the importance of collaboration between the SLP and the dentist, many dentists are less familiar with the role of the SLP in different areas, which leads to either failure to detect the communication disorders or failure to refer to treatment (Vameghi et al., 2015). A study carried out by Crystal and Sullivan (Sultana, 2015) documented that the medical students, which include physicians and dentists, have insufficient knowledge concerning the role of and the services that can be provided by SLPs compared to nurses and occupational and physical therapists. Moreover, a study on Australian public knowledge of the SLP profession documented the awareness of only specific disorders such as stuttering and articulation disorders (Byrne, 2012). A recent study by (Eyndhoven, Chussid and Yoon, 2015) with regards to general knowledge of pediatric dentists about SLP found that despite the fact that the majority of pediatric dentists agreed that speech evaluation should be part of the dental examination, they did not perform well on either the normal speech and language development questions (NSLD), or symptoms of speech and language disorders (SLD), although this information is contained in the Handbook of the American Academy of Pediatrics Dentists (Nowak, Casamassimo, 2011).

A study conducted by (Mahmoud, Aljazy and Al Khamrah, 2014) regarding general public knowledge about speech and language pathology (SLPy) in Amman, Jordan, documented insufficient knowledge about communication disorders that are assessed and treated by SLPs, particularly those related to the medical or neurological fields, such as removed larynx – 30%; voice disorders – 37%; cleft lip and palate – 22%; and strokes – 20%.

Generally, people's attitudes are commonly defined as a combination of three aspects – beliefs, feelings and the intention to act. Consequently, there are many elements that vary in a person's attitudes; for instance, working experience, lack of training, limited information and difficulties in communication (Abdulwahab and Al-Gain 2003; Nagarajappa, Tak, Sharda, Asawa, Jalihal, Kakatkar, 2013). A study conducted by (Sultana 2015) about the attitudes of physicians and dentists in Bangladesh towards SLPs revealed that although the SLP has no separate role in the health professional team, they have a vital role in the assessment and treatment of patients with communication disorders. A number of dentists could name some SLPs; however, some did not have knowledge concerning where this service is being provided.

Despite the fact that SLPy is a developing profession that has only been established in Jordan approximately 20 years ago, to the best of the authors' knowledge, little research has been undertaken to investigate the knowledge and attitudes of Jordanian dentists regarding speech-language pathology. Hence, the purpose of this study is (1) to determine dentists' knowledge about speech-language pathology as a profession and their understanding of the role of SLPs and (2) to evaluate dentists' attitudes regarding SLP.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### *The Questionnaire*

This study was approved by the institutional review board at the University of Jordan. The questionnaire was self-designed specifically for the study. A web-based survey program, *survey monkey* (survey monkey.com, 2007), was chosen to administer the survey and collect the data. The survey was formulated in simple English language and pilot tested using 20 volunteer Jordanian speech-language pathologists and dentists, who were asked to provide feedback on content and clarity. Some comments and suggestions for modifications that were received were incorporated into the final version of the questionnaire. The finalized online survey was distributed via email to all dentists registered with the Jordanian Dental Association Council. Cover letters with a consent form, a link to the survey and an information sheet were enclosed in the email, which stated that participants would be anonymous and their responses would remain confidential.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections: the first section contained six questions (1- 6 items) that collected demographic information of the respondents, comprising age, gender, place of work, academic degree, specialty, and years of work experience.

The second section included 10 items arranged in two categories. Category A (7-11 items) elicited information on the dentists' knowledge about normal speech and language development (NSLD), for example, normal sentence production for a three-year-old child, and the expected age for children to produce sibilant sounds such as (/ s/ and / z /sounds). Category B (12–16 items) elicited information about dentists' knowledge of speech and language disorders (SLD). These items contain scenarios for diverse types of communication disorders, such as language disorders, articulation disorders, voice and swallowing disorders, resonance disorders and fluency disorders, in addition to whether these scenarios should be referred for speech language assessment or not. The response formats for this section included 'true', 'false' and 'I do not know' answers.

The third section (17-23 items) was designed to evaluate the knowledge of the dentists about the speech-language pathologist (SLP) profession; for example, how they first heard about SLP; whether they refer any patients to SLP; and reasons for not referring. Knowledge was assessed about employment settings, ages of clients that SLPs address and the diversity of disorders treated by SLPs, for instance, "people who have had strokes", and situations that do not require an SLP such as "people with pneumonia".

The fourth section required the dentists to rank a number of statements and to provide short answers and was developed to evaluate dentists' attitudes and levels of confidence towards SLPy; for example, whether the SLP is an

important profession in the rehabilitation team, whether the dentist felt knowledgeable about SLPy or had enough knowledge to explain the SLPy profession to others; and whether they had undertaken a course in communication disorders or could identify some SLP names. This section rated to what degree the respondents agree using a five-point Likert type scale (1= Strongly Agree, 2= Agree, 3= Natural, 4 = Disagree, 5 = Strongly Disagree). Data were obtained regarding dentists' attitudes towards referral patients with communication disorders to SLPy services as well as reasons for not referring.

## II. METHODOLOGY

The dentists were asked to complete the questionnaire within one month. The completed questionnaires were collected and statistically analyzed with IBM SPSS version 20 software. Pearson Chi- Square was used to identify differences in response for different variables with the level of significance set at  $p > 0.05$ .

## III. RESULTS

A total of 235 Jordanian dentists responded to the web-based survey that was distributed to all registered members of the Jordanian Dental Association Council; however, 44 dentists did not answer all the questions, and these were excluded from the study. The final number of respondents was 191 with a response rate of 81%.

### A. Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

The characteristics of respondents and their practices are shown in Table 1.

TABLE I.  
DISTRIBUTION OF PARTICIPANTS ACCORDING TO DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

		N	Percentage	
Gender	Female	89	46.60	
	Male	102	53.40	
Age	22- 29	104	54.45	
	30- 39	43	22.51	
	40- 49	36	18.85	
	50 +	9	4.19	
Practice	Private sector	82	42.39	
	University	45	23.56	
	Ministry of Health	19	9.95	
	Royal Medical Services	19	9.95	
	Overseas	15	7.85	
	Unemployed	11	5.76	
Dentists Specialty	-GDP	111	60.3	
	Oral surgeon	14	7.6	
	Oral Radiologist	11	4.3	
	Oral pathologist	11	3.8	
	Orthodontist	7	6.0	
	Paedodontist	8	6.0	
	Periodontist	12	3.8	
	Endodontist	7	1.6	
	Fixed and removable Prosthodontist	3	6.5	
	Other	7	6.0	
	Experience	Less than a year	47	24.6
		1 year to less than 5 years	64	33.5
		5 years to less than 10 years	24	12.6
		10 years to less than 15 years	25	13.1
15 years or more		31	16.2	

### B. Knowledge of Normal Speech and Language Development (NSLD) and Speech and Language Disorders (SLD)

The number of dentists who correctly answered each statement regarding knowledge of NSLD is shown in Table 2. The number of dentists who correctly answered each scenario about SLD is shown in Table 3.



TABLE II.  
KNOWLEDGE OF NORMAL SPEECH AND LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

Questions	N	Percentage
Children usually begin to produce two words together in a sentence at the age of 2 to 3 years.		
True *	145	75.92
False	26	13.6
Do not know	20	10.47
All children with speech language disorders have intellectual deficits.		
True	39	20.31
False *	120	62.8
Do not know	32	16.7
The expected age for children to produce sibilant sounds such as 'S' and 'Z' in their speech is between 5 and 7 years.		
True *	78	40.84
False	56	29.32
Do not know	57	29.84
All factors responsible for the occurrence of congenital cleft palate become operative during the first trimester of pregnancy.		
True *	104	54.45
False	43	22.51
Do not know	44	23.04
Any dysfluencies including repetition and prolongation of sounds in the words, e.g., da.da.da dad, will be considered normal in all ages.		
True	29	15.18
False*	115	60.21
Do not know	47	24.61

\* correct answer

For the NSLD, 26% of respondents answered four of five statements correctly; only 11% of the respondents answered all five questions correctly, and 5% (ten) respondents answered all questions incorrectly.

It was found that 75% of the respondents (n=145) knew that the expected age for children to produce a sentence that includes two to three words is between two and three years, while 63% of respondents (n=120) knew that children with SLD were not considered children with intellectual deficits. 40% of respondents (n=78 ) believed that the expected age for children to produce sibilant sounds, for example 's' and 'z' sounds, is between five and seven years. More than half of the respondents 54% (n= 104) believed that the factors that led to congenital cleft palate become operative during the first trimester of pregnancy. Finally, 60% of respondents (n= 115) knew that the appearance of dysfluency was not considered normal in all ages.

TABLE III.  
KNOWLEDGE OF SPEECH AND LANGUAGE DISORDERS

Questions	N	Percentage
In your opinion, if an adult with severe hearing loss wants to learn sign language, he/she should be treated by a speech-language pathologist.		
True	111	58.12
False *	34	17.80
Do not know	46	24.08
Ali, who is 56 years old, suffers from swallowing problems that presented two years ago due to paralysis in his cheeks and tongue muscles. He is currently being treated by a physician, a dentist and a physical therapist; therefore, he does not need to consult a speech language pathologist.		
True	118	62.11
False *	41	21.58
Do not know	31	16.32
In your opinion, after laryngectomy (removal of the larynx) there is no need to consult a speech language pathologist.		
True	113	60.11
False *	40	21.28
Do not know	35	18.62
Hoarseness, decreased pitch range, and neck pain are symptoms of voice disorders.		
True *	84	43.98
False	33	17.28
Do not know	74	38.74
In your opinion, a three-year-old child who has a repaired cleft palate with several dental anomalies should consult a speech-language pathologist.		
True *	142	75.3
False	21	10.99
Do not know	28	14.66

\* correct answer

To test their knowledge about SLD, respondents were asked to make judgments on five different SLD scenarios: 18% of respondents answered four of five scenarios correctly, while 5% of respondents answered all five scenarios correctly; however 13% of respondents answered all questions incorrectly. A high percentage of respondents (58%) (n= 111) reported that the SLP was considered the best professional for teaching sign language to deaf or hard-of-hearing people. Interestingly, 62% of respondents (n= 118) were unaware that patients with swallowing disorders should be referred to an SLP as well as other professionals. Moreover, 60% of respondents (n= 113) also believed that there was no need to consult an SLP after laryngectomy (larynx removed). In addition, 43% of respondents (n= 84) knew the main symptoms of voice disorders, and 75% (n= 142) believed that children who had cleft palatal repair have SLD and must be evaluated and treated by an SLP.

There was no statistically significant difference in age, gender, year of practice, place of practice and specialty of dentists for knowledge of NSLD and SLD.

### C. Knowledge about the Speech-language Pathologist (SLP)

For all dentists questioned, 62% (n= 120) had heard about the SLP, and 51% (n= 98) of them reported that they gave advice to consult an SLP, while only 29% (n= 55) of respondents actually referred their patients for speech-language assessment. The respondents had many different reasons for not referring a patient with SLD to an SLP; approximately 68% of dentists had a lack of knowledge about SLPs, and half of dentists had a lack of knowledge of referral procedures. Additionally, 43% of respondents were uncertain about the diagnosis, and over a quarter of respondents, 26%, reported that parents may become angry about a referral to an SLP. The dentists' reasons for not referring patients to speech and language clinics are listed in Table 4.

TABLE IV.  
REASONS FOR NOT REFERRING A PATIENT WITH SPEECH-LANGUAGE DISORDERS TO A SPEECH-LANGUAGE PATHOLOGIST

Reason	N	Percentage
- Parents may become angry if I refer them to a speech-language pathologist	51	26.85
- Lack of knowledge about speech-language pathologist	131	68.95
- Lack of knowledge of referral procedures	96	50.53
- Uncertainty about diagnosis	82	43.16
- Lack of time	26	13.68
- None of my patients needed referral to a Speech-language pathologist	35	18.42
- No reason given	21	11.05

Half of the respondents, 51%, obtained information about SLPs from work experience, 41% from university curricula, 28% from reading, 23% from the internet, and 16% from a friend. For the group of ages that SLPs address, the highest percentages were 83% for grade school children, 80% for teenagers, 77% for preschool children, and 65% for adults, while the lowest percentages were 41% for elderly people and 26% for infants. Interestingly, just 16% of all respondents agreed that SLP worked with all age groups listed above.

Concerning places where SLPs are employed, almost three quarters, 74%, of respondents reported that SLPs are employed in private clinics, 63% in hospitals, 58% in schools, 46% in universities, and 41% in kindergartens. Unfortunately, 12% of respondents believed that SLPs worked in all the above settings. Finally, the respondents were asked to determine whether an SLP is typically involved in treating different disorders or not.

Notably, the dentists cannot differentiate between the situations that do require an SLP, for example, people with cleft palate, and those that did not require an SLP, for example, people with muscle disease. The results indicated that the dentists have a good knowledge of "people with cleft palate" and "children who are late to talk," with the percentages of 83% and 82%, respectively. The percentages of respondents according to the diversity of disorders treated by SLP are shown in Table 5.

TABLE V.  
DENTISTS' RESPONSES BY PERCENTAGE REGARDING DIVERSITY OF DISORDERS TREATED BY SLP

Type of Disorders	N	Percentage
People with diseases or injuries of the brain	110	57.59
People with fluency disorders, e.g., stuttering	141	73.83
People with hearing loss	147	76.96
Children with autism	135	70.6
People with pneumonia	10	5.2
People with voice disorders	73	38.53
People who have had strokes	56	29.7
People who lose their eyesight	44	17.28
People with cleft palate	159	83.25
People with mental retardation	81	42.41
People with leukemia	6	3.1
People with tonsillitis	11	5.76
People with swallowing disorders	65	34.03
People with dementia or memory deficit	32	16.75
People with muscle diseases	77	40.3
People who start talking late	158	82.72

There was no significant difference between variable factors in this study and dentists' knowledge related to SLP.

D. Attitudes towards Speech and Language Pathology (SLPy)

In this section, there were a few questions that had to be answered on a scale from 1 to 5 (1= strongly agree and 5= strongly disagree). We found no significant differences between different variables related to age, gender, place of work, academic degree, and years of work experience and attitudes towards SLPy. Most of the dentists – 86% – agreed or strongly agreed that SLPy is a vital profession in the rehabilitation healthcare team. Although 40% of dentists agreed or strongly agreed that they feel knowledgeable about SLPy, 71% of dentists disagreed or strongly disagreed that they have enough knowledge to explain SLPy to other professionals. Moreover, 39% of dentists agreed or strongly agreed that they can confidently recognize signs of SLD in the clinical setting, and 82% of dentists agreed or strongly agreed that they are willing to attend a continuing education course in SLD. Dentists' attitudes toward speech-language pathology (SLPy) are listed in Table 6.

TABLE VI.  
DENTISTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD SPEECH-LANGUAGE PATHOLOGY (SLPY)

Statement	Percentage of agree or strongly agree	Neutral	Percentage of disagree or strongly disagree
1. Speech language pathology is a vital profession in the rehabilitation healthcare team	86.9%	10.99	2.1
2. I feel knowledgeable about speech-language pathology	39.27	32.46	28.27
3. I feel I have enough knowledge to explain speech-language pathology to other professionals	25.13	23.56	51.35
4. I can confidently recognize signs of speech language disorders in the clinical setting	39.79	31.94	28.27
5. I am aware of specialized centers for speech-language disorders in Jordan	32.07	20.11	47.83
6. I know the name of at least one speech-language pathologist who works in Jordan	29.29	12.57	58.65
7. I had a course in communication disorders or speech language disorders at the university	47.28	11.05	41.67

IV. DISCUSSION

This cross-sectional study was conducted to investigate the knowledge of Jordanian dentists regarding the speech-language pathologist's roles. There is a lack of published studies on dentists' knowledge about SLPy as well as about NSLD and SLD; to the best of our knowledge, little research has been undertaken in Jordan.

In the present study, the majority of respondents had a low level of knowledge about NSLD, which agrees with the study conducted by (Eyndhoven et al, 2015). In that study, less than 1 % of respondents answered all statements correctly for NSLD even though those normal milestones are listed in the American Academy of Pediatric Dentistry (AAPD) handbook. Moreover, the highest percentage of dentists' knowledge about NSLD was 75% for normal language development, while the lowest percentage for NSLD was 40% for articulation development. A possible explanation for this high percentage is the type of communication between dentists and children, which depends on one-to-one interaction. In other words, children typically can respond to dentists' questions about pain depending on their age and based on how much they have developed language to express their feelings. This communication may appear simple if the child can produce clear and organized sentences, which makes judgment on his/her language development by dentists easy and uncomplicated. Otherwise, the lowest percentage is associated with the articulation disorders, which are defined as "an inability to produce certain speech sounds" (Bauman, 2012).

In other words, this result depends on dentists' general understanding of the child's intelligibility of sounds; usually, the dentist pays more attention to the general context of speech instead of appropriate and correct production of each sound.

In terms of dentists' knowledge about SLD, the respondents were asked to make decisions on different scenarios about SLD and whether these are needed for referral to an SLP. With regards to the first scenario, 58% of respondents believed that one of the responsibilities of the SLP is to teach sign language for deaf or hard-of-hearing people. Moreover, the deaf community is defined as those individuals who use signed language as their primary mode of communication. For decades, confusion has existed over the differences in the roles of the SLP and a sign language assistant/interpreter, who is responsible for helping deaf or hard of hearing individuals understand what is being said in a variety of situations. However, despite the importance of collaborative work between all team members to help deaf or hard-of-hearing people, no specific policy could be found regarding the diagnosis or treatment of individuals who are deaf or hard of Hearing in ASHA's publication. Otherwise, ASHA and the Council on Education of Deaf and National Association of Deaf reported that a signed language assistant/interpreter must be certified by the National Association of the Deaf in sign language or hold a specialized certificate or degree program in American Sign Language interpretation, regardless of whether they already hold a Bachelor's or Master's degree in SLPy (Cripps, Cooper, Supalla and Evitts, 2016).

Regarding the second, third and fourth scenarios, we found that respondents' awareness related to these disorders that have neurological bases according to the ASHA classification is limited: a high percentage of dentists – 60% and 67%, respectively – agreed that there was no need for an SLP to treat swallowing disorders or laryngectomees, which is similar to a previous study (Byrne, 2010). Recently, a study conducted by (Mahmoud, AL Jazi and ALkhamrah ,2014) reported inadequate public knowledge of some SLDs, for example, swallowing disorders, voice disorders and following strokes; however, there are several reasons why this may be the case. First, the general idea among the public as well as among the respondents in this study is that SLPs are needed in cases that directly involve language and speech problems such as language disorders, articulation disorders, and stuttering, and that there is no important role for SLPs in medical or neurological disorders. Second, many patients with medical problems, for example, body and head injuries, strokes and laryngectomy, visit the medical profession initially for evaluation, for example, physicians, dentists and Otolaryngologists, and those key members in the medical field are unaware of the services an SLP can provide patients. Therefore, a big gap exists between medical professions and SLPs due to the very limited exposure to the field of SLPy. Finally, a lack of SLPy clinics in Jordanian hospitals has led to a decrease in the interaction between all team members in addition to reducing the appropriate procedures of referral.

In contrast, 75% of respondents in the final scenario agreed that patients with cleft lip and palate must be evaluated and treated by SLPs, and this high percentage of knowledge suggests that dentists were more familiar with cleft palate cases; moreover, dentists had the topic of cleft palate included in their university curriculum, as well as clinical exposure to individuals with cleft palate.

The respondents for the present study exhibit no significant difference between ages, gender, years of practice, place of practice and specialty of dentists and knowledge of NSLD and SLD. These results indicate that a need for general awareness of normal and abnormal milestones in the field of SLPy.

Although approximately two-thirds of the dentists in this study had some knowledge about SLPs and half of them reported that they gave advice to consult SLPs, most of the dentists did not refer their patients to speech and language clinics. The main reasons for Jordanian dentists not to refer patients with SLD were lack of knowledge about SLPy, uncertainty about referral procedures, uncertainty about diagnosis, and fear of anger from parents. All these responses led to a result that focused on the value of educating dentists and increasing their knowledge of normal milestones of speech and language as well as SLD so they can detect and refer such cases. These findings are consistent with the results of (Vameghi et al. 2015) who reported that insufficient knowledge of professionals meant that children with SLD were not detected, or were not referred for SLPs.

An unexpected result of the current investigation was that under half of the dentists – 41% –acquired their information about SLPs from work experience, then from the university curriculum. This is a low percentage, which suggests a lack of adequate information conveyed in academic programs, which raises the importance of effective education with specific courses related to NSLD and SLD to increase the dentists' knowledge and awareness. On the other hand, the results showed that work experience is the initial and most vital information resource; a good explanation for this is that dentists communicate directly with patients in the dentistry clinic and this kind of communication opens up more opportunities to exchange information with others in the work place and seek the appropriate professional.

Another finding was that dentists little knowledge of SLP presented by the little awareness of places that employed SLPs and the age groups that SLPs address. The results clearly revealed that even though a large number of dentists believed that the private clinics were the initial institutions that employed SLPs, followed by schools, universities, hospitals and kindergartens, only 12% of dentists thought that SLPs work in all five places. Furthermore, with regards to age groups that SLPs address, the results illustrated that a high percentage is recorded for school-age children and teenagers, with a low percentage recorded for infants and elderly people. There are some reasons for these results: first, according to the American Academy of Pediatric Dentistry, children's first dental visit must be scheduled at the first

birthday. However, a study conducted by ( Draidi, AL-Olaimat, Hyasat, Othman and Sakarna ,2014) suggested that the age range on the first dental visit in Jordanian children was 24-144 months; thus, dentists' knowledge about this group under two years of age is limited due to rare appointments between those children and the dentist. Second, regarding elderly people, we found that many dentists have no information about the role of SLPs with elderly people, for example, whether SLPs provide vital services to those individuals who do have communication, cognitive, or swallowing impairments following illness, trauma, or disease. In addition, there is a lack of knowledge on how to prevent communication and swallowing disorders by promoting a healthy lifestyle and educating consumers about how to prevent strokes and other disorders that may lead to speech and language impairments.

With regard to cases that SLPs work with, we found that the dentists were able to make judgment on language delay, cleft lip and palate, and stuttering, while voice disorders, swallowing disorders and hearing loss were the most difficult to distinguish. Once again, there is a need to raise the awareness of dentists regarding the disorders that SLPs can become involved in to ensure that these unrecognized disorders will be identified in the first instance and that patients are referred and receive effective treatment.

Finally, regarding dentists' attitudes toward SLP, the overall responses in this sample agreed that SLPy is a vital profession on a healthy team; however, the majority of the respondents indicated that they were not knowledgeable enough about SLPy as a profession to explain SLPy to other professionals. Moreover, 70 % of the dentists reported that they had not attended a specialized course in SLD at the University of Jordan and were unconfident in their ability to recognize the signs and symptoms of SLD. Over 80% of respondents stated they are willing to attend a continuing course in SLD. The results of this survey suggest that dentists need more extensive and effective education to increase their knowledge and awareness of all aspects of NSLD as well as SLD.

## V. CONCLUSION

This study showed insufficient knowledge of dentist regarding normal speech-language development and speech-language disorders. In addition, the majority of respondents agreed that SLPy is a vital profession in the rehabilitation healthcare team. The main reasons for dentists not referral patients with communication disorders for speech language pathologist included lack of knowledge about SLP and referral procedures.

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# Unified Dialectical Relations of Terms in English-Chinese Translation\*

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**Abstract**—The differences between English and Chinese history and culture lead to the differences in the way of thinking between the two nations, and these differences in the way of thinking naturally reflect in the languages, from which the dialectical relations between English and Chinese arises in some aspects. There is a contradictory relation which is both opposite and unified between common terms in English-Chinese translation. To study the unity of opposites in English-Chinese translation is not to reconcile the contradictions, but to face up to them. Only by knowing what the problems are can we try to find a way to solve them. This paper aims to clarify the origins and definitions of these terms, make a deep analysis to them and then conclude the necessity of their independent existence in translation strategy, method and technique, and at the same time prove that under certain conditions these terms are unified, and that the two sides, which have opposing and unified relations, can also realize the transformation from one side to the other.

**Index Terms**—English-Chinese translation, terms, unified dialectical relations

## I. INTRODUCTION

In the process of English-Chinese translation, the dialectical relation of unity of opposites often exists in the terms of translation strategy, method and technique. But in order to accurately understand the dialectical relation in the terms, the concepts of these terms must first be understood clearly. However, in translation studies, there is a problem that has not attracted enough attention from the academic circles, and thus it hinders the further development of translation studies to a certain extent. This problem is the confusion of concepts in translation studies, especially in the three ones, or, translation strategy, translation method and translation technique. On the one hand, although there are many discussions on translation strategy, method and technique in academic circles, it is quite rare to make a comprehensive study of them as key elements of a methodological system, and make a thorough study of their respective connotations, relations and classification systems. On the other hand, there generally exist such problems as vague definitions, improper classifications and confusing concepts in the understanding and application of these three terms in academic circles. Due to the present confusing concepts of translation strategy, method and technique, Xiong(2014) makes a detailed study and deep analysis to the concepts of translation strategy, method and technique. In his paper, he analyses the common confusion in the two basic concepts of translation strategy, translation method and translation technique in academic circles, and puts forward that a clear distinction should be made between these three concepts, which will help to eliminate the confusion in these three basic concepts, better promote translation studies and provide some enlightenment and references to the construction of the system of the translation methodology.

Based on Xiong's translation classification, this paper aims to explore unified dialectical relations of the terms in Translation strategy, Translation method and Translation technique.

## II. THE UNITY OF OPPOSITES BETWEEN FOREIGNIZATION AND DOMESTICATION IN TRANSLATION STRATEGY

Normalization and standardization of the use of translation terms are very important prerequisites for accurate translation and the correct use of various methods, means and techniques of translation. However, in the practice of English-Chinese translation, there are some serious phenomena, such as improper use, misunderstanding and misuse of terms.

Liu (2003) believes that terms are special words which are created and used for the purposes of accurately expressing the concepts by various subjects in their fields. Their meanings usually reflect the essential characteristics of things. Translatology, as an independent subject, has gradually formed and possessed a considerable number of specialized words to express concepts in its field in the long process of development. Each term has a strictly prescribed meaning, and the use of the terms in translation studies should also be unified and standardized. Therefore, it is extremely

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necessary to give the distinct conceptual significance of the relevant translation terms, make clear their scope of use, clarify the relevance between them, and then, consistently, a strict logical system is formed ultimately. This will not only provide theoretical guidance for translation teaching, translators' translation practice, but also greatly promote normalization and standardization of the use of terminology in translation theory research.

According to Fang (2012), translation strategy can be understood as a translator's psychological tendency for achieving some translation purposes and the sum of specific methods and means which he/she adopts in the process of translation.

Xiong (2014) believes that as a macro principle and scheme, the classification of translation strategy must be closely related to the participants in translation activities. Participants in translation activities generally include the author of the original work, the sponsor, the client of the translation activity, the translator and the recipient of the translation. In this activity, the participants at the two levels of translation activities are the author of the original work and the recipient of the translation. According to the different orientations of translators to them in translation activities, translation strategy can be divided into two categories: foreignization and domestication.

Translation is not only a process of interlingual transformation, but also the one of cultural transfer. In translation activities, translators tend to have a planned tendency towards some culture to erase or highlight the linguistic and cultural differences of exotic texts (original texts), and make a plan for the translation based on this choice, this culture-oriented plan is the choice of a translator's translation strategy.

Venuti(2004), an American translation theorist, adopted the terms domestication and foreignization to describe the two different cultural tendencies in his famous book *The Translator's Invisibility: A History of Translation*. That is to say, domestication and foreignization, as the translation strategy, involve the processing of the cultural content of the original language.

Domestication and foreignization are a pair of contradictions, and there is a contradictory relation between them.

The essential attribute of foreignization is the author-of-the original work-orientated. That is, the translator tries to approach the author of the original work in translation. In Schleiermacher's words, the translator "tries not to disturb the original author, but to bring the reader to the original author" (Schleiermacher, 2006, p.229) . Specifically, in translation, we should try our best to retain the linguistic, literary, cultural characteristics of the original work and the exotic flavor. On the contrary, the translation of domestication "does not disturb the readers' tranquility as much as possible, lets the author approach the readers" (Schleiermacher,2006, p.229) , and therefore removes the barriers of language and culture for readers, but the result is the connotation of the heterogeneous culture has been cut down, changed or even assimilated, so that the exotic features of the original work can not be seen.

Domestication adheres to the expression way of the native language in translation process, and the target language, its culture or its readers are the destination of the translation. When dealing with cultural differences, domestication puts great emphasis on use of words and expression ways with the cultural features of the target language to translate the original words and expression ways, which is more in line with the expression habits of the target language, easy to be accepted by readers and convenient to communicate.

In the process of language transformation, we often encounter various obstacles caused by the differences of language and culture, some of which are even insurmountable. At this time, the translator can only adopt domestication to incorporate his own translation into the cultural norms of the target language. It is true that domestication has many advantages, but it also shows its disadvantages. Over-domestication often causes the original work to lose its true face and form a barrier to culture, leading to "Cultural dislocation". However, excessive foreignization, ignoring the needs of the readers and the language habits of the target language, blindly pursuing the correspondence with the form of the original work will lead to the obscurity of the translation.

As contradictory parties, both of them have their own occasions and opportunities to be used independently in the process of translation, and in some cases they repel, struggle and oppose against with one another, and this opposing relation between them is absolute. But sometimes they compromise and complement each other, and realize the transformation from one side to the other under certain conditions, which just reflects the unity of the two sides. Sun(2001,p.44.)says, "When we adopt foreignization, we should pay attention to the limit with great discretion, and when it is not feasible, we must resort to domestication, that is, the two methods should be complementary to each other, embodying their own advantages" .Cai(2001, p. 41) says, "In fact, foreignization and domestication are not mutually exclusive antagonistic concepts, but mutually complementary and supportive translation strategies". No matter Mr. Sun's "mutual complement" or Mr. Cai's "mutual support", they all express the same idea, that is, the relation between the two is not entirely a tit-for-tat antagonism, and both sides of the contradiction can achieve unity under certain conditions.

Translation is not static but a kind of communication between different cultures, it is a cultural phenomenon and an endless process of interpreting symbols according to different codes. Domestication and foreignization are not absolutely binary opposites. There is no absolute translation of domestication or absolute translation of foreignization. Often there is foreignization in domestication and domestication in foreignization, the main problem which strategy is dominant in translation. "They play an irreplaceable role in the target language's culture and fulfill their respective missions. Therefore, the two translation strategies will coexist forever and play a complementary role". (Guo, 1999, p.208)



Foreignization is beneficial to cultural transplantation. According to Professor Hua (1998), when the target language readers cannot accept foreignization translation, it is necessary to adopt domestication to translate the original work by using the means of expressions with the same or similar meanings and cultural characteristics of the target language. It can effectively explain the coexistence of foreignization and domestication in translation, which shows that the two sides are not completely opposed, but are unified in opposition. For example, Lin Yutang adopted both domestication and foreignization in his translation of *Six Chapters of a Floating Life*, instead of mechanically adopting only one strategy from beginning to end. Because Lin Yutang is well versed in both Eastern and Western cultures and at the same time is very skilled in English and Chinese, he has successfully combined foreignization with domestication.

### III. THE UNITY OF OPPOSITES IN TRANSLATION METHOD

Translation method is aimed at linguistic forms, including word selection, sentence structure and rhetorical devices and so on. It means that due to the objective differences between the original language and the target language, such as the different expression ways and usage habits of the two languages, the translator can adopt different ways to deal with the translation, or maintain or change the language form of the original work in the process of transformation of the languages. Therefore, translation method embodies “a general dealing approach in translation, rather than a specific and partial one” ( Chesterman, 2005, p.26 ) .

Xiong (2014) divides translation strategy into two categories: foreignization strategy and domestication strategy. These two strategies each contain such translation methods as:

A. Translation Methods in view of foreignization: zero translation, word-for-word translation, transliteration, literal translation. Although the four translation methods are different, they have one thing in common, that is, they are all original-author-oriented, so they belong to the translation method in view of the strategy of foreignization.

B. Translation methods in view of domestication: free translation, imitation translation, variation translation, and recreation. Although the four translation methods are different, they have one thing in common, that is, they are all the-translation-reader-oriented, so they belong to the translation method in view of the strategy of domestication.

Among these translation methods, the relation of the dialectical unity between literal translation and free translation is more obvious.

The fundamental task of translation is to fully display the “flavor” of the original work, and the “flavor” also includes the style. A translator’s duty is to be faithful to the author and to convey the original flavor accurately, but at the same time the readers of the translation should be considered because the translation is for the readers of the target language. So the translator naturally has to considerate a problem of adapting to the readers’ needs as much as possible in the process of translation on the premise of being faithful to the author. The two translation methods, literary translation and free translation should be adopted on this occasion. “Literal translation is a translation that not only conveys the meaning of the original work, but also pay attention to the form and is accepted by the readers, while free translation is a translation that conveys meaning regardless of the original work’s form” (Li ,2004, p.21-p.25).

Literary translation is both to be faithful to the content of the original work and to maintain the form of the original work, and is consistent with the original work in such aspects as words, sentence patterns and article structures, thus retaining the expression way, figurative image and national cultural features of the original work and making the translation produce the same effect as the original. By contrast, free translation is mainly adopted in the situations where the thinking or expression way of the original work is different from that of the translation, the translation can not maintain the linguistic form of the original, that is, the same content cannot embodied by the same expression way. On this occasion, the translator expresses the main idea of the original work in his own words from the point of meaning, paying no attention to the details, thus the metaphorical image and the characteristics of national culture of the original changing or disappearing. But free translation does not mean that the content can be deleted or added at will.

Literal translation is oriented towards the superficial meaning and form of the source language, while free translation is oriented towards the deep meaning of the source language and the form of the target language.

As the two most important translation methods in translation, literal translation and free translation exist in the unity of opposites, but they are relative concepts and not excluded from each other. No matter what kind of translation, such as the translation of words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs or articles, it may be the combination of literal translation and free translation, what is only worth considering is which method is the dominant one. “Literal translation and free translation are two aspects of a basic means in translation” ( Newmark,1988, p.45 ) . Literal translation emphasizes the formal consistency between the original work and the translation, while free translation emphasizes the unity of the meaning of the original work and the translation. However, they are not always mutually exclusive. In the process of translation, sometimes only literal translation need to be adopted, sometimes only free translation need to be adopted and sometimes they need to be adopted comprehensively. Literal translation and free translation are actually a dialectical unity of contradiction and interdependence, and they are two complementary translation methods. Xu(1981) believes literal translation and free translation are a pair of terms that are interrelated, complementary, integrated and penetrated into each other in complete translation. In general, literal translation should be the basis of translation methods, because literal translation adheres to the principle of unity of content and form, which is a translation method that excludes subjectivity, avoids conservatism, is good at absorbing new means of expression and has profound social

and cultural significance, and free translation should be a supplementary means. So they are just two translation methods used alternately according to the actual situation. Translators must be good at combining the two methods. Successful translation is a combination of literal translation and free translation.

Translation is a process of dialectical unity, a dialectical unity of faithfulness and coherence, of correct understanding and exact expression, and also of literal translation and free translation. In order to achieve the level of “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” in translation, translators should follow dialectical thinking, regard faithfulness and smoothness as the basic criteria of translation, comprehensively apply literal translation and free translation, correctly understand the source text and accurately express the source text in the process of translation.

#### IV. UNITY OF OPPOSITES IN TRANSLATION TECHNIQUE

Translation technique refers to the specific means adopted by the translator in the process of making corresponding adjustments to the words and sentences of the translation aimed at the specific situation of the differences between the source language and the target language in translating the source language. Different adjustment means can be adopted in terms of different situations, so there are a variety of translation techniques.

Xiong (2014) classifies translation technique into five categories, namely, addition, omission, division, combination and shift.

There is an obvious contradictory relation between addition, omission, division, and combination.

Addition refers to the addition of certain words, sentences or paragraphs into the translation according to the lexical, syntactic, semantic, rhetorical or stylistic needs of the target language, or due to the constraints of certain specific cultural norms of the target language, and the addition of words implied in the original work which are not explicitly stated as well as some general and annotative words to ensure the complete meaning of the translation, making the translation grammatically correct, semantically clear, rhetorically sound, logically acceptable and culturally appropriate. Words thus supplied must be indispensable syntactically, semantically, stylistically, and contextually. On the one hand, addition can ensure the integrity of the grammatical structure of the translation, on the other hand, it can ensure the clarity of the meaning of the translation, better expressing the original ideas and contents, or better achieving specific translation purposes.

Because of the great differences between culture and expression in Chinese and English, what is added or necessary in English may be redundant in Chinese, or vice versa, hence the principle of omission in translation. Omission refers to the removal of some irrelevant words, sentences or paragraphs from the original work that are contrary to the expression habits of the translated version according to the lexical, syntactic, semantic, rhetorical or stylistic needs of the target language, or due to the constraints of certain specific cultural norms of the target language in order to express the original idea more concisely and coherently, or better achieve specific translation purposes.

There are great differences between English and Chinese in the structure of writing. Chinese is short, concise, with emphasis on parataxis and therefore the structure of articles in Chinese is loose. English places much emphasis on hypotaxis and the clear and precise logical relationship between sentences, which makes the structure of articles in English more compact. Due to the differences between English and Chinese, it is necessary to analyze and reorganize the original sentences in translation so as to conform to the characteristics of the target language. Division refers to the division of a sentence into two or more sentences when its structure in original work is long and complex. Combination refers to the combination of two or more sentences in the original work into one sentence, or of the translation of a subject-subordinate complex sentence or a compound sentence into a short sentence or a phrase in translation.

It is not necessarily faithful to the original work not to add or omit its expression, and it is not always unfaithful to the original text to add or omit its expression. On the contrary, it is not faithful to the original text not to add or omit its expression, instead, it is faithful to the original text to add or omit its expression. The relations between them are not only opposite, but also complementary, both antagonistic and unified. As a British translator said, “As addition and subtraction are crucial to mathematics, addition and omission of words are crucial to translation” (Zhang, 1996, p.154). The purpose of adding words is to reproduce the content and style of the original work better. The principle of “faithfulness” is not violated by adding words without adding meaning and omitting words without decreasing meaning. Admission and omission are complementary and supportive mutually. Only by grasping the opportunity and the appropriate degree of addition and omission could a translator accurately and completely translate excellent works

The above analysis of these translation techniques fully demonstrates that translation technique depends on the understanding of the original work. Understanding is the basis of expression which reflects correct understanding. In the practice of translation, we should realize that translation techniques are not omnipotent and can not solve all the problems. The only use of translation technique can not guarantee that the translation is faithful and coherent, because translation is not a simple combination of parts, and the application of translation techniques is not isolated or static, no independent understanding or expression is tenable.

#### V. CONCLUSIONS

Language is the carrier of culture, and it reflects culture. Due to the differences in geography, history and culture between China and the West, there are various differences in thinking modes between them: concrete thinking and

abstract thinking, comprehensive thinking and analytical thinking, ontological thinking and object thinking, as well as forward thinking and converse thinking. The differences in thinking modes inevitably manifest themselves in languages, leading to the differences between English and Chinese.

Among the western translation theorists, Alexander Fraser Tytler put forward the “The three principles of translation” in *On the Principles of Translation* in 1792: 1. The translation should give a complete transcript of the ideas of the original work. 2. The style and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original. 3. The translation should have all the ease of the original composition (Chen, 2000). In order to achieve the three goals, translators must comprehensively adopt corresponding translation strategies, methods and techniques rather than choose one from the other in isolation. And the translator must give equal consideration to the two cultures at the same time, seek a balance between the two cultures in accordance with the principle of unity of opposites, and adopt various flexible means so that the translation can not only faithfully convey the original cultural information, but also appear in a reasonable form in the target culture.

In the practice of translation, there is also the factor of readers that influences how a translator translates besides the two major factors of language and culture. The translator should also take the target readers into consideration. A good translation must be permitted by its readers. The ultimate goal of conveying the spirit and culture of the original work cannot be achieved by only faithful translation of the original work regardless of the readers’ acceptance ability, and also the translation could not be a good one. Only by uniting the opposites, or the original work and the target readers, taking both into account, being faithful to the original work and giving consideration to the target readers, can the translation be considered a successful one. Therefore, When translating, translators should pay attention to the differences between English and Chinese, and adopt dialectical means, such as addition and omission, division, and combination, literal translation and free translation, foreignization and domestication and so on, to improve the quality of the translation.

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# A Study on Modifiers in the English Language

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**Abstract**—Over the past few decades, due to the development of applied linguistics, many systematic and theoretical achievements have emerged in the field of English language structure. However, in most grammatical monographs, the reference to Modifier is very general and it lacks a complete and precise definition. In this paper, for the first time, the author studies Modifier as a grammatical unit, and systematically explores it in terms of definition, classification, position and research purpose, so as to understand and explain some other phenomena of linguistic structure in English from a new perspective.

**Index Terms**—modifiers, definition, classification

## I. INTRODUCTION

Over the past few decades, due to the development of applied linguistics, many systematic and theoretical achievements have emerged in the field of English language structure. However, in most grammatical monographs, the reference to Modifier (Mer or M) is very general and it lacks a complete and precise definition.

In the past, the studies on modifiers in English were confined to attributives that modify a noun phrase in the form of words, phrases or clauses. According to Liu Yingde, attributives are grammatical units before or after a noun or pronoun phrase that take the functions of modification, limitation or further explanation (Liu, 2002). By “attributive modifiers”, Yang Qing means grammatical units modifying a central word in terms of characteristic, shape, scope or category, which include noun phrases, adjective phrases, participles and clauses (Yang, 1994). Li Farong and Ma Bingyu claim that as a modifier of a noun phrase, both relative clauses and other modifiers are similar in that they are closely connected with each other, the former being regarded as the deep structure and the latter the derivation of the former (Li, F. & Ma, B., 1994). Some studies on modifiers in English were conducted from the angle of language style or language function. Yue Guixiang mentions that adverbial modifiers in scientific English are mostly adverbs ending with “ly” and seldom used in scientific English are adverbs for description or lyric (Yue, 2002). Adverbial modifiers can be classified into adjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts in terms of function. Adjuncts typically modify verbs and disjuncts convey a comment on the content of the clause to which they are peripherally attached; conjuncts, on the other hand, are logical adhesives, functioning to connect a new sentence with the context.

It is true that Modifier has been discussed in various forms in many famous English grammars. For example, “modifier” and “modification” are mentioned many times in *The Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (CGE), written by Randolph Quirk, et al. in 1985. And in *Contemporary English Grammar* (CEG) written by Liu Shitong in 1997, modification is an equivalent to modifier. Also in 1997 *A New English Grammar* (NEG) chiefly edited by Zhang Zhenbang has a detailed discussion on modification of noun phrases. Unfortunately, no grammar gives a logical and definite definition of modifier. In CGE and CEG there are many examples demonstrating the modifying characteristic of some grammatical units, but no definition of modifier. In NEG no definition of modifier is given and, even worse, Chapter 40 in NEG confusingly emphasizes the difference between modifier and adverbial, neglecting the modifying function of adverbials.

In actual fact, the research of modifiers in the English language is of considerable value. In this paper, for the first time, the author studies Modifier as a grammatical unit, and systematically explores it in terms of definition, classification, position and research purpose, so as to understand and explain some other phenomena of linguistic structure in English from a new perspective.

## II. DEFINITION

MODIFIER is discussed in various forms in many famous English grammars, in which the study of modification is restricted only within the range of words or phrases, but none of which gives a logical and complete definition of it. In my eyes, MODIFIER can be discussed as an independent structure in the English language. To be exact, a modifier (Mer) is a grammatical unit which limits or extends the meaning of another grammatical unit while a modifiee (Mee) is a grammatical unit whose meaning is limited or extended by another grammatical unit (Gu, 2003).

## III. CLASSIFICATION

Modifiers can be classified in terms of form, modifiee or function.

### A. Classification in Terms of Form





4. He uses simple language (Mee) so that his foreign customer might understand him when no interpreters are available (Ms).

respectively to the following simple sentences:

1. The girl (Mee) from England (Mp) can speak good Chinese.
2. He set off again (Mee) in spite of my attempt to dissuade him (Mp).
3. I'm concerned about the question (Mee) on the profit decrease as a result of additional employment (Mp).
4. He uses simple language (Mee) so as to let his foreign customer understand him with no interpreters available (Mp).

#### B. To Explain Complicated Grammatical Structures

By means of modifier some difficult structures in English can be better understood.

1. a great many (Mer) women workers (Mee)
2. a great many (Mee) of the women workers (Mer)
3. The cup is full (Mee) of water (Mer).
4. My father was rather disappointed (Mee) with my work (Mer).
5. I'm sure (Mee) that they will arrive on time (Mer).
6. I'm sure (Mee) of the fact that they will arrive on time (Mer).
7. I'm glad (Mee) that they've accomplished their goals (Mer).
8. I'm glad (Mee) because of the fact that they've accomplished their goals (Mer).
9. He realized that he came too much (Mer) early (Mee).
10. He realized that he came too (Mer) much (Mee) early.
11. He realized that he came (Mee) too much early (Mer).
12. Their thoughts are too (Mee) profound to be expressed clearly (Mer).
13. The questions are more (Mee) difficult than I've expected (Mer).
14. A whale is no more (Mee) a fish than a horse is (Mer).
15. Should they at least (Mer) conceal the truth until after the family vacation (Mee)?
16. Certainly I don't (Mer) teach because teaching is easy for me (Mee).
17. Until such (Mee) time as mankind has the sense to lower its population to the point where the planet can provide a comfortable support for all (Mer), people will have to accept more "unnatural food".

#### C. To Obtain More Information when Reading

In reading, one can obtain more information by studying and analyzing modifiers. A psychologist thinks of Complete Concept as the standard of a sentence while a grammarian regards SV as the standard of a sentence. A word and a phrase often convey simple concepts while a clause and a sentence convey comparatively complicated concepts. In reading, modifier serves as a bridge to form as many concepts as possible in order to obtain as much information as possible. For instance, we can, from the sentence:

I often drive to Pudong early in the morning, as do many businessmen who live in downtown Shanghai.  
firstly obtain a general concept:

I often drive to Pudong.

and then, with the help of modifiers, get more concepts such as:

1. Many businessmen often drive to Pudong.
  2. Many businessmen live in downtown Shanghai.
  3. It is early in the morning that I, as well as many businessmen, often drive to Pudong.
- So, we may call this method of reading "Modifier Reading" or "SV Reading".

#### D. To Apply Modification-guided Strategies in En-Cn Translation

The essence of modification is semantic limitation or extension, so the translation of modifiers from English to Chinese should first take meaning conveyance into consideration. But, due to the difference between English and Chinese, the form and style of modifiers in English should also be paid enough attention to in translation. Since modifiers in this paper are mainly analyzed on a linguistic level, culture is excluded from the discussion on translating strategies.

On the basis of studies on modifiers in the English language, the author puts forward in this chapter three strategies for translating modifiers from English to Chinese from the angles of form, meaning and style — conveying meaning through conceptualization and contextualization; restructuring form through lexical conversion and order rearrangement; and reproducing style through naturalization.

##### 1) Conveying Meaning Through Conceptualization and Contextualization

Meaning is something conveyed or signified. The process of translation is using another language to convey the original meaning, the original meaning maintained while the language changed. Although there are different views on translation criterion, being faithful to the original meaning (faithfulness) is given priority to (Fang, 2004). In translation, conceptualization is an effective way to have an adequate understanding of the original. In general sense, conceptualization means the process of forming a concept in mind. For example, in the sentence:

The large house in which the businessman lived has been sold to a farmer who owns lots of money.

The reader may get simple concepts on a lexical level such as “large”, “house”, “businessman”, “live”, “sell”, “own”, “money”. These lexical concepts are isolated from each other in meaning. According to grammarians, the standard of a sentence is whether or not it contains a subject and a verb; in the eyes of psychologists, the standard of a sentence is whether or not it conveys a complete concept. From the above sentence the reader can get some complete concepts through conceptualization on a syntactical level:

The house has been sold.

A farmer bought the house.

The house is very big.

The businessman lived in the house.

The farmer is very rich.

Modification, always related to semantic meaning, is frequent and flexible in English, so the translation of modifiers in English largely decides the quality of the whole translation. Conceptualization helps a lot in translating modifiers in English. The translation of modifiers considerably depends on the extent to which the translator conceptualizes them. For example, in the following assumed translations of the above sentence, modification is conceptualized in different degrees. In Translation 1 modification is fully conceptualized while in Translation 5 modification is zero-conceptualized.

Original: The large house in which the businessman lived has been sold to a farmer who owns lots of money.

Translation 1: 该商人曾经住过的大房子已被卖给了一个有钱的农民。

Translation 2: 该商人曾经住过的大房子已被卖给了一个农民。

Translation 3: 大房子已被卖给了一个有钱的农民。

Translation 4: 大房子已被卖给了一个农民。

Translation 5: 房子已被卖给了一个农民。

Another effective way of guaranteeing meaning conveyance in translating modifiers is contextualization, which refers to translating some modifiers as connective devices in order to reflect the coherence of the original text. For example,

Original: Unfortunately (Mer), most students in rural areas have no access to electronic books.

Translation: 不幸的是, 农村里多数学生无法得到电子图书。

“unfortunately” in the original is a content-disjunct which modifies the clause attached. But, if used between sentences, it may be translated as a style-disjunct to achieve contextual coherence, as demonstrated below.

Original: Electronic books are very common in cities. Unfortunately (Mer), most students in rural areas have no access to electronic books.

Translation: 电子图书在城市里很普及。但是, 农村里多数学生无法得到电子图书。

## 2) Restructuring Form Through Structural Conversion and Order Rearrangement

In broad sense, as the materialistic manifestation of language meaning, language form includes buildings of words and phrases, sentence patterns, text arrangements, rhetoric devices as well as phonemic effects such as intonation, rhythm and rhyme. As we know, translation is neither word-to-word translation nor sentence-to-sentence translation. Form may be restructured in translation under the prerequisite of successful conveyance of meaning. In the practice of translating, modifiers in English may be converted from one part of speech to another, from one kind of clause to another and may be rearranged to achieve more adequate conveyance of meaning.

## 3) Reproducing Style Through Naturalization

Naturalization refers to the translation strategy through which a fluent style is achieved to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text for target language readers, while foreignization designates the type of translation in which a target text deliberately breaks target conventions by retaining something of the foreignness of the original. In most cases, naturalization and foreignization is a pair of concepts which are frequently used to discuss cultural transplanting. But, from the angle of pure linguistics, naturalization includes minimizing “the strangeness of the foreign text for target language readers” in grammatical rules, semantic meaning, and stylistic characteristics. The task of translation not only gives priority to conveying semantic meaning but also involves reproducing style in the receptor language. In translating modifiers in English, naturalization is preferred primarily because linguistic forms of English and Chinese are quite different even though they are of the same style. For example, in legal English some modifiers should be translated according to the style of legal Chinese, otherwise the translation wouldn’t be idiomatic. Here is an example.

Original: We hereby (Mer) certify that...

Translation 1: 我们在这里证明.....

Translation 2: 我们在此证明.....

Translation 3: 兹证明.....



Among the three translations, Translation 3 is the most idiomatic. Another good example is:

Original: This Policy of insurance witnesses that The People's Insurance Company of China (hereafter called "The Company") (Mer), at the request of NANTONG FAR-EAST TRADING CO. (hereafter called the "Insured") (Mer), and in consideration of the agreed premium paying to the Company by the Insured, undertakes to insure the under-mentioned goods in transportation subject to the conditions of this Policy as per the clause printed overleaf and other special clause attached hereon.

Translation 1: 中国人民保险公司 ( 下面叫做本公司 ) 根据南通远东贸易公司 ( 下面叫做被保险人 ) 的要求, 由被保险人向本公司缴付约定的保险费, 按照本保险单承保险别和背面所载条款与下列特款承保下述货物运输保险, 特立本保险单。

Translation 2: 中国人民保险公司 ( 以下简称本公司 ) 根据南通远东贸易公司 ( 以下简称被保险人 ) 的要求, 由被保险人向本公司缴付约定的保险费, 按照本保险单承保险别和背面所载条款与下列特款承保下述货物运输保险, 特立本保险单。

Comparatively, the underlined modifiers in Translation 1 are not translated according to the style of legal Chinese while Translation 2 is more idiomatic.

## VI. SUMMARIZATION

The modifier in the English language is a highly generalized linguistic structure (or grammatical unit) abstracted from the English linguistic system, which complements and develops the English grammatical system. Its linguistic functions are mainly embodied in the limitation or extension of the meaning of the modifier. In verbal communication activities, we can recognize this linguistic structure phenomenon by means of transforming and generating concepts, make full use of its linguistic functions, and obtain as much information as possible, so as to achieve the goal of improving speech ability.

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# The Characteristics of Women's Image in A Novel of *Entrok* by Okky Madasari: A Study of Literary Criticism in Ideological Feminism

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**Abstract**—This research aims at revealing the image characteristics of a transitional and feminist woman in a novel by Okky Madasari through ideological feminist literary criticism. This research uses qualitative descriptive method where '*Entrok*' novel by Okky Madasari becomes as the data source. Technique of data collection applied is content analysis, while technique of validity is source triangulation. For technique of data analysis used in this research is an interactive analysis model with three components of data reduction, data presentation, and conclusion drawing. The findings discover two main things, that is the image of a transitional and feminist woman. In the story, Sumarni is a female figure who plays as a transitional woman as well as the image of a feminist woman.

**Index Terms**—image, novel, feminist literary criticism

## I. INTRODUCTION

The discussion of women matter in literary works is not a novel thing in Indonesia or even throughout the world. In Indonesia itself, since the 1920s, many authors began to make women as objects for themes of literary works, both novel and poetry.

If we take a look at the phenomena occurring in the empirical and fictional world, apparently there is no differences that women to this modern era still receive unequal treatments in society. Even undoubtedly many women have taken part in public and holding important roles, there are still discrimination experienced in every sector.

From that point, an awareness emerged where women should be appreciated. They want equality. Women are increasingly aware of their fate, rights, and ideals. This awareness is getting better with the support of parents and the current friendly environment. Seemingly parents and society have already accepted women's existence and abilities.

Indonesian women nowadays have mostly gained equality with men. This is evidenced by any selection of students, college students, or employees where no female applicant limitation.

Then what about women's struggle in the field of literature? It turned out that the phenomena of female rebellion had emerged. So far, the number of Indonesian literary books is very few, especially when compared with other countries. However, this few fictional works have the power to attract public attention (Purwanti, 2009).

The idea of feminism in Indonesian literary works has started since the 1920s. The phenomenal novel of *Siti Nurbaya* by Marah Rusli has brought women as the main issue, although the theme is about custom but still involves women. In line with that, another novel of *Layar Terkembang* by Sutan Takdir Alisyahbana where feminism has been represented through the character of Tuti. Up to now, the writers have not stopped carrying the feminism issue in their works.

Similarly, the novel *Entrok* by Okky Madasari strongly discusses about women, especially those related to the image. Therefore, this paper will reveal about the image characteristics of a transitional and feminist woman.

Several previous researches have revealed a numerous women and their problems through feminist perspective. For example Hui-Chun's writing (2014), "*The Impact of the Feminist Heroine: Elizabeth in Pride and Prejudice*" where it critically examines the feminist significance of Elizabeth Bennet about other portrayed female characters who in accordance with socially applied gender norms in England, while Elizabeth thoroughly stands against gender inequality. Literary works especially written by women have never been separated from feminism issue.

Pursuing this further, a research by Rahmani (2015) who discovers the suppression of black women in the novel by Toni Morrison and leads her to use the theory of *black feminism*. The suppression of immorality are mostly endured by black women compared to white women.

An article by Vanita (2015) entitled *Draupadi: An Epitome of Feminine Assertion in Chitra Banerjee Divakaruni's The Palace of Illusions* where it describes about the study of Draupadi's perspective in *Mahabharata* and its struggle to liberate from the oppression. This surely looks from a feminist perspective as well.

Another article entitled "*Gender Issues Discussed in Sri Lankan and Indian Plays: Special Reference to Edirivira Sarachchandra's 'Maname' and Jaishankar Prasad's 'Dhruvasvamini'*" by Chandrasekara (2016) tries to identify how gender issues arise in two different countries and how they are reflected in the Sri Lankan and Indian dramas where evidently show that these two Asian playwrights have been influenced by gender and western theories used in their works.

Furthermore, Shebat (2016) in an article of "*Women Empowerment in the Realms of Institutionalized Religion and Patriarchy: El Saadawi's Firdaus and Yeziarska's Sara as Examples*" finds two female figures in two different novels namely Firdaus and Sara who experiencing injustice caused by religion and social structure. Nevertheless, the two female figures manage to manumit the big problems they encounter.

Similar to it, Khurana (2016) writes "*A Gynocritical Reading of Nalini Jameela's The Autobiography of a Sex Worker and Amen: The Autobiography of a Nun by Sister Jesme*" where it highlights that one of the striking alienations in the literary tradition ignores and degrades women's experience to a non-consequentialist place in the literary canon.

Women suppression can also be seen in the work of Contemporary Malaysian writers with the two short stories of *The Silk Fan* and *Di bawah Blanket* showing the "gender issues" in defying gender expectation of their sexuality (Noor, 2017).

#### A. Novel

The fictional work in this research refers to a novel. The word 'novel' itself comes from an English word that is 'novel' as well. It is a fictional prose which presenting characters, a series of events, and structured setting. As an imaginative work, it reveals profound aspects of humanity and presents it subtly. Not only as an entertaining tool, but it is also an art form which observes and examines the aspects of life and good or bad deeds (morals) where it directs the readers to find what noble character is (Sudjiman, 1998, p.53).

A novel by Sayuti (2000, p.7) is categorized as a formal fictional work. For general readers, this categorization can ascertain that any form of fictions is created with the aim of specific occasions. Thus, readers will appreciate literature better.

Novel is an exploration or a chronicle of life, reflecting and describing in a certain form which also includes the influence, bond, result, destruction or achievement of human movements (Virginia Woolf in Purba, 2007, p.62-63). Nurgiyantoro (2012, p.10) suggests that novel is a work of fiction built by constructing elements that is intrinsic and extrinsic element. It is also interpreted as an essay in the form of prose containing a series of stories of one's life with others around him by highlighting the character and habits. It is a type of literary works written in narrative form which contains certain conflicts in the story of the characters' life.

Novel in the literary world is classified into two types, namely serious and popular novel. Serious novel or better known as literary novel is a type of work which worth to be discussed. It must be able to provide all possible things, which is called literary meaning. It also aims at providing entertainment, valuable experiences, and inviting readers to deeply appreciate about the issues presented (Nurgiyantoro, 2012, p.18).

Unlike popular novels which always follow market preferences, literary novels are not devoted to readers. Literary novels tend to expose more serious themes. The texts often express something implicitly which is assumed to occupy readers. Nurgiyantoro (2012, p.18) reveals that in reading a serious novel, if you want to understand well, it requires high concentration accompanied by a will for it. This type of novel, in addition to providing entertainment, also implicitly aims at providing a valuable experience to readers or at least inviting them to deeply absorb and reflect on the issues offered.

Based on the previous definitions, this research tends to follow Virginia Woolf's, because it is in accordance with the research objectives which focus at the activities of story characters in their lives, especially female characters.

#### B. Feminism in a Novel

Defining feminism, we will begin with the definition by British novelist and journalist, Rebecca West. She uttered, "I myself have never been able to find out what feminism is; I only know that people call me a feminist whenever I express sentiments that differentiate me from a doormat or a prostitute." (Rebecca West, a book and an author) quoted in Jha (2016).

Feminist critics and writers are always surprised to know about women position in society because they write quite a lot about this. Those true facts and current trends do not reduce their exploration interests, but rather improve their mode of research and refine their specialties. This is because women write what men cannot show through their writing. Women's writing about women itself is highly valued in this contemporary and post-modern era. Post-modernism is an era where women can strengthen their voices and claim the differences they suffer in society.

Femininity is generally understood as an aspect of socially constructed gender identity which is related to women or women's characteristics (Ahmed, 2018). MacKinnon in Ahmed (2018) traditionally confirms that '*womanhood means femininity, as an attraction for men, and sexual attraction, or sexual availability for men*. In this view, as explained by Talbot (2010, p.137) in Ahmed (2018), femininity is nothing but a matter of sexuality, the problem of women who see themselves from a male perspective and regard their sexuality as an important social identity.

One of the unique characteristics of feminism where also becomes its strength and weakness is its constant defiance which limited by the definition. Charlotte Witt observes that this reflects "the debated nature of" us "contemporary feminism ... and is part of the ongoing debate within feminism over identity and self-image ... in the last analysis, the results of the debate in feminist philosophy about the feminism, what is the theoretical commitment, and what are the core values (Yeseibo, 2018).

Feminism and literary work cannot be separated. Literary work as a human's creative work consists of poetry, prose, and drama which contains various forms of life. The form of human life is then processed into creativity in three forms of literary work which also contain feminist ideology.

The thoughts and movements of feminism were born to end male domination that occurred in society. Through feminism projects (thoughts and movements), the structure of culture, art, church, law, nuclear family based on the patriarchal and state authority must be destroyed, as well as all images, institutions, customs, and habits that make women as victims who are not valued and concealed (Ruthven, 1985: 6).

Feminism is an understanding which combines the doctrine of rights equality for women into an organized movement to achieve women's rights, with an ideology of social transformation aiming at creating a space for women. Furthermore, Humm states that feminism is the ideology of women's liberation in the belief that women experience injustice because of their gender. It offers various analysis of the causes, perpetrators of such oppression of women according to Humm's (2007: 157-158).

Feminism is an ideology developed in various parts of the world, including in Indonesia. It has also entered the spaces of life, encompassing literary works. Basically, it is an ideology that empowers women where they can also be subjects in all fields by using their experiences as women and using perspective which are free from the mainstream of patriarchal culture that often goes from men's view.

Feminists recognize that their movement is rooted from women's awareness, because they are often in a state of being oppressed and exploited which must be ended. In addition, the feminism movement aims at fighting for equality and status as men, also the freedom to control their own body and life both inside and outside the household.

Harsono in Mustaqim (2008, p.84) clarifies that feminism is actually a concept arises in relation to social change, development theories, women's political awareness, and women's liberation movements including to readdress family institutions in the context of current modern society. Mustaqim (2008, p.85) adds that feminism is an understanding for respecting women so that their rights and roles are more optimal and equal, no more discrimination, marginalization, and subordination.

In line with the statement, Bashin and Khan in Mustaqim (2008, p.4) confirm that feminism is defined as an awareness of women oppression and extortion in society, whether at working environment and in the family, as well as conscious actions by women and men to change the situation into a living condition of harmony between both genders, free from all forms of subordination, marginalization, and discrimination.

Feminism is not a rebellion against men, an attempt to fight social institutions such as domestic institutions and marriage, or women's efforts to deny their nature, but rather an attempt to end women oppression and exploitation. In this case, the goal of feminism is not just a matter of gender, but to fight for human rights. Its movement is a struggle to transform unfair social systems and structures into justice for both men and women (Fakih, 2013, p.78-79). Therefore, feminism wants women's independence which not merely depending on men.

### C. Ideological Feminist Literary Criticism

Ideological feminist literary criticism involves women as readers. This criticism examines misconceptions about women and the reasons why they are often not taken into account. To emphasize, it is a criticism that involves women, especially feminists as readers where their center of attention is an image and stereotype of a woman in literary works.

This criticism also examines why women are mostly neglected. Basically, a variety of ideological feminist criticisms is a way of interpreting a text, which is one of the many ways that can be applied to even the most complex texts. This method not only enriches the insight of female readers, but also frees their way of thinking (Djajanegara, 2000: 28).

### D. Women's Image

Women's image is all forms of mental spiritual images and daily behavior expressed by female figures. Whether it is an individual being which includes both physical and psychological aspects, as well as the image of women in social aspects (Sugihastuti, 2000, p.7). The image can be seen through the role that they play in daily lives. If it is found in literary works, especially in the form of prose, then the image can be seen from the life of the main female character and also through other figures involved in the life of the character featured in the literary work. By this point, Ali (1989, p.123) divides the image of women as a benchmark into the following types:

- a) An Image of Traditional Women

The characteristics of traditional-image women are (1) not being educated, (2) less rational, (3) too dependent on men, (4) not free and bound by family, customs, and religious values in dogma.

#### b) An Image of Modern Women

The characteristics of modern women are influenced by western culture with the following, such as: (1) educated, (2) rational, (3) not static and wanting to move forward, (4) not depend on men, (5) more concerned to environment, (6) free from family ties, customs, and are individual, (7) and some of them deviate from religious teaching.

#### c) An Image of Transitional Women

The characteristics of this type of women owned by both traditional and modern women. They have characteristics as traditional and modern women at once.

The image of feminist women is a female figure who is portrayed to bring feminist concepts or ideas. In their image, these women figures struggle to detach from oppression, marginality, subordination, violence, and all forms of burden that make their lives backward and alienated. They are female figures who dare to make changes according to their wishes (Muslimat, UNHAS repository).

## II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This type of research is qualitative research with descriptive method using feminist literary criticism approach. The data used in this research are words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and discourses in which there are characteristics of women's images. The research data source is the novel of *Entrok* by Okky Madasari. The applied technique of data collection is content analysis, while technique of validity is source triangulation. For technique of data analysis used in this research is an interactive analysis model with three components of data reduction, data presentation, and conclusion drawing.

## III. RESEARCH FINDINGS

### A. A Self-image of Marni

Physically, Marni's character is depicted only at the age of her early adolescent marked by changes in body shape as in the following excerpt:

- (1) *"Kumulai ceritaku saat aku mulai kenal dunia di luar Simbok. Saat tinggiku sudah sepundak Simbok dan tangan kananku bisa meraih kuping dengan mudah. Saat itu aku menyadari ada sesuatu yang berbeda di dadaku. Ada gumpalan yang lembut dan terlihat menyembul dari balik baju yang kupakai. Simbok bilang aku sudah mringkili. Kataya itu hal biasa yang akan dialami semua perempuan. Kataya mringkili adalah salah satu tanda aku sudah bukan anak-anak lagi."* (Madasari, 2016, p.15-16).

Translation:

*"I begin my story when I started to know the world outside Simbok. When my height was Simbok's shoulders and my right hand could reach my ears easily. At that time, I realized there was something different in my breast. There was a soft lump and appeared to pop from behind the clothes I was wearing. Simbok says I have mringkili (grown up). She said it was a normal thing that will be experienced by all women. She added that mringkili is one sign that I am no longer a kid."* (Madasari, 2016, p.15-16)

Marni is psychologically described as a hard-working woman who determined to change her life by improving her family's economy. This thought has grown since Marni reached her adolescence. Starting when Marni joined Simbok and helped her to peel cassavas which belonged to Nyai Dimah.

- (2) *"Hari-hari berikutnya, Nyai Dimah seperti menjadi majikan tetap kami. Setiap hari selalu ada singkong-singkong Nyai Dimah yang dikupas. Dan entah kenapa tidak ada orang lain yang mengupas singkong itu lebih dulu sebelum kami datang"* (Madasari, 2016, p.25).

Translation:

*"The following days, Nyai becomes like our permanent employer. Each day there were always cassavas from Nyai Dimah to be peeled. And for some reason, no one else peeled the cassava before we came."* (Madasari, 2016, p.25)

Marni's desire to work was stronger. She was willing to be a porter which was a man's work. Marni was not satisfied just being a cassava peeler and paid for cassava in return. She wanted to get a salary like men were paid for money.

- (3) *"Ni, kamu ada-ada saja. Nggak ada perempuan nguli. Nggak akan kuat. Sudah, perempuan itu kerja yang ringan-ringan aja. Ngupas singkong."*

*"Aku kuat Kang. Biasanya aku juga nggendong tenggok, nggendong goni. Bakul-bakul itu juga banyak yang mengangkat sendiri dagangannya dari rumah ke pasar. Hanya priyayi-priyayi saja yang nggak kuat ngangkat goni."*

*"Tapi tetap nggak umum, Ni. Di pasar ini, nggak ada perempuan nguli."*

*"Tapi aku mau, Kang. Aku butuh duit, Kang. Nggak mau lagi diupahi singkong."* (Madasari, 2016:34)

Translation:

*"Ni, seriously. There is no 'nguli' (porter) women. They won't be strong. Come on, women just work lightly. Peeling the cassava."*

*"I'm strong, Kang. Usually I also carry 'tenggok' (basket), gunny sacks. The baskets were mostly and often carried from house to market. Only 'priyayi' (upper classes) are not strong enough to lift gunny sacks."*  
*"But it's still unfamiliar thing to do, Ni. In this market, there are no women who works that hard."*  
*"But I want, Kang. I need money, Kang. I don't want to be paid with cassava anymore."* (Madasari, 2016, p. 34)

The data excerpt (2) and (3) clearly indicate the desire of the author to show the image of a woman who dares to change the rules, as well as the way the author speaks the injustice experienced by women for their soft and weak physical and psychological images. Through the character of *Sumarni*, the author portrays a strong and brave woman who strives to change her life for the better.

Marni's actions which dare to oppose the prevailing system in her society, such as being the first female porter in the market, show that she is a free-minded woman. She does not want to be shackled by the habits of the Singget community. It shows a woman's perseverance to achieve dreams by changing a habit.

(4) *"Aku yang satu-satunya perempuan di antara kuli-kuli itu langsung merasa wanita itu memanggilku. Inilah kiranya orang yang akan pertama kali memberiku uang."* (Madasari, 2016, p.38)

Translation:

*"I was the only woman among the porters who immediately felt that the lady calling me. This is the person I guess who will first pay me with money."* (Madasari, 2016, p.38)

The figure of Marni was not satisfied with her work as a female porter, so she began to think about changing jobs again with *bakulan* (carrying baskets) but not in market. She had the idea of selling it by directly going to customers.

(5) *"Simbok, aku sudah memikirkan semuanya. Aku akan bakulan, tapi tidak di pasar. Aku akan menjual daganganku di sepanjang jalan pasar sampai ke Singget, lalu berkeliling dari rumah ke rumah yang ada di Singget. Siapa yang masih memilih jauh-jauh berjalan ke pasar kalau ada yang mengantarkan dagangan sampai ke pintu rumah?"*(Madasari, 2016, p.43-44).

Translation:

*"Simbok, I have thought about everything. I will do 'bakulan', but not in the market. I will sell my wares along the market road to Singget, then visit from house to house in Singget. Who still chooses to walk all the way to the market if there is someone who delivers the wares to their houses?"* (Madasari, 2016, p.43-44)

The problem of the psychological aspect of marriage interferes with Marni's thoughts. She was afraid because in reality she saw that marriage would bring misery. The fear arose based on the story of Marni's customer about her household life. Marni then initially refused to get married.

(6) *"Tapi cerita-cerita itu juga menimbulkan ketakutan. Takut pada laki-laki, takut kawin. Lha buat apa kawin, kalau jadinya cuma sengsara. Inilah yang kukatakan pada Teja waktu dia memintaku jadi istrinya. Dia melamarku di depan pasar, saat matahari baru mengintip malu-malu, saat aku menunggu kedatangan petani yang membawa berbagai sayur-sayuran. Aku belum mau kawin, Kang."* (Madasari, 2016:47)

Translation:

*"But the stories also cause fear. Fear of men, fear of marriage. Why do you marry, if it becomes only miserable? This is what I told Teja when he asked me to be his wife. He proposed to me in the market, when the sun was just peering shyly, as I awaited the arrival of a farmer carrying vegetables. I don't want to marry, Kang."* (Madasari, 2016, p.47)

Marni's fear of marriage is supported by anxiety of a fate that her future children will be like hers. Marni does not want the hardness of life to befall her children. Her strong principle of marriage finally melted after *Simbok* advised her that a woman must have a husband and children, because marriage demands for women not to become spinsters. Marni finally complied with what *Simbok* said.

(7) *"Punya 2 anak? Bagaimana jika aku punya anak nanti? Mau jadi apa anakku nanti? Tukang kupas singkong atau bakulan keliling desa kalau perempuan? Anak laki-laki ikut bapaknya nguli?....."*

*"Nduk, anak perempuan itu harus punya suami, punya anak. Kalau sudah ada yang melamar tidak boleh ditolak, bisa kwalat, jadi perawan tua."* (Madasari, 2016, p.47-48)

Translation:

*"Having 2 children? What if I have a child later? What will my child want to be? Is it peeling cassava or doing 'bakulan' around the village if it is a girl? And if it is a boy, he will come along with his father? ....."*

*"Nduk, a woman must have a husband, have children. If there are a man proposing to you, he should not be rejected, you can be accursed if you don't accept, becoming a spinster."* (Madasari, 2016, p.47-48)

As a wife, Marni respects her husband even though Teja does not carry out his role as a good husband. He only used Marni's wages to commit adultery with other women.

(8) *"Dasar Teja, lanangan nggak tahu diuntung. Susah payah aku cari duit, dia malah enak-enakan kelonan sama kledek."* (Madasari, 2016, p.53)

.....

*"Meski begitu, Ibu tidak pernah menjelek-jelekkan Bapak."* (Madasari, 2016, p.74)

Translation:

*"Damn Teja, what an ingrate creature. I struggled to work for money, he even made fun by hugging with other women."* (Madasari, 2016, p.53)

.....  
*"Even so, I never blamed him."* (Madasari, 2016, p.74)

#### B. A Social Image of Marni

As a wife image, Sumarni is described as the one who does not depend her life on husband. She actually becomes a wife who had more roles in making a living for the family. Sumarni is a mother who is truly aware of the education importance for her children, even though she is not educated. Marni's wish that her children later become a scholar and will have a better profession which encourages her to be more active in developing her work.

Marni's image as a wife is depicted by the figure who plays a major role in regulating household affairs as well as selling her *bakulan* business while her husband, Teja, just obeys what she says as in the following excerpt:

- (9) *"Teja tidak pernah tahu berapa keuntungan yang kami dapat, dia juga tidak pernah meminta. Dia juga tidak tahu apa saja dagangan yang harus dikulak, berapa harganya, dijual berapa. Yang dia tahu hanya mengangkat goni di punggung."* (Madasari, 2016: 49)

Translation:

*"Teja never knew how much profit we achieved, he also never asked. He did not know what merchandise should be repaid, how much it would cost, how much to sell. All he knows is only lifting burlap on his back."* (Madasari, 2016, p.49)

Because Marni is very aware of the education importance, she works as hard as she can to collect money for her children. She dominates the business of earning a living compared to her husband, Teja.

- (10) *"Selama dua puluh tahun, aku selalu mendengar Ibu bercerita tentang susahny mencari uang. Tentang cerita zaman dulu, saat dia berjalan kaki ke pasar Ngranget. Tentang hidupnya yang melarat, sampai-sampai tidak bisa beli BH. Ibu selalu mengulangi cerita itu disertai keinginan agar anaknya sekolah, biar jadi pegawai. Dia akan mengeluarkan uang berapa saja agar aku sekolah. Tak peduli dia mencarinya dengan susah payah."* (Madasari, 2016, p.53-54)

Translation:

*"For twenty years, I've always heard my mother telling me about the struggle of collecting money. About the story of old times, when she walked to the Ngranget market. About her destitute life, to the point of not being able to buy a single breast holder. Mother always repeated the story with the wish to have her children go to school, to become an employee. She was willing to spend much money so I would be able to go to school. No matter how hard she tried for it."* (Madasari, 2016, p.53-54)

- (11) *"Aku tahu Ibu lah yang mengeluarkan keringat paling banyak atas apa yang didapatkannya ini. Bapak hanya membantu, mengantar ke pasar setiap hari, menemani Ibu menagih utang dari satu rumah ke rumah lain."* (Madasari, 2016, p.74)

Translation:

*"I know that my mother was the one who sweated the most for what she had obtained. Father only helped the rest, drove to the market every day, accompanied her to collect debts from one house to another."* (Madasari, 2016, p.74)

Marni's role in the community was portrayed as a rich woman in Singget, where she became a loan shark. She employed men in his sugar cane plantation. She has also succeeded in changing lives from the abyss of poverty into a woman who has various properties. Marni aspires to change women's wages equal to men's.

Marni's role in society was increasingly known as the loan shark who provides loans to people in need.

- (12) *"Siapa to yang nggak tahu Marni Juragan Renten...? Semua tahu."* (Madasari, 2016, p.80)

Translation:

*"Who doesn't know Marni as Juragan Renten (loan shark)...? Everybody knows her."* (Madasari, 2016, p.80)

As previously stated that Marni employed many male workers in her sugar cane plantation and felt that she had succeeded in changing her life to give wages to men as the following excerpt:

- (13) *"Pekerja-pekerja itu duduk mengelilingiku sambil menuang teh dari cerek ke gelas. Aku berdiri di tengah mereka yang semuanya laki-laki. Dan aku sekarang akan mengupahi mereka. Simbok, lihatlah anakmu ini sekarang. Kita dulu bekerja memeras keringat seharian, diupahi telo, bukan uang, hanya karena kita perempuan. Lihatlah sekarang, anakmu yang perempuan ini, berdiri tegak di sini mengupahi para laki-laki. Setiap orang mendapat upah tujuh ratus dari uang yang kumiliki sendiri"* (Madasari, 2016, p.102-103).

Translation:

*"The workers sat around me pouring tea from the kettle into the cups. Now I stand in the midst of all of them, men. And I will now reward them. Simbok, look at your child now. We used to work to sweat all*

*day, paid for 'telo' (yams), not money, just because we are women. Look now, your daughter, standing up here hiring men. Everyone gets seven hundred of my own money.*" (Madasari, 2016, p.102-103)

Marni wants to help women to work and get the same wages as men, if someday she can buy more land. Marni is very concerned about the fate of women that she wants to equalize the rights of women from men by giving equal wage. Marni's desire reflects a criticism of the injustices experienced by women. This can be seen in the following excerpt:

- (14) "*Sayangnya tidak ada buruh perempuan di sini, betatapapun ingin aku mengupahi mereka dengan uang sebesar buruh laki-laki. Upah yang besarnya sama, tidak lebih kecil hanya karena dia perempuan, lebih-lebih hanya diupahi dengan telo. Tapi taka da perempuan yang ikut menebang tebu. Tebu hanya menjadi jatah buruh-buruh laki-laki. Bagian buruh perempuan hanya nderep atau mbethot kacang. Tapi coba tanya ke perempuan-perempuan itu berapa upah yang mereka dapat. Paling-paling tak lebih daripada tiga ratus sehari. Sayangnya, aku tidak menanam padi atau kacang. Kalau Mbah Ibu Bumi Bapa Kuasa mengizinkan, semoga rezekiku dilancarkan, aku punya duit untuk membeli tanah lagi yang akan kutanami padi dan kacang. Aku pekerjaan perempuan-perempuan itu dan kuberi upah tak kurang daripada yang diterima suami-suami mereka.*" (Madasari, 2016, p.103)

Translation:

*"Unfortunately there are no female workers here, however they want me to pay them with money as big as male workers. Wages of the same amount, not smaller because they are women, or even paid by 'telo'. But there are no women who come to cut down sugar cane. It is only a part of male workers. The female laborers' share is only digging peanut. Try asking the women how much they are paid. At least not more than three hundred a day. Unfortunately, I'm not growing rice or beans. For Mbah Mother Earth and Father permit, hopefully my fortune will run smoothly, I have the money to buy more land that will be planted with rice and peanuts. I will employ these women and pay no less than what their husbands receive."* (Madasari, 2016, p.103)

The excerpt above explains the position of women who are not properly distinguished from men, for example in terms of wage payment. The right between men and women must remain the same in the division of labor and wages. The thought of Marni figure is a representation of the demand for the phenomena that still occur today.

#### C. An Image of Transitional Woman

The image of a transitional woman in *Entrok* novel is portrayed by Sumarni or Marni. She has the characteristics of a traditional woman and also the nature of modern one. The traditional side of Marni is showed by her uneducated figure but has growth-mind which is described in data excerpt (14). By recognizing the importance of education, Marni works hard to be able to finance her children later for school in data excerpt (10). She is also an independent woman who does not depend on men, even she is the one who works hard outside the home as seen in data excerpt (2), (3), (4), (5), (9), and (11).

#### D. An Image of Feminist Woman

The image of Marni where she shows the image of a feminist marked by her thoughts who willing to pay women as equal to men. In Marni's view, there are no rights separation to obtain employment and wages between men and women. She expects her children to study and not to become like her who is uneducated. She is also very determined to change her life from the poverty gap to the position of woman who has dignity in society. Marni finally manages to own property and employ many farmers in her land. She is also managed to send Rahayu, her daughter, to go to college even though she did not finish due to activism involvement which oppose the government and leads her to be imprisoned. However, the thoughts of Marni reflect the image of a feminist woman.

### IV. DISCUSSION

The story characters in the novel present their respective images. In the novel *Entrok* by Okky Madasari, Sumarni or Marni character is portrayed by an uneducated woman. She is illiterate and poor but her willingness to change her life is strong only to get out of poverty. Sumarni even chose a job as a market porter. A type of work that was never done by a woman in her village. For the people of Singget, women are only suitable to be cassava peelers and cannot choose jobs that only men can do.

The female character told in the novel *Entrok* by Okky Madasari, Marni, is an illiterate woman who strives to change poverty in her life where she works as a cassava peeler, female porters, money lender or loan shark that bring her to become a rich woman in Singget. The characteristics of the female image in *Entrok* are revealed through Marni's self-image and social image.

Sumarni's character in the novel *Entrok* portrayed as a transitional woman with the character according to Ali (1989: 123) of traditional and modern woman at once. Sumarni is categorized as a transitional woman because if considering her level of education, she has never received education at school where she is still bound by the customs and dogma she adheres to. This characteristic is included in the type of a traditional woman. But then, she has growth-mind, rational, independent from men, more concerned with her surrounding, free from family ties which belong to the characteristics of a modern woman.



She has a desire to move forward by wanting to change their economic status for the better. Marni wants to be a porter so that her life does not depend on her *Simbok* (mother).

Freedom to act with the courage of Marni against the rules in her society concerning the view that women cannot be porters, is a form of desire that is not bound to the family or customs that they understand. Marni wants to live independently to adjust the situation she experienced where her actions are categorized as the image of a modern woman. That is why in Marni figure, it is seen from the physical and psychological images including the image of transitional woman.

## V. CONCLUSION

Based on the results of the analysis, we discover the image of female characters or self-image which includes physical image, psychological image, and social image concluding that Marni also possesses a transitional female character. In addition to her role as a transitional woman, she is also portrayed as a feminist woman. On the whole, Marni has two positions as a transitional and feminist woman.

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# A Study of the Humor in Mark Twain's Classic Works

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**Abstract**—Mark Twain is a famous critical realist writer in the late nineteenth Century. Through combining humor and irony, he makes a relentless expose and criticism of the ugly phenomena in American social life. Humor is a unique way of thinking in his mind; he used humor to bring laugh to human. At the same time, he mercilessly criticized the ugly social reality, a profound reflection of the human condition in the world of metaphysical philosophy explores. The excellent satirical art in a number of his works showed, not only became an independent school at the time of the American literature, but also had a profound impact on the future of American literature. In this article, the author uses humor as a clue, and narrates the art of humor in Mark Twain's classic novels, the author will describe about the specific language and writing techniques from some classic novels of Mark Twain, to explore the art of humor embodied in the novel and the consequences of humor, so as to let the readers have a more intuitive and profound understanding of Mark Twain's novels, and also show the expression of noble tribute to Mark Twain for his outstanding achievement.

**Index Terms**—mark Twain, classical novels, humor

## I. INTRODUCTION

### A. Overview of Research Background

Mark Twain is the outstanding realistic writer and famous humorous writer in the late nineteenth Century in United States! He is good at using humor, as sharply, mercilessly, its creation will portray realism and romantic lyric harmony Unity. He wrote a lot of novels, most of these works are humorous strokes, the banter in truly see harmonic! The perfect unity of truth in Absurdity, His works were often funny and humor! Under the exaggeration of the surface, exposed the existence problem of human society in United States, humor reveals the beauty of good and evil in life, most incisive to express their love and praise, reflects Mark Twain's deep humanitarian concern to the society. The winner of Nobel Prize for literature Hemingway said that all modern American literature comes from the book called the adventures of Huckleberry Finn writing by Mark Twain, which is the best of all our books, never before, and not so far. Another Nobel Prize winner Faulkner has hailed him as the father of American Literature. These different evaluations show the great achievements made by Mark Twain in the history of American Literature, he is one of the greatest novelists in English Literature. The novels of Mark Twain truly represent the nature of the social life of his time. People who read his novels, in the narration of freely flowing style of writing, to appreciate the wisdom of the flash, or for the real description of the social reality, or a sharp criticism of the reality of society, or of life, human thinking, or the ultimate search on the world of human society. But Mark Twain's choice of narrative skills is out of the ordinary, he abandoned the general positive practice, his novels were born in the spirit of humor, humor became the main tone of the novel, his novel is a collection of depicting humorous painting, which hold obvious qualities of definite humor, profound criticism and vivid characteristic of his age. Humor is a unique way of thought for Mark Twain. As a talented orator with a wealth of experience, Mark Twain is good at applying humorous techniques of speech and recitation to the written language of novel. At the same time, with his rich reading and personal experience, Mark Twain grasped the current real life as well as the language features of different social groups in the history, so that more vivid and accurate outline of all kinds of a variety of characters, to enhance the sense of humor art. That is also an expression of humor by Mark Twain.

### B. The Reasons and Purposes of the Topic

Since then, numerous studies have been completed such theme in literary field. Wang Xue (2014) has wrote an essay about the stylistic analysis of humor for Mark Twain's short stories, which concluded that humor can be produced by stylistic devices, and the reason why generation mechanism of humor produced by stylistic devices, which is helpful to realize and analyze the humorous phenomenon produced by stylistic devices. As to the humor theories in linguistics, this thesis introduces the Semantic Script Theory of Humor and Cooperative Principles. Chen Zhijing (2011) came up with some ideas in Age Literature that the humor of Mark Twain divided into three points: hyperbole, contrast and satire. He connected the humor with satire, which set a good example for later writers. Mark Twain's humor experience three steps: babyhood, maturity, grief, it also made his novels become more brilliant. Moreover, it was found by Anhui Literature that Mark Twain was a master of humor, and his works were famous for deeply ideology. From the aspects in characterization, language and storyline, Mark Twain polished the humorous features to give the novels new meaning and style. Great progress has been made in this field, different scholar had different idea with Mark Twain's novels, and

all of their researches were good for the later learner. But uncertainties still exist in some studies. For example, there was an essay about humor of Mark Twain published on Journal of Guangxi University (Zeng xi, 1995) showed us the art of Mark Twain's novels, the author showed us the reality of America by using humorous descriptions, but it was mainly focus on the plots of Mark Twain's stories, less descriptions for humor, so it could not hold the title completely. Actually there is no perfect article in the world and will be always be some problems. Some essays could not express the theme clearly, and other several works could not use right sentences and grammar. I think the most serious problem was that the language was not concise in articles; it will make the works not be a authority. These problems will have a bad effect on one's work, so we should be more rigorous and careful.

It would seem that further investigations are needed in order to show Mark Twain's novels completely and deeply. As to humor, I think not only the features should be depicted, but also does the expression ways need to describe clearly. As far as I am concerned, the content of novels should not be retelling too much, or the article will be disorganized. Mark Twain's works had their own characteristic; we should grasp the main points of our subject, and pay more attention to the language expression.

But through the research on the related materials of Mark Twain's novels, the author finds that there is still some research value in the art of humor. First, although domestic scholars of Mark Twain's humor explored many aspects, but most of them think of Mark Twain's humor is only an art form, it is due to the novel narrative style. Second, most of the previous studies focused on the description of the phenomenon and the lack of theoretical discussion, in fact, from the perspective of theory, there are many aspects can study. Therefore, this article uses humor as a starting point, with a sense of humor as a clue, through this thesis to discuss Mark Twain's novels, through the formation of humor since the characteristic and the influence on later literature, in order to get a deeper level of understanding of the Mark Twain classic novels.

## II. THE HUMOROUS EXPRESSION IN TWAIN MARK'S NOVELS

### A. *The Humorous Language Characters of Different Novels*

In 1865, Mark Twain published *The Celebrated Jumping Frog of Calaveras County* and put it over. At the end of the book, the main character Gum Smas, the biggest interest is gambling. He took great pains to train a frog, thinks it is the county's highest jumping frog. When he bet with a stranger, the frog is firmly sitting there, like a church, Smyth rather baffling. It is too late when he known the stranger lead bullets into the frog belly filling while it is not full of (Mark Twin, 2012). This work laid a Twain style - a humorous tone. Works not only laugh at the western people addicted to gambling, and at the same time, ridicule the public the vulgar boring. Mark Twin's humorous art is displayed through the language of the works. One of the language features is that his flexible use of dialect. Mark Twain had humble origins; he worked as compositors, seaman and navigator, also looking for gold, which led to his extensive contacts with the community, familiar with people's life and folk language. From the form of language, he works in colloquial language, simple sentence structure that is simple and plain, even does not conform to the rules of grammar; the spoken language belongs to the typical language in his novels. He skillfully use English to describe the story of people's daily life, in addition, his character of language with a strong the local dialect feature, limited to a particular historical period and specific region, make him more realistic. Most of his works of exotic humorous and funny, contains some jokes, comic plot wise products on, so reading his novels is very interesting. He flexibly used allegory, personification, metonymy, exaggeration, pun and other rhetorical devices in the novels; the works of the language has a magic power. For example, Mark Twain exaggerates to incredible the ascetic object. In this work, he ridiculed to polygamy, coined a man to marry seventy-two wives: "I made a wide bed in seven feet long and ninety-six feet. But I can't sleep, I found that seventy-two women were snoring, the deafening roars. Life is in danger! I see it in this way. When they breathe together, you can see the house wall really suck in, and then breathe out together; you will see the wall blow out." As for the exaggeration and misrepresentation, it would to be funny and humor.

### B. *The Contradiction between the Subjective and the Objective Reality*

Building humor atmosphere needs to break logical thinking in the normal procedure to produce nervous anticipation and lost, then smile to it, so as to achieve the artistic effect of humor. Mark Twin's novels have made a very good interpretation of this. At the beginning of his works, it often allow readers intent the plot according to their own subjective imagine, then has produced an unexpected ending, but the ending can reflect the essence of life, so as to achieve the artistic effect of humor. Such as the short story of "Good Boy", the hero names Jacob Blevins, a little boy who is always "absolutely obedient to parents", "no matter how absurd they say, how unreasonable", "he is convinced that those children's stories about Sunday school". From the perspective of the reader's expectations, such a good child should have a happy family and a better future. But Mark Twin broke through the conventional logic, let Jacob "always unlucky, the things he met always are different from the good boy in the book should have meet", the most sad thing is, little Jacob was given a slap in the face by city councilor. When readers read here, the conventional logic is completely broken, the plot development completely. Mark Twin uses the way contains rich hyperbole humor, and sharply ironic Sunday school' education in the United States is the invisible killing machine to stifle students life. As it mentioned above the novella *The Man Corrupted Hadley Burg*, a stranger with a bag of gold, come to Hadley burg in the middle of the night to look for an unknown benefactor, and as a thank for helping by gold. However, for Hadley burg is a town

fort with honest pride keep for three generations of good reputation, the not shaking the lofty flag for a bag of gold! But the ending is just the opposite way; all honest and clean has come to nothing in front of a bag of gold. The nineteen glossy decent citizens live in an anxious life every day, they all want to be the stranger's benefactor, and dream of the gold (Mark Twain, 2013). The result beyond reasonable seems to be absurd and perverse. But it is precisely such kind of ridiculous; people can really understand what the corruption of fancy is; people in the town are moral hypocrisy and greed. It exposed the bourgeois civilization so-called "true honest" that money is everything, and then construct a humorous tone.

### III. THE DIFFERENT FORMS OF HUMOR IN TWAIN MARK'S NOVELS

#### A. *Cheerful, Witty, and Relaxed Humor*

In Mark Twain's novels, the direct humorous effect is will produce a human smile, which is from the connotation of humor, it can be proved. In later nineteenth Century, the American people living in deep distress where racial discrimination prevailed! The social oppression of blacks' crackdown people! Countless pain all make people feel heavy repression, in order to reduce the stress, also to have a relaxed life, Mark Twain's humorous works will undoubtedly become a vast good the spice of life. From his first short novel *The Celebrated Jumping Frog of Calaveras County*, the humorous wind blew through the whole creation in his life. Although in his later creation, irony and sad tone became more and more serious, they also can not completely cover the light and bright humor (Mark Twain, 2013). Mark Twain's long representative novel *the Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* is in an extremely rich humor, it is very interesting when write a series of activities that Huck and Tom rescued Jim, showing more funny. According to the happiness principle of Freud's humor theory, as a reader, when we know Jim was shut, feeling nervous and hope they can be rescued by Huck as soon as possible, make Jim be a free man. In psychology, the heart is in the most urgent in rescue work, tense and hurried; there was no moment to delay. In the emotional, Expect that he will come up with a way to rescue them in time, when he came up with an excellent way that use a piece of wood, so that Jim can drill out from the inside, the reader would be relaxed, but an unexpected things happened again, and another hero Tom thought it was too simple, not stimulation enough. In this way, so that the reader's original calm feelings suddenly tense up, causing readers thought that can smoothly save affection fall down, and become more anxious. Then the author let the reader know that Tom's hard and tortuous way: to steal Jim out. Here, "save" becomes "steal". So, the reader's attention will turn into "how to steal Jim". And when we see a specific implementation plan, the heart can not help bursting into a happy smile; the tense feeling of readers is replaced by a kind of funny. As for Mark Twain, the suspense he made is just for creating a sense of humor, a straightforward atmosphere of the novel, not to add the number of charm, He just want to express his understanding of the suffering of the real world, and hope to remove the sadness in people's heart through humor, also return our life some happy and relaxed, but also some little sunshine.

#### B. *Pungent and Sarcastic Humor*

Mark Twain's humor has rational consciousness, in his humor, people not only can enjoy the pleasure of laugh, the value of laugh., the true of laugh, but also be able to comprehend the thoughts and feelings of Mark Twain. He often shows us with humor in superficial, and irony in essential, to expose and criticize the powerful evil in the American society. Through humor he expressed his attitude toward the world's critical attitude and the spirit of the question. In his *The Celebrated Jumping Frog of Calaveras County*, through the carefully painted of the hero's funny behavior, launched on the society some bad habits also showed us the humanity exploration clues of Mark Twain. The novel is talking about a layman how to deceive all the weak, deceive the strong and victory (Mark Twain, 2013). The most important was that people saw the author's mocking to Smiley through the superb art of humor of Mark Twain; saw a weakness of human nature. This is not only a ridiculous one for Smiley, more of the intention of the author is to let people see their inner psychological speculation, to remind people should keep a mind.

In fact, the author's purpose is to let people see the social system's unreasonable, see the evil of US policy of racial discrimination in American Society, see the state of ugliness. At the same time, also shows that Mark Twain tried to use humor to rebel and change the thought of bad social phenomenon. Around 90s, Mark Twain's humor creation has undergone great changes, his eyes became more and more sensitive, and his writing became extremely sharp. The novel *The Man That Corrupted Hadley Burg* that created in 1990 was a work which Mark Twain used the funny art to criticize money, and it is a reflection of human nature and the exploration of human society. Mark Twain (2013) reveals the fact that people will obey the willing of God, but more will listen to the money, money can control people lying, extortion or killing, money is supreme. Mark Twain used humor to write this novel is agree with the social background, and without prior without previous consultation, the virtue of honesty is cannot withstand a single blow, face to money, the small town eventually became the victim of the money, which is reasonable, especially the sentence at the end of the novel: "do not let me have the temptation is same as let us have the temptation", it can be described as sharp and humorous criticism toe social phenomenon at this point that kind of money is worship, Mark Twain to reflect on the full reality of American society, reflects the so-called democratic equality and freedom of the political system and the money. The social values of "humor is rebellious". Indeed, from Mark Twain's humor, we can see Mark Twain this personal emotion humor which is a denial of vulgar emotion, is also a kind of love that unwilling to live such a life, is a kind of emotion the author placed against the ideal of social life.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

##### A. *The Influence of Humor on the Later Novels*

A work to become a classic masterpiece and long-lasting, there are a variety of reasons, the most two important reasons: one is the content of the works reflect the characteristics of a particular era of culture and ideology, give historical value or the value of knowledge to a person, two is that works' originality in art, to give people a sense of beauty or provides a new craftsmanship, Mark Twain's novels got achievements in both content and art, especially the spirit of humor with critical novels shows that the unique art of humor has a far-reaching impact on later literature. Mark Twain is an outstanding American novelist, he stood in the democratic position, with humor and Banter humorous and funny style, depicting the social picture of the second half of the nineteenth Century the United States at the resplendent with variegated coloration, hit hard American Society of evil. In his novels, people often feel happy and humorous; also can feel the bitterness behind the happy. It is a bitterness generated by humor, and it is also a social disappointment, even bitterness against the social evils, but such bitterness generated by humor ultimate achievement of Mark Twain's humor spirit. Because of this spirit, Mark Twain can use humor to criticize the evil, expose the ugly and irony false. The spirit of humor is actually a kind of criticism, reflection and exploration of the real society and the human spirit. Humor is the tradition of American literature, many literary works show the characteristics, can use humor as a kind of spirit, use humor as a satire and criticism, reflection form, or start from the Mark Twain. Also it is because of this spirit of humor, from that time American literature get rid of European literature, and have their real local literature. It is starting from here; Mark Twain was later regarded as the father of American literary realism, great development of his spirit of humor impact on later literature. Faulkner is a great writer in the history of American literature, which known as a comedy master in our age. His novels have a strong regional, but also have a strong sense of humor. Black humor is popular in American literary genre in the 1970s. This genre writers believe that traditional writing cannot express social irrationality and the absurdity of the world, and they on social evils, cruel and exaggerated figures or events to be crazy dramatic to cold, using sharp humor to express their despair to the social reality.

##### B. *The Inheritance and Development of Twain Mark's Humor*

First of all, Mark Twain is the outstanding representative of the United States in the late nineteenth Century critical realism literature. He inherits the western literary tradition of humor, formed its own unique art of humor, and by the art of humor, attack the rule of American capitalist society money power, political corruption, moral hypocrisy, hypocrisy religion, insatiable greed and so on by the banter of ridicule and violent. In addition, Mark Twain invented the colloquial style of literature; this style of writing not only produces humorous effect, but also the sign of the real American literature form, and had a profound impact on American national literature. Prior to the American literature by European literary influence, require the writers to use standard elegant and gorgeous English words in creation, because frivolous style can ruin a piece of life of a work. Mark Twain was unconventional, pioneered the colloquial style of humorous literature. In his novels, he abandoned the gorgeous words, directly used Native American dialects, and laid a solid foundation for the development of American literature colloquial the style of writing. the dialect from the folk American that buried dip people's wisdom and feelings, with strong characteristics of humor, with a strong emotional color. Mark Twain set an example for future generations of writers. This mainly must maintain a serious tone and poker-faced without showing feelings on humor. It has different approaches but equally satisfactory results without previous agreement to the later advocated that the creation of the kind of calm and objective silent narration by American Modernist Literature. The narrative can reduce the subjective feelings, not too much influence from outside, so the story seems to be quite true, as has happened in life. Mark Twain advocated the serious tone of humor undoubtedly has a great reference to American literature for the requirements objectively describes. Finally, the use of humor logic dislocation, the logic of dislocation, as the name implies, refers to the logical thinking of each other is wrong, the two irrelevant things together, resulting in a subjective and objective uncoordinated, In order to achieve a mockery of the intention, Twain Mark's literary practice has a significant impact on the development of later literature, especially the black humor literature. Mark Twain let the world understand the humor with his wisdom, also let the world understand as a writer should have deep and broad mindedness. His creation, push the American literary realism in nineteenth Century to a peak of the world, the art of humor shown in the works always be treasures of mankind, his creation mercilessly criticized the American in all aspects of society, became a reliable witness of history; his creation, greatly inspired a large number of the later generations of litterateurs who loyal to the people, loyal to the art of literature, and promoted the development of American literature, world literature wrote a glorious page.

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# Proximization Theory and the Construction of International Values: A Case Study of President Xi Jinping's Speech at the 70th Session of the UN General Assembly

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**Abstract**—Under the cognitive linguistics approach to CDS (Critical Discourse Study), this paper selects the construal operation of “deixis” and takes Chinese President Xi Jinping’s speech at the 70th session of the United Nations General Assembly as a corpus in order to examine through the cognitive-pragmatic model of proximization theory how this text delivers the international value of “a community of shared future for mankind.” The three dimensions of “spatial proximization,” “temporal proximization,” and “axiological proximization” serve as analytical tools for evaluating discourse strategies in political discourse and the shaping of international values with Chinese characteristics. The study shows that proximization theory could be well suited to critical discourse analysis and its spatial-temporal-axiological (STA) model possess the specific explanatory power in value construction.

**Index Terms**—cognitive linguistic approach to CDS, proximization theory, a community of shared future for mankind, construal operation, international value

## I. INTRODUCTION

On January 18, 2017, Chinese President Xi Jinping attended a high-level meeting at the United Nations Office in Geneva. Here, he delivered a keynote speech titled “Work Together to Build a Community of Shared Future for Mankind,” and the concept of “a community of shared future for mankind” has since been officially included in the UN resolution adopted by the Security Council<sup>1</sup>.

President Xi followed this with his report to 19th Communist Party of China National Congress on Oct 18, 2017, where he proposed to “follow a path of peaceful development and work to build a community with a shared future for mankind.” With the inclusion of “a community with a shared future for mankind” into the Communist Party constitution, this concept again attracted attention within the international community and triggered extensive research by scholars in China and abroad. Currently, most of the domestic discourse on “building a community of shared future for mankind” revolves around the domestic and foreign environment of public opinion from the perspective of political science and communication, just like discourses on power and identity. For example, Zhou (2018)<sup>2</sup> discusses the significance of “building a community of shared future for mankind” in securing China’s greater influence regarding strengthening the right of expression. Guo (2017) analyzes the construction process of China’s global governance through the discourse practice of “Chinese solutions” from the perspective of communication, then summarizes the construction of the basic idea of Chinese solutions in global governance using the concept of “a community with shared future for mankind.”

However, the discourse on “a community of shared future for mankind” has been only rarely examined from the perspective of linguistic theory, which in particular offers the approaches of systemic functional linguistics and social functional linguistics. Q. Wen (2017) analyzes the concept of “a community with shared future for mankind” from the UN speech through interpersonal and textual functions of the metaphor. Huang (2017) uses systemic functional grammar to examine the speech from the angle of functional discourse analysis, revealing its register and genre characteristics. Hong Zhang (2017) takes the speech as a corpus to apply the theory of sociocultural linguistics, discussing how to build national image through discourse.

Cognitive linguistics reveals the relationship between language, concept, and the human mind. As a concept, “a community with a shared future for mankind” aims to spread itself globally and exert its influence on the audience. Through the cognitive mechanism of the human mind, we can explain how the speaker (the communicator of a concept) manipulates discourse strategies during the communication process. Critical discourse analysis of the underlying ideology and the primitive and final status of ontology can then be examined, so as to explore whether the discourse

<sup>1</sup> In the Resolution 2344 (2017) adopted by the UN Security Council at its 7902nd meeting, on 17 March 2017, “a community of shared future for mankind” is firstly mentioned.

<sup>2</sup> Throughout the main text and references, Chinese names are represented in the traditional “Western” order of given name followed by family name. A first initial or full given name is included to disambiguate scholars with the same family name.



strategies used allow the concept of “a community with a shared future for mankind” to spread effectively.

On the basis of research outcomes from combining critical discourse analysis (CDA) with cognitive linguistics (Hui Zhang and Jiang, 2008; Tian 2013; T. Zhang and Guo 2016), this paper applies proximization theory within the “deixis” construal operation as its analytical tool, using President Xi’s speech at the 70th session of the General Assembly as a corpus, to demonstrate the effectiveness of the spread of the international value of “a community with a shared future for mankind.” At the same time, this paper attempts to faithfully convey the intention behind the idea, thus enriching the discourse study of international value from the perspective of linguistics.

## II. DEIXIS AND PROXIMIZATION

The construal operation is a core concept of cognitive grammar in cognitive linguistics. This operation aims to explain why people have different ways of expressing the same event. At the same time, as an important cognitive mode the construal operation determines the corresponding language expression; this can be used to discuss how and what kind of differences people experience when they perceive the same event (X. Wen, 2011). As an important part of the construal operation, deixis involves the use of conceptualization to explain the meaning construction of parts beyond the sentences in discourse, and adopts a practical positioning method to illustrate the consistency of textual context and subjective values.

As a newly developed concept in linguistics, “proximization” offers a concrete analytical tool for interpreting the deixis construal operation. The concept of “proximizing,” which simply means bringing closer, originates from the political discourse research of Paul Chilton. Chilton (2004) believes that discourse—that is, language in use—is a process whereby readers and hearers set up discourse worlds (conceptual domains” or “ontological spaces”) that carry a deictic “signature” for space, time, and modality, and relationships among them (p. 138). Cap (2006) develops Chilton’s view and coins the term “proximization”. In its most general and practical sense, proximization is a discursive strategy of presenting physically and temporally distant events and states of affairs (including “distant adversarial ideologies”) as increasingly and negatively consequential to the speaker and the addressee (Cap, 2013, p. 293). The speaker can use various means to highlight that the distant entities are gradually encroaching upon the speaker and addressee geographically and ideologically, but the primary goal is to legitimize the speaker’s own actions and policies—evoking the closeness of the external threat and soliciting the legitimization of preventive measures. The threat comes from entities peripheral to the discourse space, referred to as “outside-deictic-center” entities (ODCs), which are conceptualized as crossing the space to invade “inside-deictic-center” entities (IDCs)—the speaker and the addressee. The threat possesses both a spatial-temporal and ideological nature that sanctions the division of proximization into three aspects. (Cap, 2014). In Cap’s proximization theory, an ODC has a temporal, spatial, and axiological nature, the three aspects of the proximization model. When entities and events are mapped onto axes representing social space, time, and ideological distance, mental space provides conceptual coherence to the context and an analytical tool with which to reveal and evaluate the ideologies conveyed in the discourse.

In recent years, proximization theory has been applied to the analysis of state political discourses, providing a research path and analysis tool for discourse construction including crisis construction and war rhetoric, immigration discourse analysis, party representation, and national memory construction.

## III. PROXIMIZATION THEORY AND THE SHAPING OF INTERNATIONAL VALUES IN “A COMMUNITY OF SHARED FUTURE FOR MANKIND”

Since its inception, the concept of “a community of shared future for mankind” has been welcomed by international society for its comprehensive and systematic elaboration of China’s vision of global governance. At the 55th session of UN Commission for Social Development, the commission elected to include “to create a shared future, based upon our common humanity” into the UN Economic and Social Council resolution for the first time<sup>3</sup>. The UN Security Council subsequently did the same. This immediate acceptance from international bodies demonstrates that “building a community of shared future for mankind” is in-line with the interests and aspirations of people from countries around the world, and widely recognized by UN member states. This demonstrates China’s contribution to global governance.

President Xi’s speech “Work Together to Build a Community of Shared Future for Mankind” is 2992 words long, and divided into three parts. The first part describes the development history of the international community, briefly recalling the background of the founding of the United Nations 70 years ago, China’s contribution to the world anti-fascist war<sup>4</sup>, and China’s proper attitude towards history. The second part deals with the common challenges of mankind and the major issues facing the United Nations. The third discusses the concept of global governance, puts forward the Chinese solution to work together to build a community of shared future for mankind, and announces China’s role in this effort and its action planning.

An important role of language is to represent the state of things (Chilton, 2004, p. 29). A speaker can legitimize his

<sup>3</sup> In resolution adopted by the UN Economic and Social Council on 8 June 2017, the initial form of the concept “a community of shared future for mankind”, which was demonstrated as “to create a shared future, based upon our common humanity” is mentioned for the first time, and later it was officially written into the Resolution 2344 (2017) adopted by the UN Security Council.

<sup>4</sup> The anti-fascism war refers to the World War II.

position by choosing a way of speaking that conforms to the speaker's own interests to describe objective things, and create a durable common cognition by constructing a universal experience with which the addressee can identify. This cognition will lead the addressee to form certain beliefs about reality and to recognize certain actions in the future. These elements of speech, in particular time, location, and ideology held by the speaker, are important in building a common cognition.

The structure of President Xi's speech demonstrates that the international values of "a community of shared future for mankind" are constructed primarily around three topics: the development of the international community, the problems facing mankind, and the concept of global governance. In the process of constructing these topics, the text relating to "a community of shared future for mankind" reflects the process of constructing common cognition through spatial, temporal, and axiological language strategies as well as their combination.

#### A. *Development of an International Community and Temporal Proximization*

Temporal proximization can be used as a method of enhancing spatial proximization. In the spatial axis, temporal proximization is useful for interpreting a process wherein an event is approaching or has already occurred. According to Cap (2013), temporal proximization is a symbolic "compression" of the time axis, and a partial conflation of time frames, involving two simultaneous conceptual shifts (p.85-86). They are past-to-present shift and future-to-present shift. The past-to-present could construal the past events and actions, mainly those instigated/performed by the ODC entities, informing the speaker's present context, in the interest of her own current actions. And the information is validated by analogies holding between the past and the present context arrangements. The future-to-present shift accommodate construals of the near future ODC actions stemming directly from the present context, a collection of premises up-dated by the premises construed from the past events.

Under future-to-present shift, a future event is interpreted as entailing urgent need to take immediate measures; under past-to-present shift, past events are construed as still occurring and affecting reality. The first part of President Xi's speech, focusing on the developmental history of the international community, contains language strategies of temporal proximization.

The relationship between language and human history can be explained from the perspective of cognitive construction. Both thought and language are meaningful and can be interpreted as a reconstruction process that is propagated in a particular way. First, the role of language in memory structure cannot be ignored. It is not only a tool to understand the past, but also a way to reshape history. Through discourse characterization, the collective memory of history is formed, and the legitimization of historical behaviors and events is realized. President Xi opens his speech with a survey of the broad strokes the conflict that led to cooperation in the 20<sup>th</sup> century as follows:

(1) Over the past century and more, mankind has gone through bloody hot wars and the chilling Cold War, but also achieved remarkable development and huge progress. In the first half of last century, mankind suffered the scourges of two world wars, and the people yearned for the end of war and the advent of peace. In the 1950s and 1960s, people in colonies awakened and fought to shake off shackles and achieve independence. Since the end of the Cold War, people have pursued a shared aspiration, namely, to expand cooperation and promote common development.<sup>5</sup>

This is a typical analogy strategy proximization. The speech begins with several important historical points: "in the first half of the last century," "in the 1950s and 1960s," and "since the end of the Cold War." At the same time, it describes the primary conflict events in international history: the two World Wars and the Cold War. The speech highlights the history of sovereign states seeking independence and the international community pursuing peaceful development after the sufferings of war. Although the positions and interests of countries in the war were different, reflection on the war must nonetheless be absolutely consistent—only peace can lead to development. With this timeline as the beginning of the speech, the speaker has made full use of the analogy strategy in the process of temporal proximization by contrasting the war with reality, finding resonance in and drawing lessons from this period, and so refreshing the addressees' collective historical memory of the misfortune brought by war.

The description of historical events can not only reconstruct collective agreement on the identity of different groups and connect their common concerns on practical issues, but also become a means to guide future actions. See the quotation from President Xi's Speech as follows:

(2) Peace and development: this has been the aspiration held dear by mankind over the past century. However, the goal to achieve peace and development is far from being met. We need to respond to the people's call, take up the baton of history and forge ahead on the marathon track toward peace and development.

The first sentence of this passage is an assertion based on history, for which we should "take the baton of history" and "forge ahead on the marathon track." Unlike the past-oriented strategy of the previous excerpt, this passage aims to shape common identity by using the future-oriented strategy to create a shared common space in which the international community can take action to inherit and extend the spirit of peace and development.

Memory therefore has a dual effect. On one hand, it helps to establish a collective memory of the past; on the other, it legitimizes or delegitimizes historical events to help people of different groups reconstruct these historical events and

<sup>5</sup> The speech is written in Chinese, and translated into and published in English by Xinhua News Agency in its official website [Xinhuanet.com/english](http://Xinhuanet.com/english). Xinhua News Agency is the official state-run press agency and a ministry-level institution subordinate to the Chinese central government. All the examples in the paper is extracted from the speech.

shape a common identity.

### B. *Spatial Proximization and “the Common Challenges Facing Mankind”*<sup>6</sup>

Spatial proximization refers to the forced construal of the discourse space to perceive that peripheral entities are encroaching physically upon the discourse space of central entities, the speaker and addressee (Cap, 2013). While temporal proximization is synchronic, spatial proximization has a diachronic nature.

The second part of President Xi’s speech describes the common challenges faced by mankind, such as terrorism, climate change, and economic recovery, as well as major issues currently facing the United Nations. In this discourse, the common challenges faced by human beings are frequently portrayed as metaphors about “hostile entities,” and the speech applies the construal operation of spatial proximization to prompt the addressees to adopt some preventive “war” in response. Through this shaping of an inclusive international value, the addressees are persuaded to believe in their ability to prevent negative consequences.

On one hand, spatial proximization can be viewed as the most basic tool for legitimizing. In political interventionist discourses, a pre-emptive response to “collective threats” is legitimized by allowing the collective to perceive that a threat is imminent and will have a negative impact on individuals. Let’s see the longer quotation from Xi’s speech as follows:

(3) Terrorist attacks that have occurred in Europe, North Africa and the Middle East in recent years once again demonstrate that terrorism is the common enemy of mankind. Fighting terrorism is the shared responsibility of all countries. In fighting terror, we should not just treat the symptoms, but remove its root causes. We should enhance coordination and build a global united front against terrorism so as to create an umbrella of security for people around the world. The number of refugees has hit a record high since the end of the Second World War. While tackling the crisis, we should also get to its roots. Why would anyone want to be displaced if they have a home to return to? UNHCR and the International Organization for Migration should act as the coordinator to mobilize the whole world to respond effectively to the refugee crisis.

The passage describes terrorism as “the common enemy of mankind.” Thus, the international community should “create an umbrella of security for people around the world.” By establishing that terrorism is the “hostile entity” and describing the refugee crisis since the Second World War through analogy proximization, the speaker leads addressees to be frightened of approaching terrorism and also of the combined threat of terrorism and the suffering caused by wars. In addition, the speech uses lexical and grammatical carriers of spatial proximization, like “Europe, North Africa and the Middle East,” to make addressees feel that the spatial distance from a specific terrorist event might be narrowing and such a threat is therefore imminent. The listener can then adopt a common position with the speaker and take countermeasures in advance. At the same time, through offering the example of the efforts made by the two major international organizations UNHCR and IOM on immigration, this passage asserts to addressees that the refugee issue caused by terrorism has been unavoidable—succeeding despite the best efforts of powerful organizations—and has already become an international issue that can be addressed only if we “mobilize the whole world,” further drawing the addressees closer to the issue.

While such a spatial proximization strategy is conducive to reducing the distance between IDCs and ODCs, it is not limited to revealing the negative impact of ODCs on IDCs. In addition to interpreting the state interventionism discourse, which is to legitimize the war against the threat, proximization theory can also characterize the discourse about the national demonstration effect from the positive aspects of critical discourse analysis.

President Xi then turns his speech towards a concrete example of China’s response and an appeal to other organizations for comparable involvement:

(4) China has decided to provide an additional 200 million yuan of humanitarian assistance for refugees and the displaced of Syria. As terrorism and refugee crises are closely linked to geopolitical conflicts, resolving conflicts provides the fundamental solution to such problems. Parties directly involved should return to the negotiating table, and other parties should work to facilitate talks for peace, and we should all respect the role the UN plays as the main channel for mediation. Pandemic diseases such as bird flu, Ebola and Zika have sounded the alarm for international health security. The WHO should play a leadership role in strengthening epidemic monitoring and sharing of information, practices and technologies. The international community should step up support and assistance for public health in African countries and other developing countries.

From the perspective of positive discourse analysis, China’s deed in the world such as “provide an additional 200 million yuan of humanitarian assistance for refugees and the displaced of Syria” in this speech can be regarded as an ODC that can bring a positive impact. China’s provision of aid to Syrian refugees and victims through “200 million yuan of humanitarian assistance” sets a good “model” and attracts addressees to the cause by supporting the credibility of the need. In other words, this action can be viewed as a kind of social force embodied in the text. Tamly’s force-dynamic theory (1988) offers that there are two entities, the “agonist” and the “antagonist,” of which the agonist is “the entity whose circumstance is at issue.” Force-dynamic schemas arise from pressure and motion, and the social force relates to the “interpsychological force interaction between sentient entities.” The antagonist exerts force against the agonist, which causes changes to the agonist. By applying this approach to proximization theory, the speaker can be

<sup>6</sup> It is quoted from the President Xi’s speech

viewed as the antagonist who through speech exerts force on the agonist, namely, the addressee, causing psychological changes to the addressee and therefore changing the distance between the IDC (addresses) and ODC (China). Moreover, at the end of the quotation, the fact that China calls for WHO and international community to take actions has indeed demonstrated China's views on the common challenges the world is facing, and at the same time has strengthened the perception of validity for China's approach and actions when facing the common challenges, thus further narrowing the distance between ODCs and IDCs.

### C. *Global Governance and Axiological Proximization*

Axiological proximization refers to the mechanism through which the ODCs' value is derived, from both far and near. The values of IDCs and ODCs are interpreted as there being a growing conflict of consciousness between the two. The mechanism of axiological proximization involves the addressee's construal of a continuing ideological conflict that eventually materializes in a physical clash between the speaker/addressee and the audience (Cap, 2010).

International values are generally regarded as the embodiment of ideology. The construction of certain ideology relies largely on whom is to convey the ideology and how to describe and explain it—that is, how to seek shared values or promote the integration of values through external forces. At the same time, it is also important to choose which events or issues to describe, and this choice itself has an impact on the value orientation of these events.

The third part of President Xi's speech describes China's solution on global governance, which calls for concerted efforts to build the "community of shared future" and announces China's role and actions towards achieving it. The core of axiological proximization lies in bridging the ideological conflicts between ODCs and IDCs by materializing certain values of the ODCs into the IDCs. See the quotation as follows:

(5) Geneva invokes a special memory to us. In 1954, Premier Zhou Enlai led a Chinese delegation to the Geneva Conference, and worked with the Soviet Union, the United States, the United Kingdom and France to seek political settlement of the Korean issue and a ceasefire in Indo-China. This demonstrated China's desire for peace and contributed Chinese wisdom to world peace. Since 1971 when China regained its lawful seat in the UN and began to return to international agencies in Geneva, China has gradually involved itself in disarmament, trade, development, human rights and social issues, putting forth Chinese proposals for the resolution of major issues and the making of important rules. In recent years, China has taken an active part in dialogues and negotiations on the Iranian nuclear issue, the Syrian issue and other hotspot issues, giving Chinese input to their political settlement. China applied to the International Olympic Committee to host both the summer and winter Olympic and Paralympic Games, and we have won the bids. In addition, we have gained endorsement from the International Union for Conservation of Nature for over a dozen applications for world natural heritage sites as well as world cultural and natural heritage sites. All this has presented Chinese splendor to the world.

In this passage, China's developmental history in the United Nations is reviewed and summarized, and a large number of value-oriented terms are presented, such as invoking "a special memory to us," contributing "Chinese wisdom," "giving Chinese input to their political settlement," and presenting "Chinese splendor to the world"—establishing a positive context for China's development in the United Nations. This passage also makes addressees recall the past 45 years since China resumed its legal seat in the United Nations, when it has actively participated in UN efforts in security, development, society, human rights, law, and arms control and disarmament. The timing of the speech also supports this, made at the event marking the 70th anniversary of the founding of the United Nations. China's announcement of a series of important measures to support the cause of the United Nations in this context pushes China's cooperation with the UN to new heights.

At the same time, proposing the concept of a community of shared future for mankind marks that China has abandoned such ideas as "Western exploitation of Chinese system" and the need to "catch up with the Western countries."<sup>7</sup> China no longer dwells on which foreign country in the world is better than it, but instead emphasizes that all countries share the world. That is the essence of "a community of shared future for mankind." After the proposal was put forward, the Chinese government turned the concept to practice by improving exchanges and cooperation with other countries through the Belt and Road Initiative.<sup>8</sup> This extends the international discourse span from a few hundred years in the modern age to more than 2,000 years, transcending the dispute between universal values and Chinese characteristics, advocating common values for mankind, deconstructing Western-centered theory, and reflecting the historical transformation of China from standing up to becoming wealthy to growing strong.

As such, the speech marked China's views on international issues and global governance on the international stage of the United Nations. On one hand, it was an opportunity for China could persuade addressees to strengthen their recognition of Chinese values; on the other, it legitimized China's approach to the concept of global governance.

### D. *Application of Proximization Theory*

According to the spatial-temporal-axiological (STA) model in proximization theory, these three strategies are

<sup>7</sup> These were common ideas in modern times when China needed to draw experience from the western countries.

<sup>8</sup> The Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), also known as the One Belt One Road (OBOR) or the Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st-century Maritime Silk Road, is a development strategy adopted by the Chinese government involving infrastructure development and investments in 152 countries and international organizations in Europe, Asia, Middle East, Latin America and Africa

conducive to continuously narrowing the distance between entities in the discourse space and influencing addressees. According to Cap (2013), one of the principles of proximization theory is that, although any application will likely contain all three strategies—spatial, temporal, and axiological—the degree of their expression in the discourse parallels their effectiveness in changing contexts.

Take the first point in the global governance section as an example: “We should stay committed to building a world of lasting peace through dialogue and consultation.” The purpose of this speech is to express the principle of international cooperation, which is different from Western mainstream values, and to give China a say in the context of major changes in the international landscape. To achieve this goal, it is necessary to choose from a large number of terms to reflect different strategies, so as to help achieve the goal of legitimization. See the two quotations below:

(6) We should stay committed to building a world of lasting peace through dialogue and consultation. When countries enjoy peace, so will the world; when countries fight, the world suffers. From the Peloponnesian War in the fifth century BC to the two world wars and the Cold War that lasted more than four decades, we have drawn painful and profound lessons. “History, if not forgotten, can serve as a guide for the future.” By establishing the United Nations, those before us won more than 70 years of relative peace for the world. What we need to do is to improve the mechanisms and means to more effectively resolve disputes, reduce tension and put an end to wars and conflicts.

(7) The Swiss writer and Nobel laureate, Hermann Hesse stressed the importance of serving “not war and destruction but peace and reconciliation”. Countries should foster partnerships based on dialogue, non-confrontation and non-alliance. Major powers should respect each other’s core interests and major concerns, keep their differences under control and build a new model of relations featuring non-conflict, non-confrontation, mutual respect and win-win cooperation. As long as we maintain communication and treat each other with sincerity, the “Thucydides trap” can be avoided. Big countries should treat smaller ones as equals instead of acting as a hegemon imposing their will on others. No country should open the Pandora’s box by willfully waging wars or undermining the international rule of law. Nuclear weapons, the Sword of Damocles that hangs over mankind, should be completely prohibited and thoroughly destroyed over time to make the world free of nuclear weapons. Guided by the principle of peace, sovereignty, inclusiveness and shared governance, we should turn the deep sea, the polar regions, the outer space and the Internet into new frontiers for cooperation rather than a wrestling ground for competition.

The first quotation above starts with an example that highlights the temporal strategy: “From the Peloponnesian War in the fifth century BC to the two world wars and the Cold War that lasted more than four decades, we have drawn painful and profound lessons.” By choosing major wars from both ancient and modern times, the speech demonstrates China’s in-depth thinking on the issue of peace as it stands relative to the international trend of historical development. The passage, organized essentially as a timeline, makes the addressees recall devastating wars in the past in association with present concerns—while the wars have gone away, the threat could become a reality again at any time, and no nation should assume that it is safe.

Later, the speech quotes the words of Swiss writer Hermann Hesse, which leads to the need to pursue a new path of dialogue instead of confrontation and partnerships rather than alliances. In this shift, the speech transitions from a temporal to spatial strategy. “Open the Pandora’s box” is a phrase referring to the possibility of causing a particular kind of disaster, while “Sword of Damocles” implies ever-present potential. These two familiar Western allusions are used here to explain that if the international community fails to respect the principle of peaceful coexistence and mutual benefit, then the international rule of law will disappear. The ODCs in the sentence would threaten every individual in the international community.

This part of the speech utilizes maxims of universal values to strengthen the attraction and credibility of the context. The ability to project or define political discourse generally reflects the political ability of the speaker (Dunmire, 2011), and here the context is endowed with the recognition of history, internationality, and justice.

At the same time, in order to highlight the negative impact of turbulent international relations and make it easier for addressees to accept the notion of relatively abstract international values, the speech employs metaphors to create conceptual scenes through which the symbolic movement of ODCs towards IDCs enhance the sense of threat to both speaker and addressees. To achieve this, most metaphors in this speech offer the location, speed, and negative effects of a threat entity, or the positive effects of successfully avoiding a threat.

the frequency of different strategies used in different topics

Dimension Theme	Temporal proximization	Spatial proximization	Axiological proximization
International social development	6	4	4
The common challenges facing human beings	4	7	8
Global governance (Chinese solutions)	8	5	10

To further illustrate the comprehensive use of STA model, we divide the speech into three parts according to the themes, and count down the frequency of different strategies utilized in every part as follow<sup>9</sup>:

The above table shows that the three dimensions of proximization theory can be used to examine how the discourse of President Xi's speech achieves the ideological convergence of ODC and IDC by narrowing the temporal, spatial, and axiological distance between the two. In the process of shaping international values, the speaker makes full use of the mechanism of proximization theory, which is essentially a compensation mechanism (Cap, 2015). In each of the examples above, all three strategies of proximization theory are present. However, the actual degree of textual representation is driven by their effectiveness in changing contexts. Therefore, in order to ensure consistency with the overall purpose of discourse, the development of external context might lead the speaker to restrict the use of a strategy and achieve compensation through the others.

Theoretically, critical discourse analysis addresses the conceptual arrangement of discourse spaces, and especially the rearrangement of symbols in these spaces. As Cap (2014) describes, the central commitments of CDS include exploring the many ways in which ideologies and identities are reflected, enacted, re-enacted, negotiated, modified, reproduced, etc. For example, spatial proximization can construe the process of entities peripheral to the discourse space encroaching physically upon entities central to the discourse space (typically the speaker and addressee). That is, through ODC narrates its spatial distance with IDC, so that the addressee can identify with the events described by the speaker. Through temporal strategy, the ODC proximizes past events and the potential future to the present in order to explain the experience, lesson, or influence of past or future events on reality. Axiological proximization refers to the process through which the possibility of turning ideological conflict between ODC and IDC into practical conflict is reduced, and the ideological distance between the two sides is narrowed.

In terms of the specific text analyzed in this paper, the value of "a community of shared future for mankind" achieves temporal, spatial, and axiological unity in a number of ways. The first is time inheritance. "Building a community of shared future for mankind" includes the principle of equality and the sovereignty identified in the Peace Treaty of Westphalia over 360 years ago, the international humanitarian spirit of the Geneva Conventions more than 150 years ago, the four major purposes and seven principles included in the UN charter 70 years ago, the Five Principles of Peaceful Coexistence advocated at the Bandung Conference more than 60 years ago, and other series of principles that have evolved amidst the background of changes in international relations. These shared historical memories form the

<sup>9</sup> The number represents the times of each strategy is used in the speech.

foundation for building a community of shared future for mankind.

The second is spatial inclusion. Countries are different and the world is diverse; however, the shared situation and aspirations of all countries have linked them closely to form a common understanding and identity, which encourages all countries to shape a shared future. In the West, there is the saying “All for one, and one for all.” In the East, there is “Appreciate the values of others as you would you own, and the world will become a harmonious whole. “The Koran includes the passage, “O mankind, indeed We have created you from male and female and made you peoples and tribes that you may know one another. Indeed,.”. In almost every society is the notion that difference is a driving force through which each nation and tribe can understand others, rather than a cause of conflict. As a representation of inclusiveness and the integration of human thought, “a community of shared future for mankind” points to the search for common ground while narrowing differences to form a new consensus among nations.

Third, the practical value in the proposition of a “Chinese solution” is an important starting point for the implementation of “a community of shared future for mankind.” In response to the spread of extremism, terrorism, and populism in various countries, the value of a community of shared future for mankind aims to clear up the opposition of ideologies and values held by different countries and instead pursue a golden mean of human values. In terms of its specific content, “a community of shared future” is the sublimation of the ideas of a community of shared interests and shared responsibilities. In Xi’s speech, these ideas initially focus on surroundings—the place for living, and later are often used among developing countries with emphasis on southern consciousness to reach the highest state of a community of human destiny, extending from the real world to virtual space—a cyberspace community of fate, from traditional fields expanding to a global commons—by upholding the principle of peace, sovereignty, inclusive benefits, and collaboration. It changes the deep sea, polar wastes, outer space, the Internet, and other frontiers into a new territory of cooperation rather than a place for contestation. The way to build a community of shared future for mankind is to seek the greatest common denominator of human values and shape the common values of mankind.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

To explore the international values of President Xi’s speech and the notion of “a community of shared future for mankind” from a cognitive linguistic perspective, this paper applies the deixis construal operation of proximization theory. This case study illustrates the purpose and strategy of international values of “a community of a shared future for mankind” and also demonstrates the general feasibility of proximization theory in critical discourse analysis and the specific explanatory power of its spatial-temporal-axiological (STA) model in value construction. However, the construction of international values through discourse is not an easy task, and might take long time to be accepted by addressees and the general public. Therefore, it is necessary to actively carry out a country-by-country comparative study on the construction of international values through discourse, so as to better understand the differences in national conditions and discourse systems. Studies like this represent an opportunity for more researchers in the field of linguistics to participate in discourse construction studies on international values. As China gradually moves to the center of the world stage, it will surely stand tall in the international community with a more prominent posture and a positive image.

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# Teachers' and Learners' Perceptions toward Using Social Media for Developing Oral Proficiency

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**Abstract**—Social media is one of the most important sources of communication in this technological age which enables the people to share their views and thoughts with other friends, relatives, colleagues, class fellows, and teachers without any problem of distance. Therefore, the main purpose of this study was to highlight the role of social media, and to compare the views of teachers and learners regarding the use of various social media sources in English language learning proficiency at university level. The data for this descriptive study was collected through self-made questionnaire. The participants of this study were two hundred (200) university level English learners and teachers (100 learners and 100 teachers). The outcome of the study showed that the frequent usage of Social media by EFL students as well as teachers constitutes a significant impact on both users. It has also reflected the teachers' readiness to integrate Social media in EFL context by means of a convenient pedagogy. The result of this study showed that both teachers and learners had positive attitude toward using social media in oral proficiency at university level.

**Index Terms**—social media, speaking skill, EFL students, EFL teachers

## I. INTRODUCTION

Internet based life are PC intervened instrument that enable individuals to make, offer or trade data, thoughts, and pictures/recordings with different companions or relatives. Web-based social networking assumes a significant job in this present aggressive and innovative period. There are different devices of Social Media which are generally utilized among the college level develop students like Facebook, WhatsApp, Twitter, and LinkedIn and so forth. It is obvious from the consequences of past research examines and handy perceptions of different dynamic clients of Facebook, WhatsApp and different instruments of internet-based life that it positively affects the English language learning capability at college level. The vast majority of the youthful learners at college level utilize different internet-based life instrument for social association, ubiquity, social relations, and English language learning purposes. Diverse research thinks about ahead of time nations have unmistakably featured the significance of Social Media sources like (Facebook, Twitter, Flickr, LinkedIn, WhatsApp, and Skype). Internet based life assumes a critical job not just in one single ability or competency of English language however assumes an extraordinary job in the four fundamental aptitudes of language for example Tuning in, Speaking, Reading, and Writing and furthermore builds up the jargon and sentence structure competency of English language in a legitimate way. The most significant part of web-based life sources in English language learning is that it makes the EFL students independent to do the act of tuning in, speaking, perusing, and composing at home, in guesthouse, on street or in a shop with no trouble.

Integration of innovation, utilization of different online web-based social networking sources for example (Facebook, Twitter, Flickr, LinkedIn, WhatsApp and Skype) and considering creative showing techniques and learning approaches in recent years invigorated instructors to educate in a considerably more agreeable, persuading and functional learning condition. It is because of this reality students' advantage is restricted to those headings which are available for them without a lot of dedicated and battle like before to peruse diverse course readings in libraries. Presently days the old conventional paper-based techniques for training learning procedure have moved to electronic and advanced innovation to a more noteworthy degree. The vigorous students need to upgrade significant learning while at the same time utilizing new procedures and afterward relate it their genuine lives encounters for instance different internet based life sources like Facebook, Twitter, Flickr, LinkedIn, WhatsApp, and Skype in light of the fact that it encourages Collaboration, cooperation, peer appraisal and furnish reasonable condition of offering data to their group colleagues and companions in the most straightforward conceivable way (Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019; Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, & Ahmadi, 2019).

The significance of this study then is to help EFL learners find the right environment to speak and improve their speaking skills by means of Social media. The work covers also, a variety of creative solutions and ideas concerning using ICTs to enhance the learners speaking proficiency (Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019).

Those learners who are utilizing Social Media and they approach it then they may share subject related data to one another effectively and they can get input from their group colleagues and particularly from those educators who utilize internet-based life sources like Facebook. It is fundamentally learners-focused methodology and helpful for them since they can utilize their very own insight, get new learning, get assistance to express their very own thoughts decisively with their associated educators and instructors.

Concerning the fundamental issue of this examination, it is indispensably essential to make reference to that the speaking expertise of any language is critically vital on the grounds that it fills the need of correspondence which is this language utilizing by all individuals around the globe to share their thoughts and impart by means of a language discourse, particularly, English language discourse which is the most valuable one on the planet. EFL students in Iran are one of those clients of English as an unknown language (Namaziandost and Ahmadi, 2019). They are looking all an opportunity to improve their speaking expertise since English as an unknown language in Algeria is primarily educated as far as language structure and structures. Along these lines, less consideration is payed to the speaking expertise. Along these lines, this need to improve the speaking ability for Iranian EFL students has prompted the utilization of better approaches for innovation so as to stay aware of the occasions. As an issue certainty, they utilize Social media to speak with various individuals around the globe utilizing English as a worldwide language of correspondence. Beginning starting here we have to know whether Social Media effectsly affect EFL students speaking expertise.

Therefore, this study is designed to find answers to two main research questions:

**RQ1.** What are the students' perceptions toward using social media?

**RQ2.** What are the students' perceptions toward using social media?

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

### Introduction

Life is extremely plain and simple by utilizing new innovation. One of the incredible advancements that has changed the world is the Internet and its capacity in giving on the web correspondence. Individuals utilize the online correspondence in doing some normal day by day life exercises like showcasing, interfacing with companions and perusing news. Electronic correspondence and PCs are things individuals or learners need to manage each day. The world is locked in with associations. We are connected to the virtual world in which we invest the greater part of our energy. We are connected to one another by conventional and social associations, for example, relatives just as by physical and situational conditions. We are likewise connected to one another by harmonies, joint encounters and similar perspectives (Nasri, Biria, & Karimi, 2018).

The mind-boggling spread of Social media among students and even instructors substantiated itself as an effective device to training. Thus, most educators accept that the primary point behind learning a language is to talk it easily and precisely which implies that understanding a language ought not really build the presumption that he/she knows the language (Namaziandost, Nasri, & Rahimi Esfahani, 2019; Nasri & Biria, 2017). The student ought to rather achieve an incredible degree of capability in the four language abilities including speaking. In any case, speaking an unknown language isn't a simple errand, and it is unquestionably not as simple as speaking native language. As an answer, numerous researchers accept that the proper utilize and the fruitful reconciliation of ICTs and web-based life in the study hall can lessen the hindrances that forestall EFL students from the dominance of the speaking aptitude.

### A. Speaking Skill

Speaking is a key utilized between individuals to impart in the social setting. Additionally, Speaking is "the way toward structure and sharing importance using verbal and non-verbal images, in an assortment of settings" (Chaney, 1998, p. 13). Brown (1994) and Burns and Joyce (1997) characterize Speaking as a responsive procedure of an organized implying that incorporates accepting and creating and sharing data. In Applied etymological speaking has a lot of depictions; speaking as a social and circumstance-based action and speaking as a communication, (Azadi, Biria, & Nasri, 2018; Thornbory, 2005). Every one of these viewpoints consider addressing be an entire side of student's day by day lives in accepting and creating discourse.

Speaking is a significant language aptitude for students and instructors. Bygate (2002) Sees it as a complex, and staggered aptitude; the intricacy part is clarified by the way that the utilization of speakers' information of the language and enact their capacity is important to do this under genuine circumstances.

Speaking has a critical influence in outside/second language educating learning. It has involved a noteworthy and fragile position entirely through the historical backdrop of language educating. Regardless of its significance, training speaking has been underestimated and it is simply over the most recent two decades that has picked up its entitlement to be an independent<sup>4</sup> part of instructing (Hosseini, Nasri, & Afghari, 2017). Speaking at that point isn't needy just on articulating words. English instructors in this way, committed vital time to speaking as being basic in encouraging the upgrade of English learners' capability.

Speaking, yet is an expertise which merits consideration, the students frequently should probably talk with trust so as to do huge numbers of their most essential exchanges. It is the aptitude by which they are most every now and again judged and through which they may accept or lose open doors throughout everyday life (Namaziandost, Abdi Saray, & Rahimi Esfahani, 2018). It is the vehicle of social solidarity, of social positioning, of expert headway and of business. Maybe at that point, the educating of speaking merits more idea.

#### *B. Issues of the Oral Production Class in the English Department*

One of the real duties of any instructor working with English Language Learners (ELLs) is to empower them to convey adequately through oral language. Instructors worried about training the verbally expressed language for the most part banter completely around one inquiry: for what reason is it unreasonably hard for students to learn oral articulation? To an enormous degree, it is on the grounds that the present oral generation class is instructor focused, in spite of the different endeavors educators make to connect with students in talks and inspire them to talk, the measure of addresses learners has as yet not adequate. Also, the Oral language that learners learn at the homeroom does not help in improving their open capabilities which are for the most part required, all things considered, circumstances. Additionally, Baker and Westrup (2003, p.5) express that: "an learner who can communicate in English well may have more prominent possibility for further instruction, discovering work and picking up advancement".

In a similar line of idea, speaking gives off an impression of being a troublesome ability to create in the EFL classes since learners not just should be decidedly ready in English aptitudes, they need likewise to utilize them to assemble social connections that enable them to cooperate with one another. A contention that supports this view is found in Gutierrez (2005, p.3) proclamation he asserts that: "students regularly should almost certainly speak<sup>7</sup> with trust so as to complete a significant number of their most fundamental exchanges. It is the ability by which they are most much of the time judged, and by which they make or lose companions". Notwithstanding what has been referenced before, numerous different components keep students from arriving at oral articulation capability in class a large portion of which are mental, for example; nervousness and restraint. There are numerous strategies that ought to be settled on by language instructors to improve students' capability in Oral Expression module among which gathering work, pretend and discourses which urge learners to take informative activities (Namaziandost, Saberi Dehkordi, & Shafiee, 2019). Besides, students can't be successful in tomorrow's reality on the off chance that they are prepared in yesterday's ability which implies that the learner who use innovation in pretty much every undertaking of his day by day life should utilize innovation also improve his speaking expertise.

#### *C. Technology and Learning Tools in the EFL Classroom*

Above all else, the most recent two decades have seen fast blasts of data which lead to a pressing need to adapt to the progressing logical increasing speed in all fields. Data upset, which yielded the web, is the most significant mechanical achievement to date. Web empowers individuals to drop separations, abbreviate time, and make the world increasingly like a little electronic screen (Al Musa, 2002; Namaziandost, Abedi, & Nasri, 2019). Likewise, instruction is required to address the issues of this developing logical increasing speed. To put it another way, instruction points and goals in the Third World nations ought to be changed to meet the period's factors, pointing not exclusively to help learners in the subjective area, yet in addition center around their needs to achieve the abilities, limits, and self - dependence to associate with the time's factors and assemble another life dependent on power, not reliance on others (Al Musa & Al Mubarak, 2005; Namaziandost, Abedi, & Nasri, 2019).

Instruction needs to furnish learners with the required devices and aptitudes that make them equipped for managing these new necessities adequately. Consequently, including innovation as an objective in itself in the instructive worldview is never again a benefit; despite what might be expected, it is a critical need (Aziz, Shamim, Aziz, & Avais, 2013). With the expanding dependence on innovation and the requirement for computerized capability, it is normal that the utilization of online innovation to work with second language obtaining is a characteristic side-effect of the changing essence of the instructive world. Confirmations have demonstrated that learners who lead their learning on the web are superior to learners who work in conventional settings for the learning of a subsequent language, as far as their degrees of uneasiness and their requirement for hole mindfulness in their language aptitudes (Akinola, 2015; Pichette, 2009). Studies have additionally demonstrated that the utilization of advances in encouraging languages have an expanded preferred position on the improvement of language structure, jargon, perusing, composing, elocution, tuning in, and speaking skills (Haigh, 2010; Levy, 2009; Namaziandost & Shafiee, 2018).

#### *D. Social Media*

The importance of the term 'Web based life' can be gotten from two words that are 'social' and 'Systems'. The main term is 'Social' which means associated with society and the manner in which it is sorted out, in which they meet and invest energy with other individuals. The subsequent one is Networks which implies: a gathering of at least two PC frameworks connected together (Eren, 2012; Beal, 2015; Namaziandost, Sabzevari, & Hashemifardnia, 2018).

Online networking is a present marvel that incorporates both electronic correspondence with Internet clients through sites and collaboration with others by means of mobile phones. It is evident that training industry worldwide is amidst an upset brought about by the advancing advances, for example, the web 2.0 and the approach of web 3.0 enabling learners to make content, trade thoughts and offer learning. To such an extent that over the most recent couple of years

there has been broad exchange and warmed discussion investigating web-based life in diary articles and meetings. Quite a bit of this discourse has concentrated on building up a clearer comprehension of the capacities of such innovation as another stage for upgrading students' autonomous learning and the amount Social media has yielded as scholarly accomplishment and whether it could be utilized as new academic devices outside or even inside the study hall. Simultaneously, the pervasive nearness of web-based social networking has pulled in scientists to examine both positive perspectives and worries of utilizing such instruments in different settings offering new and different methods for utilizing PCs or/and cell phones (Hashemifardnia, Namaziandost, & Rahimi Esfahani, 2018; Paliktzoglou & Suhonen, 2014).

As training organizations are grasping web-based social networking there is a need to streamline the constructive outcome of such advancements to carry them into teaching method to make guidance and learning dynamic and relevant to the digital condition of the new thousand years. As of late, increasingly more training foundations are making a nearness in Social media, for example, Blogs, Twitter, YouTube, Facebook to make powerful ways for the foundation of synergistic and intelligent web-based learning framework. Along these lines, innovation driven culture is highlighting conspicuously in every educational action. Henceforth, the focal point of learning and guidance should be seen from a more up to date viewpoint "without social occasion learners and instructors in the same physical space" (Aloraini, 2012; Maney, 2009).

Internet based life with its different sorts could be considered as a cure as these materials can possibly pull in the learners by being adaptable, engaging, and intuitive and give an astounding opportunity to students to convey what needs be in a fearless manner. For sure, the utilization of Social media as a device to improve learners' tuning in and speaking/informative aptitudes would locate an eager welcome from the students' part as it goes hand to hand with their interests (Gibbins & Greenhow, 2016; Hashemifardnia, Namaziandost, & Sepehri, 2018). As Social media have entered so profoundly in our lives, it is immensely essential to break down the sorts and nature of every mean.

### III. METHODOLOGY

#### A. *The Population*

The present research work is a survey study involving both EFL teachers (N=80) and students (N=120) at Islamic Azad universities of Iran. A survey design is defined by (Dana Lynn Driscoll, 2011) as a study "where you can gather information about people's beliefs or behaviors; the information you collect is not first-hand (like an observation) but rather self-reported data" Consequently, opting for a survey design to figure out the influence of Social media on EFL learners can be more appropriate especially with combining both qualitative and quantitative approaches; this last will help to seek more reliable and valid results from both teachers and students.

The research was conducted at the department of Foreign Languages (English section) at Islamic Azad universities of Iran. The researcher deals with a sample of population consisting of both EFL teachers (N=100) and students (N=100) during the academic year 2018/2019. This research aims at drawing interest from both EFL teachers and learners to make use of Social media as an attempt to raise awareness about its great effects in shaping the students' oral proficiency, and also to spark their interest in learning speaking.

##### 1. Teachers

In the present study, the questionnaire was administrated to one-hundred (100) teachers from the department of English at the Islamic Azad universities of Iran. There has been an underlying reason for making EFL teachers involved in the research population because teachers play an intensive role, on the one hand they can be regarded as direct observers of the phenomenon and can evaluate students' oral proficiency during the course, on the other hand they can simply be engaged in oral discussions with learners through the use of Social media and this will show how Social media influence the students' level of speaking. The teachers taking part in this study hold either the degree of 'Doctorate' or 'Magister' most of them were experienced teachers who taught different modules.

##### 2. Students

The choice of the sample of the students was based on the observation that was done by the researchers, where we observe the WhatsApp, Facebook, and Telegram groups that are created by students of the department of English at the universities of Iran from all the different levels and specialties. In these groups, students are sharing and discussing course-related materials with their classmates. Therefore, the present study took place in the Department of English at Islamic Azad universities of Iran. The participants were 100 students of English randomly selected as a sample population for the present study. They belonged to different levels from First year to master two students. The main aim behind this blend was to gather as much points of view about the use of Social media and examine their attitudes towards them and for a greater extent to derive from learners a variety of creative ideas on how to better use Social media to improve speaking.

#### B. *Research Instruments*

It is often assumed that "the backbone of any survey study is the instrument used for collecting data" (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011) therefore, the researcher has opted for the use of two questionnaires one intended for teachers and the other for students, basically the same questions were asked with a slight difference in the style.

##### Questionnaire

The essence of any scientific research is the attempt made to find out answers to questions in a systematic manner. Yet, questionnaires in their various kinds are of the most common methods in collecting data in Foreign Language research and have attracted a worldwide interest among researchers. In the same vain Dornyei (2003, p.3) states: "Questionnaires are certainly the most often employed data collection devices in statistical work".

The questionnaire is addressed to EFL students and Teachers aiming at analyzing to which extent Social media impact the students' speaking skill and which strategies can be undertaken in order to integrate Social media in educational institutions such as university. Eight questions were included and different types of questions were used starting from open-ended and close-ended to multiple choice questions.

IV. RESULTS

A. Analysis of Teachers' Questionnaire

The questionnaire is addressed to ten EFL teachers. It mainly aims at reporting their ideas concerning the use of Social media among learners and teachers as well. In addition to that, its basic purpose is to show their impressions about how Social media contribute in shaping the students' speaking skills. This questionnaire includes eight questions that will be analyzed and presented as shown below.

TABLE I.  
TEACHERS' ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

<b>Question 1. How often do you use Social media?</b>			
Frequency of Use	Absolute Frequency	Percentage	
Always	55	55 %	
Sometimes	35	35 %	
Rarely	5	5 %	
Never	5	5 %	
<b>Question 2. Have you ever used Social media for educational purposes? If yes, How?</b>			
Frequency of Use	Absolute Frequency	Percentage	
Yes	80	80 %	
No	20	20 %	
<b>Question 3. Do you get in touch with learners through the use of Social media?</b>			
The use of S.N to communicate with learners	Absolute Frequency	Percentage	
Always	14	14 %	
Sometimes	76	76 %	
Rarely	3	3 %	
Never	7	7 %	
<b>Question 4. Among the different types of social media, there are social media that are mostly based on oral communication such as Skype, WhatsApp or Telegram. As a teacher do you use one of these to get in touch with learners or native speakers? If yes, which one is your favorite?</b>			
The Social Media	Number	Percentage	
Skype	8	8 %	
WhatsApp	51	51 %	
Telegram	39	39 %	
None	2	2 %	
<b>Question 5. Which language is mostly used when using these tools?</b>			
The Language Used	Absolute Frequency	Percentage	
Mother Tongue	13	13 %	
English	84	85 %	
Arabic	2	2 %	
None of the languages	1	0%	
<b>Question 6. To what extent can Skype, WhatsApp or Telegram be helpful to students? and why?</b>			
The Influence	Absolute Frequency	Percentage	Reasons
High	24	24 %	Because they practice the language.
Medium	72	72 %	Because Social media represent a motivating and helpful environment.
Low	4	4 %	Because students need face to face interaction.

The primary inquiry targets discovering to what degree instructors are connected to Social media and how frequently do they use them. In view of Table 1, The lion's share spoken to by five instructors utilize Social media consistently, while three of them use them here and there and just two educators have never utilized Social media. The subsequent inquiry was intended to decide the quantity of instructors utilizing Social media for instructive purposes. The principle point behind this inquiry is to find how educators utilize Social media to accomplish any instructive objectives. (80%) of instructors affirm that they utilize Social media for instructive purposes, for example, sharing talks, distributing helpful connections or sending messages to partners or learners, while just a single educator utilized Social media to

give addresses. The staying (20%) accept that Social media can all the more likely be utilized for different reasons. The appropriate responses concerning this inquiry uncovered that in spite of the way that most instructors utilize Social media to accomplish instructive objectives, just few of them use them to give addresses or perform oral discussions with students. As to third question, the method of reasoning of this inquiry is to make sense of if educators profit by Social media at the degree of imparting data and thoughts with EFL students. The discoveries of this inquiry uncover that (76%) of educators now and again utilize Social media to speak with students in issues bound to be identified with training while (7%) have never utilized them to speak with students. Being referred to four, knowing which Social media educators lean toward is a definitive objective of such an inquiry. Instructors and even students may have diverse Social media to utilize when they look for oral correspondence in this manner, it is imperative to our examination to know which Social media positions the best among EFL educators. The outcomes demonstrate that WhatsApp is the most utilized Social media among educators with (51%) while (39%) of them are utilizing Telegram. Instructors have settled on their decisions dependent on various criteria that describe every Social media. Question five is regulated trying to know which language is being utilized by educators when utilizing Social media and furthermore to check whether instructors are utilizing these Social media to contribute in the entire field of training. The outcome signifies the astounding control of English over different languages being used, explore demonstrates that most educators spoke to with (84%) utilize English as the fundamental Language in oral correspondence, while Mother Tongue is positioned second with (13%) of use. (1%) of instructors express that they don't utilize any language and their utilization is altogether latent. To wrap things up, the utilization of Arabic language with just (2%). Question six is structured trying to know the instructors' perspective about the primary issue of the entire research which is the impact of Social media on the learners speaking expertise; it likewise incorporates an open door for educators to legitimize their assessments. As needs be, the outcomes show that the general number of instructors accept that Social media do affect the learners' degree of speaking. As the outcomes appear, seven instructors estimated the impact at medium level ascribing their decision to the spurring and helping condition that Social media give. What's more, twenty-four instructors guarantee that Social media have a high impact since they speak to a plentiful chance to rehearse the language and in this manner improve the speaking ability. Then again, there is just four educator who goes with the possibility that the impact is low and scarcely existing since Social media don't give up close and personal communication and thusly, the constructive impact is extremely low.

#### *B. Analysis of the Students' Questionnaire*

This questionnaire is mainly designed to diagnose the students' use of Social media and its impact on the students speaking skill. After treatment of the teachers' questionnaire, the present section is devoted to the analysis of the data collected from the students' questionnaire. All 100 students answered this questionnaire for the sake of obtaining as much as various data available. The questionnaire consisted of six questions and each one will be treated separately as follow:

TABLE II.  
STUDENTS' ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

<b>Question 1. Do you use Social media?</b>		
The use	Absolute Frequency	Percentage
Always	82	82 %
Sometimes	16	16 %
Rarely	2	2 %
Never	0	0 %
<b>Question 2. Have you ever used Social media for educational purposes? If yes, How?</b>		
The influence	Absolute Frequency	Percentage
A lot	71	71 %
A little	27	21 %
Not at all	0	0 %
I don't know	2	2 %
<b>Question 3. Among the different existing Social media there are, those which can be used in oral communication such as Skype, WhatsApp or Telegram, do you use any of them? If yes which one is your favorite?</b>		
The Social Media	Number	Percentage
Skype	1	1 %
WhatsApp	69	69 %
Telegram	29	29 %
None	1	1 %
<b>Question 4. Which language do you use when doing so?</b>		
The Language Used	Absolute Frequency	Percentage
Mother Tongue	21	21 %
English	78	78 %
Other languages	1	1 %
<b>Question 5. Have you ever used Social media to talk with native speakers of English around the world?</b>		
The use	Number	Percentage
Yes	77	77 %
No	33	33 %
<b>Question 6. To what extent do you think these types of Social media can help to improve students' speaking skills?</b>		
The Influence	Absolute Frequency	Percentage
High	82	82 %
Medium	18	18 %
Low	0	0 %

The primary inquiry has been posed for two fundamental reasons the first is to connect with the member in the theme so he/she builds a past learning about what is coming next of inquiries. Furthermore, to realize how far learners are connected to Social media. Most of members (eighty-two) making up (82%) expressed that they generally utilize Social media, while just sixteen learners making (16%) expressed that their utilization of Social media isn't a need and in this manner, they use them just now and then. As to second question, it is significant for the analyst to know the learners' point of view about the impact of Social media just on the grounds that they speak to a successful part in the marvel. The outcomes have demonstrated that most learners seventy-two, making up (72 %) accept that Social media do impact a great deal the learners' level, while twenty-seven learners making up (27%) asserted that the impact is unpretentious and have little impact, other than this, lone two learners did not have an answer. The third inquiry was routed to EFL learners to know which Social media is generally utilized or supported by learners. The appropriate responses concerning this inquiry have uncovered that WhatsApp is the most supported Social media between learners making up (69%) of clients, while Telegram involved the second most utilized Social media with twenty-nine learners making up (29%). Skype then again positioned the third with one client making up (1%), while just a single learner guaranteed they don't utilize any. Question four is formulated to decide the language that learners for the most part use when utilizing Social media. This inquiry is basic to the exploration work. It demonstrates its essentialness to the extent English is concerned. The examination has shown that seventy-eight learners making up (78 %) utilize English as the principle language for oral correspondence in Social media while twenty-one learners making up (21 %) pick the Mother tongue. Also, one learner making up (1%) utilizes different languages. A few learners picked more than one decision which implies that they move from one language to the next as per the speakers' need. Behind inquiry five, the scientist planned to know the degree to which learners of English are utilizing Social media by having oral discussions with local speakers. The outcomes have shown that sixty-seven learners making up (77 %) have had the chance to address local speakers on the web, while just nine making up (23%) learners did not experience the experience. By the inquiry 6th, the specialist needed to know EFL learners' frames of mind and thoughts towards the work of Social media in instructive fields to improve speaking ability. Most of learners making up (82%) imagine that Social media do improve the speaking capability to a high degree, while (18 %) of learners asserted that the improvement is medium since the procedure is at the danger of causing numerous weaknesses.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As a matter of first importance, it merits saying that educators at the college are aware of the headway and advancement of correspondence and innovation and its presumption to the field of instruction, and what makes this

genuine is the regular utilization of Social media by instructors who will in general distribute instructive connections and offer information with their learners. In addition, the advantage picked up from Social media is reliant, and contrasts starting with one instructor then onto the next, in the equivalent vain just couple of educators utilize Social media for web-based addressing. Furthermore, WhatsApp and Telegram have very huge prevalence among educators in correlation with other Social media. In this way, their utilization includes for the most part associates and not learners. Moreover, educators put stock in the impact of Social media supporting their point of view with the way that Social media offer the learners the chance to rehearse the language because of the inspiring and accommodating condition it gives. Another key thing to recall is that instructors view Virtual Classroom as an exceptionally fruitful encounter and would upgrade the learner learning and speaking capacities through the discussions directed with local speakers of English. So also, educators do concur that Social media can be utilized at college to improve speaking and tuning in too. The primary test, in any case, lies at the academic procedures that ought to be followed so as to actualize Social media and how they can best be utilized, also the accessibility of vital gear.

The serious utilization of Social media by learners ought not be taken a gander at just as a negative procedure. To put it another way, Social media has turned into a day by day propensity among learners and the incorporation of online discussions in English class ought to give an environment of pleasure just as keep the learner in the correct way towards improving his/her very own abilities. Learners on their part know about the impact of Social media. They use them for different purposes extending from instruction to correspondence and diversion. Fundamentally, if these reasons for existing were accomplished in the objective language (English) the learners' capability in speaking would observe a wonderful advancement. WhatsApp and Telegram have enormous notoriety among learners and this bodes well since Messenger is an extra device and associated with the most utilized Social media everywhere throughout the world that is Facebook. The exploration has uncovered that English is the most utilized language among learners when utilizing Social media with a difficult level of utilization of primary language also and perhaps that is actually the motivation behind why the improvement is seen with Virtual Classroom learners and not with different learners. In the Virtual Classroom, the utilization of Social media is guided and led to talk just English and not different languages. In an inquiry intended for learners about the utilization of Social media to improve speaking most learners respected the idea and guaranteed its viability in learning. In like manner, learners accept that addressing local speakers is the best technique to profit by Social media notwithstanding executing them in research and correspondence.

Improving the speaking aptitude is a hard errand for unknown language students. It requires some technique and experience to create the language carefully and comprehend the expected implications of different speakers. As per numerous educators the most ideal approach to do that is; to empower some new systems inside or outside the study hall, since students don't utilize unknown language as often as possible in their day by day life outside the study hall (Alexiou & Fotini, 2010; Namaziandost & Nasri, 2019; Namaziandost, Rahimi Esfahani, Nasri, & Mirshekaran, 2018). Our investigation has been centered around the adequacy of the utilization of Social media to improve EFL students speaking expertise. Along these lines, this investigation was made out of two sections (Theoretical, Practical part). The hypothetical part was a review on Social media, and the Speaking expertise, including the primary titles and sorts of every factor so as to give an unmistakable thought regarding every one and the connection between them. The down to earth some portion of this examination was an investigation so as to affirm the outcomes that have been acquired from the two learners and instructors' survey. The discoveries went connected at the hip with our speculation which stress that students will upgrade their speaking ability on the off chance that they utilize Social media in a proper manner.

The point of this examination was to research if there are any constructive outcomes or impact of Social media on EFL students speaking aptitude and decide to what degree Social media can be an aide for the educators to improve their courses of speaking exercises so as to urge their students to take an interest and improve their speaking ability, in light of the fact that most of learners need to utilize these guides in the study hall constantly so as to stay away from the exhausted investigation and make them spurred to take part in speaking exercises.

Most importantly, it merits clarifying that Social media can't be viewed uniquely as an engaging apparatus, they rather assume a primary job in the field of training and research, the nearness of Social media has changed a portion of the angles in the educator and the student jobs towards lucidity and adaptability and along these lines, teachers might anticipate actualize various instructional methods in order to stay aware of the mechanical headways.

The present segment is altogether committed to express some potential proposals and recommendations with respect to the work of Social media as a learning material to create learners' speaking capacities. EFL instructors then again need to allocate their students with assignments that help them convey and learn with each other. Moreover, innovation may be an advantageous way to satisfy such objective. The general discoveries of the present examination uncovered that the utilization of Social media is getting to be more extensive and more extensive among students just as instructors. The two of them utilize it in various fields to accomplish various objectives including instructive ones. Other than the way that Social media give time and abbreviate the separations, they make a loosening up setting for students to talk unreservedly and express their thoughts with no dread of shame or absence of certainty. In this manner, they help the students to conquer many speaking challenges and lift their speaking expertise.

To entirety up, this all-encompassing article has prompted reason that EFL educators ought to think about the convenience of Social media in advanced education without disregarding the commitment of the conventional strategies and methods. The reconciliation of Social media in EFL setting will give access to expand the language exercises and



considerably more, to upgrade the learner's inspiration to master speaking which is accepted to be the fundamental factor that does not have the customary homeroom. Without a sorry excuse for uncertainty, the successive correspondence with local speakers around the globe by methods for Social media would improve the learner speaking just as listening aptitudes. In this way, it turned into a need to give innovation a considerable amount of significance in EFL setting.

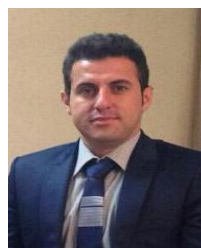
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# Multiple Dimensions of Effective Assessment in Graded College English Teaching Classroom\*

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**Abstract**—Teaching assessment refers to the process of assessing the teaching effect and implementation of the teaching goal, it aims to make corresponding value judgment through systematic detection and assessment of teaching activities according to certain teaching criteria. An effective teaching assessment not only brings teachers feedback and improves the teaching administration, but also provides students with an effective means to optimize the learning strategies to achieve better learning efficiency and desired effects. So a comprehensive and accurate assessment is of vital significance to propel the course goals into accomplishment. In college English graded teaching practice, it is prerequisite to adhere to the assessment principle of development and diversification of assessment dimensions in order to arrive at an effective classroom evaluation.

**Index Terms**—college English, effective teaching, graded teaching, assessment principles, dimensions of assessment

## I. INTRODUCTION

Classroom is the forum where the teachers and students communicate with each other intellectually and emotionally. In classroom, teachers present science information and preach concepts of value, and students acquire knowledge, train skills and improve their own minds simultaneously. Generally speaking, classroom instruction is a process to arouse students' motivation and help them to arrive at the teaching goals with proper teaching methods. So classroom instruction is the central part in the whole teaching process, which is the important guarantee of achieving teaching objectives (Wang & An, 2012). In order to monitor how well teaching objectives go, we employ strategies of classroom assessment into teaching practice. Teaching assessment itself is fundamentally a judgement of value, involving teaching, learning, teaching quality and spiritual effect (Lu, Liang & Shen, 2012), it is to use a wide variety of methods or tools to measure and evaluate the teaching qualities, learning progress, or educational needs of learners. Only by means of assessment, can teachers identify students' strengths as well as weakness in study. Meanwhile, as an ongoing process through teaching activities, assessment can not only motivate students in study and help adjust the learning strategies to improve their learning efficiency, but also bring about backwash effects to teachers so as to purposefully regulate teaching activities and ensure the teaching quality.

The course of college English, as a required basic part of higher learning, aims to develop students' ability to use English language, at the same time improve their autonomously learning ability and enhance their general cultural awareness and comprehensive artistic appreciation, so as to satisfy the needs of social and individual development (Ministry of education, 2017). Considering personal difference and various individual needs as well as the regional imbalance of education, college English follows the principle of graded teaching and guidance for different levels of students according to their aptitudes. As a practical teaching way, college English graded teaching centers on the course's global objectives of accumulating students' knowledge, broadening views of eyesight, improving critical thinking ability and molding characters (Han, 2012). In the practical teaching procedures, college English teachers undertake the tasks to provide appropriate studying materials, stimulate students' learning interest, work out the confusing problems, construct appropriate learning strategies and offer chances for students to make presentations of what they think and what they do (Shu, 2011). So assessments of college English class would be conducted from multiple perspectives, it can't be narrowed down to the means of pencil-paper testing of English language and language skills as before. A scientific college English classroom assessment, which can reflect the pros and cons of teachers' cognition and teaching behaviors, curriculum designs and students' learning behaviors, is supposed to be set up on the basis of testing methods and non-testing methods, it is objective, comprehensive and multidimensional.

## II. THEORETICAL BASIS OF EFFECTIVE COLLEGE ENGLISH GRADED TEACHING

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Teaching is what the teacher inspires and promotes the students into doing. It works on three premises that the teacher can arouse the students' internal motives, designate the learning objectives and impart studying contents, and present what he teaches in a proper way. Classroom assessment aims to check the effective implementation of teaching objectives, therefore, teaching should firstly be genuine and effective practice so as to make sure of effective assessments.

#### A. Definition of Effective Teaching

The effective teaching is a dynamic concept, the connotation of which is enriched with the changing values of education and teaching theories (Huang, 2014). Influenced by American practical philosophy and behavioral psychology, the notion of effective teaching originated from the foreign educational scientific movement in the first half of twentieth century, claiming that education is more than an art, that it is a science grounded with scientific basis and objective research methods (Cui, 2001). So from then on, people began to focus attention on teaching procedures, behavioral conducts and teaching effects from the aspects of classroom observation and teaching assessment. But up to now, there still comes no fixed definition to effective teaching. Dunner & Wragg (2005) stated that effective teaching is to teach students to acquire facts, skills, values and beliefs, what is more, it is a process that can be controlled and adjusted with objective assessment from teachers, students and administrators. The domestic scholar argued that effective teaching is a teaching concept conforming to teaching laws, which is characteristic with effect, benefit and efficiency (Yao, 2004). Personally speaking, effective teaching, as a teaching and learning practice, is supposed to contribute to students' physical, intellectual, mental or psychological development and progress. How well students make progresses in a period of study is the decisive criteria to judge whether the teaching practice is effective or not.

#### B. Typical Theories of College English Graded Teaching

In the 1980s, the great British educator, J. Harmer argued in his *Balanced Theory of Foreign Language Teaching* that, in order to achieve effective language teaching result, teachers should choose the teaching materials on the basis of analysis of what the students need to satisfy their demands (Ma, 2001). Almost in the same period, Vygotsky (1978), founder of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) put another theory that there is a gap between what a student can do independently and what he can potentially do with the help of a "more knowledgeable other", so the effective teaching and learning state is where students remain close to developing the new skill or knowledge with teachers' assistance and encouragement. To ensure that students are learning in the circle of their zone of proximal development, teachers are supposed to provide new curriculum for students to work slightly beyond their present skills. Graded college English teaching practice groups the students into different levels according to their individual difference of cognition, and teachers design and organize targeted classes for different levels, so that most students can be kept at the stage of Comprehensive Input ( $i+1$ ) in terms of Input Hypothesis theory. In other words, the language which learners are exposed to should be just far enough beyond their current competence that they can understand most of it but still be challenged to make progress, the corollary to this is that input should neither be so beyond their reach that they are overwhelmed ( $i+2$ ) nor so close to their current stage that they are not challenged at all ( $i+0$ ) (Brown, 2001).

Graded teaching conforms to the law of human cognition and parallels with individual physical and psychological developments of students, it is apt to achieve good teaching results. So college English graded teaching is kind of effective teaching which is closely related to comprehensive competence of teachers, teaching strategies, students' motivation and autonomous learning abilities, curriculum design and teaching environment (such as the equipment of multimedia, administration of teaching etc). When it comes to evaluation of such teaching practice, assessment of it should start from the teaching objectives and syncretize multiple dimensions in the teaching practice, especially focus assessing attention on teaching dimension, learning dimension and design of curriculum (Wang & An, 2012).

### III. EFFECTIVE ASSESSMENT PRINCIPLES OF COLLEGE ENGLISH GRADED TEACHING

Classroom assessment differs from summative tests and other forms of student assessment because it is aimed at course improvement, rather than at assigning grades. The primary goal is to better understand students' learning situation and improve teaching quality. As an approach, it means that the more you know about what and how students are learning, the better you can plan to structure your teaching activities. As a set of techniques, classroom assessments can provide short-term feedback about learning and teaching process with low investment of time, and then encourage the view that teaching is a formative process that evolves over time with feedback. For students, more frequent use of classroom assessments helps to better monitor their own learning. So classroom assessment undoubtedly should be formative assessment, it follows the following principles.

#### A. Student-centered Assessment Principle

The student-centered assessment principle doesn't mean that everything is finished by students in the process of the assessment. When conducting classroom assessment of college English graded teaching, we check to see whether students are considered to be the main part in the teaching process. Is the class student-centered? Is the teaching objective aimed for students' intellectual and liberal developments? The student-centered class usually presents a picture that students are actively participating in the teaching activities rather than passively listening in to the teachers

in class. What teachers do is to purposefully lead students to learn to learn how to demonstrate what students have thought and understood. Of course, the student-centered principle also requires that students are assessment users. Students are also one of important subjects of assessment, they are not only practitioners of self-assessment and peer assessment, but also the most important consumers of assessment results.

### B. Diverse-means Assessment Principle

Assessment is a quite broad term covering efforts on the part of teachers or students to arrive at some conclusions on the ground of performance. A complete foreign language classroom assessment is composed of testing means and non-testing means (Genesee & Upshur, 1996). Traditional teaching evaluation is narrowly confined to test, it constitutes quite salient subset within complete assessment system. As to recording the development of language skill and ability, non-testing means of assessment can produce much more washback effect. The popular forms of non-testing alternative assessments include portfolios, journals, conferences, observations and so on (Brown, 2007).

1. A **portfolio** is a “purposeful collection of students’ work that demonstrates to students and others their efforts, progress, and achievements in given areas” (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, p.99). Portfolios include essays, compositions, book reports, artwork, videotape or audiotape recordings of oral production. When using assessment of portfolio, teachers should specify the purpose, collect and return them promptly, and help students process the teachers’ feedback.

2. A **journal writing** has the purposes of language-learning logs, grammar discussions, response to readings, self-assessment, reflections on attitudes and feelings about oneself. Journal writing is a dialogue between student and teacher, it affords a unique opportunity for a teacher to offer various kinds of feedback to learners. Using journals as assessment demands carefully specified, systematic approach, needing guidelines similar to those recommended for portfolios.

3. **Conferencing** has the advantage of allowing one-on-one interaction between teachers and students such that the specific needs of a student can receive direct feedback. Through conference, a teacher can assume the role of a facilitator and guide, the student can feel the teacher is an ally who is encouraging self-reflection in the intrinsically motivating atmosphere.

4. Assessment of **observations** can become systematic, planned procedures for real-time, almost surreptitious recording of student verbal and nonverbal behavior. An effective teacher has the ability to observe as they perform and know a lot about his students without ever administering a test or a quiz. With stable and continuous observations, his evaluation on the students has moderate practicality and reliability.

### C. Multi-objectives Assessment Principle

It is true that the purpose of teaching evaluation can not only be limited to evaluation of subject content, more exactly examine whether or not developing certain value concepts. College English teaching classrooms not only impart language knowledge, develop language skills, but more importantly cultivate students’ scientific thinking to acquire independent learning and researching skills, so that students have both language literacy and humanistic qualities. The objectives of college English classroom assessment covers knowledge accumulation, skill training and formation of value concepts (Huang, 2009). Therefore, in time of observing and evaluating a college English class, the conclusion of the assessment depends on whether the students’ cognitive abilities get developed, whether language skills are trained and improved, whether learning strategies are cultivated, and whether emotional attitudes or humanistic spirits are positively formed and uplifted (Zhu & Zhu, 2012).

## IV. ASSESSMENT DIMENSIONS IN COLLEGE ENGLISH GRADED TEACHING CLASSROOM

The modern theory of constructivism advocates that knowledge and meaning is created on the basis upon learners’ experiences rather than directional instruction from teachers. So Harmer (2000) insisted that effective English teaching has three tasks, *engaging*, *studying* and *activating* (ESA). In detail, the task of “*engaging*” means arousing students’ learning interests and enthusiasm, which requires teachers of great language and teaching competence; “*studying*” refers to learning activities of the meaningful materials, and this involves students’ learning strategies and choice of studying contents; and “*activating*” includes all of the language study practices, such as role-plays, debates, speech contests, etc. Richards (2001) argued that teachers’ training experience and their teaching ability, the appropriate teaching patterns all together contribute to teaching effectiveness. From Harmer’s ESA theory and Richards’ opinion, we know teaching is a systematic and comprehensive project, the assessment of which develops from multiple dimensions.

### A. From Dimension of the Teachers’ Qualities

Classroom teaching activities reflect the teacher’s comprehensive qualities in a certain degree. Cai Jiandong (2001) stated that teachers are supposed to have qualities of accumulating profound major knowledge, understanding laws of education, sharpening noble moral qualities and lofty spiritual realm so as to become a model for others. A college English teacher **firstly** must have excellent professional qualities, he should be proficient to hear clearly, speak fluently, read adeptly, write smoothly and translate freely. Additionally, he must command a lot of cross-cultural knowledge, linguistic knowledge and English teaching methodology. **Secondly**, college English teachers will improve

understanding of the educational concepts, playing the roles as educators rather than pedagogues. A pedagogue only teaches knowledge and skills to make a living, while an educator focuses on the formation of students' personality, ideological and moral character, civilized behavior and individual all-round development. **Thirdly**, good political and ideological qualities are equally important for college English teachers. Foreign language teachers shoulder the mission of disseminating culture which is a concentrated expression of a country's politics, religion, customs and other aspects. It is required that teachers have a clear political standpoint to preach healthy and positive concepts of value to students. **Fourthly**, the author believes that teachers take serious attitudes towards the classroom teaching activities. With responsible attitudes, the teachers will make careful and scientific preparations, then they will also deal with classroom activities with full emotions and much passion.

#### *B. From Dimension of Course Design*

A course design is made up of teaching objectives and steps to achieve them. In a broad view, a course design is a purposeful, planned and structured systematic activity that produces teaching plans, curriculum syllabus and teaching materials. A successful course design is based on the careful analysis of the setting, the audience, and needs of the students (Richards, 2001). When designing a course, teachers should make clear what is the most important information students should learn and remember from this course (facts and other kinds of knowledge)? What are the most important ideas that students should understand after taking this course (theories, approaches, perspectives)? What are the most important skills that students should develop in this course (laboratory skills, problem-solving skills, creative skills, writing skills, etc.)? Narrowly speaking, the course design refers to a lesson planning which ensures how to make an implementation of a specific unit.

College English graded teaching in the author's university has grouped non-English majors into different levels, that is, the below-average level, average level, and above-average level, so all the college English courses should be fully individual-oriented, with consideration for the students from different starting points, so that students who start from lower levels will be well taken care of while students whose English is better will find room for further development. Moreover, the college English course design is to construct three different hierarchies with combination of required and elective courses aiming for improvements of language skills and English of specialty, so as to develop students' ability to use English little by little. Therefore, eye on college course assessment should find out whether the course design satisfies the hierarchic needs of students at different levels and whether the students make improvements in their abilities to use English after receiving appropriate knowledge and language skill training practices.

#### *C. From Dimension of Students' Engagement in Class*

In education, student engagement refers to the degree of attention, curiosity, interest, optimism, and passion that students show when they are learning or being taught, which extends to the level of motivation they have to learn and progress in their education. Generally speaking, the concept of "student engagement" is predicated on the belief that learning improves when students are inquisitive, interested, or inspired, and that learning tends to suffer when students are bored, dispassionate, disaffected, or otherwise "disengaged."<sup>①</sup> If we compare students' classroom engagement to a cube, the length of the "cube" refers to the time span of student engagement in class; the breadth of the cube stands for the number of attentive participants in class, and the depth can be thought to be "thinking level" of the engagement. As we know, the result to multiply the length, breadth and depth of the cube together just comes to the volume of the cube, which exactly reflects the students' initiative and enthusiasm to engage in learning. The larger the volume is, the better the students' classroom engagement proves to be. Of course, the factors of influencing student engagement and its implication are various and complicated. But anyway in a degree, the more actively students engage in class, the more successful a class shall be.

The student engagement in college English graded teaching classrooms can mirror the appropriateness of teaching materials, lesson designs, teaching methods and teachers' personal qualities (rich knowledge, moral nobleness, good language expression, affable character etc.). The class with active student engagement denotes that the teacher usually selects proper and interesting studying materials for different levels of the learners, connecting English learning with the students' majors, combining study of the abstract English language elements with language speakers' culture; it also indicates that the teacher works as a director rather than a broadcaster in class and manages to be familiar with the status quo of the class to design various classroom activities to mobilize the enthusiasm of different levels of students. Such class is characteristic with cooperative learning or group learning strategy, and students have more opportunities to listen, speak, read and write. At the same time, the learners lower their anxiety to perform in class because they can prepare in pairs or groups in advance, thus improving the learners' self-confidence, self-esteem and interest in language learning. On the contrary, the poor student engagement, with the symptoms of being absent-minded, uninterested, stressed and anxious, results from the boring class which is completely demonstrated in the monotonous lecture-based teaching method. Teachers sweat to speak, and students struggle to keep awake because of insufficient or no interactions between two sides. Such kind of classes are usually of low validity.

Surely enough, there still exist other evaluation dimensions besides the above three main parts, such as the learning environment, the administrative regulations, etc. Dimensions of the assessment can also be called objects of assessment,

① <https://www.edglossary.org/student-engagement/>

in teaching practice if we hope to get an relatively objective assessment of the dimensions, it counts that multiple subjects of assessment, namely students, colleagues, experts etc., all together get involved in the evaluation of each dimension to comprehensively arrive at an effective assessment conclusion.

#### V. SUMMARY

Classroom teaching assessment is not only an integral part of the teaching process, but also a teaching monitoring mechanism. It has the functions of guidance, encouragement, feedback and adjustment for teaching and learning. The biggest goal of it is to improve teaching practice and promote students' development. In college English classroom, the earlier assessment has put much more emphasis on the teachers' language competence and organization of the class, and paid less attention to other factors. Just as a Chinese proverb goes, a handsome man conceals all ugliness (一俊遮百丑). It seems as if a class is marvelous only if the teacher can speak good English. Actually, an effective classroom assessment derives from all-round evaluation of teacher's professional competence, curriculum design and student classroom engagement. In detail, the assessment bases on the indexes of the pre-class preparation, teaching morals, teaching objectives, classroom management, teaching methods, teaching content, course features and student development of knowledge, emotion and skills etc. Therefore, assessment of college English graded teaching classrooms should emphasize the diversification of assessing contents and the dynamic assessment process, attach much importance to the assessment of college English classroom teaching process and evaluate the learners' changes from the perspective of development, so as to realize the maximum benefits of assessment and achieve the purpose of promoting individual development and improvement.

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# Multidimensional Reading of *Snow White* in China

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**Abstract**—To introduce Chinese scholars' reading of the American novel, *Snow White*, to the outside world, three representative analyses, among others—to which the theoretical vehicles of deconstruction, intertextuality and cognitive narratology are applied—are individually presented in detail. In the progress of their analyses they take the novel's ancient counterpart, the fairy tale (*Snow White and the Seven Dwarfs*), as object for deconstruction, benchmark and background respectively. The old story thus remains an indispensable source to decipher the multiple layers of meaning of the postmodern novel.

**Index Terms**—intertextuality, cognitive narrative, deconstructionism

## I. INTRODUCTION

*Snow White* is a 19<sup>th</sup>-century German fairy tale well-known across the world. It was first published in 1812 by the Brothers Grimm. One and a half centuries later in 1965, American postmodernist experimental author Donald Barthelme published a novel entitled the same and gained popularity. Since then, his novel had been studied by generations of readers worldwide. At the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, Chinese readers started to interpret it from a couple of distinct perspectives. By employing different critical theories such as intertextuality, deconstructionism and cognitive poetics and the like, they had put plausible interpretations on the same text. This article intends to illustrate three of them individually.

## II. INTERTEXTUAL READING

The first one, *Intertextual Reading of Barthelme's Snow White* by Li Yuping analyses the text on the basis of Theory of Intertextuality by Julia Kristeva, who maintained that “any text is constructed as a mosaic of quotations; any text is the absorption and transformation of another”(Kristeva, 1986, p. 37). Postmodern works are no exception.

Li starts her comment with a brief introduction to the theory. Then she writes: traditionally, the reality presented and the intention of the author are regarded as the two keys to understanding realistic novels rather than postmodernist texts; but the theory of intertextuality by Kristeva is to take their place; and by binding the text itself with its original version, the postmodernist novel would make sense. Fragments in the new text deconstructs the meaning of its prototype in the old tale, yet their reorganization helps decipher multiple shades of meaning which may exceed even the author's expectations.

As far as its target text is concerned, Li assumes that the novel *Snow White* is neither a complete nor self-sufficient closed system. Only through intertextual reading, combining the present text with the fairy tale in absence, could layers of meaning of the novel be figured out. Evidences are presented as follows:

In the tale *Snow White* lives with seven dwarves in the forest and is saved by a prince. In Barthelme's novel, however, *Snow White* is a 22-year-old, intermingling seven dwarves who made their living by washing buildings and making baby food in a Chinese factory. She herself works as a housewife—derivation of housewife, which is a word coined by the author—cooking and washing for them and screws with them. Weary of the boring life, she is expecting a princely guy, Paul, who turns out to be a wizard despite of his royal blood. Unable to save *Snow White*, Paul escapes to monastery and finally dies of poisoned wine prepared for *Snow White* out of jealousy by Jane, who is presented as a witch to conspire to poison *Snow White*. After Paul's death, *Snow White* casts chrysanthemum on Paul's grave and revirginizes and rises to the sky.

By combined reading, the moral lessons given by the stereotyped fairy tale are challenged, the boundary between good and evil is blurred. *Snow White* is no longer the incarnation of kindness or innocence. She is now well educated at college, studied courses in English literature, art, psychology, personal resources, but is indulged in “venereal life” and writes dirty poems. Seven dwarves are not redemption of justice and courage any more as in the old story. They are, instead, “complex bourgeois who are at a loss”, who worship “the almighty penny.” One of them would “pay her a thousand dollars, all just to ease this wrinkle in the groin” (Barthelme, 1965, p. 64). And Paul, the former prince, is now and here merely a sordid coward. Having been project in the shape of *Snow White's* longing, boredom, ennui and pain,



Paul is awaited by Snow White to save her. Unexpectedly, her ebony black hair “has made him terribly nervous”. To avert his princely responsibility, Paul had at first hidden himself at a monastery in Nevada, then fled to France to work as a music guide, and finally to Rome in a postal service before approached Snow White just to spy on her naked body through an underground observatory he had built up on purpose. This way, his sexual desire was satisfied but did not need to shoulder princely responsibility.

In addition, the novel blurs the boundary between fact and fiction, assuring the reader that what is written in the text is reality, unlike the fairy tale in which there are clear borderline between virtual and real worlds: the very beginning “long long ago” brings the reader to an imaginary realm and the end—“they since then live a happy life”—returns to the physical reality.

In terms of implementing strategy of intertextuality, the author of the dissertation confirms that the novel retains some characteristics of fairy-tale figures. For instance, Snow White has still black ebony hair and snow white skin, the seven dwarves remain short and hard-working. Whereas the questionnaire between chapter I and chapter II is regarded as part of intertextuality strategy as it reminds the reader to tie the hypertext (the novel) up with the hypotext (the tale) (Genette, 1997, p. 5). Besides, words in upper case and larger size work as reminders of the fairy tale, one of the outstanding examples is as follows:

THE PSYCHOLOGY OF SNOW WHITE  
IN THE AREA OF FEARS, SHE FEARS  
MIRRORS  
APPLES

POINSONED COMBS (Barthelme, 1965, p. 17)

The scholar, Li, also maintains that the novel *Snow White* comprises incoherent fragments with thread of intertextuality running through them. Ronald Barthelme has said “Fragments are the only forms I trust.” Intertextual strategy, meanwhile, enables fragments (news, letter, commercial, academic work abridged, conscious flow, absurd argument) to signify, and the reader could thus catch multiple layers of meaning. On the first page, the vertical line of spots of Snow White’s freckles is supposed to underline its visual effect as a non-verbal text.

As for aesthetic effect the novel *Snow White* created, Roland Barthes’ theory is quoted as saying; “Texts are divided into two types, text of pleasure and text of bliss” (Barthes, 1975, p. 14). The latter refers to “the text that imposes a state of loss, the text that discomforts perhaps to the point of a certain boredom, unsettles the readers’ tastes, values, memories, brings to a crisis his relation with language” (Barthes, 1975, p. 14). The novel *Snow White* is taken as a text of bliss; whereas its corresponding fairy tale a text of pleasure, whose characters and plot create expectation in readers. The fragmentary novel *Snow White* is against the reader’s expectation: its embodiment of courage and justice in fairy tale turns out to be the mediocre or even the despicable; its plot with the thread running through the story reduces to fragments without linear or causal connection. Still, with intertextual reading strategy in mind, the reader would, at long last, feel pleasure mixed with pain, called bliss.

The conclusion Li has drawn is that only with reading strategy of intertextuality could postmodern novels be fully understood, because “postmodernism features intertextuality. Nowadays, postmodernism and intertextuality are synonymous” (Bertens, 1997, p. 249).

This is a questionable conclusion: On the one hand, the text can be interpreted through the theory of intertextuality. But, on the other, it should not be limited to that. There is another way out. As *Snow White* by Barthelme is universally acknowledged as a postmodern piece, it could be explained by deconstructionism. For example, Ihab Hassan concludes in his *The Postmodern Turn: Essays in Postmodern Theory and Culture* that 5 out of the 11 characteristics of postmodernist work are deconstructive.

### III. DECONSTRUCTIONIST INTERPRETATION

The second essay “*Snow White and the Postmodern Deconstruction* by Ma Hanguang puts deconstructionist vehicle into play. In that essay he argues that Barthelme deconstructed Grimm Brothers’ tales by parodying. Modern city dwellers replace fairy figures who live in the forest; the objective yet abstract characters substitute fictitious images, thus their mythical and transcendental color fades away. That the flattened characters without vivid character—the seven dwarves and the prince—take the place of heroes in the tale is overshadowed by their original counterparts. Irony and parody unsettle solemnity, seriousness, and sobriety of the poignant fairy tale, which is reduced to a ridiculous joke. Collage consisting of meaningless and fragmented discourse indicates helplessness of modern life.

In the first place, narration of the story is repeatedly interrupted by divergent discourses. Those that are closely related to its original story require frequent comparison or contrast between the novel and the tale, creating the effect of irony or mimicry, for instance:

PAUL HAS NEVER BEFORE REALLY SEEN SNOW WHITE AS A WOMAN (Barthelme, 1965, p. 150)

Heterogeneous fragments without coherence bring a verbal collage into being, while capitalized bold letters of the first words of every single fragment make great play of the effect of the collage. Those that are irrelevant to the tale indicate the meaninglessness and/or oddity of language itself.

SNOW WHITE THINKS: THE HOUSE ... WALLS ... WHEN HE DOESN’T... I’M NOT... IN THE DARK ... SHOULDERS ... AFRAID ... THE WATER WAS COLD ... WHAT TO KNOW ... EFFORTLESSLY ... (Barthelme,

1965, p. 165)

The following seemingly pedantic discourse offers no information insightful. But assortment of such materials convinces the reader that language has degraded to incomplete, semantically wrong fragments. And parody of all different genres further assure the reader that the tradition of language and literature has been shaky.

THE VALUE THE MIND SETS ON EROTIC NEEDS INSTANTLY SINKS AS SOON AS SATISFACTION BECOMES READILY AVAILABLE. SOME OBSTACLE IS NECESSARY TO SWELL THE TIDE OF THE LIBIDO TO ITS HEIGHT, AND AT ALL PERIODS OF HISTORY, WHENEVER NATURAL BARRIERS HAVE NOT SUFFICED, MEN HAVE ERECTED CONVENTIONAL ONES (Barthelme, 1965, p. 76).

IT WAS NOT UNTIL THE 19<sup>TH</sup> CENTURY THAT RUSSIA PRODUCED A LITERATURE WORTHY OF BECOMING PART OF THE WORLD'S CULTURAL HERITAGE. PUSHKIN DISPLAYED VERBAL FACILITY. GOGOL WAS A REFORMER. AS A STYLIST DOSTOEVSKY HAD MANY SHORTCOMINGS. TOLSTOY ... (Barthelme, 1965, p. 143)

THE REVOLUTION OF THE PAST GENERATION IN THE RELIGIOUS SCIENCES HAS SCARCELY PENETRATED POPULAR CONSCIOUSNESS AND HAS YET TO SIGNIFICANTLY INFLUENCE PUBLIC ATTITUDES THAT REST UPON TOTALLY OUTMODED CONCEPTIONS (Barthelme, 1965, p. 54).

THE SECOND GENERATION OF ENGLISH ROMANTICS INHERITED THE PROBLEMS OF THE FIRST, BUT COMPLICATED BY THE EVILS OF INDUSTRIALISM AND POLITICAL REPRESSION. ULTIMATELY THEY FOUND AN ANSWER NOT IN SOCIETY BUT IN VARIOUS FORMS OF INDEPENDENCE FROM SOCIETY:

#### HEROISM

#### ART

SPIRITUAL TRANSCENDENCE (Barthelme, 1965, p. 24)

And these divergent or irrelevant fragments hinder the course of reading. But each of them in the least highlights one topic, conceiving an idea; whereas the following are, as it were, merely a mosaic, or a pile of words, conveying no meaning at all.

#### THE HORSEWIFE IN HISTORY

#### FAMOUS HORSEWIFE

#### THE HORSEWIFE: A SPIRITUAL PORTRAIT

#### THE HORSEWIFE: A CRITICAL STUDY

#### FIRST MOP, 4000 BC ...

#### THE PLASTIC BAG

THE GARLIC PRESS (Barthelme, 1965, p. 61)

SNOW WHITE THINKS: WHY AM I ...

GLASS ... HUNCHED AGAINST THE

WALL ... INTELLIGENCE ... TO

RETURN ... WALL ... INTELLI-

GENGE ... ON THE ... TO RE-

TURN ... HE'S COLD ... MIR-

ROR ... (Barthelme, 1965, p. 166)

The oddity of language itself has been self-evident. These capitalized, either complete or fragmented, clauses are sandwiched between units of consecutive pages. They neither bring the foregoing content to a conclusion, nor do they transit to the following paragraph. Say, they are contextually irrelevant.

Secondly, the readers' expectation of language itself is deconstructed. Obviously, discourse like above-mentioned would completely irrigate readers' traditional cognition of literature and language. Meanwhile, the questionnaire between part I and part II is supposed to satirize our accustomed mode of thinking and/or critical vehicles to interpret novels. The wording of it is also a parody of average questionnaire.

In most parts of the novel, self-reference or self-discussion is applied to unsettle readers' expectation. The following is a self-discussion by Snow White. Unlike figures in the Grimms' tale, each character here is self-conscious.

SNOW WHITE let down her hair black as ebony from the window. It was... out of the window. "I could fly a kite with this hair it is so long. The wind would carry the kite up into the blue ... together with my hair black as ebony, floating there. That seems desirable. This motif, the long hair streaming from the high window, is a very ancient one I believe, found in many cultures, in various forms ... and the refreshment of my venereal life." (Barthelme, 1965, p. 80)

And self-reference occurs in natural formal languages when a sentence, idea or formula refers to itself. "This is a sentence" is a good example of self-reference. "... For not being able to at least be civilized enough to supply the correct ending to the story" (Barthelme, 1965, p. 132) reminds the reader that the novel has no fairy end as expected.

Meanwhile, it allows readers to be reconstructive and to build his own concept on the text.

The last point concerning deconstructionism is reshaping of each fairy figure. All figures in the novel are neither absolutely good nor completely evil like their prototypes as presented in the first paper.

This paper is brought to an end by saying: on the surface, the novel deconstructs a fairy tale, namely, the values and

moral codes it treasures: what is good, beauty and truth in comparison to what is evil, ugliness and falsity. In actuality, all transcendental convictions are perturbed, showing the helplessness and nothingness of modern life. What is more, its ultimate aim is to convince the reader that language as the carrier of meaning has lost its function as a means of communication. And it confirms that postmodernist works are deconstructive in nature as well.

#### IV. COGNITIVE EXPLANATION

The third paper, Ma Ying's *Meaning Floating out of Fracture and Fragments: A Cognitive Approach to Understand Donald Barthelme's Snow White* creatively employs theories of cognitive poetics and narratology to make catching the novel's meaning possible.

The first aspect Ma Ying highlights concerns cognitive psychology. As the theoretical foundation, the *figure-ground* forming mechanism is derived from Gestalt psychology. It can be put this way:

The *figure* is a moving or conceptually movable entity whose path, site, or orientation is conceived as a variable, the particular value of which is the relevant issue (Talmy, 2000, p. 312).

The *ground* is a reference entity, one that has a stationary setting relative to a reference frame, with respect to which the figure's path, site, or orientation is characterized (Talmy, 2000, p. 312).

*Figure-ground* forming mechanism can be interpreted like this: when we see a blackboard in the front of a classroom, we may not pay much attention to it. But a word or sentence written with a chalk on that board would draw our immediate attention. In Gestalt psychology, the word or sentence is called *figure*, the board *ground*. The *ground* highlights the *figure* which is more likely to elicit attention.

This theory explains why the reader who knows its counterpart fairy tale would automatically take its plot as the background of the novel. Thereby the content of the novel might be emphasized. As the novel consists of 107 fragments—as short as a clause, as long as 6 pages—the gaps between them are contingent upon the original plot to bridge. Say, in the course of reading, the reader would frequently take some elements of the fairy tale as referential objects to make comparisons and contrasts: some of which are in line with readers' expectations, for example, "The hair is black as ebony, the skin white as snow" (Barthelme, 1965, p. 3); the others, however, are against expectations: "She is a tall dark beauty containing a great many beauty spots, one above the breast, one above... as you go up and down:" (Barthelme, 1965, p. 3).

At the same time, words and phrases of the fairy tale in bold as well as upper case lead the reader to reshape the story, for instance:

WHAT SNOW WHITE REMEMBERS:  
THE HUNTSMAN  
THE FOREST  
THE STEAMING KNIFE (Barthelme, 1965, p. 39)

In addition to Jane's jealousy, Paul's royal blood and aristocratic temperament and such, the fairy tale's equivalent characters stepping on stage one after another, unflinchingly reminds the reader of the older story; and their successive appearance in the novel runs a thread through the plot to its climax—Paul is unintentionally poisoned by Jane's vodka Gibson, which is originally intended by Jane to poison Snow White—and to its end, where the Grimms' mission as the background is thus far accomplished.

The questionnaire at the end of the first chapter, which is regarded as part of intertextual strategy in the previous analysis, is, here, too, supposed to be *figure-ground* image, with fairy tale as *ground* and the novel as *figure* to overemphasize the content of the novel. Besides, Snow White hanging her hair out of the window is originated from the Grimms' another fairy figure, Rapunzel, who was prisoned in a high tower by a witch. With Rapunzel's plot in the setting, reactions to the hair are overexposed: *Reaction to the Hair*, *Lack of Reaction to the Hair* and *Additional Reaction to the Hair* open a window to the reality, satirizing loss of humanity and helplessness of survival in the modern world.

As to Snow White's response to prince's rescue, there are dual fairy settings. The one is Snow White, who is passively awaiting redemption; comparably, the other, Rapunzel, is actively searching for salvation; whereas in Barthelme's novel Snow White attempts to redeem herself, because "There is something wrong with all those people standing there, gaping and gawking. And with all those who did not come and at least try to climb to fill the role, and with the very world itself, for not being able to supply a prince" (Barthelme, 1965, p. 132). She gives up fantasy of prince and revirginizes and rises into the sky. In this way, with two fairy tales in the background, the image of characters is highlighted, bringing fractured discourse into recognizable plot.

The second point, the angle from which the reader of cognitive narratology interprets the novel, is the alternate narrating pattern: narrators switch between the first person (I, we) and the third (she, he) from time to time, with omniscient perspective and/or limited one. By perspective-alternating narrating, especially interior monologue and discourse, bizarre conflicting consciousness is revealed. "Our consciousness is the main part of the consciousness." As whether "we" can represent all of "us" is questionable, "our" narration is not necessarily reliable, so to say.

In spite of the preceding unreliability, by integrating two or more scenes of the novel together, its historical setting will be crystallized: WWII, the Korean War, poverty, shortage of food, drought, extinction of animals, stock exchange, foreign currency exchange, arms race and cold war. As a country in the Eastern Bloc during the Cold War era, China is

mentioned several times. That is because Barthelme had been drafted into the U.S. Army and arrived in Korea on the day of the signing of the Korea Armistice Agreement and worked briefly as the editor of an army newspaper. “War on poetry” projects “war on poverty” initiated by the then President John F. Kennedy. Poverty is the major social problem of the textual realm. Because “I don’t mean that the deprived people are deprived, although they are, clearly, but that even the fat are deprived” (Barthelme, 1965, p. 40). Environmental problem emerged along the course of industrialization; “Where have the buffalo gone? You can go for miles and miles and miles and miles and miles and miles and hundreds of miles without seeing a single one! And that didn’t prevent them from letting the railroads grab all the best land” (Barthelme, 1965, p. 131). Food shortage, economic problems and arid weather are among factors that bring postmodern American pageant into being. The Cold War and arms race could be the horrible political background of that landscape.

The conclusion Ma Ying comes to is that cognitive poetical and narratological interpretation on Barthelme’s novel provides rational and in-depth insight into the way his contemporaries lived. The apparently absurd and deliberately elegant depiction is a reflection on their anxiety over reality: industrial civilization and progress in sciences and technology unsettled utopian fantasy and challenged conventional values and moral codes. And all these arouse contemplation.

## V. CONCLUSION

The preceding three analyses were issued around 2000—half a century after the novel’s publication (1965) in the USA, nearly two centuries after the publication of its old version, the fairy tale (1813) in Germany. Though the text on which the analyses based is its Chinese version; the analyses themselves are written in Chinese; both facts do not prevent their varied interpretations on the text: Intertextual reading focuses on similarities and dissimilarities between the tale and the novel; deconstructive interpretation topples conventional thinking mode of literature as well as its carrier—language; whereas the narratological explanation enables the reader to see the history through the bizarre collage. With multiple literary theories, the reader could set a comprehensive view of the text; and the more angles from which it is viewed, the more insights are provided into the masterpiece, which is open to interpretation.

As for the relationship between the old tale and the new novel, the intertextual reading regards the former as a benchmark; the deconstructionist takes it as the object of deconstruction; whereas the cognitive narratologist visualizes the old story, setting the novel in the forefront with the tale in the background. Whatever the role the ancient tale plays in different analyses, it is an indispensable part, as it were, for interpretation on this postmodern novel. Namely, multiple layers of meaning between the lines of the novel will not be deciphered without reference to or acquaintance with the old fairy tale. This partly explains one of the reasons why the postmodernist novel is hard to understand.

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# Indonesian Language Learning Based on Teachers' Directive Speech Act Strategy (TDSAS) and Students' Positive Affective Color Response (SPACR) with a Synectic Model

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**Abstract**—Love and self-esteem can be fulfilled by the teacher through teachers' directive speech act strategy (TDSAS). Teachers need to use teachers' directive speech act strategy to make the students feel loved and respected and emerge the students' positive affective color response (SPACR) which creates a fun, effective and conducive learning process. Some verbal abuses made by the teachers affect the students' psychology (inferiority, trauma, laziness, and has no motivation to come to school). This study aimed to portray the Indonesian language learning in junior high school using TDSAS-SPACR with a synectics model to improve the quality of the process and learning outcomes. Using the descriptive-qualitative method, the results showed that the TDSAS based learning which emerges SPACR creates an effective and fun Indonesian language learning in junior high school.

**Index Terms**—teachers' directive speech act strategy, affective color response, synectics model

## I. INTRODUCTION

The realization and the selection of teachers' directive speech act strategy (hereinafter referred to as TDSAS) play an important role in learning. They are closely related to the students' affective color response both positive and negative since they influence the learning effectiveness (Zhang, 2011). In his research, Fried (2011) shows that in learning, affective color or emotion greatly influences the cognitive learning process, motivation and class' interaction. Emotion increases the cognitive process and it becomes an integral part of the learning process.

TDSAS can be used to create the students' optimal competencies and trigger the students' self-actualization. Maslow in Slavin (2011) states that each student has deficiency needs; physiological needs, safety needs, love, and belonging needs as his/her basic needs before the growth needs emerge. The students' growth needs include knowing and understanding, aesthetics, and self-actualization.

The teachers should admit that the learning process will be disrupted when the students' basic needs are not fulfilled. The most important deficiency needs are love and self-esteem. The students who feel unloved and unappreciated even though they are capable, will not be able to have strong a motivation to achieve goals in growth needs (Stipek, 2001). The teachers who can soothe the students and make them feel accepted and appreciated as an individual will help the students enjoy learning and be creative in building their self-actualization.

The nature of education as stipulated in the National Education System in Law number 20 act 1 (2003) states that "education is a conscious and planned effort to create a learning process and atmosphere so that the students actively develop their potential to have religious strength, self-control, personality, intelligence, noble character, and achievable skills". Hence, the TDSAS and students' affective color response research in learning are important. In addition to the theoretical background and policy base mentioned earlier, this research is based on the empirical study in the field.

Numerous physical and non-physical abuses done by the teachers to the students still can be found in the educational environment as reported in newspaper and electronic media. Those physical abuses are related to the educational activities, in which by Charters, (in Susilowati, 2013) are interpreted as abuses (both physical and non-physical abuse) done by the teachers to the students for disciplinary reasons. Those abuses result in physical and physiological injuries. The physical abuse includes punishment, persecution, beatings, and rape, meanwhile verbal

non-physical abuse includes cursing, snapping, and insulting. Psychological nonphysical abuses include looking at the students cynically and condescendingly, ostracizing, ignoring, and embarrassing the students.

In her research, Sumarti (2015) finds that teachers' directive speech act strategy created students' affective color response, both positive and negative. This finding confirms McDonald (2011) who states that when the teachers speak in the learning process, the students subconsciously respond affectively. Moreover, Jansen (2010) states that when the students have been humiliated or demeaned in front of the class by the teacher in their childhood, it leaves an emotional scar. For students, emotion is the most memorable thing in learning. Emotion influences belief, decision, and action. Its effects will last and the emotional strength immediately occurs. The positive emotion built is associated with the students' success at school (Jensen, 2010). Therefore, in directive speech, the strategy to trigger the positive emotion is needed to create a fun learning and make the students feel excited to do the tasks.

By having passion and enthusiasm, the students' competency can be explored and the learning objectives will be achieved. This effective teachers' speech strategy orientation will emerge the students' creativity and productivity. The teachers who can soothe the students and make them feel accepted and appreciated as an individual will help the students becoming creative for their self-actualization. Teachers' directive speech act strategy and students' affective color response can fulfill the students' deficiency needs which then will make the students feel motivated to fulfill their growth needs.

Love and self-esteem, as the students' basic needs, can be accommodated through TDSAS. TDSAS which emerges the students' positive affective color response (hereinafter referred to as SPACR) to create an effective, fun and conducive to learning and also improve students' confidence can be applied to preserve the students' feeling, to feel loved and appreciated (Ormrod, 2009).

By using Brown and Levinson's speech strategy parameters (1987), it is discovered that TDSAS which emerges SPACR are (a) direct speech, (b) praising, (c) using terms of endearment or name, (d) avoiding using the words *saya* (I) and *kamu* (you), (e) involving speakers and interlocutors in activities, (f) using polite request, (g) containing jokes and humor, (h) considering the interlocutor's wishes, (i) seeking agreement, and (j) indirect speech. Meanwhile, the teachers' directive speech act which results in students' negative affective color response (hereinafter referred to as SNACR) are (a) sarcastic indirect speech, (b) greeting in high tone, (c) comparing, and (d) insulting (Sumarti, 2015).

Education creates ideas and emotions continuously (Joyce et al. 2012). Changes in human awareness occur endlessly and it gives a distinctive character to the educational process. Therefore, learning becomes a joyful and lifelong process. Good teaching is a boundless learning experience on how ideas and emotions interact with the classroom atmosphere and how both can change according to the changing atmosphere (Joyce, 2012)

Every learner has great potential to develop. Educators are expected to be able to explore and develop the students' potential by providing the opportunities for students to be actively involved in expressing all of their potential, such as by using the application of synectics learning. This learning emphasizes the students' active involvement to experience themselves and solve problems so that their potential develops optimally.

Improving the quality of the process and the result of Indonesian language learning can be done in various efforts. This study tries to discover the TDSAS which brings out positive emotional responses from students to prompt their enthusiasm and learning creativity. The students' positive behavior can improve students' learning outcomes. The professional teachers can encourage and motivate the students to learn. The learning products should improve students' previous competencies. The learning process will depend on teachers' performance and personality, students' attitudes, and learning facilities assuming that conducive learning will affect teachers' performance and students' learning achievement.

Speech act strategy relates to ways of speaking or speaking technique. Each speech act has a realization strategy. Yule (1996) reveals that strategy is a tendency to use certain lingual forms as a consideration of the social distance between speakers and speech partners. As an example, the solidarity strategy is used by the speakers because of their closeness to the interlocutor who uses a nickname or term of endearment, or another expression due to intimacy.

To maintain the effectiveness of the learning process, as the educators, the teachers should know and understand the positive and negative impacts of emotions on learning (Fried, 2011). In his research, Zhang (2007) reveals that the TDSAS, especially teachers' request speech act, has an impact on the students' emotions and behavior. Therefore, the study of affective color or emotion associated with the teacher and student interaction context in learning is very essential. The emotions are very important for students' motivation, learning, performance, identity development, and health (Schutz & Pekrun, 2007).

In 2005, Sumarti has done researched on teachers' directive speech act and students' affective color response. She brings out some findings as follows: (1) the communication function of teachers' directive speech in Indonesian language learning consists of ordering, requesting, prohibiting, suggesting, asking, and inviting; (2) based on structure compactibility (locutionary) and communication function (illocutionary), teachers' directive speech is realized directly and indirectly; (3) teachers' directive speech strategy is directly realized by imperative structure, while indirect teachers' directive speech strategy is realized using rhetorical question strategy, giving clues, tautology, ellipsis, insinuating, and comparing; (4) the politeness strategies used in teachers' directive speech are positive politeness strategy (paying attention to the interlocutor, giving compliment, paying attention to the interlocutor's needs, using terms of address, seeking for agreement, avoiding dissent, giving appreciation, involving the speakers and interlocutors

into activities and using jokes) and negative politeness strategy (indirect speech, using questions, and avoiding the use of words *saya* (I) and *kamu* (you)); (5) teachers' directive speech act strategies (TDSAS) which emerges students' positive affective color response (SPACR) are; (a) direct strategy, (b) praising, (c) using term of endearment and name (d) avoiding the use of words *saya* (I) and *kamu* (you), (e) involving speakers and interlocutors in activities, (f) using polite request, (g) using jokes, (h) considering the interlocutor's wish, (i) seeking for agreement, dan (j) indirect speech; (6) teachers' directive speech act strategies (TDSAS) which emerges students' negative affective color response (SNACR) are; (a) indirect speech containing irony, (b) greeting using exclamation, (c) comparing, and (d) speech containing admonishment.

These findings emerge the issues of whether TDSAS which generated SPACR is applicable as the basis or reference in managing the learning process with a synectic model. Thus, this research aimed to (1) identify the purpose of Indonesian language learning based on TDSAS-SPACR with a synectic model; (2) describe the design of TDSAS-SPACR-based learning model; (3) demonstrate the effectiveness of Indonesian language learning based on TDSAS-SPACR with a synectic model in Junior High School.

## II. RESEARCH METHOD

This research used a descriptive qualitative method. The research was conducted in SMPN 22 (Public Junior High School) and SMP IT Fitrah Insani (Private Junior High School) Bandar Lampung, Indonesia. The data were collected continuously for three months. In collecting the data, observation, audio-visual recording, questionnaire, interview, and test were used in this research. The observation technique and audio-visual recording were used to collect the learning process data which covered students' activities and TDSAS-SPACR-based learning with a synectic model. Questionnaire and interview were used to collect students' and teachers' responses toward the use of TDSAS-SPACR-based learning model, while the test was used to measure the students' writing skills before and after using TDSAS-SPACR-based learning with a synectic model.

## III. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

In her previous research, Sumarti (2015) found that the communicative functions of teachers' directive speech act in Indonesian language learning in junior high school involve ordering, asking, forbidding, suggesting, asking, and inviting. The use of communicative functions can be seen on the table (1) below.

TABLE 1  
COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTION OF TEACHERS' DIRECTIVE SPEECH IN INDONESIAN LANGUAGE LEARNING IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Domain	Communicative Function						Total
	Ordering	Asking	Forbiddin g	Suggestin g	Asking	Inviting	
Indonesian language learning in seventh grade	41	14	8	5	3	5	76
Indonesian language learning in eighth grade	82	40	2	7	18	8	157
Indonesian language learning in ninth grade	35	13	21	16	14	5	104
Total	158	67	31	28	35	18	337

Based on table (1), the communicative function of teachers' directive speech is dominated by ordering, while inviting is the least communicative function done by the teachers. This finding supports Zhang (2011) who argues that teachers often produce a directive speech of ordering or dictating and sometimes they tend to enforce the students. Therefore, the teachers should speak politely which will not threaten the students' self-esteem. The table below shows examples of communicative functions of teachers' directive speech analysis in Indonesian language learning in junior high school.



TABEL 2  
THE ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATIVE FUNCTION OF TEACHERS' DIRECTIVE SPEECH IN INDONESIAN LANGUAGE LEARNING

No.	Domain	Context	Participant	Directive speech
1.	Indonesian Language Learning in seventh grade	The students were busy with speed reading ability test and they were noisy. The teacher asked them to keep quiet by using an imperative sentence.	Teacher:  Student:	<p>“<b>Dengarkan</b> dulu penjelasan Ibu!” [Me-1/TI] (<b>Listen</b> to me first!” [Me-1/TI]</p> <p>(immediately fell silent and paid attention to the teacher’s explanation)</p>
2.	Indonesian language learning in seventh grade	Learning had just begun, and the students were noisy while the teachers had just started explaining the short story. The teacher used an interrogative sentence with a low tone to ask the students to be quiet and calm.	Teacher:  Student:	<p>“<i>Sudah bisa dengarkan Ibu?</i>” [Me-77/TTI/Int] “Are you ready for listening to me?”</p> <p>(all the students were silent while smiling then looked at the teacher seriously).</p>
3.	Indonesian language learning in eighth grade	The teacher scolded the student who opened the Math book and asked the student to put the book in the bag and open the Indonesian language subject. The teacher used a declarative sentence.	Teacher:  Student:	<p>“<i>Eeh...sekarang pelajar-an Bahasa Indonesia bukan Matematika.</i>” “Hey... It’s an Indonesian Language subject now, not Math!”</p> <p>[Me-73/TTI/Dek] (He was shocked, then put his Math book to his bag. While lowering his head, he opened his Indonesian Language book.)</p>
4.	Indonesian language learning in eighth grade	The teacher scolded Ubay who used derogatory words in calling his friends. The teacher wished to ask Ubay to call his friends using a nice term of address or term of endearment.	Teacher:  Ubay:	<p>Ubay, <b>panggilah</b> temanmu dengan panggilan yang disukai!” [Me-135/TI] “Ya, Bu.” (Ubay kaget dan tersenyum malu kemudian dengan liris menjawab) “Ubay, call your friend’s name using a nice term of address!” “Yes, mam.” (Ubay was taken aback and smiled shyly and answered softly)</p>
5.	Indonesian language subject learning in ninth grade.	The teacher saw a student named Ade was present after two weeks absent. With a declarative structure (sarcastic tone) the teacher intended to reprimand and told him to be diligent in going to school, not skipping anymore.	Teacher:  Ade:	<p>“<i>Rupanya hari ini kita dapat murid baru. Selamat bergabung Ade, Sudah lama kita tidak bertemu ya.</i>” [Me-155/TTI/Int] “We got a new student, Welcome Ade, It’s been a long time not meeting you.” Ade bowed while leaning against the wall, smile cynically and lowered her head. The other students answered: “Yes, Maam. It’s been two weeks.”</p>

Based on the data analysis towards the six communication functions of teachers’ directive speech in learning, the structural characteristics and realization of speech act for each communication function were found as can be seen on the table (3) below.

TABLE 3  
STRUCTURAL MARKERS AND REALIZATION OF COMMUNICATION FUNCTION OF TEACHERS' DIRECTIVE SPEECH

No.	Communication function	Speech structure marker	Speech act realization
1.	Ordering	(a) is started with a verb (b) uses verbs with prefix <i>di-</i> , <i>per-</i> , verbs with suffix <i>-kan</i> , verbs with an article <i>-lah</i> , and verbs with prefix <i>per-</i> and suffix <i>-kan</i>	(a) direct speech (using imperative structures, function as ordering) (b) indirect speech (using declarative and interrogative structure, functions as ordering)
2.	Requesting	is started with verbs: <i>coba</i> (try) , <i>silakan</i> , or <i>tolong</i> (please)	(a) direct speech (using imperative structure, functions as asking) (b) indirect speech (using declarative and interrogative structure, functions as asking)
3.	Forbidding	is started with adverb <i>jangan</i> ( <i>don't</i> ) and phrase <i>nggak boleh</i> ( <i>should not</i> )	(a) direct speech (using declarative and interrogative structure, functions as forbidding) (b) indirect speech (using declarative and interrogative structure, function as forbidding)
4.	Suggesting	(a) uses conjugation <i>agar</i> , <i>supaya</i> , <i>sebaik-nya</i> , <i>makanya</i> , and <i>jika/ kalau</i> ( <i>so</i> , <i>should, if</i> ) (b) uses phatic <i>ya</i> at the end of the speech	Direct speech (using imperative structure, functions as suggesting)
5.	Asking	(a) uses questions marks ( <i>apa</i> , <i>siapa</i> , <i>berapa</i> , <i>bagaimana</i> , <i>mengapa</i> , <i>siapa</i> , <i>kapan</i> , <i>dan</i> <i>di mana</i> ) (b) uses particle <i>-kah</i> (c) uses "asking" tone	Direct speech (using interrogative structure, functions as asking)
6.	Inviting	is started with <i>ayo</i> and <i>mari</i>	Direct speech (using imperative structure, functions as inviting)

Furthermore, they were implemented in Indonesian language learning in junior high school by using the synectic model. This model was used because it is oriented towards the students' creativity through teachers' speech based on analogies and metaphors. The results of the study entitled "Indonesian language learning based on teachers' directive speech act strategy and students' positive affective color response with synectic model" are presented based on the objectives of the study as revealed in the introduction as follows.

#### A. The Purpose of Using Indonesian Language Learning Based on TDSAS-SPACR with the Synectic Model

The general purpose of using the synectic learning model is the personal development of creativity and creative problem-solving (Weil et al. 1978: 7). Gordon's creative ideas are described in detail by Joyce (2012: 252-253) based on the four views; 1) creativity is important in daily activities. The model is designed to increase the capacity of problem-solving, creative expression, empathy, and insight into social relations. 2) The creative process is not constantly mysterious, everything can be expressed and trained with certain procedures. 3) The creative innovation in all fields - art, science, and engineering - is considered equal and characterized by the same intellectual process. 4) the invention of individual and group creative mindsets is merely the same.

The specific purpose of using TDSAS-SPACR in writing class in Indonesian language subject is the students are able to (1) discover and develop ideas creatively into a creative writing through analogy and metaphor which include these following steps: (a) current situation description, (b) direct analogy, (c) personal analog, (d) solid conflict, (e) direct analogy based on solid conflict, (f) initial tasks rechecking; (2) determine the ideas used as topics in writing through two synectic strategies; creating something new and making something unfamiliar become familiar thing (3) develop ideas into writing through two synectic strategies; creating something new and making something the strange familiar.

By using this synectic model, the students' basic needs fulfillment- love and affection- can emerge their potential and creativity optimally. This is fully described in Sumarti, et al (2018) who confirm the importance of teacher' directive speech strategy in learning.

#### B. The Design of Indonesian Language Learning Based on TDSAS-SPACR with Synectic Model

The design of Indonesian language learning based on TDSAS-SPACR- with a synectic model is described as follows:

TABLE 4  
THE DESIGN OF LEARNING BASED ON TDSAS-SPACR WITH SYNECTIC MODEL

Synectic Syntax	TDSAS	SPACR
<i>a. Creating something new</i>		
1) current situation description	Avoiding the word 'kamu', avoiding the word 'saya', paying attention, praising, avoiding differences, seeking agreement	positive (happy, enthusiast, proud, joyful)
2) direct analogy	Polite greeting, praising, avoiding the word 'saya', avoiding the word 'kamu', involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities, seeking agreement.	positive (happy, enthusiast, proud, happy)
3) personal analogy	Polite greeting, paying attention, avoiding the word 'kamu' and 'saya' involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities.	positive (happy and enthusiast)
4) solid conflict	avoiding the word 'kamu' and 'saya', praising, involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities, using a polite greeting, seeking agreement.	Positive (happy and enthusiast)
5) direct analogy	involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities, praising, avoiding the word 'kamu', giving accomplishment.	Positive (happy and enthusiast)
6) initial tasks checking	To praise, involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities, avoiding the word 'kamu', seeking agreement.	positive (happy and enthusiast)
<i>b. Making the strange familiar</i>		
1) substantive input	praising, involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities, avoiding the word 'kamu', seeking for agreement.	positive (happy dan enthusiast)
2) direct analogy	polite greeting, paying attention, avoiding the word 'kamu' and 'saya', involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities.	positive (happy and enthusiast)
3) personal analogy	polite greeting, paying attention, avoiding the word 'kamu' and 'saya', involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities, seeking agreement, hinting the similar point of view.	positive (happy, enthusiast, proud, joyful)
4) comparing analogies	paying attention, avoiding the word 'kamu' and 'saya', involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities	positive (happy and enthusiast)
5) explaining differences	praising, involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities, avoiding the word 'kamu', seeking agreement.	positive (happy and enthusiast)
6) exploration	avoiding the word 'kamu' and 'saya', praising, involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities, giving accomplishment, polite greeting, and seeking agreement.	positive (happy and enthusiast)
7) making an analogy	polite greeting, praising, indirect speech, avoiding the word 'kamu' and 'saya', involving the speaker and interlocutor in activities, seeking agreement.	positive (happy, enthusiast, proud, joyful)

*C. The Effectiveness of the Use of Indonesian Language Learning Based on Teachers' Directive Speech Act Strategy (TDSAS) and Students' Affective Color Response (SPACR) with Synectics Model*

The complete notion of the effectiveness of the use of Indonesian language learning based on TDSAS-SPACR with synectics model is described as follow:

TABLE 5  
THE PROCESS OF INDONESIAN LANGUAGE LEARNING BASED ON TDSAS-SPACR WITH A SYNECTIC MODEL IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The Steps of Synectic Model	Teacher's Activities	Students Activities	TDSAS	SPACR
<b>Opening activities</b>	The teacher conditions the class by leading the students to pray, checking attendance, and doing apperception	Students pray and listen to the teacher who staring the class	a) Direct speech b) involving speakers and interlocutor c) avoiding using the words <i>saya</i> and <i>kamu</i>	neutral
<b>Core Activities</b> Step 1: describing current situation	a) tells an analogy to the students about their trip to school. b) shows a picture of a frog on slide c) stimulates the students to express what can be done on frogs procedurally	a) listen to the teacher and ask questions b) pay attention to a picture of frog and answer the teacher's question. c) mention some ways that can be done to the frog procedurally	a) increase attention b) seeking for agreement d) direct speech e) praising f) indirect speech	neutral happy
Step 2: Direct Analogy	a) The teacher asks students to choose one of the	Students propose direct analogies, choose and	a) direct speech b) involving	neutral happy

	procedures performed on the frog b) the teacher invites students to write down the steps to dissect frogs as they have done in the laboratory.	explore them further.	speaker and interlocutor c) avoiding using the words <i>saya</i> and <i>kamu</i> d) increase attention e) praising f) using jokes	proud
Step 3: Personal Analogy	The teacher invites students to develop procedures to dissect frogs in sequential and logical steps.	Students act as the analogy they have chosen in the second step.	a) praising b) involving speakers and interlocutor c) paying attention to interlocutor's needs d) direct speech e) greeting by using the term of endearment	
Step 4: solid conflict	The teacher tells the students to develop each step in the procedure to dissect frogs into complete, cohesive and coherent sentences.	Students take the descriptions from the second and third steps, proposing some analogies of solid conflict and choosing one of them.	a) directive speech b) involving speaker and interlocutor c) avoid using the words <i>saya</i> and <i>kamu</i> d) increase attention e) praising f) using jokes	neutral happy proud
Step 5: direct analogy	The teacher asks students to make an analogy of dissecting frogs with other ideas, such as building a house or disassembling/fixing a bicycle	Students create and choose other direct analogies based on solid conflict	a) indirect speech b) praising c) direct speech d) greeting by using term of endearment e) seeking for agreement	neutral happy joyful proud
Step 6: rechecking initial tasks	The teacher asks students to return to the initial assignment or problem and use the final analogy and / or the whole synectic experience	a) students arrange the steps of the chosen ideas procedurally. b) students develop the steps into a complete essay	a) direct speech b) involving speaker and interlocutor c) avoid using the words <i>saya</i> and <i>kamu</i> d) increasing attention e) praising f) seeking for agreement	neutral happy proud
<b>Closing Activities</b>	a) the teacher evaluates by inviting students to read the results of their writing in front of the class which then are responded by all students b) The teacher and students summarize and reflect the learning of that day.	a) reading the results of the writing then responded by all friends b) summarize and reflect the learning (together with the teacher).	a) indirect speech b) praising c) direct speech d) greet with a term of endearment e) avoiding using the words <i>saya</i> and <i>kamu</i> f) paying attention g) seeking agreement h) involving speaker and interlocutor	neutral happy

In addition to the results of observations on Indonesian language learning based on teachers' directive speech act strategy (TDSAS) and students' positive affective color response (SPACR) with synectics model, the results of students'

answers to the open questionnaire techniques about their reflection on the learning conducted were also obtained. Based on the qualitative data analysis, the students' answers to the open questionnaire revealed that all the students (100%) were happy to take part in the learning and the language used by the teacher was easily understood. It increased the students' motivation and enthusiasm for learning, and they were not tense nor bored.

The learning outcomes of writing skills have significantly increased after using TDSAS-SPACR- based learning model. Before using the model, the mean score of students' writing skills was 67 and after using the model, the mean score increased to 81. Therefore, the empirical validity of TDSAS-SPACR-based learning with a synectic model was effective. The effectiveness of learning can be seen from the success of the learning process and result. Therefore, further research on TDSAS-SPACR-based learning with a synectic model in a broader scale experimental study should be done.

#### IV. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Love and self-esteem as the students' basic needs can be accommodated by teachers' directive speech act strategy (TDSAS). TDSAS which emerges the students' positive affective color response (SPACR) to create an effective, fun and conducive to learning and also improve students' confidence can be applied to preserve the students' feeling, to feel loved and appreciated.

Based on the empirical validity test, Indonesian language learning based on teachers' directive speech act strategy in junior high school and students' positive affective color response with a synectic model can increase the quality and learning outcomes. By using that model, Indonesian language learning in junior high school is fun and effective.

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