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Contents

Developing Awareness of Questioning Strategies for Second Language Learner Teachers

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Abstract—**Asking varying levels of questions within the cognitive domain is not an innate skill, which is especially true with English as a second language learner teachers. To develop their awareness of teacher questioning strategies, an eight-week quasi-experimental study, designed based on the *Revised Bloom's Taxonomy* (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) has explicitly taught participants (*N*=14) questioning strategies of asking varying levels of questions and Divergent Questions through intense restructuring activities and a Question-Question Game. Pre-and post-tests, and pre-and post-questionnaires, including question journals, are administered. The results, compared with the control group (*N* = 7) using paired-samples *t* tests show that explicit instruction has developed participants' awareness of formulating levels and varieties of questions. Participants have significantly (*t*(13) = 3.67, *p* < .05) asked more higher order questions such as Analysis Questions. They have also significantly (*t*(13) = -2.85, *p* < .05) reduced lower order questions such as Understand Questions resulting from the promoted awareness of their existing strategies. Analysis of the qualitative data provides supporting evidence, further indicating specific questioning levels and cognitive processes for which L2 learner teachers lack awareness. This study is the first one that has experimentally taught L2 teacher questioning through *the Revised Taxonomy* and opens new directions for teacher training.**

Index Terms—**questioning strategies, levels of questions, awareness, L2 learner teachers, explicit instruction, quasi-experimental, teacher questioning development**

I. INTRODUCTION

Asking varying levels of questions within the cognitive domain is not an innate skill, even if you grew up in a Socratic educational context. This view is first agreed by Nappi's argument emphasizing the planning of questions (2017, p.38), "developing questions that are scaffolded ---beginning with recall and working up to analysis, synthesis, and creation— requires careful planning" when she studied questioning in developing critical thinking skills. The view is also supported by the emphasis of "designing questions" (p. 179) in Sun's study (2012) on the relationship between teacher questioning and student learning. The view is especially true with English as a second language (L2) pre-service teachers called learner teachers in this study. A majority of them come from non-Socratic educational contexts in which they are trained to ask questions in classrooms. Instead, they are praised to be silent and obedient to teacher authority. This lack of questioning instruction is documented in the classroom "silence" or "reticence" studies where their participation behaviors are questioned (Jackson, 2002; Xia, 2009). It is further evidenced in the zero training finding from the pre-questionnaire of this study and in the current call for training teacher questioning behaviors (Davoudi & Sadeghi, 2015; Döş et al, 2016).

Questioning is such a fundamental scaffolding strategy in teaching that shapes language learning and teaching paths. Teacher instruction cannot proceed without teacher questioning as Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Snow (2014) stated "70% of class time consists of the teacher talking or asking questions" (p. 345). In the past decades, the problem of questioning has invited rich empirical investigation into types of teacher questions (Brock, 1986; Cotton, 1988; Döş et al, 2016; Nunan, 1990), functions of questions in various discourses (Freed & Ehrlich, 2010; Koshik; 2010), and functions of teacher questions (Döş et al, 2016; McCormick & Donato, 2000; Yaqubi & Mozaffari, 2011) in L2 language classrooms. It has also examined the relationship of L2 teacher questioning and student learning (Sun, 2012; Toni & Parse, 2013; Wu, 1993) including teacher beliefs (Farrell & Mom, 2015). These studies have collected teacher questions and conducted systematic content analysis to reveal the scaffolding functions of questions in contexts. However, limited research has directly investigated the development of L2 teacher questioning, a fundamental component of the teacher *strategic competence* (Canale & Swain, 1980). Relevant interventional research to develop L2 teachers' awareness of questioning strategy seems missing from the current literature, though Brown and Lee (2015) strongly advocated, "teachers need to develop a repertoire of questioning strategies for the purpose of initiating and sustaining interaction" (p. 262). In addition, the ongoing call for contextualizing L2 learning and teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 2018; Ortega, 2009), including teacher questioning behaviors (Davoudi & Sadeghi, 2015; Döş et al, 2016), recreates research currency and focus that this study intends to investigate.

The present study investigates the problem from the focus of developing L2 advanced learner teachers' awareness of forming varying levels of questions according to the *Revised Bloom's Taxonomy* (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) and constructing Divergent Questions through applying planned and intensified restructuring activities. The study design is informed by the social-cognitive perspective of strategy learning (Cohen, 2010; Cohen & Macaro, 2007; O'Malley &

Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, 2011, 2017). It attempts to develop learner teachers' awareness of questioning strategies through explicit instruction, engaging interactions, and contextualized restructuring and productive activities (DeKeyser, 1997, 2007; Ellis, 2002; Mackey, 2006, 2008; Ortega, 2009; Schmidt, 1990, 1995). Specifically, it operationalizes the framework of the *Revised Bloom's Taxonomy* (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, pp. 67-68; shortened for *Revised Taxonomy*) to develop questioning strategies at six levels: Remember, Understand, Apply, Analyze, Evaluate, and Create. In the study, the participants are called *learner teachers* because English is their L2 and they concurrently develop L2 competence in the English context while learning to become effective teachers, which further justifies why the study is simultaneously situated in learner strategic competence development and teacher education.

II. RESEARCH ON QUESTIONING STRATEGIES

Research on L2 learner strategy development has substantially investigated learner "strategic investment" (Brown & Lee, 2015, p.51) in acquiring a range of language skills such as learning grammar explicitly, contextualizing vocabulary learning, and monitoring speaking (Cohen & Macaro, 2007). This line of research was mainly inspired by the descriptive studies conducted by O'Malley and Chamot, and other researchers' seminar work between mid 1980s to 1990s. They became more accepted due to Oxford's pioneering work on learning strategies driven by "*the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)*" (1990, p. 209). Later, Ortega (2009, p. 210) critically reviewed these directional studies and questioned *contextualization* while studying the value of L2 learning strategies to differentiate success. She argued "L2 learning strategic behaviors cannot and should not be reduced to a taxonomy of observed heuristics and self-reported mental processes" (p. 211). To address Ortega's criticism about contextualization, this study starts from considering learner teachers' prior L2 curricular context in which they received limited explicit questioning instruction. It continues to explicitly instruct questioning strategies facilitated by content they know to contextualize the learning process, empowering them with scaled and targeted scaffolding competence.

By the middle of the 20th century, a substantial body of educational research on children questioning had been conducted in the interventional form within the first language (L1) English context. They examined receiving questioning training (Blank & Covington, 1965), praising and modeling questioning (Zimmerman & Pike, 1972), and raising children's awareness of categories in the Twenty Questions games (Nelson & Earl, 1973). Later in 1999, Lindfors investigated children's questioning by analyzing children's dialogues with partners to see how the inquiry act was used to make sense of the world. She emphasized "languaging" (p. 3) that united questioning forms (structures) and functions (purposes) in texts. Her research initiated subsequent keen interest in studying functions of questioning in real contexts. By 1990s, this body of research had contributed empirical understanding to children questioning development in L1 contexts, but not regarding L2 contexts nor adult questioning. While questioning education appears as such a "done deal" in the L1 English context, this is not the case within non-English contexts, especially when L2 learner teachers do not grow up with a Socratic education as it has teachers like Lindfors who had taught 20 years of "children questioning" by 1999 (p. 81). They receive limited training in questioning during prior education. More importantly, adults, as Grenfell and Macaro (2007) argued, learn things differently than children because they think more analytically about "the process of language learning" (p. 9) and are "often the subjects of empirical studies on strategy instruction" (p. 15). They desire explicit instruction on forms and structures of questioning to catch up on the education they have missed.

In 2008, McDonough and Mackey realized the needs of questioning form development in adults and investigated 46 Thai English as a Foreign Language (EFL) undergraduates' development of question formation through syntactic priming and communicative activities (p.31). The activities were performed by trained and more advanced L2 English interlocutors scripted with developmentally advanced question forms. The participants completed pre-and post-tests and carried out communicative activities with the scripted interlocutors. The researchers' contributing finding to understand questioning development was that "productively using a [questioning] form in one's own way could be more beneficial for development than simply repeating or mimicking that form" (p. 43), which was consistent with the results identified by other similar research (Mackey, 1999; McDonough & Mackey, 2006). However, the research has not investigated learner teachers who need the development substantially.

In 2010, two researchers focused on examining functions that utterances can exercise in institutional discourse. Sarangi examined activity types that determine what kinds of utterances function as questions and found that backchannels as "pseudo-questions" in the context of genetic counseling sessions were nondirective. Koshik analyzed questioning in one-on-one L2 college writing conferences and identified "designedly incomplete utterance" was one form of questioning used by teachers to target students' errors (p.164). Their findings indicate that contexts, interacting with institutional discourses, could shape the structure of questioning, which further supports the assumption of the present study that academic instructional discourse is structured based on certain fundamental levels of questioning. The varying cognitive levels and processes defined by the *Revised Taxonomy* could be part of the structure because teachers and students persistently and interactively investigate levels of knowledge and problems within the structure in academic discourses.

The next body of research examined the relationship between teacher questions and learner attitudes including learning. In 1993, Wu studied teacher questions collected from ESL teachers in secondary schools in Hong Kong (HK) through recordings. He examined the relationships among question types, questioning strategies, student attitudes and

interaction patterns. He found display questions were more effective while referential questions did not elicit longer nor more complex responses in the HK context. Wu's finding seems consistent with Cotton's (1988) finding that lower order questions (display questions) are more effective than higher order questions (referential questions) in eliciting responses, but it contradicts Brock (1986) and Nunan (1990) who concluded in their earlier teacher questioning studies that referential questions elicit more interactive responses. This type of inconsistency obtained from the last century's research invites new investigation in today's context to fill the void of questioning training in L2 learner teachers.

In 2012, Sun conducted a survey study on the teacher-student relationship affected by the use of teacher questions in an EFL college context. After analyzing the data collected from 73 participants regarding strategies and relationships, she found that students preferred teachers to use various strategies to make them feel relaxed, give them more wait time, and establish a more respectful relationship. Sun noticed that teachers surveyed lacked specific questioning strategies. She called for designing classroom questions aiming at cognitive engagement and sensitivity to student-teacher relationship. Sun's call was legitimate; however, she did not realize that designing purposeful academic questions needed training and explicit instruction. If teachers were not made aware of varying cognitive levels of questioning that could empower them to create new student-teacher relationship, it would be hard for them to change their current questioning behaviors.

Most recently, Döş et al (2016) investigated 170 primary school teachers' questioning strategies through questionnaires and content analysis in an EFL context. They looked at teacher question functions and the association between teacher questions (Qs) and cognitive levels of the Bloom's Taxonomy. Findings showed 67% of the Qs reported were Divergent Qs while 33% of them were convergent Qs. Regarding levels of Qs, teachers reported using 21.1% of application Qs, 19.9% evaluation Qs, 18.1% of analysis Qs and, 16.5% of remember Qs. These numbers seem to indicate that teachers asked more higher order Qs than lower order Qs. However, a closer analysis found a mismatch between teacher self-reported questioning levels and the current research on questioning levels according to the researchers. They concluded that the participating teachers had "misconceptions about convergent and divergent question types" (p. 2074) and strongly called for "studies on the teaching of questioning strategies" (p. 2076), providing training to both pre-and in-service teachers, and even as a subject (p. 2077). This emphasis resonates the exact same call for "in-service programs to help teachers strengthen their classroom questioning behaviors" (p. 86) made by Davoudi and Sadegh (2015) after reviewing 60 experimental studies of classroom questions over the last three decades.

Overall, this review finds that the problem of questioning strategy development is well researched in L1 child questioning, teacher questioning and functions, and the relationship between teacher questioning and learning. However, the review finds that explicit questioning strategy training in pre- and in-service L2 teacher training programs is lacking. Interventional studies on developing L2 teacher questioning are even fewer. Teachers' misconceptions about levels and types of Qs exist. The needs of contextualizing L2 learner teachers' training to catch up on the questioning education they have missed in their prior non-Socratic education is demanded. Therefore, this quasi-experimental study is conducted to address the problem. The *Revised Taxonomy* is operationalized to develop L2 learner teachers' awareness of questioning strategy in formulating varying levels of Qs and making *Divergent Questions* for specific scaffolding purposes in classrooms. In this study, *Divergent Questions* (shortened for DQs) are defined as asking questions from new perspectives based on the same content focus (McKenzie, 2005; Morgan & Saxton, 1991). *Questioning strategy* focuses on developing awareness of perspectives, levels, and divergence of asking Qs. It is specifically defined as a conscious effort made to formulate varying levels of cognitive interrogations and to plan divergent interrogations supported by intentionally selected structures and cognitive processes to productively interact with the complexity of the content under investigation in academic contexts. This definition is adapted from Freed and Ehrlich (2010, p. 6) and inspired by *the Revised Taxonomy*. Thus, these two research questions are developed:

1. To what extent can explicit questioning strategy instruction develop learner teachers' awareness of strategies to formulate levels of questions?

2. To what extent can explicit questioning strategy instruction raise learner teachers' awareness of strategies to develop divergent questions?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Two groups of volunteer students participated in this eight-week quasi-experimental study. The experimental group (EXG) consisted of 14 L2 TESOL learner teachers. They had an advanced level of language proficiency due to a BA in EFL with an IELTs score of 6.5 or above reported in the pre-questionnaire, and their enrollment in an MA TESOL program at a midwestern American university from one to three semesters. They were nine females and five males with an average age of 26.5 years old from China, Korea, Saudi Arabia, and Taiwan. The control group (CG) included seven participants from similar backgrounds enrolled in the same program. They were four females and three males with an average age of 25.4 years old from China, Iran, Saudi Arabia, and Vietnam.

B. Instruments

Pre-Test and Post-Test

Pre-and post-tests to elicit participants' awareness of questioning strategies were designed by the researcher and respectively administered before and after the eight-week training. Two intermediate articles were selected from the book called *Language Myths* (Bauer & Trudgill, 1998) as readings in the tests using the criteria of relevance to the topic of language that participants knew, complexity of writing aligned with participants' language proficiency, and purpose of asking Qs about content in this study. Each article was seven pages long and approximately 450 words per page. In the pre-test, each participant received a copy of the first article to read as much time as possible for understanding and then received 10 minutes to ask as many Qs as possible. Flexible reading time was given to ensure a maximum understanding of the content in the readings so that they can ask Qs showing optimal ability of questioning in the measurable 10 minutes' time. All participants gathered in a computer lab and each was assigned a computer before reading. They typed in Qs and emailed the Qs to the researcher immediately after finishing. All of these procedures were repeated exactly for the post-test except the participants received the second article.

Pre-Questionnaire and Post-Questionnaire

A two-section questionnaire, called "pre-questionnaire" and designed by the researcher was given before the treatment to collect participants' demographics and English educational experience of receiving explicit instruction in questioning.

Another 11-item questionnaire, called "post-questionnaire" (Appendix A) and designed by the researcher was given during the 9th week to elicit participants' retrospective awareness of questioning strategies learning after the training. Qs1, 9, 11, elicited participants' holistic reflection upon the training regarding the degree of awareness. Qs 2 and 3, multiple choice Qs, elicited the extent of awareness to ask different Qs through a Likert Scale of five descriptors: *fullest, noticeable, some, little, not sure*. To verify the responses given in Qs 2 and 3, Qs 4, 5, 8, 10 continued to elicit responses and examples to illustrate them. Q6 checked practices that did not contribute to the awareness to cancel the errors that students may have made when responding Qs 2 and 3. Q7 asked about participants' outside application experience during the treatment weeks.

C. Treatments

The 14 EXG participants received six levels of questioning strategy training provided by the researcher based on the *Revised Taxonomy* (Appendix B) in eight treatment sessions weekly after regular classes in one fall semester. The first session focused on the two levels of questioning "Remember" and "Understand," and the next four were distributed evenly across the remaining four levels of questioning, "Apply, Analyze, Evaluate, and Create". The subsequent two sessions worked on DQs. The last session, including partial efforts of the last two, practiced holistically on stating Qs clearly, accurately, and meaningfully. A *Thinking Skills Handout* (Appendix C) was provided in each session to facilitate posing and restructuring Qs. The handouts were created based on thinking skills (processes) illustrating each aligned level of cognitive dimension (levels) in the *Revised Taxonomy* (Appendix B), questioning functions/structures (McKenzie, 2005; Morgan & Saxton, 1991), and Wiederhold's Question Matrix (2007). The central practices throughout the sessions were revising pre-test Qs returned, associating Qs to levels of Qs under training, and questioning divergently through a Question/Question Game (Q-Q Game) (Morgan & Saxton, 1991). This Game is a group activity to practice questioning based on a source Q. It requires participants to answer a Q with a Q that offers a clear and meaningful response to the source Q as well as opens up a new perspective to answer the source Q (Appendix D). The participants practiced in pairs and each asked a minimal of four-five turns in each practice. In the 9th week, they took the post-test in the lab and completed the post-questionnaire.

Each session lasted 60-75 minutes. The first 25 minutes were used to instruct participants on the selected level of questioning, to align thinking skills and functions with Qs, and to engage participants in analyzing returned Qs. For example, at the level of "Understand," participants were instructed on thinking skills (e.g. interpreting, exemplifying) using the illustrative examples of the level from the *Revised Taxonomy*. Relevant questioning functions (e.g. Can you rephrase?) were provided in the handout to facilitate instruction and practices. The next 30 minutes were used for asking levels of Qs and DQs through the Q-Q Game. In the last 15-20 minutes, participants worked in pairs revising each other's Qs utilizing the criteria of *clarity*, *accuracy*, and *meaningfulness*; finally submitting revised questions to the researcher.

D. Data Collection

This study triangulated multiple sources of quantitative and qualitative data during the treatment process to catch the complex nature of the problem and reduce the limitation of the number of participants in the study. Table 1 provides the data sources:

TABLE 1
DATA SOURCES

Source	Description of the Source
1	Pre- & post-tests
2	Pre- & post-questionnaires
3	Samples of questioning practices & notes from treatment sessions
4	Question journals
5	Pre-& post-tests by the CG

Pre- and post-tests, pre-and post-questionnaires were the primary sources of data. Samples of questioning practices throughout the sessions were also collected in the form of written notes and revised Qs. For the purpose of verifying questioning awareness in new contexts, the 14 EXG participants were asked to keep biweekly journals to record Qs they initiated inside regular semester classes. Simultaneously, the CG participants took the pre-and post-tests, but they did not receive treatment information nor weekly treatment practices.

IV. ANALYSIS

To identify answers to the research questions (RQs), both quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted. First the Qs collected from the two tests were coded by two independent coders according to the six levels of questioning and the aligned 19 cognitive processes (Appendix B) illustrated in the *Revised Taxonomy*. Of the six levels, Remember, Understand, and Apply Qs were further coded as Lower Order Questions (LOQs) while Analyze, Evaluate, and Create were coded as Higher Order Questions (HOQs). The interrater Pearson Correlation ($r = 0.83$) was significant[1]. Next, a descriptive analysis using the SPSS 25 statistical program was conducted to identify the difference between LOQs and HOQs. Paired-samples t tests were used to determine whether the mean differences between the pre-test and the post-test of the paired observations were significantly different (Cronk, 2018). Furthermore, a qualitative analysis was conducted to identify participants' tendency of asking a particular level of Qs, including distinct cognitive processes through comparing the types of Qs asked in both tests. An additional analysis of the responses collected from the post-questionnaire was performed to show the extent of awareness of questioning strategy regarding the two RQs. Finally the results were compared between the EXG and the CG to assess the significance.

V. RESULTS

To answer RQ1, a descriptive statistical analysis of three paired samples: LOQs vs. LOQs, HOQs vs. HOQs, and total pre-test Qs vs. total post-test Qs asked by the participants ($N =14$) in both tests were conducted. The analysis shows that the mean of LOQs in the pre-test ($M = 4.64$, *sd.* 2.47) was different than that ($M = 2.43$, $sd = 1.45$) in the post-test while the mean of HOQs ($M = 3.00$, $sd = 1.88$) in the post-test was also different than that ($M = 1.64$, $sd = 1.15$) in the pre-test. In other words, participants asked more LOQs in the pre-test while they asked more HOQs in the post-test. However, the total number of Qs was fewer in the post-test when compared with that in the pre-test ($M = 6.29$, $sd = 2.87$ vs. $M = 5.43$, $sd = 2.24$).To measure the significance of these mean differences, three paired-samples two-tailed t tests ($p \le .05$) were conducted and Table 2 shows the results:

TABLE 2
PAIRED SAMPLE t TESTS IN PRE-AND POST-TESTS

Paired Samples *t* Test									
Paired Differences									
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean Difference	sd	SEM	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	PreT_#of LOQs PostT_#of LOQs	2.21	2.26	.60	.90981	3.52	3.667	13	.003*
Pair 2	PreT_#of HOQs PostT_#of LOQs	-1.36	1.78	.48	-2.38520	-.33	-2.852	13	.014*
Pair 3	TotalPreT#ofQs TotalPostT#ofQs	.86	3.37	.90	-1.08913	2.80	.951	13	.359

T stands for test; sd stands for standard deviation; df stands for degrees of freedom

The first t test compared the mean number of LOQs ($M = 4.64$, *sd.* 2.47) in the pre-test to that in the post-test ($M = 2.43$ ($sd =1.45$). A significant decrease of the number of LOQs was found ($t(13)=3.67$, $p < .05$). The next t test compared the mean number of HOQs in the pre-test ($M = 1.64$; $sd =1.15$) with that in the post-test ($M = 3.00$; $sd =1.88$). A significant difference was also found ($t(13) = -2.85$, $p < .05$). The final t test tested the total mean number of Qs asked in the pre-test ($M = 6.29$; $sd=2.87$) against that of the post-test ($M = 5.43$ ($sd=2.24$). This test failed to reject the null hypothesis *($t(13) = .359$, $p > .05$)*.

Another descriptive analysis conducted to see the differences between each level of Qs asked showed that Understand Qs took 52% of the total number of Qs asked in the pre-test while Analysis Qs increased from 10% in the

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[1] Two independent coders (the researcher & a trained research assistant) first discussed sample Qs through examining level-by-level, process-by-process definitions and illustrative examples, and then practiced coding together. After that, each coded two sets of randomly selected Qs independently (Interrater Correlation r = 0.83). Specifically, they coded each question first as a "Level Q" and then as a "Process Q" based on the aligned cognitive process specified under the designated level and finally as a "LOQ" or "HOQ". For example, this question, "How can we make learning second language easy?" was coded as an Implementing (process) Q under the Apply level because it tried to put thoughts into action by using procedures to unfamiliar tasks and it was a LOQ. Lastly, questioning functions (e.g. What would happen if …?) relevant to the level of Apply shown in Thinking Skills Handouts were referenced to support the coding.

pre-test to 53% in the post-test and Understand Qs reduced from 52% to 18%. When comparing the two groups, one interesting finding was that the EXG asked a similar percentage (23.8% vs. 27.6%) of Yes/No Qs in both tests while the CG increased 27.1% of Yes/No Qs in their post-test from 33% to 60.1%, and their Qs were rarely supported by a variety of questioning functions. One surprise was that both groups asked the least number of Creation Qs when comparing both tests. The analysis of the post-questionnaire showed that 93% of the participants reported a positive/very experience with the questioning training. 79% of them reported asking levels of Qs (Table 3).

To answer RQ2 , Table 3 summarizes the descriptive analysis results reflecting the extent of awareness of DQs and levels of Qs reported in the post-questionnaire. Awareness is expressed in *Aspects, Percentages (%)* and *Examples.*

TABLE 3
REPORTED AWARENESS FROM RESPONSES TO THE POST-QUESTIONNAIRE

Awareness Aspects	%	Examples to Show Extent of Awareness
Positive Experience	93%	Positive experience
Asking Levels of Qs	79%	Noticeable extent
Asking Different Qs	86%	Noticeable extent: "I gradually understand how to ask questions more effectively and what's more kinds of questions we can think about from the source question."
Q-Q Game	57%	Stimulate minds to produce types of/different Qs; get different views of the same Qs
First-Time Noticing Questioning Strategies	100%	Each Q belongs to a different category/process; group Q-Q game; "I didn't notice that I always ask simple questions."
Applying questioning strategies	79%	Q formation functions; "ask open Qs to get answers that are not simple yes or no"; "ask Qs from different perspectives in my Cultural Class"

Q stands for question; % refers to the percentage of participants aware of the aspects in the left column.

Table 3 shows 86% of participants asked different and DQs. This finding was consistent with the evidence that 57% of the participants actually asked DQs in their post-test when the researcher examined the types of Qs, including the aligned 19 cognitive processes to see divergence and perspectives. All participants responded that this was the first time for them to notice questioning strategies such as asking different categories of Qs and proposing Qs from different perspectives. Seventy-nine percent (79%) of the participants reported that they tried to apply the strategies in new situations. Examining the percentages further, the Q-Q Game appeared to be a welcome training tool for opening up new perspectives to ask DQs because 57% of the participants noticed the effects of this game while exploring DQs.

One integrated strategy that participants practiced in the training was stating Qs clearly, accurately, and meaningfully, which meant to deepen the extent of awareness of questioning strategy. An analysis of the length and clarity of the Qs asked in both tests found the results in Table 4.

TABLE 4
LENGTH & CLARITY OF QS

	Pre-Test	Post-Test
# of Words Per Q.	21.4 (*M*)	17 (*M*)
Q Patterns Emerged	Embedded Qs	Variety: apply native-like Q functions
	Ungrammatical Qs	Length: shorter
	Incomplete Qs	Clarity: structured, meaningful/relevant

Q stands for question; *M* stands for mean

Table 4 shows the mean length per Q changed from 21.4 words in the pre-test to 17 words in the post-test. A further comparison of the Qs revealed the emergence of different questioning patterns such as using more native-like structures/functions, shortening Qs with noticeable efforts, and considering precise use of structures and Q meaning. This type of evidence was also consistently identified in the question journals. For example, Student (S) 8, during the 7th week of the training, asked in the *Language Testing* class that she was taking during the semester: "What is the difference between the median and mean" and categorized it as a comparing Q. In Treatment 2, S4 asked, "Is language have [sic] directly related to culture?" but during the 8th week of training asked: "What makes a good teaching blog?"

Comparing With the Control Group (CG)

A descriptive analysis of the Qs asked by the CG in the pre- and post-tests was conducted. The CG asked a majority of Understand Qs (68% in pre-test vs. 72% in post-test) in both tests. When examining the Understand Qs more closely, 25% in the pre-test vs. 33% in the post-test were found to explore the level of Understanding through using the cognitive process of Comparing. To identify the significance of the mean differences of asking levels of Qs between the two groups, a paired-samples *t* test was conducted and it did not reject the null hypothesis ($p = .338 > .05$). However, an interesting finding was that 60.1% of the Qs asked by the CG in the post-test were Yes/No Qs, which closely matched the 68% of the type of Understand Qs in the same test. In contrast, 27.6% of the Qs asked by the EXG in the post-test were Yes/No Qs.

VI. DISCUSSION

To identify the extent that explicit instruction on questioning strategies develop participants' awareness of asking levels of Qs and DQs, this study is conducted. A descriptive statistical analysis through three paired-samples t tests of the results is performed. The findings show that the participants in the EXG have asked fewer LOQs in their post-test due to the explicit instruction and intense restructuring training received in the treatment sessions, which is statistically significant ($t(13)=3.67$, $p < .05$). They have also asked more HOQs when their mean score in the pre-test is compared with that in the post-test, which is again statistically significant ($t(13) = -2.85$, $p < .05$). The significance indicates that participants have developed awareness of the six levels of Qs by strategically switching from asking the levels of Qs they know better to asking the levels of Qs they need more training. Of course, these findings should not be interpreted as reducing LOQs and increasing HOQs are the aim of this training because LOQs do create pedagogical effectiveness depending on purposes. Instead, the action of switching emphasizes participants' developed awareness of the varying levels of Qs, which enables them to target at what they lack to improve. However, questions may be raised about how to interpret the non-significant result obtained from comparing the total number of Qs in the two tests. It seems legitimate to assume that the total number of Qs asked in either test could not be directly interpreted as levels of Qs nor divergence of Qs.

When a deeper analysis of the levels of Qs is performed to see the extent of awareness, it is interesting to find Understand Qs, among the three levels of LOQs (Remember, Understand, and Apply) takes the majority in the pre-test for the EXG, which is also true with the CG. Among the EXG's Understand Qs are the cognitive processes of Explaining and Exemplifying Qs that rank first and second in the aligned seven cognitive processes (See Appendix B) while Inferring and Summarizing rank the last on the list. In their post-test, Analysis Qs seem to dominate participants' attention when they compose HOQs. Within the three cognitive processes (Differentiating, Organizing, and Attributing) of that level, Attributing clearly ranks at the top. These findings could be interpreted as participants are better at asking Understand Qs before training, yet after training tend to ask more Analysis Qs. The findings further suggest pedagogical implications as they confirm the argument that Qs people ask release their "incompleteness" and "lacks" (Fiengo, 2007, p. 3). Certainly, caution must be taken when interpreting further because the type of content used for generating Qs might also contribute to the cognitive processes that need to be selected. However, the findings clearly indicate the potential of identifying particular questioning levels and processes for which participants lack awareness or have not completely mastered, and which are more teachable through training or are more challenging to learn. For example, Creation Qs seem to be the hardest level to be trained because the intense restructuring training has not sufficiently helped them produce a noticeable number of Creation Qs. The processes of summarizing or inferring for understanding and differentiating or organizing for analyzing as they rank the last may be worth further attention.

The 11-item post-questionnaire conducted in the 9th week elicits participants' immediate reflection on the awareness that the sessions have raised. The descriptive results shown in Table 4 indicate that the explicit training on questioning strategy has made participants aware of levels of Qs as well as DQs. Those percentages, from 79% to 93%, associated with the awareness aspects such as levels of Qs, DQs, and positive experience, significantly indicate that explicit questioning strategy training has drawn over 79% participants' attention to questioning strategies. This indication, is first confirmed by participants' consistent responses to Q5 about any aspects of the practices TRULY drawing their attention and is further verified by the negative response to Q6 about any aspects of the practices NOT raising their awareness. The 100% confirmation of the first-time questioning strategy training indicates participants' lack of training and assumes the full extent of awareness of this type of instruction. Though the participants have expressed observable challenges when applying the Q-Q Game in practice, over half (59%) of them have reported awareness of the tool's potential in creating new opportunities to ask DQs. The written examples provided to illustrate various perspectives of asking Qs also indicate participants' awareness of the divergence created by the tool.

An integral component of practices focused on stating Qs clearly, accurately, and meaningfully further reflects the operationalization of the social-cognitive approach to questioning strategy learning. The repeated peer interaction and revising procedures applied in all treatments utilizing the same set of Qs asked by participants in the pre-test and the Q-Q Game have fully illustrated what "contextualized" (Ortega, 2009; Oxford, 2011, 2017), "restructured" (DeKeyser, 1997, 2007), and "noticed" (Schmidt,1990, 1992) social and cognitive features mean in the research. Table 4 shows the average length per Q asked is shortened from 21.4 words in the pre-test to 17 words in the post-test, which implies participants' awareness of conciseness of asking Qs in the post-test. This finding might be questioned as whether the shorter the question is better. Actually, that is true with one of the criteria of Socratic Qs emphasizing conciseness of a question (Nappi, 2017). Scaffolded by the designed practices to revise Qs based on given criteria, the participants have deeply approached Qs and revised each other's Qs multiple times. The emergence of more grammatical, meaningful, and concise Qs in the post-test reflects the effect of peer-editing and peer-questioning with contextualized Qs. The Qs asked in their question journals provide additional evidence that participants have purposefully tried to apply the strategies in new situations. These findings corroborate the result of productive use of questioning forms is developmentally effective and optimized (McDonough & Mackey, 2006, 2008). They further expand the corroboration that the productivity could be particularly more effective for certain levels of Qs such as asking Analysis Qs and reducing Understand Qs, but not all levels of Qs, like Creation Qs, can be trained at the same rate.

When comparing the findings from the EXG with the CG, no statistical significance was found, which might be due to the imbalanced ($N =14$ vs. 7) or limited number of participants; therefore, the effect size is not computed through

quantitative analysis. However, the nature of the complexity of the problem might find evidence from the qualitative analysis, which could be meaningful and pedagogically directive. The CG asked an overwhelming number of Understand Qs in the post-test when they are compared with the significant decrease of the same level of Qs in the EXG. Also the high number of Yes/No Qs asked by the CG might indicate their "lack" and "incompleteness" (Fiengo, 2007) and justify the high percentage of Understand Qs. Alternatively, they have attempted to understand the content, but they are limited in strategies to probe other higher levels of questioning. In contrast, the EXG has showed greater variety and significantly asked more HOQs after the training.

VII. Limitations and Future Research

Although such a complex construct as questioning strategy is difficult to operationalize, this study has attempted the development through carefully designing the interventional practices aligned to the *Revised Taxonomy*. However, a bigger sample of participants in both groups would allow the study to be more replicable, though the qualitative data have attempted to reduce this limitation. L1 language differences could be investigated to see how an L1 contributes to asking questions. A delayed post-test could be used to determine the long-term effect. Finally, it would be interesting to investigate why it is so hard to ask Creation Qs.

VIII. Conclusion

The overall purpose of this study is to examine the extent to which explicit instruction in questioning strategies could develop learner teachers' awareness of levels of Qs and DQs. The study finds that the explicit instruction has significantly developed L2 learner teachers' awareness of asking varying levels of Qs based on the *Revised Taxonomy* as well as asking Qs from different perspectives. The statistical analyses show that they have significantly asked more HOQs and reduced LOQs due to the productively restructuring practices. In their HOQs, Analysis Qs become the most frequently asked while in the LOQs, Understand Qs become the most frequently reduced. These findings do not mean increasing HOQs and reducing LOQs are the ultimate goals of this study. Instead, they indicate that the learner teachers are made aware of the levels of Qs and are empowered to tackle questioning strategies they need more. A comparison made with the CG is insignificant regarding the differences in asking LOQs vs. HOQs, possibly due to the imbalanced number of participants, but the finding of a majority of Yes/No Qs in the CG compared with that of the clearly lowered percentage in the EXG strongly indicates the former has limited awareness of other types of Qs. The qualitative findings from the post-questionnaire indicate participants' clear awareness of levels of Qs and DQs. The high percentages of confirmation of learning and awareness, including first time experience of the questioning strategy training and the Q-Q Game, support the quantitative significance. This support further implies that productive use of questioning forms through contextualized restructuring activities from a social-cognitive perspective facilitates identifying particular questioning strengths and weaknesses in the cognitive domain. The results indicate potential pedagogical paths for L2 learner teachers from non-Socratic educational contexts to catch up on the missed questioning education. These paths can be explored through a level-by-level and process-by-process questioning training approach supported by the effective Q-Q Game that scaffolds L2 learner teachers to question content divergently, interactively, and productively.

Appendix A. Post-questionnaire

Is your experience with the questioning skills practice…?
Very Positive   Positive   Neutral   Negative   Not Sure
To what extent have these sessions raised your awareness of asking good questions?
Fullest Extent   Noticeable Extent   Some Extent   Little Extent   Not Sure
To what extent have the practices made you think about asking different questions in other situations over the past few weeks?
Fullest Extent   Noticeable Extent   Some Extent   Little Extent   Not Sure
Is there anything in these practices that you have never thought about before?
What are the aspects of the practices that have TRULY drawn your attention to ask good questions?
What are the aspects of the practices that have NOT raised your awareness of asking good questions?
Have you ever tried to use some of the techniques you learned in the practices in other classes?
What things have you learned from these training sessions if any?
Can you name any strategies/skills that you might use in your future?
Can you define what questioning skills mean to you up to now?
What is your overall evaluation of these practice sessions?

APPENDIX B. 6 LEVELS OF QUESTIONS & 19 ALIGNED COGNITIVE PROCESSES

6 Levels of Questions

	1 **Remember** *Recognizing* *Recalling*	**2** **Understand** *Interpreting* *Exemplifying* *Classifying* *Summarizing* *Inferring* *Comparing* *Explaining*	**3** **Apply** *Executing* *Implementing*	**4** **Analyze** *Differentiating* *Organizing* *Attributing*	**5** **Evaluate** *Checking* *Critiquing*	**6** **Create** *Generating* *Planning* *Producing*
19 Processes						

Adapted from *the Revised Taxonomy:* Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, pp. 67-68

APPENDIX C. EXAMPLE THINKING SKILLS HANDOUT

Level: Application Question
Defining: *Focusing on solving problems and using it in news situations.* You are able to select, transfer, use information and generalizations to complete a task through taking what you know and applying it to new situations
Thinking skills (aligned processes)
Problem-solving, exampling, classifying, selecting, transferring, applying, hypothesizing, relating
Questioning functions/structures:
Whom would you choose? What would happen if …? If… how can …? What examples …? What would you …?

APPENDIX D. EXAMPLE PRACTICES SCAFFOLDED BY THE Q-Q GAME

Source Question (Q): Do you like English?
Answer (A): What behaviors do you count as like English?
Q: Is reading English novels a sign of loving English?
A: How often do you read novels?
Q: Why do you think reading novels frequently is so important to show my interest?
A: Would you be more engaged if you read a novel?

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Fostering Independent Learning amongst English for Academic Purposes Students through Exploration of Digital Tools

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Abstract—**Interest in using digital tools (DTs) to facilitate self-directed learning has continued to increase alongside the power and complexity of the Web. However, English language instructors cannot always be certain of the appropriateness of particular DTs for their students' unique linguistic needs, learning preferences, and cultural sensitivities. This study seeks to determine if a pedagogical approach making English language learners (ELLs) at a university in Qatar responsible for finding, trialing, vetting, and perhaps endorsing DTs results in significant changes in opinions and behaviours regarding such self-directed learning resource use. The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data suggests that students in this context are already using DTs for English language learning, without prior teacher instructions, and are comfortable doing so. However, the findings suggest that students of lower English ability might benefit from more initial instructor guidance in selecting and using new DTs. While participants did not increase their use of DTs as a result of the intervention, they noted having become more efficient in using them. All participants said that the intervention had been beneficial. Many noted they had discovered at least one new tool that they would continue to use.**

Index Terms—**digital tools, language learning, self-directed learning, language learners, English for academic purposes, higher education**

I. BACKGROUND

Independent learning as a means of improving student education has long been a topic of interest amongst educators. Moore (1973), known for his pioneering work in independent learning, suggested that by encouraging them to learn autonomously, outside of the classroom, teachers help students to develop both the ability and the will to exercise their own powers of learning, allowing them to attempt difficult learning tasks and overcome academic obstacles.

More recently, interest in using digital tools (DTs) to facilitate self-directed learning has continued to increase with

the development of the power and complexity of the Web (Blake, 2013; Saxena, 2013). Amongst the important reported benefits of students' independent use of DTs are greater learner motivation (Saxena, 2013) and the development of learning communities outside the traditional educational setting (Lord & Lomicka, 2011).

The standards developed by the International Society for Technology in Education to promote the effective use of technology in education state that educators should create a culture in which students assume responsibility of the goals and outcomes of their learning when working both individually and in groups (International Society for Technology in Education, 2017). Furthermore, students should be empowered to create both their own learning goals as well as technology-based strategies to achieve these goals, and then be encouraged to reflect on this process to improve future learning outcomes (International Society for Technology in Education, 2016). According to the standards, it is also important for educators to provide students with the opportunity to develop their understanding of fundamental concepts related to operating technology as well as their abilities to select and troubleshoot current technologies (International Society for Technology in Education, 2016).

For language learners, the Web 2.0 has often been used to provide added opportunities to practice or use language outside of the classroom (Blake, 2013; Borau, Ullrich, Feng, & Shen, 2009). Examples include the litany of grammar explanations and practice exercises available online, and the well-documented use of microblogs for language learning (Antenos-Conforti, 2009; Castrillo De Larreta-Azelain, 2013; Lord & Lomicka, 2011; Wang & Vásquez, 2012).

Use of Digital Devices by University Students in Qatar

According to the most recent estimates, 93% of Qatar's population are classified as internet users, and there are 169 mobile cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants (Central Intelligence Agency, n. d.). While little is known about how language learners in the region use these resources for self-directed independent language learning and what resources they find helpful, a limited number of studies have begun to explore this.

One survey of college students in Qatar asked about the digital devices they owned and what they used them for (MacLeod, 2015). Nearly all students reported owning a smartphone and a laptop, with many students owning multiple smartphones. Seventy-five percent of respondents owned a desktop computer, and more than half owned a tablet. However, only 63% reported using a digital device for study, and only 58% believed that technology allowed them to accomplish more academically. The most commonly used devices for studying and getting information were laptop computers, and the most commonly used for communication and entertainment were mobile phones. While Macleod (2015) found nearly 80% of respondents reported their ability to use technology to be either expert or advanced, Alajmi (2011), in a study at a college in Kuwait, found students had limited awareness of Web 2.0 tools beyond the few tools that they used most often for personal reasons, and to rarely use Web 2.0 tools for learning. As a result, Alajmi (2011) emphasized the importance of training students to use digital tools for academic purposes.

A third study surveyed students at a university in Qatar regarding their digital devices (Fayed, Yacoub, & Hussein, 2013). All participants had at least one smartphone, 28% had more than one, and 13% owned a tablet device. Participants were asked to give information regarding their usage of various smartphone features, including specifically for educational purposes. Most participants reported using their smartphones to contact family and friends through calls, texting, and social networks. Most participants also reported using their smartphones to listen to audio files, watch videos, and surf the Internet. Also mentioned, though less commonly, was using the smartphones to access documents and various apps. When asked about smartphone use for educational purposes, the most common responses were accessing the school learning management system, completing assignments, and using dictionaries. In subsequent interviews five of seven students stated they used their phone to learn English, and all participants preferred learning with a smartphone rather than books. Six of seven reported feeling motivated to learn with smartphone technology.

None of the above studies investigated the reasons behind students' selection of DTs for educational purposes. However, at a university in Qatar, the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology was applied to investigate students' adoption of technology presented as part of university courses (Akbar, 2013). The Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) is one of the most common models used to explain individuals' adoption of technology. In UTAUT, the adoption of a tool is based on a combination of performance expectancy (usefulness of the tool), effort expectancy (ease of use), social influence (perception that others believe the tool should be used), and facilitating conditions (the effectiveness of available technical support) (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003). Akbar (2013) found that, as predicted by UTAUT, performance expectancy, effort expectancy, and facilitating conditions had a significant influence on students' acceptance of technology (Akbar, 2013). Social influence was also found to have an effect (Akbar, 2013). Similarly, a study of university students' acceptance of learning through digital mobile devices in Iran suggested that performance expectancy influenced students' adoption of DTs (Chavoshi & Hamidi, 2019).

While these studies provide a valuable start, there remains a substantial void when it comes to understanding what learning tools students in the Middle East (and Qatar) find useful and appropriate for independent language learning.

II. THE PRESENT STUDY

In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environments, students typically do not spend much time functioning in English outside of the classroom. Therefore, they would almost certainly benefit from having added time using the language, especially if this added time easily fit their schedules, was culturally and linguistically appropriate, and was

appealing to this generation of learners. Digital tools are one method through which such needs could be met. In the present study, a digital tool was defined as: Any program, app, or Internet site that a student uses through their computer, smartphone, or tablet. A better understanding of how language learners in EFL environments use DTs, and how DTs could be used more effectively to improve language skills via independent learning, would be of great importance for students and educators.

However, English language instructors cannot always be certain of the appropriateness of particular DTs for their students' unique linguistic needs, learning preferences, and cultural sensitivities. As a result, they may be hesitant to introduce, or be seen as endorsing, DTs which may turn out to be of limited value or perhaps even contain materials students might consider culturally insensitive. Consequently, a wealth of resources to support learners in the Middle East may be going unknown and unexploited. Our study was modeled after an alternative approach which made students responsible for finding, trialing, vetting, and perhaps endorsing DTs (Ohashi, 2015). As part of her doctoral dissertation, Ohashi (2019) studied the independent learning practices using DTs of first year university English majors in Japan. Students completed baseline questionnaires of DT use for English language learning prior to a ten-month English language course throughout which they were required to trial and report on DTs. The same questionnaire was administered at the end of the course, and again six months after the course had ended. Baseline data showed that students did not use DTs often for English studies although device ownership was high. Throughout the course, students were asked to set learning goals and to find, trial, and report on DTs to support their goals. They wrote reports of their tools on a class Facebook page. By the end of the course, there was a significant increase in the reported use of DTs for language learning. Data from the final questionnaire indicated a decline of DT use compared to at the end of course. However, this reported tool use for English studies still indicated a significant increase when compared to the baseline data.

Our study seeks to determine if pedagogical approach similar to the one described by Ohashi (2019) results in significant changes in the opinions and behaviours of ELL university students in Qatar regarding such self-directed learning resource use. The research questions guiding this study were:

1. What are the online practices of tertiary education students in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) program in Qatar?

2. How are EAP students' independent learning practices influenced by participating in a course that requires them to use digital tools to develop their English skills?

3. On what basis do university students in Qatar select digital tools for language learning?

4. On what basis do university students in Qatar rate digital tools for English language learning?

III. METHODS

A. Setting

The study occurred at a transnational campus of a North American university, located in Qatar. The institution delivers bachelors (BN) and masters (MN) programs in nursing. All courses and support are offered in English. Language proficiency entry requirements include either an IELTS (academic) of 6.0 or iBT (internet-based TOEFL) of 80 or higher. Eighty-five percent of students, however, do not meet these requirements and complete Accuplacer ESL and a writing sample, for placement within the English for Academic Purposes Program (EAPP) program. The EAPP has three tiers, each representing one term of study, and students are expected to complete the program within three terms.

B. Participants

The target population for the study was EAPP students at the institution. A total of 49 students were enrolled in the program the semester the study began, with 13, 19, and 17 in Tiers 1, 2, and 3, respectively. A total of 26 of these students agreed to participate in the study, with 8, 9, and 9 students in Tiers 1, 2, and 3. While a sample size of 26 is small for a study comparing subgroups for potential treatment effects, it does represent over half of the target population at the time.

Demographic data indicate participants were generally representative of the student population, in terms of age (18 to 36, $\bar{x}$ = 22.62), diversity (11 different nationalities, all from the Middle East & North Africa region), and reported first languages (Arabic 23, others 3). While all participants were female, this was not considered significantly divergent from the 90% female student population.

Twenty-two participants were regular track (RT) students and 4 were post-diploma (PD). RT students have no nursing credentials and complete the entire four-year BN program. PD students have a diploma in nursing and complete two years of study to attain their BN. While the current ratio of RT:PD students at the institution approximates 1:1, the recent trend towards intake of high school graduates at the institution means far more RT students in the EAPP program. As such, the predominance of RT participants was considered reflective of the target EAPP population.

In an attempt to limit the extent that English language abilities of the different groups might influence outcomes, the treatment group was made up of the lowest (Tier 1) and highest (Tier 3) ability levels. Tier 2 students comprised the control group.

C. Procedure

The study employed a repeated measure, mixed method, explanatory sequential design. It was also quasi-experimental, as participants came pre-assigned to specific courses, and random selection/assignment was not possible.

Treatment:

Participants in the treatment group were in EAP courses that included digital tool assignments. These assignments required students to complete and submit the following every two weeks. First, they needed to identify an objective they wished to achieve with regards to improving English abilities, such as "improve academic vocabulary" or "work on passive voice". Students were encouraged to align their goals with elements covered in the course, but final selection was their decision. Next, they needed to search for, select, and trial a DT they believed would help with their goal. After spending two weeks using the tool, treatment participants completed a short report (Appendix A) on the benefits and limitations of the tool, how it contributed (or not) to their language learning goal, and its cultural appropriateness. This evaluation was uploaded to an online class discussion group. Students were encouraged to read each other's reports and reply with comments of their own, but only the reports were assessed and part of the course grade.

Questionnaires:

Treatment and control participants completed two questionnaires. The first (Appendix B) contained nine items addressing participants' attitudes and behaviours regarding DTs in general, and DTs specifically for the purpose of improving English abilities. The second questionnaire (Appendix C) contained 44 items representing specific functions for which DTs can be used. For each function, participants indicated how much time they spent using DTs in L1, and in English. The questionnaires were used to both establish a baseline (pre-treatment) for participants' attitudes and behaviours regarding DTs and DT use, and provide evidence regarding any treatment effects at post and follow-up stages. Cronbach alpha results for Questionnaire 1, at pre, post, and follow-up stages of the study ($\alpha = 0.658$, 0.722, and 0.684, respectively), were all below the traditional acceptable level ($\alpha = 0.8$) for reliability. However, the small number of items on the questionnaire (9) and relatively small sample size must also be kept in mind. Reliability estimates for the longer Questionnaire 2 were found to be well above the traditional reliability threshold ($\alpha = 0.901$, 0.858, and 0.897 at pre, post, and follow-up), indicating strong internal consistency.

Focus group interviews:

The qualitative component of the study involved semi-structured interviews conducted at post and follow-up (appendices D and E, respectively). As per explanatory sequential design (Creswell, 2014), qualitative data collection was intended to provide more depth and clarity to quantitative outcomes regarding English language development, impact of treatment, and experiences with DTs.

D. Analysis

Questionnaires:

Inability to conduct random selection/assignment of participants increases the likelihood of pre-existing group differences prior to treatment. As a result, Analyses of Covariance (ANCOVAs) were used to test for group differences at post and follow-up stages. Use of ANCOVAs, with pre-treatment results set as a covariate, provides an estimate of group effects while controlling for any differences between the treatment and control groups which may have existed prior to treatment.

Student reports:

Students were asked to report on five digital tools. Not all of the 17 participating students completed all five. Each question students were required to answer for each tool received a total of 80 or 81 responses of the possible 85. The data from the participant reports were coded to identify common ideas. Each concept was coded individually. Longer responses which included several concepts were broken down into the individual concepts. Responses from different participants that clearly indicated the same concept were paraphrased and grouped together. Ungrouped responses were then reviewed by the three primary researchers. For each of these responses, the researchers reached agreement and either grouped it into an existing concept or labelled it as a unique response. Unique responses were grouped and reported as *other*.

Focus group interviews:

The data from the focus group interviews was analyzed using consensual coding (as described by Schmidt, 2004). Each interview was listened to independently by the three primary researchers. Each researcher created their own categories for coding and independently coded each participant response. After coding independently, the three researchers met as a group to compare and discuss their coding of the responses. Through thorough comparisons and discussions, all coding was then agreed upon and finalized. Next, themes arising from the focus group participant responses were identified through further discussion between the three researchers.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. RQ #1. What Are the Online Practices of Tertiary Education Students in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) Program in Qatar?

Questionnaire 1 (Appendix B) addressed participants' access to digital devices, frequency of use for academic and non-academic purposes, and attitudes towards DT use and language learning. Baseline results for digital device access (Appendix F) reveal that participants typically had 2 or more digital devices of their own. All participants reported possessing smartphones, 85% had computers, and 34% reported owning a tablet. This is similar to the results reported by MacLeod (2015) and Fayed, Yacoub, and Hussein (2013), and suggests little cause for concern regarding whether or not students: (1) have access to DTs; or (2) are familiar with the devices upon which they operate. Individuals ranged widely in their reported use of these devices for academic and non-academic purposes (Appendix G). However, overall use for non-academic purposes, especially computers and phones, was considerable, with means of 1.85 (*SD* = 3.69) hour per day for computers, 6.11 (*SD* = 5.16) for phones, and 0.47 (*SD* = 1.37) for tablets. This is important to know, as it implies that, before intervention, participants used these devices a considerable amount, and therefore were likely comfortable using them, as well as common DTs. However, participants did not seem to use devices for academic purposes nearly as much, with means of 1.11 (*SD*=1.121), 1.34, (*SD*=1.16) and 0.32 (*SD*=1.00) hours per day for computers, smartphones, and tablets, respectively. It is worth noting here that participants reported using their smartphones for learning purposes more than computers.

Appendix H summarizes participant responses to items in Questionnaire 1 addressing attitudes towards language learning, DT use, and DT use for the purpose of language learning. Mean responses for all items ranged from strongly agree (1) to agree (2). Overall, prior to treatment, participants report being highly "motivated to improve [their] English" ($\bar{X}$ = 1.31, *SD* = 0.471) and frequently communicating with others about how they study English ($\bar{X}$ = 2.00, *SD* = 0.800). They were already comfortable with DTs ($\bar{X}$ = 1.19, *SD* = 0.491), wanted to use DTs in English ($\bar{X}$ = 1.35, *SD* = 0.485) and frequently did ($\bar{X}$ = 1.81, *SD* = 0.634). They also reported already being aware of many DTs for improving English ($\bar{X}$ = 1.54, *SD* = 0.647), reported using many of them ($\bar{X}$ = 1.76, *SD* = 0.523), and agreed with the statement they would like to find new tools for this purpose ($\bar{X}$ = 1.54, *SD* = 0.582).

Overall, EAPP students at the institution would appear to come to courses in possession of and familiar with digital devices, specifically smartphones and computers. They reported (1) being familiar with DTs and frequently use them in English and in L1; (2) using many DTs for the purpose of learning English; (3) discussing study methods with their peers; (4) wanting to find new DTs for English acquisition purposes. This suggests a higher level of familiarity and comfort with DTs compared with the findings reported by MacLeod (2015) and Alajmi (2011), and may reflect how digital technology continues to become more integrated into the lives of students in the Middle East. This also contrasts with Ohashi's (2019) findings regarding students in Japan. Few participants in her study reported using the Internet in class or independently at base (17% for listening, 13% for writing, 10% for reading, and 9% for speaking).

Questionnaire 2 (Appendix C) addressed the frequency participants used DTs for specific purposes (e.g., social media, games, news, etc.) both in L1 and in English. Results are summarized in Appendix I, along with results of tests of significant mean difference. For nearly all of the functions listed, whether in L1 or English, reported use ranged from never (0) to every day (4), indicating a wide variation in use amongst participants. For 18 of the 22 functions, participants reported using DTs in English more than their first language. Paired t-test results indicate this differential was significant for 5 functions: learning English ($t(21)$ = -6.236, *p* = .000), dictionary/translation ($t(21)$ = -4.688, *p* = .000), lifestyle ($t(21)$ = -2.932, *p* = .008), health and exercise ($t(21)$ = -2.592, *p* = .017), and online presentation makers ($t(20)$ = -2.121, *p* = .047). Two functions were found to be used in L1 significantly more than English: news ($t(22)$ = 3.867, *p* = .001) and religion ($t(22)$ = 5.334, *p* = .000). It may also be worth noting a few specific functions that were used approximately equally in English as in L1 – social media, written communication with individuals, written communication with groups, and information searches. This contrasts with Ohashi (2019), who found DT use in English relatively rare prior to intervention.

These results suggest that EAPP students already use many DTs in English at fairly high frequency. It might not be surprising that DTs for English learning and other academic purposes are used more often in English than L1 in a university context where all courses are taught in English. With regards to lifestyle and health exercise tools, it may be that tools are more readily available in English than in Arabic. In the context of a very multicultural society such as the one the study was conducted in, services are usually rendered in English. DTs related to shopping and transportation are most likely designed with this in mind. With frequency for use of written communication for individuals and groups, social media, and information searches in English approximately equalling their reported use in L1, this could be exploited in English courses. Because students are already comfortable using these DTs in English, they can be readily used as platforms for tasks to facilitate language acquisition.

B. RQ #2. How Are EAP Students' Independent Learning Practices Influenced by Participating in A Course That Requires Them to Use Digital Tools to Develop Their English Skills?

Researchers wished to assess whether completion of the Digital Tool Use assignment influenced participant attitudes towards and behaviours using DTs for language learning. To this end, analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was used to test for significant differences between treatment and control groups on: i) reported use of digital devices for academic and non-academic purposes, ii) attitudes and behaviours regarding DTs use, and iii) frequency of DT use for various specific functions. Comparisons were conducted both at post-treatment (end of the semester of treatment) and follow-up (end of the subsequent semester).

After controlling for any pre-existing differences between treatment and control groups, no significant difference between the two groups was found for overall digital device use, whether for academic or non-academic purposes. This result was found both at post and follow-up (Appendices J and K). Similarly, at post-treatment and follow-up, there were no significant differences found between treatment and control groups for any of the questionnaire items addressing attitudes and behaviours regarding DTs (Appendices L and M). At post-treatment one item – "I am comfortable using digital tools" – approached significance ($F(1, 23) = 3.726$, $p = .066$). A further paired t-test revealed a significant result between pre- and post-test. Analysis of the data indicated a significant decrease in comfort with using DTs from pre- to post-test ($t_{paired}(16) = -3.497$, $p = 0.003$). Control participants showed no significant change. While participants still reported feeling comfortable using DTs ($\bar{X} = 1.71$), they were less confident than before treatment ($\bar{X} = 1.18$). However, at follow-up this difference no longer approached significance.

During the second focus group interview, participants were informed of this decrease in comfort level. They were asked if this surprised them. Tier 3 participants answered in the affirmative while Tier 1 (lower level) participants were not as surprised. Both groups generated many possible reasons for the decrease in comfort. These reasons included: (1) novel DTs were often more difficult to use than anticipated; (2) some required the user to subscribe; (3) free versions often had many advertisements that interrupted use; (4) searching for DTs took time; and (5) some DTs had multiple uses, not all of which supported their chosen goal.

Completion of the DT project did not significantly influence participants' DT use in English for any of the functions listed in Questionnaire 2. Nor did it impact use of English learning tools in L1. This was found at both post-treatment and follow-up (Appendices N and O).

These results differ from those of Ohashi (2019), who found a strong increase in reported DT use right after intervention completion, and, while lower than after the course completion, a continued significant increase six months after intervention. A possible reason for this difference is that in our study, the baseline results indicated a much higher use of DTs for English learning than in the Ohashi study. As mentioned above, this might reflect a cultural difference. Using DTs for English learning may be more common in Qatar than in Japan. If so, required exposure to DTs would have less of an impact on future use of DTs by students in Qatar.

When asked to comment during focus group interviews on the lack of an increase in DT use between pre and post-intervention, participants said they were not surprised by this finding. Some said that following the intervention, they continued using only the DTs they had been using before the intervention period and did not spend much time using new DTs. Other participants admitted that as the intervention progressed, they began to select tools which they were already familiar with. Finally, some claimed that they actually did increase time spent using DTs, but that they became more efficient at choosing apps which saved time. They felt these may have balanced out and resulted in no net increase in DT usage, based on time spent. This explanation implies that participants were independently searching for DTs prior to the start of the intervention.

The focus group interviews also explored the experience of participants during the intervention. They reported that they would have preferred a less structured approach to the assignment. Specifically, participants would have preferred to: (1) use digital tools only when needed instead of being a requirement; (2) have one goal instead of changing goals every two weeks; (3) continue to use one tool instead of changing every two weeks; and (4) have the instructor select and introduce an initial DT. Participants also reported that not all of the DTs were easy to use.

C. RQ #3. on What Basis Do University Students in Qatar Select Digital Tools for Language Learning?

Language goals reported when selecting digital tools:

Table 1 provides a list of the language goals participants reported when selecting DTs. The emphasis on topics such as vocabulary, grammar, and writing, rather than speaking, would appear to reflect the nature of the EAP program.

TABLE I.
SUMMARY OF REPORTED GOALS WHEN CHOOSING THE DIGITAL TOOL

n = 17; total number of reports = 81	
Goal (area of English language to improve)	Number of Times Indicated
Vocabulary	25
Grammar	16
Writing	13
Verb tenses	8
Sentence structure	7
Reading	6
Speaking	4
Paraphrasing	2
Punctuation	2
Spelling	2
Other	2

Reported reasons for choosing the digital tool

The reported reasons for selecting the DTs (see Table 2) appear to support the assertions of the UTAUT (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003). Social influence was the biggest factor, as indicated by the number of times recommendations by family or friends (27) and former teachers (8) were reported. This idea was repeated in focus

group interviews by participants, especially those of lower English ability (Tier 1), who commented on the usefulness of other students' reports in finding new DTs. Some participants also reported discussing the usefulness of the DTs with their classmates. Eighteen reports of a belief the tool will help to improve English reflects the importance of performance expectancy, as predicted by UTAUT. Again as predicted, ease of use appears as the third most common (8) reason given for choosing the tool. As students were not supported in their use of the tools, the fourth UTAUT determinant of user acceptance, facilitating conditions - or the effectiveness of available technical support - was not reported. This supports the findings of Akbar (2013) and Chavoshi and Hamidi (2019).

TABLE II.
SUMMARY OF REPORTED REASONS FOR CHOOSING THE DIGITAL TOOL

n = 17; total number of reports = 81	
Reason	Number of Times Indicated
Recommended by family or friends	27
A belief the tool will help to improve English	18
Looks interesting	8
Looks simple to use	8
Recommended by a former teacher	8
Saw the tool advertised online	7
Covers a range of topics / multipurpose	3
Visually appealing	2
I used it before	2
Other	4

D. RQ #4. on What Basis Do University Students in Qatar Rate Digital Tools for English Language Learning?

Ratings of digital tools:

Participants reported using 53 individual tools. Most tools were favourably reviewed by participants, as indicated by the 3.56 and 3.54 out of 4 average ratings for usefulness and cultural appropriateness, respectively (see Appendix P). As with the large number of good points relative to bad points reported for the tools (see Tables 3 and 4), the favourable ratings may be attributed to participants experimenting briefly with the tools before selecting them (and thus not selecting tools they expected to be poor) as well as to participants selecting tools based on recommendations from acquaintances. As mentioned in the description of the assignment, students were required to trial DTs which they believed would be useful in helping them reach their learning goal. The high ratings of cultural appropriateness could suggest that there are few DTs available which may be considered culturally inappropriate to students in Qatar. It could also suggest that participants were usually able to identify culturally inappropriate DTs early on and thus avoid selecting them for trial.

Reported good points of digital tools:

The most common positive comments participants made about DTs are listed in Table 3. Students were asked to provide an explanation of how the tool helped them to reach their goal (if it did). They were also asked to provide any additional good points of the tool, as well as any bad points. Table C was compiled by combining the participant responses for "explanation" and "good points." If a participant provided the same response twice for a tool, the response was only recorded once.

TABLE III.
SUMMARY OF REPORTED GOOD POINTS OF DIGITAL TOOLS

n = 17; total number of reports = 80	
Good Point	Number of Times Indicated
Helped to improve English	48
Many exercises/examples/quizzes	29
Easy to use	26
Corrects errors / gives useful feedback	15
Fun/interesting / includes games	18
Does not require an Internet connection	14
Many/effective explanations	9
Personalized to target specific individual needs	8
Information on a variety of topics	7
Can translate to/from L1	5
Free	5
Post-exercise quizzes to check skill acquisition	5
Accessible through mobile apps and online computers	5
Used online	4
Available in many languages	3
Has different levels of difficulty	2
Can type in Arabic	2
Easy to download	2
Fast	2
Other	23

By far the most common positive comment was that the DT helped the participant to improve their English. Other frequent responses included praising tools that provided a large number of exercises or examples and commenting on tools that were easy to use.

Reported bad points of digital tools:

When asked to comment on a DT's bad points, the most common response participants provided was "no bad points" (see Table 4). This is possibly because participants were trying tools briefly before selecting them for use for the assignment, and thus only reporting on tools that they already had some positive feelings towards. Table B indicates that participants were selecting tools that either they had a least some familiarity with or had been recommended by an acquaintance. Of the bad points that were reported, required Internet connections, too much advertising, and slow response time were the most common. The list of bad points was compiled from the participant responses to the assignment question asking them to describe any bad points of DTs. Participants did not list bad points when asked to explain how the tool helped them to reach their language goal.

TABLE IV.
SUMMARY OF REPORTED BAD POINTS OF DIGITAL TOOLS

Bad Point	Number of Times Identified
n = 17; total number of reports = 81	
No bad points	17
Requires an Internet connection	12
Too many advertisements	10
Slow response	8
App only, cannot use on computers	5
Not enough exercises or examples	4
Premium features are not free	4
There are language errors	4
Computer only, no app	3
There is a timer, requiring a quick response	3
Also includes mathematics exercises	2
Sign up required for some or all features	2
Not enough exercises or examples	2
Other	15

In the focus group interviews, participants elaborated on some of the difficulties they had with the tools. Some participants reported that some DTs were difficult to use. Specifically, they mentioned the need for advanced English vocabulary to use the DT. They mentioned that not all students (especially older ones) were experienced using DTs. The desire for more teacher guidance in all aspects of the assignment (finding, selecting, trialling, and evaluating DTs) was also mentioned. This suggests that teachers cannot assume that all of their students are able to effectively select and use DTs beyond the ones that they are already familiar with.

V. CONCLUSION

This study contributes to the limited literature which considers the attitudes and practices of university students in Qatar and the Middle East regarding the use of digital tools for English language learning purposes. It is hoped that the findings of this study will be useful for educators who are considering the many factors involved in how to successfully integrate DTs into their courses. For example, teachers should be aware that students appear to be using their smartphones more often than their computers for academic use.

The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data suggests that EAP students in this context are using DTs for English language learning without prior teacher instructions, and are comfortable doing so. While students did not increase their use of DTs as a result of participating in a course which required them to, they noted having become more efficient in using them. All students said that the intervention had been beneficial. Many noted they had discovered at least one new tool that they would continue to use.

At lower language proficiency levels, students might require more guidance to get them started, after which most would be expected to quickly become efficient at selecting and using appropriate DTs. Such guidance might include a list of DTs such as the one generated by this study (Appendix N). The results also suggest that students can benefit from support and guidance from learning communities that form as students share information about the DTs they use. Indeed, participants seemed to base their decision to use a DT largely on the recommendations of others. However, though many younger students may be considered digital natives, they may still encounter challenges with using DTs. Teachers should avoid making assumptions that all students can use digital tools easily. In fact, ease of use was reported as an especially desirable quality of a new DT.

The greatest limitation to this study is the relatively low number of participants. While the results of this study do contribute to the understanding the impact of digital devices and tools for independent English learning in Qatar and the Middle East, more research is needed. One focus of future research might consider how the needs of students of varying language ability differ. In addition to our discussion of results and their implications, we hope that the list of digital tools used by students, as well as their evaluation of them, can be of use to instructors in guiding students towards helpful tools to help achieve their English learning goals.

APPENDIX A. DIGITAL TOOL PROJECT REPORT

1. Reason for goal:
2. Tool used: (cut and paste the URL, or name the APP)
3. Reason for selecting this tool:
4. The tool was culturally appropriate for university students in Qatar.
   1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Agree, 4. Strongly Agree.
5. The tool was useful in helping me with my language goal.
   1. Strongly disagree, 2. Disagree, 3. Agree, 4. Strongly Agree.
6. If the tool helped you with your goal, briefly explain how.
7. What were some other good points about the tool (if any)?
8. What were some bad points about the tool (if any)?

APPENDIX B QUESTIONNAIRE 1

Digital Tools Questionnaire 1

BNRT / PDBN	Age	Male or Female	Nationality	First language	How many years in Qatar?

Device	How many devices? (ex. 0,1,2,3)	Academic Use How much time a day? (ex. 15 minutes, 2 hours)	Non-Academic Use How much time a day? (ex. 15 minutes, 2 hours)
Computer			
Smart phone			
Tablet			

A digital tool is:
Any program, app, or internet site that you use through your computer, smartphone, or tablet.

Circle the best answer:

1. I am comfortable using digital tools			
A) Strongly agree	B) Agree	C) Disagree	D) Strongly disagree

2. I often use digital tools in English			
A) Strongly agree	B) Agree	C) Disagree	D) Strongly disagree

3. I want to use digital tools to help me improve my English ability			
A) Strongly agree	B) Agree	C) Disagree	D) Strongly disagree

4. I often use digital tools to help me improve my English ability			
A) Strongly agree	B) Agree	C) Disagree	D) Strongly disagree

5. There are many digital tools to help me improve my English ability			
A) Strongly agree	B) Agree	C) Disagree	D) Strongly disagree

6. I use many different kinds of digital tools to help me improve my English ability			
A) Strongly agree	B) Agree	C) Disagree	D) Strongly disagree

7. I want to find new digital tools to help me improve my English ability			
A) Strongly agree	B) Agree	C) Disagree	D) Strongly disagree

8. I am motivated to improve my English ability			
A) Strongly agree	B) Agree	C) Disagree	D) Strongly disagree

9. I often communicate with others about how they study English			
A) Strongly agree	B) Agree	C) Disagree	D) Strongly disagree

APPENDIX C. QUESTIONNAIRE 2

Digital Tool Use Questionnaire 2

Digital tools	Other than English, when I use digital tools, I use					English				
Digital tools: Any program, app, or internet site that you use through your computer, smartphone, or tablet. How often do you use these digital tools? Please give an answer for both the blue and yellow columns.	Never	1 or 2 times a month	1 or 2 times a week	Almost everyday	Everyday	Never	1 or 2 times a month	1 or 2 times a week	Almost everyday	Everyday
EXAMPLE: News				X		X				
1. Social Media (ex. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Snapchat)										
2. Games (ex. Minecraft)										
3. News										
4. Blogs										
5. Religion										
6. Hobbies (ex. learning about photography)										
7. Video sharing sites (ex. You-Tube)										
8. Movies, television or other programs (through internet!)										
9. Pod casts (audio programs)										
10. Written communication for individuals (ex. email, sms, WhatsApp)										
11. Written communication for groups (ex. WhatsApp, Google groups)										

Digital Tool Use Questionnaire 2

Digital Tools						English				
	Never	1 or 2 times a month	1 or 2 times a week	Almost everyday	Everyday	Never	1 or 2 times a month	1 or 2 times a week	Almost everyday	Everyday
12. Video Calls (ex. Skype, FaceTime)										
13. Finances (ex. online banking, expense tracker)										
14. Lifestyle (ex. Uber, online shopping & selling, weather, restaurant)										
15. Searching for information (ex. Google, Wikipedia, Medscape, WebMD)										
16. Dictionaries and translators										
17. English learning sites or apps (ex. grammar, vocabulary)										
18. D2L (Desire to Learn)										
19. Online presentation makers (ex. Prezi)										
20. E-books										
21. Audio books										
22. Health and exercise (ex. step tracker, exercise tracker)										
Other non-listed sites/tools/purposes										

APPENDIX D. FOCUS GROUP 1 GUIDING QUESTIONS, POST INTERVENTION

1. How was your experience with this project? Positive or negative?
2. Did participating in the Digital Tools Project help to improve your English?
   a.   If yes, what aspects helped the most? The least?
   b.   If no, why do you think it wasn't beneficial?
3. This semester you were required to find, try out, and report on your experiences using digital tools. Tell us about your experience:

      a.   finding the digital tools
          i.   Was it easy? Was it enjoyable? Was it helpful?
      b.   trialing the digital tools
          i.   Was it easy? Was it enjoyable? Was it helpful?
      c.   reporting on the digital tools
          i.   Was it easy? Was it enjoyable? Was it helpful?
      d.   did you read other people's reports on their experiences?
          i.   What was that like? Was it helpful?

4. Every two weeks, you had to come up with a new goal for improving your English using a digital tool. What did you think about this part of the assignment?
      a.   Was it easy? Was it enjoyable? Was it helpful?
      b.   Was anything frustrating about this part of the project?

5. Do you think you will continue to use digital tools to help improve your English in the future, now the semester is over?

IF TIME: Anything you would recommend changing

APPENDIX E. FOCUS GROUP 2 GUIDING QUESTIONS, 1 SEMESTER POST TREATMENT

1. Are you using digital tools to help you with English now?

   Follow-up: How many?
   Follow-up: Which ones?

2. Are you using any digital tools **now** that you first learned about during the assignment? (You did not already know about them before the assignment.)

   Follow-up: Why not?
   Follow-up: Which ones? What are you using them for?

3. Having completed the digital tool assignment, do you now feel you have more resources to improve your English on your own?

4. During the digital tool assignment, did you learn anything from other students, by talking to them, or reading their work?

   Follow-up: What did you learn?

5. If you had a question about English language now, would you first try to find the answer yourself, or go to a teacher?

   Follow-up: Why?

6. The data from the questionnaires indicates that people did **not** increase the time spent using digital tools during the digital tools assignment. Does this surprise you?

   Follow-up: Why?

7. Based on the questionnaires, people did said that they felt **less comfortable** using digital tools following the assignment semester. Does this surprise you?

   Follow-up: Why?

APPENDIX F. BASELINE: NUMBER OF DIGITAL DEVICES BY TYPE

Type	Number	Frequency	%	Cum. %	Mean	SD
Computers	0	4	15.4	15.4	1.19	0.749
	1	14	53.8	69.2		
	2	7	26.9	96.2		
	3	1	3.8	100.0		
Smartphones	0	0	0	0	1.15	0.464
	1	23	88.5	88.5		
	2	2	7.7	96.2		
	3	1	3.8	100.0		
Tablets	0	17	65.4	65.4	0.38	0.571
	1	8	30.8	96.2		
	2	1	3.8	100.0		
	3	0	0	0		
Total Devices	0	0	0	0	2.73	1.313
	1	3	11.5	11.5		
	2	12	46.2	57.7		
	3	4	15.4	73.1		
	4	4	15.4	88.5		
	5	2	7.7	96.2		
	6	1	3.8	100.0		

APPENDIX G. BASELINE: REPORTED HOURS PER DAY OF DIGITAL DEVICE USE BY TYPE AND PURPOSE

Type	Purpose	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Computers	Academic	26	0	4.50	1.11	1.123
	Non-academic	26	0	14.50	1.85	3.690
Smartphones	Academic	26	0	3.00	1.34	1.161
	Non-academic	26	0.25	16.00	6.11	5.160
Tablets	Academic	26	0	4.50	0.32	0.998
	Non-academic	26	0	5.00	0.47	1.368
Valid N (listwise)		26				

APPENDIX H. BASELINE: REPORTED ATTITUDES REGARDING DIGITAL TOOLS, LEARNING ENGLISH, AND DIGITAL TOOL USE FOR LEARNING ENGLISH

	N	Min.	Max.	$\bar{X}$	SD
I am comfortable using digital tools	26	1	3	1.19	.491
I often use digital tools in English	26	1	3	1.81	.634
I want to use digital tools to help me improve my English	26	1	2	1.35	.485
I often use digital tools to help me improve my English ability	26	1	4	1.73	.724
There are many digital tools to help me improve my English ability	26	1	3	1.54	.647
I use many different kinds of digital tools to help me improve my English ability	25	1	3	1.76	.523
I want to find new digital tools to help me improve my English ability	26	1	3	1.54	.582
I am motivated to improve my English ability	26	1	2	1.31	.471
I often communicate with others about how they study English	26	1	3	2.00	.800
Valid N (listwise)	26				

Questionnaire scale: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = disagree, 4 = strongly disagree

APPENDIX I. BASELINE: REPORTED USE OF DIGITAL TOOLS FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES – IN L1 AND IN ENGLISH

Function	In L1					In English					Paired t-tests		
	N	Min.	Max.	$\bar{X}$	SD	N	Min.	Max.	$\bar{X}$	SD	t	df	p
Social Media	24	0	4	2.79	1.503	25	0	4	2.64	1.186	0.424	22	.68
Games	24	0	4	1.17	1.435	25	0	4	2.04	1.485	-1.647	22	.11
News	24	0	4	1.87	1.541	25	0	4	1.08	1.115	3.867	22	.00
Blogs	24	0	4	1.46	1.474	25	0	3	1.12	1.054	1.594	22	.13
Religion	24	0	4	2.08	1.472	25	0	2	.44	.712	5.334	22	.00
Hobbies	24	0	4	1.96	1.459	25	0	4	1.60	1.258	0.927	22	.36
Video Sharing sites	24	0	4	2.21	1.179	25	0	4	2.00	1.291	1.232	22	.23
Movies, TV, etc., online	24	0	4	1.92	1.248	25	1	4	2.36	1.036	-1.751	22	.09
Podcasts	24	0	4	1.75	1.7	25	0	4	1.20	1.443	1.348	22	.19
Written communication for individuals	24	0	4	3.00	1.351	25	0	4	2.68	1.406	1.288	22	.21
Written communication for groups	24	0	4	2.96	1.334	25	0	4	2.48	1.531	1.692	22	.10
Video Calls	24	0	4	1.54	1.56	24	0	4	1.00	1.383	1.609	21	.12
Finances	24	0	4	0.71	1.367	24	0	4	.71	1.197	0.000	21	1.0
Lifestyle	24	0	3	0.92	1.018	24	0	4	1.79	1.414	-2.932	21	.01
Searching for Information	24	0	4	2.88	1.116	24	0	4	2.54	1.250	1.449	21	.16
Dictionaries and Translators	24	0	4	2.25	1.452	24	0	4	3.38	0.924	-4.688	21	.00
English learning sites or apps	24	0	4	1.04	1.459	24	0	4	2.67	1.129	-6.236	21	.00
Online Presentation Makers	23	0	4	0.52	1.201	23	0	4	.87	1.359	-2.121	20	.05
E-books	24	0	4	0.75	1.294	24	0	4	.75	1.189	0.000	21	1.0
Audiobooks	24	0	4	0.37	0.924	24	0	3	.33	0.761	0.568	21	.58
Health and exercise	24	0	2	0.83	0.868	24	0	4	1.46	1.285	-2.592	21	.02
Valid N (listwise)	22					22							

Questionnaire scale: 0 = never, 1 = once or twice a month, 2 = once or twice a week, 3 = almost every day, 4 = every day

APPENDIX J. POST-TEST MEANS AND ANCOVA RESULTS FOR HOURS PER DAY OF DIGITAL DEVICE USE BY GROUP

	Means, adjusted for Pre-Test differences					ANCOVA Results		
	Control		Treatment		T-C			
	n	$\bar{X}$	n	$\bar{X}$		F	p	η_p^2
Total Digital Device Use Academic Purposes	9	3.517	17	2.76	-0.757	0.934	.344	.039
Total Digital Device Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	7.372	17	4.734	-2.638	2.249	.147	.089
Computer Use Academic Purposes	9	1.390	17	1.044	-0.346	0.950	.340	.040
Computer Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	1.009	17	1.157	0.148	0.113	.740	.005
Smartphone Use Academic Purposes	9	1.774	17	1.094	-0.680	2.062	.164	.082
Smartphone Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	5.807	17	3.386	-2.421	2.553	.124	.100
Tablet Use Academic Purposes	9	0.321	17	0.639	0.318	0.349	.561	.015
Tablet Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	0.298	17	0.313	0.015	0.003	.954	.000

APPENDIX K. FOLLOW-UP MEANS AND ANCOVA RESULTS FOR DIGITAL DEVICE USE BY GROUP

	Means, adjusted for Pre-Test differences					ANCOVA Results		
	Control		Treatment		T-C			
	n	$\bar{X}$	n	$\bar{X}$		F	p	η_p^2
Total Digital Device Use Academic Purposes	9	3.517	17	2.76	-0.757	0.934	.344	.039
Total Digital Device Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	7.372	17	4.734	-2.638	2.249	.147	.089
Computer Use Academic Purposes	9	1.390	17	1.044	-0.346	0.950	.340	.040
Computer Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	1.009	17	1.157	0.148	0.113	.740	.005
Smartphone Use Academic Purposes	9	1.774	17	1.094	-0.680	2.062	.164	.082
Smartphone Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	5.807	17	3.386	-2.421	2.553	.124	.100
Tablet Use Academic Purposes	9	0.321	17	0.639	0.318	0.349	.561	.015
Tablet Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	0.298	17	0.313	0.015	0.003	.954	.000

APPENDIX L. POST-TEST MEANS AND ANCOVA RESULTS FOR DIGITAL TOOL USE ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURS

| | Means, adjusted for Pre-Test differences | | | | | ANCOVA Results | | |
| | Control | | Treatment | | T-C | | | |
	n	$\bar{X}$	n	$\bar{X}$		F	p	η_p^2
Total Digital Device Use Academic Purposes	9	3.517	17	2.76	-0.757	0.934	.344	.039
Total Digital Device Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	7.372	17	4.734	-2.638	2.249	.147	.089
Computer Use Academic Purposes	9	1.390	17	1.044	-0.346	0.950	.340	.040
Computer Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	1.009	17	1.157	0.148	0.113	.740	.005
Smartphone Use Academic Purposes	9	1.774	17	1.094	-0.680	2.062	.164	.082
Smartphone Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	5.807	17	3.386	-2.421	2.553	.124	.100
Tablet Use Academic Purposes	9	0.321	17	0.639	0.318	0.349	.561	.015
Tablet Use Non-Academic Purposes	9	0.298	17	0.313	0.015	0.003	.954	.000

APPENDIX M. FOLLOW-UP MEANS AND ANCOVA RESULTS FOR DIGITAL TOOL USE ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOURS

| | Means, adjusted for Pre-Test differences | | | | | ANCOVA Results | | |
| | Control | | Treatment | | T-C | | | |
	n	$\bar{X}$	n	$\bar{X}$		F	p	η_p^2
I am comfortable using digital tools	9	1.335	16	1.249	-0.086	0.187	.669	.008
I often use digital tools in English	9	1.894	16	1.497	-0.397	2.910	.102	.117
I want to use digital tools to help me improve my English	9	1.563	16	1.433	-0.130	0.381	.544	.017
I often use digital tools to help me improve my English ability	9	1.601	16	1.725	0.124	0.302	.588	.014
There are many digital tools to help me improve my English ability	9	2.065	16	1.526	-0.539	3.289	.083	.130
I use many different kinds of digital tools to help me improve my English ability	8	1.799	16	1.663	-0.136	0.181	.675	.009
I want to find new digital tools to help me improve my English ability	9	1.666	16	1.875	0.209	0.734	.401	.032
I am motivated to improve my English ability	9	1.667	15	1.467	-0.200	1.074	.312	.049
I often communicate with others about how they study English	9	1.964	16	2.020	0.056	0.040	.843	.002

APPENDIX N. POST-TEST MEANS AND ANCOVA RESULTS FOR DIGITAL TOOL USE FOR SPECIFIC FUNCTIONS – IN ENGLISH

| | Means, adjusted for Pre-Test differences | | | | | ANCOVA Results | | |
| | Control | | Treatment | | T-C | | | |
	n	$\bar{X}$	n	$\bar{X}$		F	p	η_p^2
Social Media	9	3.065	16	2.963	-0.102	0.051	.824	.002
Games	9	1.504	16	2.154	0.65	1.096	.306	.047
News	8	0.706	16	1.21	0.504	2.039	.168	.089
Blogs	9	1.343	15	1.794	0.451	0.671	.422	.031
Religion	8	0.625	16	0.75	0.125	0.105	.749	.005
Hobbies	9	1.365	16	1.795	0.430	0.936	.344	.041
Video sharing sites (ex. YouTube)	9	1.901	16	2.18	0.279	0.389	.539	.017
Movies, television, or other programs (through internet)	8	2.553	15	2.371	-0.182	0.206	.655	.010
Podcasts	9	1.315	15	0.678	-0.637	1.495	.235	.066
Written communication for individuals (ex. Email, SMS, WhatsApp)	9	2.785	16	2.746	-0.039	0.009	.926	.000
Written communication for groups (ex. WhatsApp, Google Groups)	9	2.21	16	2.444	0.234	0.292	.594	.013
Video Calls (ex. Slype, FaceTime)	9	2.26	15	1.377	-0.883	3.039	.096	.126
Finances (ex. Online banking, expense tracker)	9	1.725	15	1.298	-0.427	0.571	.458	.026
Lifestyle (ex. Uber, online shopping & selling, weather, restaurant)	9	1.939	15	2.036	0.097	0.021	.886	.001
Searching for information (ex. Google, Wikipedia, Medscape, WebMD)	9	2.325	15	2.805	0.480	1.122	.302	.051
Dictionaries and translators	9	2.927	15	2.844	-0.083	0.03	.863	.001
English learning sites or apps (ex. Grammar, vocabulary) in L1*	7	0.565	14	1.289	0.724	1.054	.318	.055
English learning sites or apps in English	9	3.139	15	2.517	-0.622	2.874	.105	.120
D2L (Desire to Learn)	9	2.927	15	2.844	-0.083	0.03	.863	.001
Online presentation makers (ex. Prezi)	8	1.455	15	1.024	-0.431	0.859	.365	.041
e-books	9	0.898	15	0.995	0.097	0.06	.809	.003
Audio books	9	0.938	15	0.571	-0.367	0.582	.454	.027
Health and exercise (ex. Step tracker, exercise tracker)	9	1.895	15	1.396	-0.499	1.162	.293	.052
Mean use for all functions	7	1.819	11	1.826	0.007	0.002	.970	.000

* Item appeared on the L1 list for DT use for specific functions

APPENDIX O. FOLLOW-UP MEANS AND ANCOVA RESULTS FOR DIGITAL TOOL USE FOR SPECIFIC FUNCTIONS – IN ENGLISH

	Means, adjusted for Pre-Test differences				ANCOVA Results		
	Control		Treatment		T-C		
	n	$\bar{X}$	n	$\bar{X}$		F	p	η_p^2
Social Media	9	2.806	16	2.984	0.179	0.126	.725	.006
Games	9	1.204	16	1.761	0.557	0.869	.361	.038
News	9	1.883	15	1.070	-0.813	2.435	.134	.104
Blogs	9	1.439	16	1.128	-0.311	0.374	.547	.017
Religion	9	.957	16	.774	-0.182	0.124	.728	.006
Hobbies	9	1.687	16	1.551	-0.135	0.114	.738	.005
Video sharing sites (ex. YouTube)	9	2.152	16	2.164	0.012	0.000	.985	.000
Movies, television, or other programs (through internet)	9	1.944	16	2.656	0.712	2.086	.163	.087
Podcasts	9	.962	16	1.022	0.060	0.010	.921	.000
Written communication for individuals (ex. Email, SMS, WhatsApp)	9	2.894	16	2.560	-0.334	0.361	.554	.016
Written communication for groups (ex. WhatsApp, Google Groups)	9	2.970	16	2.517	-0.453	0.705	.410	.031
Video Calls (ex. Slype, FaceTime)	9	1.701	15	1.180	-0.521	1.217	.282	.055
Finances (ex. Online banking, expense tracker)	8	.999	15	1.067	0.069	0.018	.894	.001
Lifestyle (ex. Uber, online shopping & selling, weather, restaurant)	9	1.767	14	1.328	-0.439	0.929	.347	.044
Searching for information (ex. Google, Wikipedia, Medscape, WebMD)	9	2.970	15	2.818	-0.151	0.159	.694	.008
Dictionaries and translators	9	2.890	15	2.933	0.042	0.007	.932	.000
English learning sites or apps (ex. Grammar, vocabulary) in L1*	8	.995	13	1.080	0.084	0.018	.894	.001
English learning sites or apps in English	9	2.758	14	2.084	-0.674	1.325	.263	.062
D2L (Desire to Learn)	8	2.620	15	3.469	0.849	2.480	.131	.110
Online presentation makers (ex. Prezi)	8	2.172	15	.842	-1.330	1.176	.291	.056
e-books	9	1.763	15	1.275	-0.488	0.609	.444	.028
Audio books	9	.833	15	.833	0.000	0.000	1.000	.000
Health and exercise (ex. Step tracker, exercise tracker)	9	1.601	15	2.106	.505	0.957	.339	.044
Mean use for all functions	6	2.001	10	1.695	-0.306	1.241	.285	.087

* Item appeared on the L1 list for DT use for specific functions

APPENDIX P. STUDENT RATINGS OF DIGITAL TOOLS

n = 17; total number of reports = 81

Digital Tool	Mean Culturally Appropriate /4	Mean Usefulness /4	Total Reported Uses
100 English Grammar Rules	4	4	1
ABA Learn English app	3.5	3.5	2
CRAM	4	4	1
Dictonary.com	3	3	1
Duolingo	2.5	3.5	2
Elevate	4	3.5	2
English Grammar	3.5	4	4
English Grammar Test	3	3	1
English Writing	3	3	1
English Writing Skills	3.67	3.33	3
engVid	3.5	4	2
Ginger Grammar Checker	4	4	1
Google Translate	4	4	1
GoParaphrase	3	3	2
GradeProof app	4[a]	4[a]	2
Grammar in Use	4	4	2
Grammar Up	4	4	1
Guide to Grammar and Writing	4	3	1

Grammarly	4	4	1
Grammarly Keyboard	4	4	1
Hello English: Learn English	3	3	3
IELTS Writing	4[b]	3.5	4
IXL Learning	4	4	1
Johnny Grammar Word Challenge	4	4	1
Kahoot	3	3	1
Learn English Grammar	4[a]	4[a]	2
Learn English Grammar Rules	4	4	1
Learn English Vocabulary - 6,000 Words	4	4	1
Learn American English Online	1	3	1
Ling Ling English	2.5	4	2
Magooosh	3	3	1
Memrise	3.5	3.5	2
Merriam Webster Dictionary	4	4	2
Oxford English Dictionary	3	3	1
Perfect English Grammar	4	3	1
Quizlet	4	4	1
RoadToGrammar.com	4	4	1
Speak - Text to Speech	3	4	1
Speak and Translate	4	3	1
Speaking Pal	4	3	1
Speed Reading	4	4	1
Speedy English Grammar	3[a]	4[a]	2
SpellBoy	no response	no response	1
Speller - Spell Checker	4	3	1
St. Petersburg College Libraries	3.5	3.5	2
Study.com	3	4	1
Study.com app	4	4	1
Train Your Brain English Comprehension	4	3	1
Translate.com	4	3	1
University of Victoria English Language Centre Study Zone	1	1	1
Vocab Genius	4	4	1
Vocabulary Builder	4	3.5	2
Vocabulary.com	4	4	1
Total Mean for All Digital Tools	3.54	3.56	

[a] only one student response
[b] only three student responses

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Impact of Information and Communication Technology on Acquiring the Literacy Skills outside the Classroom among Adults in Nsukka Urban

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Abstract—The study investigated the impact of Information and Communication Technology on acquiring the literacy skills among adults outside the classroom in Nsukka urban. It sought to discuss the roles ICT plays in developing the literacy skills among adults. The study was anchored on the Piaget's Constructivist Theory of Learning. The study adopted a descriptive survey design. Using the Random Sampling Technique, one hundred participants were selected for the study. A twelve-item structured interview was developed and administered to these participants directly. The data were analyzed quantitatively using the frequency count and percentage method, duly represented in figures. The results showed that ICT plays a vital role in enabling adults who skipped being taught the skills of reading and writing formally in a conventional classroom and those with reading and writing difficulties acquire and develop these skills. The study suggested that adults should self-educate themselves by constantly using ICT facilities.

Index Terms—ICT, English acquisition, literacy skills, reading, writing, constructivist theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) occupies the center stage in virtually every aspects of human existence. Okoro (2008) defines ICT as a means of accessing or retrieving, storing, transferring, processing and sending ideas, perception or information as well as provide access to Knowledge. In the words of Shittu and Shittu (2013) as cited in Ossai, Uzoegwu and Egbe (2017), ICT refers to all forms of evolving technology that help in facilitating information collection, processing, usage, transfer, storage, retrieval, sharing and interpreting information. Ezegbe, Okeke, Ome, Onah and Achebe (2017), however, argue that "the emergence of ICT has revolutionalized the way information is accessed, processed, stored, retrieved and disseminated within organizations or across the world." This argument stands in contradistinction with the traditional method of accessing, processing and disseminating of information decades ago. A good example is a situation where there is a conventional teacher who is teaching in a conventional classroom using one of the traditional methods of instructional delivery. Yenle (2018) adds that "the role of technology cannot be overemphasized as it can provide a significant plus to many conventional tools such as boards, textbooks, cassette, video players, etc," The advent of ICT in Nigeria has, however, changed the methods of doing things. In fact, ICT has introduced innovative ways of handling and solving the societal problems. It occupies a center stage at workplaces, schools, industries, firms, social life, to mention just these; thereby reducing the world to a global village. Ezegbe, Okeke, Ome, Onah and Achebe (2017) mentioned that laptops, video machine, multimedia projectors or power points, digital cameras, internet, social media, computer networks, telephone, tablets, Skype, You Tube etc. are some ICT tools that aid learning because of the various roles they play in simplifying learning of all types.

Scholars have established that ICT plays a vital role in teaching and learning of the English language in schools, colleges and universities (Ezegbe, Okeke, Ome, Onah & Achebe 2017; Ossai, Uzoegwu & Egbe, 2017; Yenle, 2018). English, in itself, is the world's most famous language. In Nigeria, for instance, English is the language of social mobility. It partly plays the role of a national language because of Nigeria's multilingual nature and her inability to assign this role to any of her indigenous languages. More so, in Nigeria, English is the language of the Media, Legislature, Education, Business, Aviation, Science and Technology, Politics, to mention but a few (Ngonebu, 2008; Onuigbo & Eyisi, 2008). These scholars, in one way or the other, have posited that English serves as the second

language of a multilingual Nigeria; it also serves as the official language of the nation. Most importantly, Onuigbo and Eyisi (2008) argue that English, as a compromised language, is a strong uniting factor among Nigerians who speak different languages. They go further to add that "to speak the same language is to express solidarity among the people who speak the language that cuts across tribal boundaries, promotes a feeling of a single community and therefore, serves as that great tradition which enhances the development of social ideal and cultural identities among the citizens" (p. 45).

The aforementioned arguments drive us to further argue that since English serves these functions in Nigeria then it is pertinent to create a platform that would help the adults who, due to one reason or the other, skipped formal education or adults who are termed 'slow learners', to acquire basic knowledge in the use of English, especially the skills of reading and writing in English. Unlike listening and speaking; reading and writing are the two language skills that need to be learned formally. This perhaps explains why Lawoli, Shaibu and Mohammed (2003) contend that "reading is an essential skill that must be acquired and developed in order to enhance our knowledge of the content of books, projects, articles etc." They state further that "without reading, we cannot understand or appreciate the content of any writing." Reading, in its self, entails the ability to interpret print while writing is the ability to produce print. ICT appears to be the best platform that would enable these adults to acquire the rudiments of reading and writing in English in the twenty first century in Nigeria and beyond. Nwachukwu, Okop, Imo & Nwizu (2017) explicate that "time has proven that education has gone beyond the walls of classroom or school compound as other effective channels like the mass media and social media, are being used to dispense information and acquire knowledge." Ezegbe, Okeke, Ome, Onah and Achebe (2017) corroborate that "ICT has simplified education through the application of electronics media, internet among other ICT devices. There is a plethora of language programs in the electronic media, social media and the web that contributes to educate educational disadvantaged adults who have the desire to learn. For example, Ammanni and Aparanjani (2016) explain that ICT facilities such as laptops, iPods, tablets, smart phones have made English language learning easier. Ossai, Uzoegwu and Egbe (2017) further explain that "ICT helps learners to process information on their own, since institutionalized education is not enough to make learners keep up with the continues changes." (p. 205). Learning in itself, is an everlasting exercise since there is no end to it.

Importantly, Nigeria literacy indices were put at 62.2% as at 2018 by UNESCO Institute for Statistics. This record showed a slight geometric increase of 10.94% against what was recorded in 2008. This implies that 37.02% of the nation's population lacked literacy skills. According to UNESCO, adult literacy is the percentage of people ages 15 and above who can both read and write with understanding of a short simple statement about their everyday life. UNESCO, recently, defines adult literacy as the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. However, ThisDay Newspaper of April 12, 2019 reported that the National Commission for Mass Literacy, Adult and non-formal Education (NMEC) had said that about 35% of the nation's adult population was illiterate. The commission went ahead to reiterate that literacy is so critical to national development that it should, perhaps, be second only to health. Particularly, Legit.com, an online news platform puts adult literacy index for Enugu State for 2018 at 65.0%. This, perhaps, suggest that about 35% of adults (excluding youths) in Enugu State are wallowing in illiteracy. The preceding figure, to say the least, is too large to be ignored. So, with the proliferation of ICT facilities such as the social media, web and You-Tube, there seems to be a new way through which these adults could learn or develop the skills of literacy. According to the findings of the National Literacy Survey (2010) as reported by National Bureau for Statistics, close to half (47.4%) of the illiterate population of Nigeria would naturally like to attain the status of a literate person. All these, therefore, coalesce to inform our desire to attempt a study on the impact of ICT on acquiring the literacy skills among adults outside the classroom in Nsukka urban.

On the contrary, this study is only delimited to ICT software facilities such as the social media, You-Tube and the web. These facilities, of course, go with their hardware counterparts (Laptops, smartphones and tablets). Other ICT tools such as radio, television, smart-boards, projector, simulation software, speed reading software, vocabulary software, educational games, tutorial software, desk publishing, drill and practice software, reference software, etc. were not covered in this study. Also, the study only covered two sets of participants: those that were educationally disadvantaged and those that were not educationally disadvantaged but had reading and writing problems. Thirdly, the literacy skills, as defined by this study, did not cover computing; it only covered reading and writing. Lastly, only aspects of quantitative analysis were adopted in the interpretation of data.

A. Statement of the Problem

What makes a person literate is his ability to read and write; although it may not necessarily be in English but in other languages recognized by the nation. In Nigeria, what makes a person literate is his ability to read and write in English. This may be attributed to the fact that English is the medium of instruction in Nigerian schools and it is the major medium of social interaction amongst Nigerians who speak different languages. There is, therefore, the need for all Nigerians, irrespective of their educational and social statuses to learn the fundamentals of English in order to effectively live and interact in the society. It is in the records, as we have explicated in the introduction above, that a good number of adults in Nigeria, especially in Enugu State had skipped formal education where they were supposed to learn how to read and write in English; and there are also a significant number of adults who had actually attended schools but still find it difficult to read and write effectively; then it appears that ICT (social media and web) is another

platform where these adults can acquire English language education. By so doing, they would be able to both retrieve and produce information in print. No doubt, very many scholars had carried out researches on the use of ICT in education; particularly, they had investigated the application of this new technology in language studies. However, it is pertinent to state that these researches demonstrated how ICT could be applied in English language studies to students inside the classroom. The use of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Computer Mediated Learning (CML) by language teachers in the classroom are good examples of such studies. It then appears as thus there is some sort of exclusion, adults who are educationally disadvantaged or those that have reading and writing difficulties that constitute a significant part of the nation have not been accounted for by various studies because they are not in the four walls of the classroom. This study, therefore, deviates slightly from the rest in that it tends to accommodate the impact of ICT on acquiring the skills of literacy skills among adults outside the classroom in Nsukka urban.

B. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to investigate the impact of ICT on acquiring the literacy skills among adults outside the classroom in Nsukka urban. Specifically, this study is designed to achieve the following:

   i.   To discuss the roles of ICT in developing reading and writing skills in English among adults outside the classroom.
   ii. To examine the extent to which ICT helps to develop reading and writing among adults outside the classroom.

C. Research Questions

Two research questions have been developed to guide the study. The research seeks to answer the following questions:

   i.   What roles does ICT play in developing literacy skills among adults outside the classroom?
   ii. To what extent could ICT develop these skills?

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Research in ICT and language education is not entirely new because there are a myriad of contributions that have augmented the literature in this area of inquiry. It is, therefore, important to stress that many scholars and researchers had carried studies on the roles and contributions of ICT in language studies. These contributions have, to a large extent, shed more light on the innovative way of teaching and learning of language and language related disciplines. It is on the premise of the preceding statements that Okueso and Osijo (2017) investigated how teaching and learning of English could be improved via the application of ICT tools. These scholars discovered that computer software proved to be of paramount importance in teaching as well as learning of the English language. Secondly, the study showed that teacher's motivation could be significant in improving the utilization of ICT in instructional delivery. However, despite all these merits, the study revealed, among others, that in most schools, there nonexistence of ICT facilities; coupled with non-availability of locally made ICT programs. They suggested, among others, that teachers of English should be trained and retrained in using ICT in language studies in order to enable them achieve these goals.

In a similar study, Ghasemi and Hashemi (2011) explored what they perceived as the interface between ICT and new-wave in English instruction. The paper revealed, among others, that the utilization of ICT provided students with requisite real-life experience as ICT exposed them to the culture of the host communities where English was used as a modeled language. This submission is in agreement with that of Yenle (2018) who viewed ICT tool or Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) as a tool which enabled second language learners to sound more native-like when using English. More so, Ghasemi and Hashemi (2011) argued that using ICT tools such as email, blogs, video and conferencing facilitated students' interaction with the natives thereby improving their use of English. It was posited that ICT could be used to integrate the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing). Just as in the presiding paragraph, these scholars, however, stated that ICT has some disadvantages but they concluded that, despite these disadvantages, teachers should consider new strategies in teaching using ICT.

The interest of language researchers in finding out how best ICT could be integrated in teaching English in secondary schools spurred Mafuraga and Moremi (2017) to do a research in this area. They discussed ICT vis-à-vis its roles in teaching English in Botswana junior secondary schools. Fifty-five teachers (55) were selected from eleven (11) schools in the Kweneng region as research participants. Questionnaires and interview were administered to these participants and their responses were analyzed quantitatively using the Likert's scale. The findings revealed that most teachers of English were not ignorant of the fact that ICT could be used in teaching English but the teachers themselves demonstrated lack of adequate knowledge in utilizing ICT in teaching English. The researchers suggested some useful hints that would promote the integration of ICT in English language class.

On the other hand, Khanon (2018), in an elaborate study, investigated the application of ICT in English classrooms in Dhaka. The objectives of the study were to unearth the significance of using ICT tools in English language classrooms and to discuss how these tools play a role in reshaping the teaching of English. Two research questions were formulated to guide the study. The research instruments deployed in eliciting data were structured questionnaires and interview which were made up of eleven (11) closed-ended questions and seven (7) open-ended questions. The data were analyzed using the quantitative approach. The results showed that ICT enabled students to have access to knowledge

during English classes. Teachers affirmed that they deployed ICT tools in teaching which most of the times, yielded positive results. It was thus concluded that ICT supports language learning.

In another study, Ossai, Uzoegwu and Egbe (2017) investigated the effective utilization of ICT in the development of learners' autonomy in teaching and learning of English in Obollo Afor Education zone. The study aimed at determining teachers' level of competency in applying ICT strategies in teaching English. The design of the study was a descriptive survey. One hundred and fifty-eight (158) teachers of English in the zone made up the population of the study. A forty (40) item questionnaires was used to elicit data for the study. Similarly, four (4) research questions were developed to guide the study. The data were analyzed using the Mean and Standard Deviation. The results showed that there was a low level of competency in the use of ICT in teaching English. The results also showed that teachers of English do not always use the ICT strategies in teaching. The study suggested, among other things, that teachers should be trained and retrained in handling ICT facility in teaching various subject, especially, English. More so, ICT facilities should be made available in schools and policies that would guide their use in schools should be enacted.

Summarily, the present study differs slightly from the ones reviewed above in the sense that the study investigated the impact of ICT in learning and developing the literacy skills in English by adults outside the classroom; whereas the previous studies, as we have seen in this section, investigated the roles of ICT in teaching and learning of English in the classroom by the conventional students. Here, the emphasis in this study is that since other studies concentrated on the application of ICT in the classroom situation, this present study examined how ICT facilities could be applied to educationally disadvantaged adults outside the classroom which could help to acquire or develop the skills of reading and writing. This gap is what this study intends to fill thereby contributing to knowledge.

III. Theoretical Framework

The study borrowed insights from Constructivist Theory of Learning (CTL) proposed by Jean Piaget as applied by Suhendi and Purwarno (2018) in a paper entitled "Constructivist learning theory: the contribution to foreign language learning and teaching." The theory has its root in Piaget's cognitive development and Vygotsky's structural theory. Constructivism, as pedagogical theory, explicated how individual construct their understanding of their own experience themselves. In other words, the theory is used to explain how individuals know what they know. Piaget argued that individuals construct new knowledge from their experiences through the process of accommodation and assimilation. Piaget further explained that "when individuals assimilate, they incorporate the new experience into an already existing framework without changing that framework" (Bhattacharjee, 2015). The theorist explained that accommodation, on the other hand, is the process of reframing one's mental representation of the external world to fit new experiences. Suhendi and Purwarno (2018) summed that "constructivism views the formation of knowledge as an active subject that creates cognitive structures in their interactions with the environment" (p. 89).

The adopted theory suits the present study because it helps to shed more light on how adults learn or acquire experience through technology. According to the theory, people learn independently through experience. The quest to learn how to read and write may have spurred some educationally disadvantaged adults in Nsukka urban to constantly interact with ICT facilities in order to gain experience. This may be translated to mean that adults may manipulate various ICT tools so as to learn the basic skills of reading and writing.

IV. Research Method

The study adopted the descriptive survey research design. This design is considered most appropriate for this study because it is used in investigating and describing phenomena in their natural settings so as to examine the true nature of the problem under study. A survey is one in which a group of people or item is studied by collecting and analyzing data from only a few people or item considered to be representative of the entire group (Nworgu, 2015). The population of this study comprises all the educationally disadvantaged adults and persons with reading problems in Nsukka urban. This research area is located in Nsukka Local Government Area in Enugu North Senatorial zone of Enugu State, Nigeria. Through the use of the Simple Random Sampling Technique, one hundred (100) participants (adults) were selected as a representative sample for the study. To answer the two research questions, a twelve-item structured interview was developed and administered to these participants directly by researchers in order to elicit participants' choices of answers which are represented using various options. The choice of the structured interview, however, was informed by our desire to give all our participants a fair representation because it was obvious that some participants may not still be able to read and write effectively. But before then, the instrument was validated by two experts in the Faculties of Education and Arts. They affirmed that the instrument was valid because it was capable of measuring and achieving the general and specific objectives of the research. The data were analyzed quantitatively using the frequency count and percentage method, duly represented in bar, line and pie charts, respectively.

V. Results
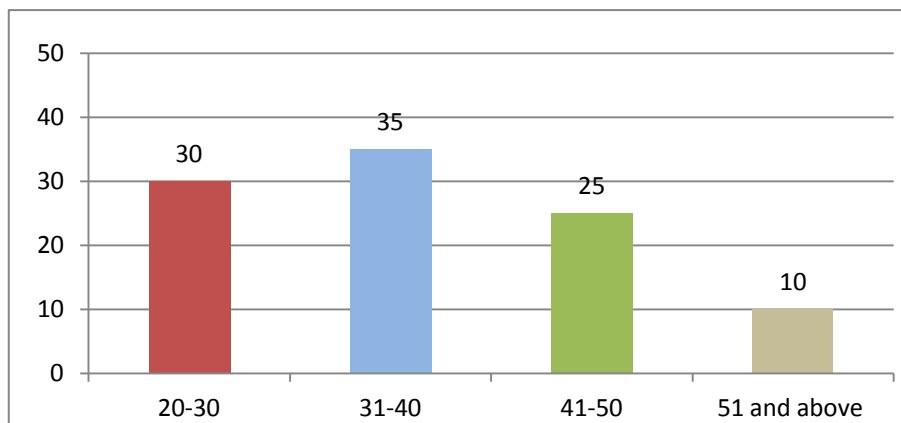
Figure 1: Age

Figure 1 showed that the thirty (30) participants, representing 30% fell within the age bracket of 20-30; thirty five (35) participants, representing 35% fell within 31-40 age bracket; twenty five (25) participants, representing 25% fell within 41-50 age bracket, while ten (10) participants, representing 10% fell within the age bracket of 51 and above. From the data, those participants that fall between ages 18 to 40 (younger adults), representing 65% supersede the number of participants between the ages of 41 and above (older adults), representing 35% in this research. This statistic implies that younger generation makes use of ICT facilities more than the older generation of people.
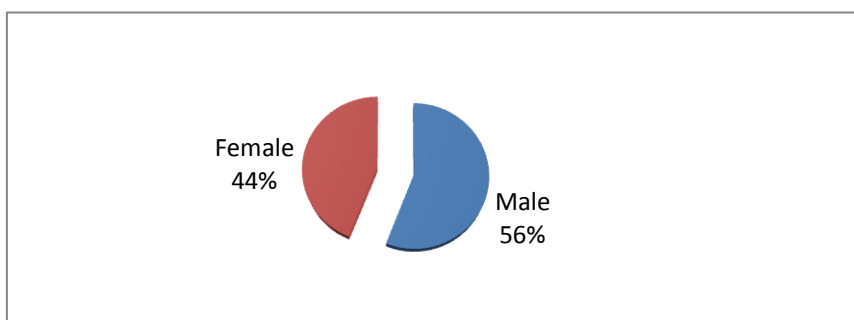
Figure 2: Gender

Figure 2 showed that fifty-six (56) male, representing 56% of the research sample and forty-four (44) female participants, representing 44% were used in the study. From this result, the male participants were higher in number than their female counterpart.
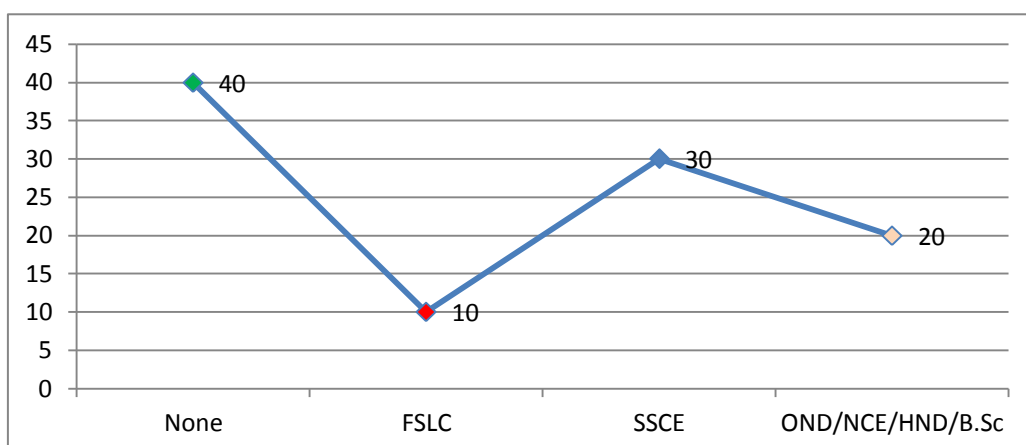
Figure 3: Qualification

Figure 3 showed that forty (40) participants, representing 40% of the research sample did not have any educational qualification; ten (10) participants, representing 10% had FSLC; thirty (30) participants, representing 30% had SSCE; while twenty (20) participants, representing 20% had OND, NCE, HND or B.sc. From this statistics, the percentage of participants who were educationally disadvantaged (those that did not attend any school) was put at forty (40). Although this figure is not greater than the number of those that had privilege to attend school, however, this figure, to say the least, is too large to be ignored.
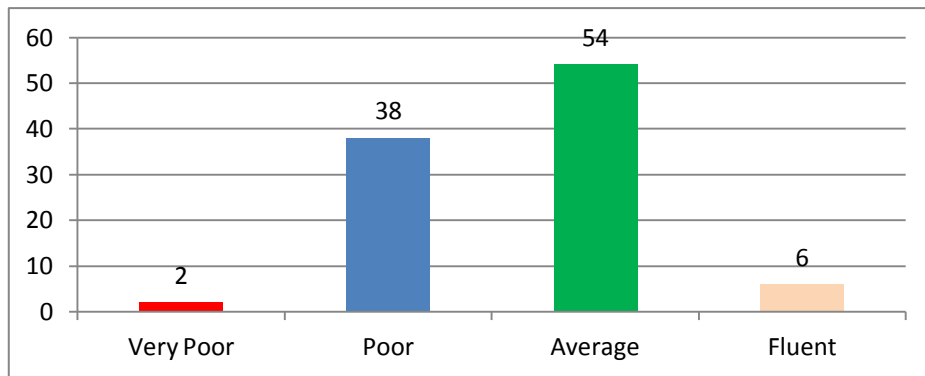
Figure 4: Rate your skills of reading and writing prior to your use of ICT tools such as social media and YouTube.
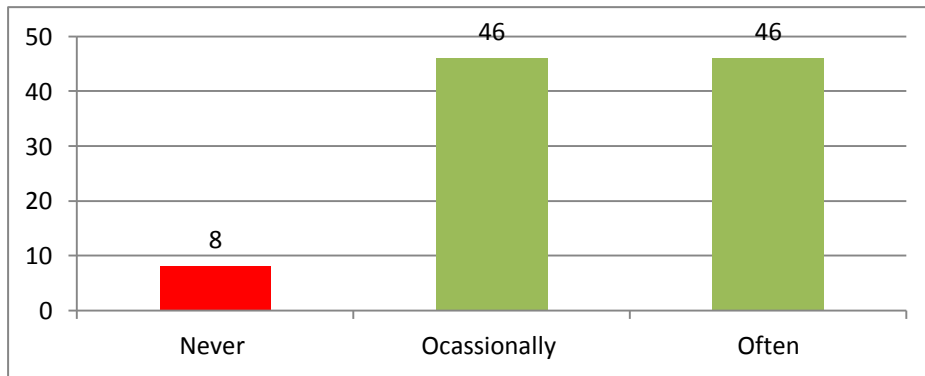

Figure 5: You often visit the social media and You-Tube

The results in figure 4 above showed that two (2) participants, representing 2% said that they had very poor reading and writing skills before they started using social media and You-Tube. Similarly, thirty-eight (38) participants, representing 38% said that their reading and writing skills were poor. Fifty-five (54) participants, representing 54%, on the other hand, said that they were average readers and writers; while only six (6) participants, representing 6% said that they were fluent readers and writers. From the foregoing, although 60% of the research participants were either average or fluent readers and writers, however, 40% of the same research participants had reading and writing difficulties prior to their use of the ICT facilities.

The results in figure 6 above showed that eight (8) participants, representing 8% had never used the social media and You-Tube. On the contrary, forty-six (46) participants, representing 46% occasionally used the social media and You-Tube. Another forty-six (46) participants often used the social media and You-Tube. Suggestively, ninety-two (92) participants, representing 92% were familiar with these ICT tools.
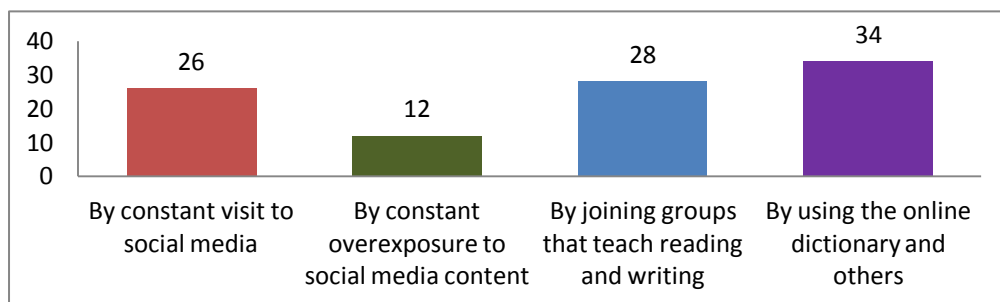
Figure 6: You learned to read and write text on social media.

The results in figure 6 above showed that twenty six (26) participants, representing 26% agreed that they learned how to read and write by their constant visit to social media; twelve (12) participants, representing 12% said they learned these skills by constant overexposure to social media content; twenty eight (28) participants, representing 28% revealed that they learned skills by joining reading and writing groups; while thirty four (34) others, representing 34% believed they learned the skills of reading and writing through using the online dictionary, reading articles online, sending and receiving SMS, etc. From the foregoing, 66% of the research participants learned or improved their skills of reading and writing through the social media; the remaining 34% learned through other ICT platforms.
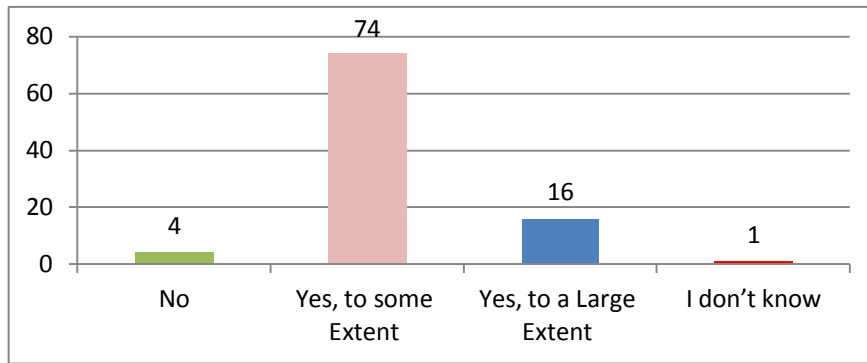
Figure 7: Your exposure to social media like Facebook and Whatsapp helped improve your reading and writing ability

Figure 7 above showed that four (4) participants, representing 4% were of the opinion that their exposure to Facebook and Whatsapp applications did not improve their reading and writing skills. However, seventy-four (74) participants, representing 74% agreed that these applications helped them to acquire or improved their reading and writing skills to some extent. Similarly, sixteen (16) participants, representing 16% agreed that these applications improved their reading and writing abilities to large extent. One (1) participant is, however, undecided as to whether the applications helped improve her reading and writing abilities or not. These results suggested that 95% of the overall participants agreed that these applications did help in improving reading and writing skills. This result also confirmed that the social media play an important role in helping adult acquire or develop their reading and writing skills.
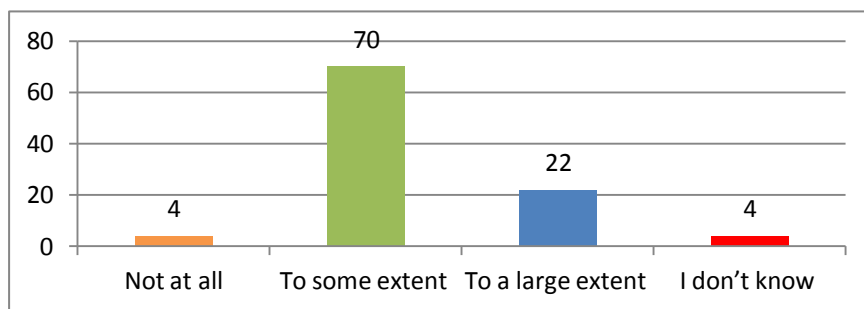
Figure 8: Your exposure to social media contents enabled you to acquire, pronounce and write new English words.

The results in figure 8 above showed that four (4) participants, representing 4% did not agree that their exposure to the social media contents aided them to acquire, pronounce and write new words. On the contrary, seventy (70) participants, representing 70% of the overall research sample agreed to the proposition but they said that it aided them to some extent. In a similar way, another twenty (20) participants, representing 20% contended that these platforms aided to acquire, pronounce and write new words to a large extent. On the other hand, the remaining four (4) participants were undecided. From the overall statistics, the majority of the participants represented by 92% agreed that the social media plays an important role in enabling adults to acquire, pronounce and write new words.
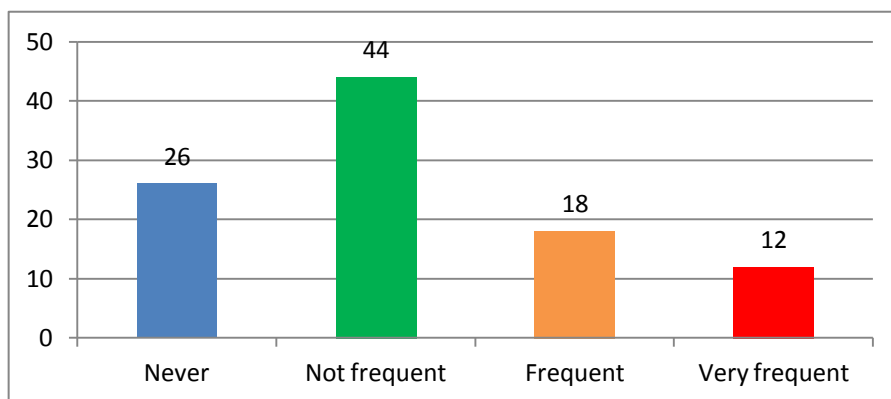

Figure 9: You frequently used You-Tube to learn how to read and write by listening to an online teacher

The data in figure 9 showed that twenty-six (26) participants, representing 26% never used You-Tube to learn how to read and write. Another forty-four (44) participants, representing 44% agreed that they did but not frequently. On the contrary, eighteen (18) participants, representing 18% agreed that they frequently used this platform to learn how to read and write. In a similar, twelve (12) participants, representing 12% said they used the platform very frequently to

learn these skills. The overall results, therefore, suggested that 70% rarely used this platform to learn the skills of reading and writing. However, only 30% frequently used it to learn how to read and write by listening to an online instructor.
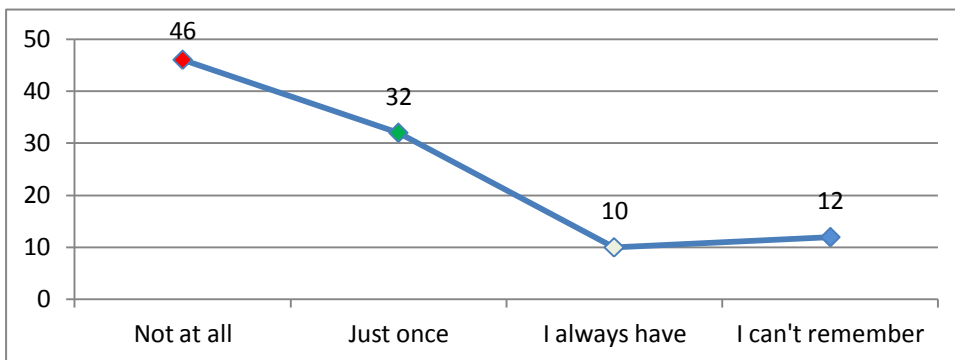
Figure 10: You have engaged in video conferencing for the purpose of learning how to read and write.

The data in figure 10 showed that forty-six (46) participants, representing 46% had never engaged in video conferencing for the purpose of learning how to read and write. Thirty-two (32) participants, representing 32% agreed they had done once. Ten (10) participants, representing 10% agreed that they always did; while twelve (12) participant, representing 12%s were of the view that they could not remember. From this statistics, majority of the respondents, therefore, did not agree that they used video conferencing for the purpose of learning how to read and write.
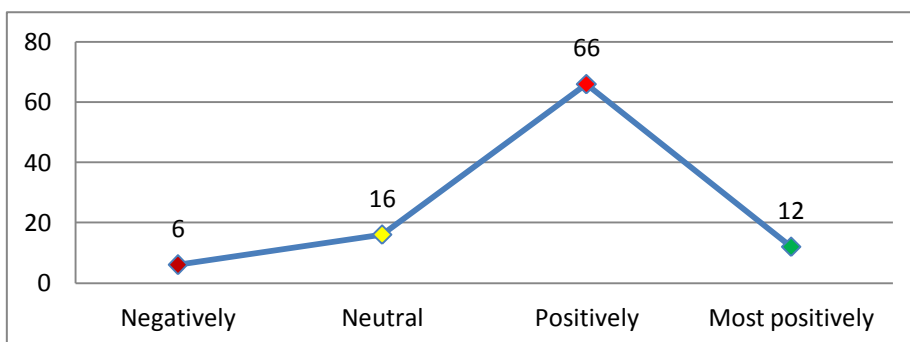

Figure 11: The ICT tools (social media, web, online dictionary, and You-Tube) had impacted your acquiring or developing of the basic skills of reading and writing.

Figure 11 showed that six (6) participants, representing 6% were of the view that the ICT tools such as the social media, web, online dictionary, You-Tube, etc. had impacted negatively on their ability to read and write; sixteen (16) participants, representing 16% were neutral; while sixty six (66) participants, representing 66% agreed that these tools positively impacted the acquisition and development of these skills. In a similar vein, twelve (12) participants, representing 12% contended that these tools most positively impacted their learning and developing of these skills. The overall data showed that 78% of respondents which constituted majority agreed that the ICT tools had impacted positively to their acquiring or developing of the basic skills of reading and writing. From this statistic, it is evident, therefore, that ICT tools impacted positively to the acquiring of the basic skills of reading and writing.
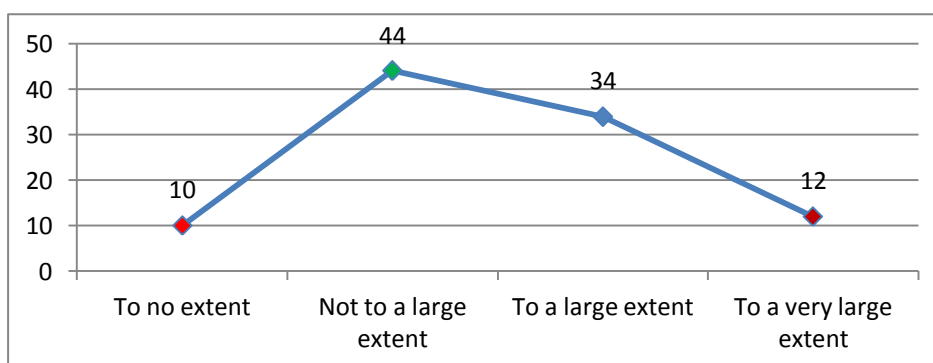

Figure 12: Rate the extent to which ICT facilities had helped you improve your reading and writing skills outside the classroom.

The data in figure 12 above showed the extent to which ICT tools had helped improve the reading and writing skills of participants. Ten (10) participants, representing 10% were of the view that ICT tools had helped them acquire these skills to no extent; forty four (44) participants, representing 44% agreed that the tools had helped them acquire these skills, not to a large extent; thirty four (34) participants, representing 34% were of the opinion that the tools had helped them to some extent; whereas twelve (12) participants, representing 12% strongly believed that the tools had helped them acquire these skills to a very large extent. From the foregoing, only 10% of the overall participants did not agree that these tools had helped them improve their reading and writing skills. However, the other 90% agreed that the tools had helped them.
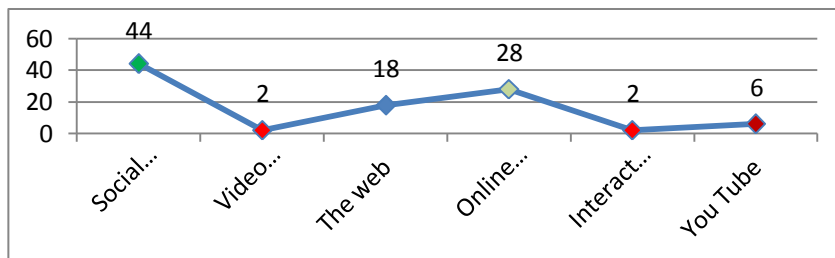

Figure 13: Choose the ICT tool that had helped you immensely in developing your reading and writing skills

The data in figure 13 showed that forty four (44) participants, representing 44% of the entire research sample, chose the social media, two (2) participants, representing 2% chose video conferencing, eighteen (18) participants, representing 18% chose the web, twenty eight (28) participants, representing 28% chose the online dictionary, two (2) participants, representing 2% chose the interactive whiteboard, and six (6) participants, representing 6% chose You-Tube, as the ICT tool that had helped them immensely in developing their reading and writing skills. From the statistics, the majority of the participants chose the social media, followed by the online dictionary and the web in that order. The least chosen were the interactive whiteboard and the You-Tube.
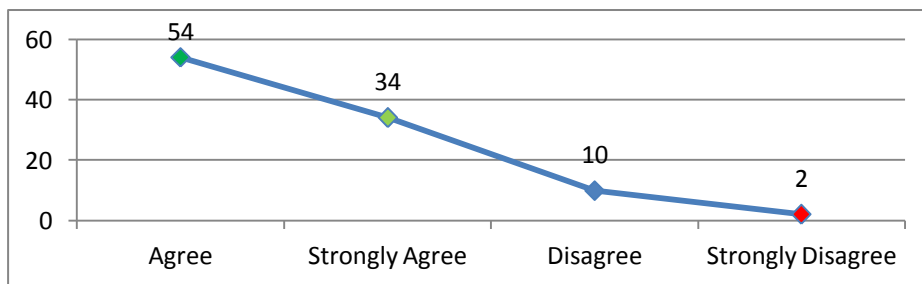

Figure 14: Browsing the internet steadily has imbibed in you some levels of confidence in reading and writing.

The data in figure 14 showed that fifty-four (54) participants, representing 54% agreed that browsing the internet steadily had imbibed in them some levels of confidence in reading and writing. In a similar vein, thirty-four (34) participants, representing 34% strongly agreed to the same proposition. However, ten (10) participants, representing 10% disagreed that it did; while two (2) participants, representing 2% strongly disagreed. So, from this statistic, it is evident that the majority of the participants, represented by 88% agreed that browsing the internet steadily had imbibed in them some levels of confidence in reading and writing.
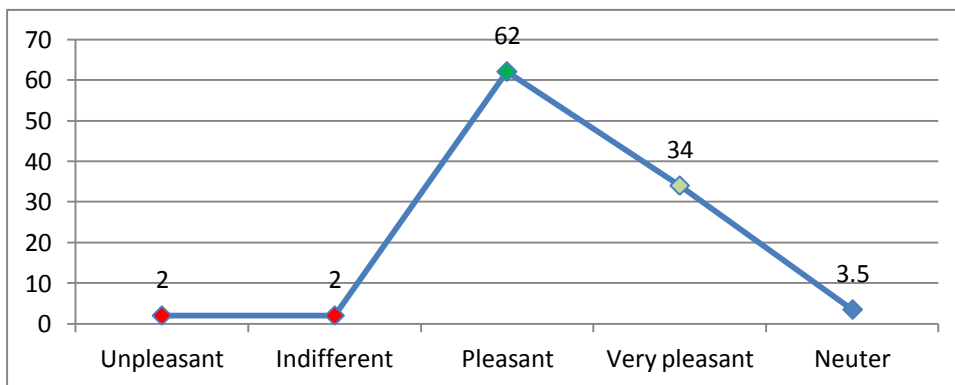

Figure 15: Rate your experience of using ICT tools to learn English

The data in figure 15 above showed that two (2) participants, representing 2% had unpleasant experience using ICT tools to learn how to read and write. Another two (2) other participants, representing another 2%, on the other hand,

were indifferent; while sixty-two (62) participants, representing 62% had pleasant experience using these tools to learn and improve reading and writing skills. Similarly, another thirty-four (34) participants, representing 34% had a very pleasant experience. From the foregoing, 96% of the overall participants had pleasant experience using these tools to learn how to read and write.

Major Findings

i.   It is found that ICT plays a vital role in enabling adults who skipped being taught the skills of reading and writing formally in a conventional classroom and those with reading and writing difficulties, acquire and develop these skills.

ii. It is also found that ICT tools like the social media, You-Tube, online dictionary and the web have, to a large extent, positively impacted the acquiring and developing of reading and writing skills outside the classroom among adults in Nsukka urban.

VI. DISCUSSION

The demography showed that majority of participants were mostly between the ages of 20 to 40. By implication, the data revealed that most young people, irrespective of their social or educational statuses, use the ICT tools, especially the social media, You-Tube and the web. Although those between the ages of 50 and above were also accounted for in this study but they were not enough to be used to draw generalizations because they constituted a minority. In respect to gender, the results showed that both genders used the ICT tools, especially, the social and the web. It is, therefore, right to assert that both male and female adults use the ICT tools for many reasons; one of which is the learning and developing of the skills of reading and writing.

Meanwhile, the results showed that most participants were not proficient in reading and writing prior to their exposure to the use of social media and You-Tube; although a good number of them were averaged readers and writers. This drives us to assume that most adults visit the social media and other ICT platforms often or occasionally in order to achieve two principal goals: (i) to learn the skills of reading and writing as they surf through the social media contents (ii) to use the platform to develop their already acquired skills in order to be proficient. These goals may not be achievable if these goals preclude the times and lessons these visits to the ICT platforms offer. For example, if an action is done repeatedly over time, there is the tendency for acquiring of new knowledge or developing of the existing one. This further drives us to argue that our research participants learned or developed the skills of reading and writing through constant visit and exposure to social media content, and joining academic groups online. This agrees with Yousaf and Ahmad's (2013) submission that most young people are obsessed with typing on smart phones, laptops and other portable devices in the name of browsing the internet or chatting with friends and family online; in so doing, the skills of reading and writing are learned or developed.

Our findings also revealed other ways through which reading and writing skills could be learned outside the classroom; one of which is by listening to an online instructor on You-Tube; the other is by engaging in video conferencing for the purpose of learning these skills. It is, however, important to note that most adults in Nsukka urban were not aware that these platforms could be used to achieve these results. Although an insignificant number of them agreed that these platforms had helped them acquire and develop their literacy skills; nonetheless, it would not be valid if we use that to make generalizations because the majority of participants had never engaged in such instructions. In a similar way, the findings showed that participants were idiosyncratic as to which of the ICT facilities had helped them immensely in either acquiring or developing the skills of reading and writing. The commonest chosen options were the social media, the web and the online dictionary. The social media, according to our findings, was the most used platform designed for the developing or acquiring of the skills. The platform is very easy to navigate and surf. Most young people, irrespective of their educational backgrounds, explore it deeply to their advantage. The web is another platform that aid the learning or developing of literacy skills. Adults constantly read simple News and other articles online; by so doing, they learn new words and also become familiar with existing ones. Since reading as one of the language skills precedes writing, it is important to note that the same set of adults would begin to transpose what they have read to writing. The online dictionary is another ICT tool that contributes in strengthening the act of reading and writing. The tool is always available should a user needs it. It enables users to acquire, pronounce and use new words. This perhaps explains the reason why most participants agreed that these ICT facilities mentioned above had helped them improve their reading and writing skills outside the classroom, to a large extent. Most importantly, the findings showed that these tools impacted their acquiring and developing of the basic literacy skills positively.

VII. CONCLUSION

ICT provides various electronic platforms that contribute in revolutionalizing the way information is accessed, stored and retrieved. Thus, ICT is utilizing electronic technologies to access educational curriculum outside of a traditional classroom. So, in what appears as self-education, younger and older generations of adults explore various ICT platforms such as the social media (Facebook, Whatsapp and Twitter), You-Tube, the web, online dictionary, to mention just these, for different social and academic purposes; one of which is to learn and develop the skills of reading and writing

in English outside of the conventional classroom. These platforms enable adults who skipped being taught formally in a classroom, or those who have reading and writing problems to overcome these problems. This study has demonstrated that adults who are educationally disadvantaged or those that have reading and writing difficulties could actually acquire and develop their reading and writing skills outside the classroom through the use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). This study, therefore, concludes that ICT plays a vital role in enabling adults who skipped being taught the skills of reading and writing formally in a conventional classroom and those with reading and writing difficulties, acquire and develop these skills. Again, ICT tools like the social media, You-Tube, online dictionary and the web have, to a large extent, positively impacted the acquiring and developing of reading and writing skills outside the classroom among adults in Nsukka urban. Based on the findings of this study, we, therefore, make the following suggestions:

a. Adults who are educationally disadvantaged or those that have reading and writing problems should continue to self-educate themselves by constantly visiting the social media and other ICT platforms.
b. These adults should, as a matter of necessity, visit You-Tube where educational contents on how to read and write are uploaded for users.
c. These sets of adults should always try to read articles online.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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The Role of Motivation in Second Language Learning in King Khalid University, Saudi Arabia

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Abstract—**This paper attempts to shed light on Saudi college students' internal motivational set up and how it negatively impacts their learning outcomes at the tertiary level at King Khalid University. To investigate that, a questionnaire that consists of ten questions was conducted on 90 (ninety) students selected from level four and eight in the Department of English of the same university. The responses of the learners indicate that the majority of the respondents are not highly motivated and chose English as a major- for their B.A. course- against their will as there were no other alternatives for several reasons. The results show- not surprisingly though- that most of the students are driven by extrinsic motivation to study English in order to get good jobs. The statistics obtained from the Department, of deprived and withdrawn students are quite high and that confirm the researchers' hypothesis of students' demotivation in the Department of English. Finally, researchers have suggested some remedial academic initiatives to help these undergraduate Saudi students in the Department of English at King Khalid University to overcome the difficulties and problems resulting from extrinsic motivation and showing ways of attaining positive (intrinsic) motivational make up that initiates true, life-long learning.**

Index Terms—**intrinsic, extrinsic, King Khalid University, motivation, Saudi Arabia**

I. INTRODUCTION

It is not uncommon to find that many college level students around the world often suffer from lack of motivation. Saudi students are no different. Moving from the easy-going high schools, they suddenly find it quite challenging to be able to pursue their academic goals at the university, where individual learning is strongly emphasized. They start having doubts about their capabilities for being successful. An article published on Forbes.com confirms students who are bored or inattentive or who put little effort to schoolwork are unlikely to benefit from better standards, curriculum, and instruction unless schools, teachers, and parents take steps to address their lack of motivation, the research papers at the Center on Education Policy (CEP) at George Washington University conclude. On the other hand, students who are motivated to learn have higher achievement, show better understanding of the concepts they are taught, are more satisfied with school, and have lower dropout rates, according to a variety of studies reviewed by Edward Deci and colleagues (Crotty, 2013). The earlier stage in the above-mentioned scenario is more than true to the situations of most of the Saudi college students.

Hence, it becomes important to investigate why these students lose their high hopes and motivation. This study shows that the remedies can help the Saudi college students, who feel isolated, lost or stuck, get back their hopes and help them to be on track again.

II. OBJECTIVES

This study was initiated from the eagerness of two experienced EFL teachers who wanted to help the second language (English) learners in the Department of English, at King Khalid University, to be aware of the role of the two types of motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic in the second language learning process, as proposed by Deci and Ryan (1985). "Intrinsic motivation is the motivation to do something for its own sake, for the sheer enjoyment of a task. Extrinsic motivation is the motivation to do something in order to attain some external goal or meet some externally imposed constraint" (Hennessey et al., 2015). An example of the former is when students start enjoying their new language leaning journey while in the latter case, they feel motivated only to earn the certificate of accomplishment which may help them secure a job.

III. HYPOTHESIS

It is hypothesized that Saudi students in the Department of English at King Khalid University lack motivation due to the following reasons:
1. Lack of jobs after their graduation.

2. Anxiety over their incompetence in English.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This research followed the qualitative research methodology. Data was collected in two ways. First, through intensive personal interviews with 20 students from four sections of level 4 and two sections of level 8 in the Department of English. Then a survey (See Appendix) was conducted on 90 (ninety) students chosen from both level 4 and level 8, to see their general reactions to the inquiries regarding both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational issues.

V. LITERATURE REVIEW

Although a lot of literature can be found discussing extrinsic and intrinsic motivation and other related topics, the researchers of this paper did not find, even after extensive searches, satisfactory number of researches on the subject of this paper that had been conducted in the past.

Motivation is defined by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) as "what moves a person to make certain choices, to engage in action, to expend effort and persist in action".

Dörnyei (1998) tried to define it as the "dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized and successfully or un- successfully acted out."

VI. DEFINITIONS OF INTRINSIC AND EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Bernazzani (2017) sees that intrinsic motivation involves doing something because it's personally rewarding to you. Extrinsic motivation involves doing something because you want to earn a reward or avoid punishment.

Raffini (1996) has identified enjoyment as another relevant factor, arguing that students need to experience enjoyment in the learning process in order to feel intrinsically motivated. The same author discusses the interpersonal factor competence and assumes that in order to increase the intrinsic motivation among students it is important to create an environment in which students can discover that their serious effort toward learning enables them to attain a sense of academic competence. The author further suggests that despite the fact that the amount of time and effort required for academic achievement varies considerably among students, they all need to experience the feeling of competence that comes from achievement. (Raffini, 1996).

There are numerous studies aimed at determining the influence of motivation on the acquisition of a foreign language. Al-Tamimi and Shuib (2009) published their research on the motivation and attitudes of students of the Petroleum Engineering studies towards learning English at Hadhramaut University of Sciences and Technology, Yemen. The result of their research, which included three motivational constructs (instrumental, integrative and personal), showed the dominant role of instrumental motivation among students for learning English, although personal motivation was also noticeable.

Tremblay and Gardner's (1995) proposed integrative and instrumental motivation model that stresses the value of goals as the reasons for individual learners' successes or failures. Another model is the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy of self-determination theory developed by Deci and Ryan (1985). This theory emphasizes that a learner's learning goals can be influenced by pleasure, external rewards and even the feeling of regulation.

Al-Amr (1998), for instance, acknowledges that there are a number of valid reasons why instrumental motivation would be much more relevant in the Saudi setting than integrative motivation, not least because the second language is being learned away from the target language speakers and their culture.

Ryan and Deci (2000), state that extrinsic rewards can decrease intrinsic motivation. Rewards linked to the completion of a task, threats, deadlines and directives undermine intrinsic motivation because individuals perceive them as behavior control techniques.

Intrinsic motivation is defined commonly as driving forces of behavior that individuals deem inherent to the activities undertaken – namely, the activities themselves being interesting, enjoyable, and meaningful – in contrast to non-intrinsic forces in terms of incentives or pressure (e.g., rewards or deadlines) that are external to the activities.

VII. ANALYSIS OF THE STUDENTS' RESPONSES

1.Why did you join the Faculty of Languages and Translation at KKU?		
1. The name and fame of the Faculty of Languages and Translation at KKU	3	3%
2. My personal desire to study English	30	33%
3. There was no other choice for me	45	50%
4. To get a better job after graduation	44	49%

1. Why did you join the Faculty of Languages and Translation at KKU?
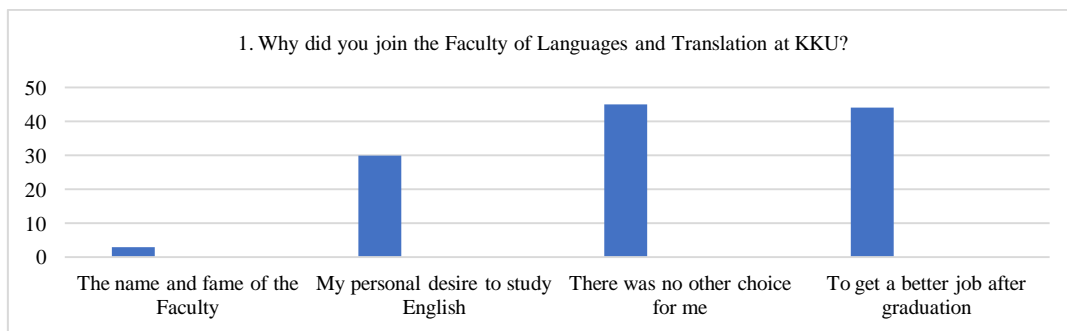
Comments:

The aim of this question was to shed light on the students' motivation at the Faculty of Language and Translation. The students' responses indicate that the number of students who joined the Department of English because there were no other choices for them outnumber those who joined this Department due to their personal desire to study English. That means, there are many students who were not planning to study English but for one reason or the other, they ended up enrolling at the Faculty of Languages and Translation. Moreover, there are some students who enrolled at the faculty just to get a good job after their graduation. Those students definitely will have an extrinsic rather than an intrinsic motivation for studying English.

2. Do you feel satisfied as a student of English?		
1. Yes, to a great extent	23	25%
2. To some extent	48	53%
3. No, I am not satisfied	11	12%
4. I cannot decide	8	9%

2. Do you feel satisfied as a student of English?
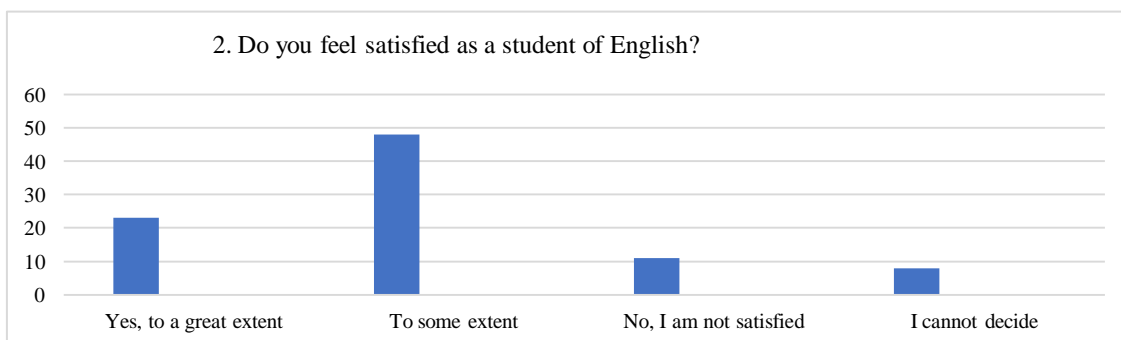
Comments:

Students' responses to the second question indicate that most of the students are not fully satisfied as students in the Department of English. The responses "to some extent" show indirectly the students' dissatisfaction as a result of being unable to join the colleges of their choice. Some students clearly express their dissatisfaction by selecting "No, I am not satisfied". There are some students who express their neutrality by selecting "I cannot decide", but it can be understood as a negative sign of their dissatisfaction of joining the Faculty of Language and Translation.

3. What were your motives when you joined this college?		
To find a better job	45	50%
To be able to communicate in English	37	41%
To acquire new knowledge for my future profession	13	14%
To be able to pursue my higher studies abroad	18	20%

3. What were your motives when you joined this college?
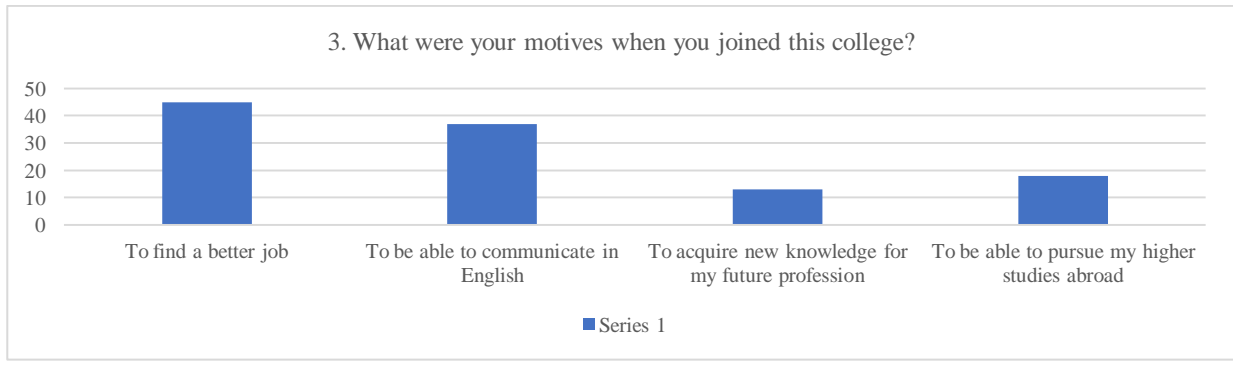
Comments:

This particular query yielded interesting responses. The bar graph above depicts that more than 40% of participants choose the first option, to find a better job after graduation. This clearly indicates that almost half of the respondents were influenced by their extrinsic motivation joining this college- as they hoped to find jobs with a KKU (King Khalid University) certificate that will guarantee a better future. The second highest bar, that represents the query: *to be able to communicate in English*, also confirms more extrinsic than intrinsic viewpoint from the participants.

4. Do you feel like attending your classes on daily bases?		
Yes, all the classes	10	11%
Yes, most of the classes	38	42%
Yes, some classes only	43	48%
Yes, some classes only	9	10%

4. Do you feel like attending your classes on daily bases?
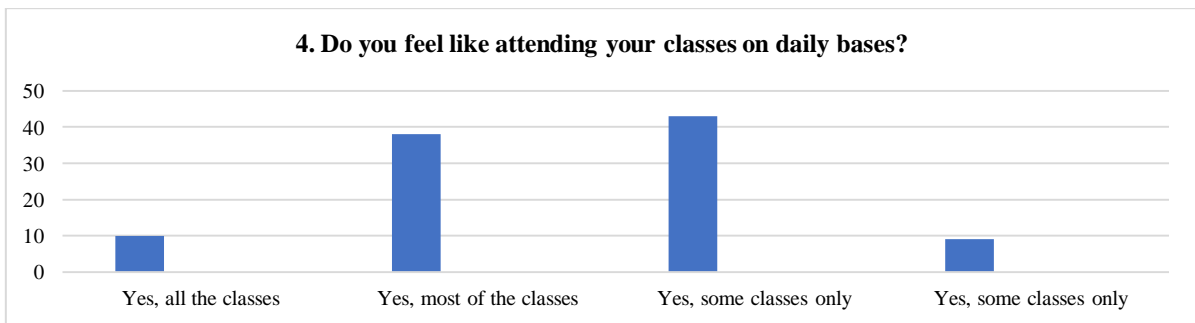
*Comments***:**

More than forty percent of the survey takers said that they wanted to attend only some selected number of classes instead of all scheduled classes daily. While the given intrinsic option (first from the left) attracts only ten percent of total responses, our extrinsic option (third from the left) again scored high in the chart above.

5. If there was no absence register, will you attend classes?		
I will attend once or twice a week maximum	39	43%
I will attend all classes regularly every day	25	28%
I will attend one or two classes after 10 a.m.	32	36%
I will attend the midterm and final examinations only	10	11%

5. If there was no absence register, will you attend classes?
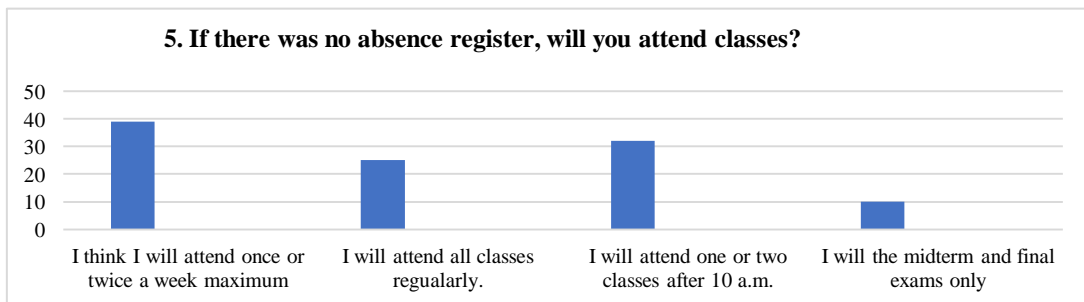

Comments:

When asked whether they would still attend lectures regularly, even in the absence of any absence register, almost forty percent students chose the option# 1- that says, "I think I will attend once or twice a week maximum". This tells us that majority of the students were not motivated to come to the college only for the learning's sake; rather they'd just

attend the number of classes that would retain their studentship. This only confirms their extrinsic motivational drive- which is in sharp contrast with the option# 2 (intrinsic in nature) that received only twenty-five percent of all responses.

6. Do you practice Your English outside the class?		
I don't speak English outside the class	42	47%
I speak English with some of my classmates only	8	9%
I chat with my friends online	44	49%
I speak English frequently after classes	11	12%

6. Do you practice Your English outside the class?
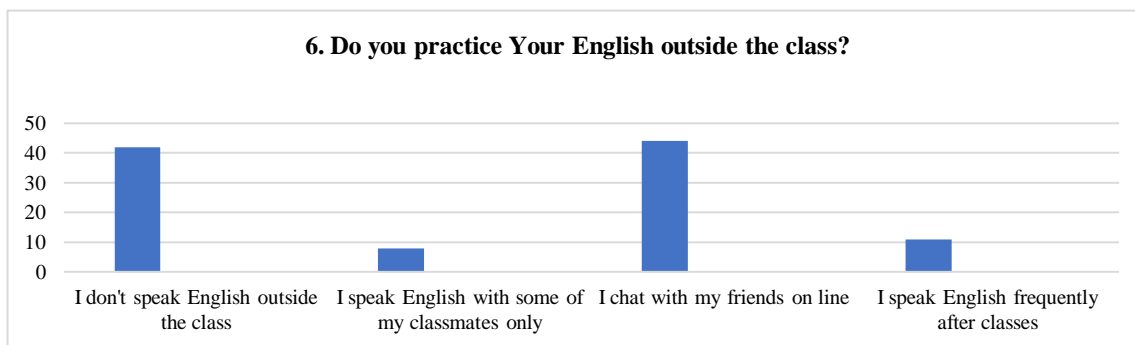
Comments:

While responding to the above-mentioned question, the two of our extrinsic choices (options # 1 & 3) registered towering blocks of nearly forty five percent and more than forty percent respectively of the total responses. Unfortunately, this sheer extrinsic reply only reaffirms our preconceived assumption that our students are not doing enough speaking practice which they are in dire need to do.

7. Do you still feel like joining another college?		
If I have the chance, I will join another college	30	33%
I think it is too late at this time	42	47%
I will definitely finish my English studies in this college	25	28%
I cannot decide at the time being	5	6%

7. Do you still feel like joining another college?
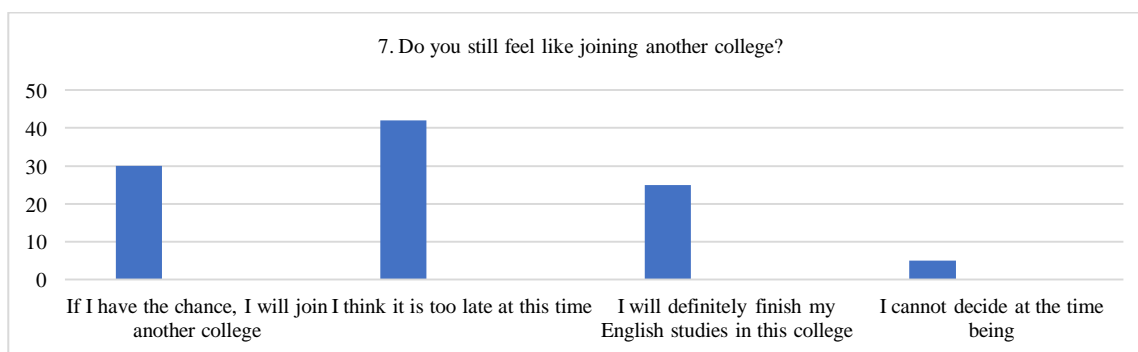
Comments:

Students, who were invited to take part in this survey, represent higher levels of study ranging from level 4 to level 8. Although, some of them are in the mid-levels while the others are in the last levels of their college education, surprisingly enough, they wished to change their current institution if they had had the chance. An astounding number (above 30%) of the students stated that. While the biggest bar in the chart above soars past 40% mark, which tells about their lamentation that now it's too late to make the move- should not surprise anyone.

8. Was English your first choice when you joined KKU?		
No, but that was my parents desire	3	3%
Yes, it was my first choice from the beginning	32	36%
No, I was planning to join another college	41	46%
No, but low grades didn't allow me to join my colleges of choice	10	11%

8. Was English your first choice when you joined KKU?

A bar chart showing responses to "Was English your first choice when you joined KKU?" with the following approximate values: No, but that was my parents desire (≈3); Yes, it was my first choice from the beginning (≈32); No, I was planning to join another college (≈41); No, but low grades didn't allow me to join my colleges of choice (≈11).
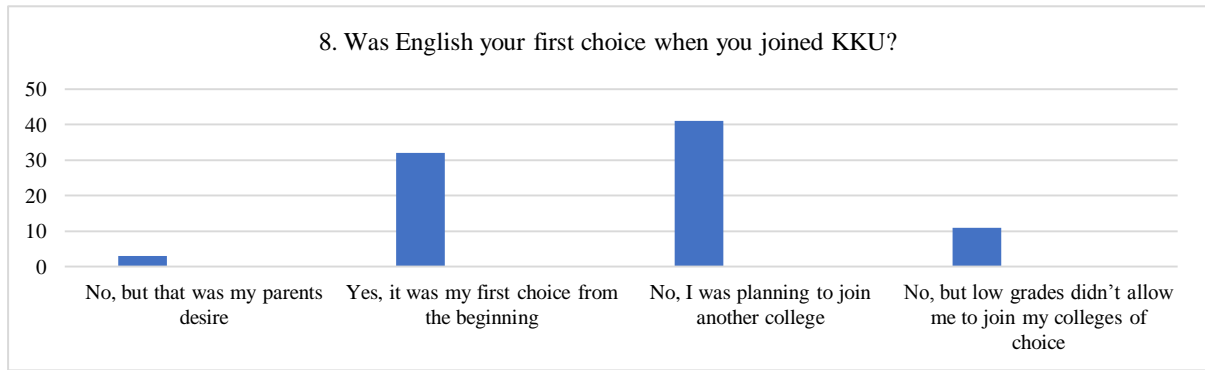
Comments:

Was English your first choice when you joined KKU? In reply to this question, only just over 30% learners responded that yes, it was their first choice. In contrast, almost over 40 % of them said no, English was not their first priority. Now, interestingly if we take into account another 10% of the responders- who also said no, but because of their low GPAs they had no other options left except to join this college- then the total number of students who reluctantly joined this college, would go well above 50% mark.

9. Do you think you will find a better job after graduation?		
I am working with my fathers' firm	4	4%
I have a part time job at the time being	15	17%
I am planning to pursue my higher studies	30	33%
I don't think I will find a job after my graduation	43	48%

9. Do you think you will find a job after graduation?

A bar chart showing responses with the following approximate values: I am working with my fathers' firm (≈4); I have a part time job at the time being (≈15); I am planning to pursue my higher studies (≈30); I don't think I will find a job after my graduation (≈43).
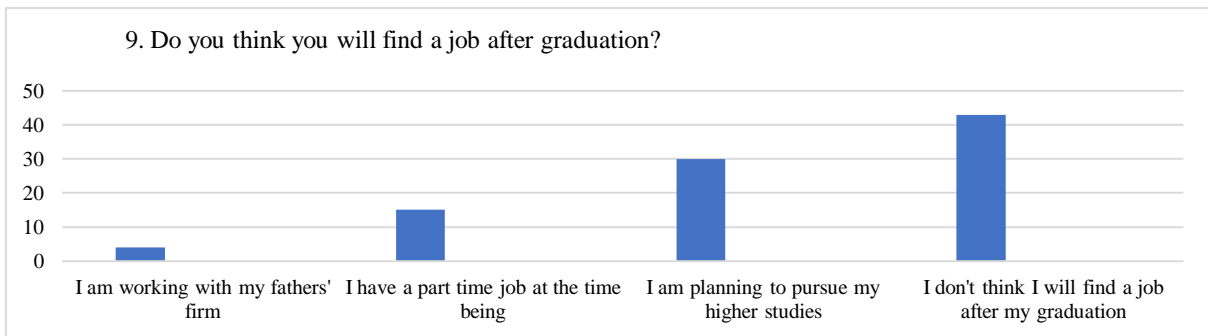
Comments:

As we are moving towards the end of this survey questions, the frustration and disappointment of our future graduates are becoming clearer. Here, in the chart above, we can see that almost 45% of the respondents admit that they don't think they would be able to get a job after their graduation.

10. What was the college that you wanted to join? Specify the college.		
1. Language and Translation	39	43%
2. Business and Administration	19	21%
3. Engineering	12	13%
4. Medicine	10	11%

10. What was the college that you wanted to join? Specify the college.

A bar chart showing responses with the following approximate values: 1. Language and Translation (≈39); 2. Business and Administration (≈19); Engineering (≈12); Medicine (≈10).
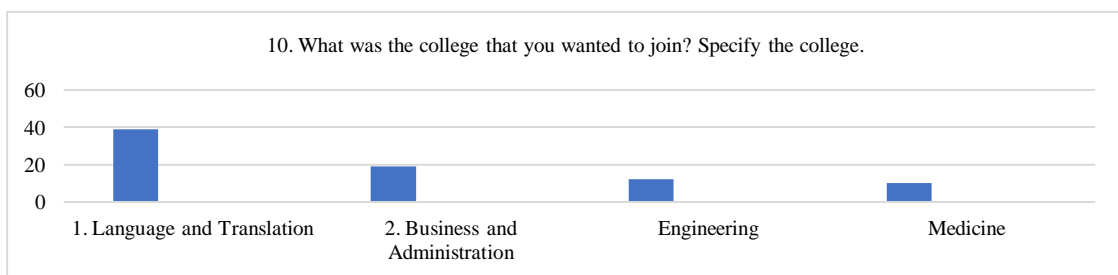
Comments:

Finally, this last query investigates students' original desire to join the college of their choice. Although 40% of them have joined their desired college, (i.e., the faculty of Languages and Translation), we must not forget that a huge 60% of their peers were met with disappointment as they couldn't join their dream college for some reason or the other.

VIII. ANALYSIS

The study that was conducted with almost a hundred students (90 male students from the Department of English were randomly selected for this study), unfortunately, depicts a rather sorry picture of the untold stories of our college students' academic journey into the realm of higher studies. Although, it is no way the reflection of the whole student body of King Khalid University as a whole or Saudi Arabia in general, it certainly, at the same time, mirrors most of the Saudi college students' disappointments, frustrations and lack of an intrinsic or true motivation in their academic life. If we look at the survey responses closely, we will see a pattern that clearly tells us that our students are struggling in their academic endeavors. It all started with a big mistake that was somehow committed in the early days of a student's college life- when he unwillingly joined a college that was not his first choice (Fig. 1). The choice was made either to satisfy a worrying parent as, "sometimes parents are so curious about their child's education and career that they keep reminding and injecting in the minds of their child that education is the only solution to future miseries" (Afzal et al., 2010) or simply because there were no other options available but to join this faculty. This is the reason almost half of the learners who were interviewed and surveyed said they were satisfied for being at this college only to some extent (Fig.2). And if we take into account other two responses, no, I am not satisfied and I cannot decide, the overall non satisfactory responses would cross past 70% mark. Once joined, the college students are now hopeful that at least a certificate from a renowned university would compensate their wrong choice by guaranteeing confirmed job placements after graduation. About 30% of the respondents say they want to improve their English and be able to communicate in English, which shows an intrinsic motivational trend, although more than 30% of their peers want to acquire their future job related knowledge and to study abroad to ensure securing a good job in the future- certainly highlights the extrinsic motivational force behind these choices.

Question 4 enquires about the students' spirit for attending all the lectures on a regular basis, something which is highly anticipated from a serious learner. But unfortunately, enough, only 10% of the students nodded positively in reply of that query. It is noteworthy that although a little more than 35% of them say that they would probably attend some classes, a little less than 45% students confessed that they would in fact consider attending only some selected lecture of importance- that tells us clearly that the type of motivation responsible here is truly extrinsic by nature. The next question is somewhat related to the last one. Figure5, depicts an uncomfortable fact that a mere 25% of our students would remain motivated positively on intrinsically even if there was no absence register. While a towering 40% students say that they would only attend one or two classes per week, a staggering above 30% of them say they will join only the lectures that start after 10 a.m. in the morning. A third say they would only appear in the midterms and the finals. The overall impression is genuinely extrinsic. This is supported by another research study done by Tom Clay and Lori Breslow (2006) where they found that: "When asked to estimate what percentage of their lectures they attend, about two of every three respondents (67%) estimated that they attend at least 90%, three of every four (76%) that they attend at least 75%, and more than nine in 10 (93%) that they attend at least half." (Clay. T., & Breslow. L. 2006).

Many a time, we see the instructors complain a lot about students having very little or no practice in English at all. Figure# 6 might help us to understand some of the reasons behind this problem, that otherwise would remain obscure or hidden. Here more than 40% participants admit that they do not practice English outside of their classes, while the tallest bar shows that almost 45% students use the language only in social media interactions, which is in a sense, not very encouraging. For educators this is not the ideal or authentic mode of learning English language but certainly not surprising, as some researchers (Walubita, & Akakandelwa, 2018; Grusec, & Hastings, 2007) think it is mainly the social media and its virtual world that could stand behind this eccentric result. Watching English videos and films is the most accessible and the most practiced by the students and it recently takes the place where the family should be. (M. Alaraj. M, 2019) Just a little over 10% of the students are found to be practicing English outside the classrooms.

Students, who were invited to take part in this survey, were from higher levels of study- ranging from level 4 to level 8- last level at this college. Yet to our utmost surprise and shock, reply to this particular question explicitly tells us that more than 40% of our current students feel that it is now too late to change this college and to join another one. Other 30% say that they still long for joining their college of choice if there was a possibility.

Figure#8 reveals another negative result which shows that studying English was the first choice of a mere 30% of our students, at the time of joining the university. And as predicted, rest of the students admitted that one way or the other English was not on the top of the list of their subject choices- only confirms the prevailing extrinsic motivational attitude.

Finally, the answers to the last question of this survey are no exceptions when the students were asked to name the college / faculty that they hoped to join at the first place. Once again, less than half of the total student body joined their chosen college, i.e., English, and the majority of their classmates were not so lucky.

The overall outcome of this initiative, which was aimed at finding the inner working of our students' motivational drive, completely aligns with the researchers' hypothesis that, most of the students, if not all of them, in the Department of English of this Saudi university-are strongly motivated extrinsically rather than intrinsically. A combined teaching experience of 50+ years, of both the researchers, was already witnessing and observing these findings- which are only now being proved authentic with this survey. The result of this survey in particular and the current study in general partially allows us a rare opportunity to have a glimpse on the psychology of a group of Saudi college students who are

pursuing their higher studies unhappily, unwillingly and uncertainly which ultimately lead to their academic failure mostly since the learners' anxiety level plays an essential role in language achievement. (Mohammed, 2015)

The table below is a fact sheet from the Faculty of Languages and Translations' registrar's office that shows how many students enrolled in the four previous semesters ranging from 2017-2018 sessions to 2018-2019 sessions. What is interesting to notice here is that roughly about 20%-30% of those enrolled students either became deprived or chose to drop out from a course. So, this staggering number of students who did not complete the course, either by their own choice or being forced by any difficult circumstances, supports the researchers' hypothesis that as they were driven mostly by their extrinsic motivational factors and they ultimately lost their spirit of academic success after some time and left the journey in the midway. This is not something normal if we consider the fact that each university student here receives an amount of little more than $250 a month just for attending his college regularly.

Academic Year	Number of Enrolled Students	Number of Withdrawn Students	Number of Deprived Students	Total	Percentage of Withdrawn +Deprived students
2017-2018 (1439-1440 Hijri) 1st Semester	1004	172	56	228	22.7%
2017-2018 (1439-1440 Hijri) 2nd Semester	1073	160	40	200	18.6%
2018-2019 (1440-1441 Hijri) 1st Semester	1002	184	59	243	24.2%
2018-2019 (1440-1441 Hijri) 2nd Semester	1020	234	65	299	29.3%

IX. CONCLUSION

In the light of the findings from the collected data, it can be seen that the majority of the students suffer from lack of intrinsic motivation as they are found to be driven only by different extrinsic motivational factors, that seems to be the mere reasons for the students who enroll in the English Language programs in the department of English, King Khalid University, in Saudi Arabia. The authors of this paper strongly believe that Saudi college students in general are in dire need for proper guidance and encouragement from their family and friends, teachers and peers for both enjoying their academic endeavors and in preparing themselves for the future challenges. The results of this study shows that by taking certain steps such as building their awareness, making them realize the importance of learning a second language, in this case, English, regardless of the need for securing a job etc. - we can initiate a positive change in the mindsets of these Saudi college students to make them feel more motivated intrinsically than ever before and help them become successful in both academic and professional arena.

This study deals with the male Saudi college students at King Khalid University. One shortcoming that this research project reports is that, it was not possible, at that time, due to limited access and availability of opportunities, to include the female Saudi students studying at King Khalid University's female only campuses, in the current study, which would have allowed this research study to focus on a much broader aspect of the issue.

X. RECOMMENDATIONS

The writers here would like to recommend that these Saudi college students should be mentored at one point or another during their four- year long engagement in acquiring a second language in a quite challenging academic environment. They also think that establishing a counselling center in the Department of English at King Khalid University for its thousands of students to address their academic, personal issues, difficulties etc. that they face on a regular basis. Such initiatives, no doubt, will go a long way to help students feel more confident, focused, and most importantly stay positively motivated throughout their academic life. It is worth mentioning that the earliest they come to know the differences between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational types, the better they will be to look at their academic engagements with a new outlook that is more intrinsic by nature than extrinsic, which at later stages, might help them place themselves at superior professional positions. As the researchers mentioned before, the topic of this paper appears to be quite a new area of research that has not yet been explored much, this requires, both locally and internationally, further research with deeper investigation.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Students,

This questionnaire aims at understanding the students' motivation for studying English at the Faculty of Languages and Translation at King Khalid University. We would like to assure you that the information obtained will be used for academic purposes only, and will be very confidential. Thank you very much for your cooperation and participation in this study.

Please choose only one answer that you think is appropriate in your situation.

أعزائي الطلبة،

يهدف هذا الاستبيان إلى فهم دوافع الطلاب لدراسة اللغة الإنجليزية في كلية اللغات والترجمة بجامعة الملك خالد. نود أن نؤكد لكم أن المعلومات ستستخدم للأغراض الأكاديمية (البحثية) فقط وستكون سرية للغاية. شكرا جزيلاً لتعاونكم ومشاركتكم في هذه الدراسة.

الرجاء اختيار إجابة واحدة فقط والتي تعتقد أنها مناسبة..

1. Why did you join the Faculty of Languages and Translation at KKU?
o   The name and fame of the Faculty of Languages and Translation.
o   My personal desire to study English.
o   There were no other choices for me.
o   To get a better job after graduation.

1. لماذا التحقت بكلية اللغات والترجمة بجامعة الملك خالد؟
o   اسم وشهرة كلية اللغات والترجمة.
o   رغبتي الشخصية في دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية.
o   لم تكن هناك خيارات أخرى متاحة أمامي.
o   للحصول على وظيفة أفضل بعد التخرج.

2. Do you feel satisfied as a student of English?
o   Yes, to a great extent.
o   Yes, to some extent.
o   No, I am not satisfied at all.
o   I cannot decide.

2. هل تشعر بالرضا كطالب لدراسة اللغة الإنجليزية؟
o   نعم ، إلى حد كبير.
o   نعم ، إلى حد ما.
o   غير راض على الإطلاق.
o   لا أستطيع أن أقرر.

3. What were your motives when you joined this college?
o   To find a better job after graduation.
o   To be able to communicate in English.
o   To acquire new knowledge for my future profession.
o   To be able to pursue my higher studies abroad.

3. ما هي دوافعك عندما التحقت بهذه الكلية؟
o   للحصول على وظيفة أفضل بعد التخرج.
o   لأكون قادراً على التواصل باللغة الإنجليزية.
o   للحصول على معرفة جديدة لمهنتي المستقبلية.
o   لأكون قادراً على متابعة دراستي العليا في الخارج.

4. Do you feel like attending your classes on daily bases?
o   Yes, all the classes.
o   Yes, most of the classes.
o   Yes, some classes only.
o   No, I don't feel like attending classes at all.

4. هل ترغب في حضور المحاضرات يومياً؟
o   نعم ، كل المحاضرات.
o   نعم ، معظم المحاضرات.
o   نعم ، بعض المحاضرات فقط.
o   لا ، لا أشعر بالحضور على الإطلاق.

5. If there was no absence register, will you attend classes?
o   I think I will attend once or twice a week maximum.
o   I will attend all classes regularly every day.
o   I will attend one or two classes after 10 a.m.
o   I will attend the Midterm and final examinations only.

5. إذا لم يكن هناك تسجيل للغياب، هل ستحضر المحاضرات؟
o   أعتقد أنني سأحضر مرة أو مرتين في الأسبوع كحد أقصى.
o   سأحضر جميع المحاضرات بانتظام كل يوم.
o   سأحضر محاضرة أو محاضرتين من بعد الساعة 10 صباحاً.
o   سأحضر اختبار منتصف الفصل والامتحانات النهائية فقط.

6. Do you practice your English outside the class?
o   I don't speak English outside the class.
o   I speak English with some of my classmates only.
o   I chat with my friends on line.
o   I speak English frequently after classes.

6. هل تمارس لغتك الإنجليزية خارج الفصل؟
o   لا أتحدث الإنجليزية خارج الفصل.

<div dir="rtl">

○ أتحدث الإنجليزية مع بعض زملائي فقط.

○ أقوم بإجراء محادثات مع الأصدقاء عبر الإنترنت.

○ أتحدث الإنجليزية بشكل متكرر بعد الفصل.

</div>

7. Do you still feel like joining another college?
- o   If I have the chance, I will join another college.
- o   I think it is too late at this time.
- o   I will definitely finish my English studies in this college.
- o   I cannot decide at the time being.

<div dir="rtl">

7. هل لا زلت تشعر بالرغبة في الالتحاق بكلية أخرى؟

○ إذا أتيحت لي الفرصة، فسوف ألتحق بكلية أخرى.

○ أعتقد أنه فات الأوان في الوقت الراهن.

○ بالتأكيد سأنهي دراستي الإنجليزية هذه الكلية.

○ لست قادراً على اتخاذ القرار في الوقت الراهن.

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8. Was English your first choice when you joined KKU?
- o   No, but that was my parents desire.
- o   Yes, it was my first choice from the beginning.
- o   No, I was planning to join another college.
- o   No, but my low grade didn't qualify me to join my colleges of choice.

<div dir="rtl">

8. هل كانت اللغة الإنجليزية هي خيارك الأول عندما التحقت بجامعة الملك خالد؟

○ لا ، لكن كانت رغبة الوالدان أن ألتحق بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية.

○ نعم ، كان خياري الأول من البداية.

○ لا ، كنت أخطط للانضمام إلى كلية أخرى.

○ لا ، لكن تدني درجاتي لم تؤهلني للالتحاق بالكليات التي اخترتها.

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9. Do you think you will find a job after graduation?
- o   I am working with my father's firm?
- o   I have a part time job at the time being.
- o   I am planning to pursue my higher studies.
- o   I don't think I will find a job after my graduation.

<div dir="rtl">

9. هل تعتقد أنك سوف تجد وظيفة بعد التخرج

○ أعمل مع والدي في مؤسسته الخاصة.

○ عندي وظيفة بدوام جزئي في الوقت الراهن.

○ أنا أخطط لمتابعة دراستي العليا.

○ لا أعتقد أني سأجد وظيفة بعد التخرج.

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10. What was the college that you wanted to join at KKU?

Specify the college --

<div dir="rtl">

10. ما هي الكلية التي كنت ترغب الالتحاق بها في جامعة الملك خالد؟

حدد الكلية...

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Interpretation of Teachers' Understanding of the Concept of Personal Social Responsibility

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Abstract—**This paper explores the concept of personal social responsibility from the teachers' self-perceived perspective of its occurrence and understanding in the context of English language teaching and learning. It seeks to highlight the variety of constituents, qualities, and characteristics that shape it. Mixed methods research methodology is used for the analysis and interpretation of personal social responsibility taking into account teachers' descriptions of its constituents' level of importance, attitudinal characteristics to the chosen profession, qualities that characterize individual's behavior towards other people, community and society, and how teaching personal social responsibility might have an impact on students' learning and development. The participants of the study are English language educators representing the multicultural teaching community in the tertiary education institutions in the Sultanate of Oman. The findings of the study show that the concept of personal social responsibility is perceived as significantly important and meaningful; however, it yields considering approaches in the way it is provided, communicated, and taught in the English language courses. It is expected that the findings of this study may give proper guidance in forming future decisions about personal social responsibility teaching to empower students and enhance their academic and professional success.**

Index Terms—**social responsibility, English language classroom, skills, Sultanate of Oman**

I. INTRODUCTION

Scholars have recognized that social responsibility is becoming a gradually vital concept in the continuous "debate about how to maintain competitiveness and sustainability in the context of globalization" (Santos, Marques, Justino, & Mendes, 2020, p.1). According to Brimmer (2007), the issue of responsibility is "foundational to understanding organizational ethics" (n.p.). Currently, social responsibility focuses on the effects that both individual and corporate acts can have on the outside world. These effects would include the society, community, and culture (What is social responsibility, 2019). It involves corporate and personal social responsibility.

In the context of the corporate world, social responsibility indicates that "business, in addition to maximizing stakeholder value, must act in a manner that benefits the society" (Social responsibility, 2019, n.p.). There is a large body of research on the nature and practice of corporate social responsibility, as well as related social expectations in different types of economies and enterprise sectors (Jamali &Mirshak, 2007; Khan & Al Mamari, 2016). The concept of personal social responsibility is less explored. It has emerged as a constituent of social responsibility ethical framework. Researchers have asserted that this concept is in response to the increasing demand of the societies to have individuals who act more responsibly towards their families, workplace, community, and environment (both ecological and social). Literature further affirms that personal social responsibility is the moral responsibility of every citizen to do the right thing (Venugopala, 2015). The cited author confirmed that it is voluntary and about personal integrity, ethics, commitment, and ownership. Also, it is about giving, taking, and striving towards the continuous betterment of society (Venugopala, 2015). Davis, Rives, and de Mayaa (2017) who base their understanding of personal social responsibility on the concepts of corporate and consumer social responsibility contend that personal social responsibility describes "the individual's behavior toward and the effects on his/her social and ecological environment through his/her daily decisions" (n.p.).

According to Dewey (2004), "society not only continues to exist by transmission, by communication, but it may fairly be said to exist in transmission, in communication" (p. 4). In the light of this, the present paper focuses on the concept of personal social responsibility, its meaning, and its utility. It reports on a study conducted by the authors to

explore the understanding and views of the English language educators in Oman's institutions of higher education. It will shed light on the level of importance of the constituents of the concept of personal social responsibility, its qualities and characteristics, including individual attitudinal characteristics to the chosen profession and behavior towards other people, community, and society, and how personal social responsibility in teaching and learning might have an impact on how students learn and develop.

II. BRIEF LITERATURE REVIEW ON PERSONAL SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY

In a seminal paper titled *Introducing Personal Social Responsibility as a key element to upgrade CSR*, Davisa, Rives and de Mayaa (2017) initiated a discussion based on qualitative research of the construct of personal social responsibility, its justification, and definition that incorporated previous studies on ethical or responsible consumption and consumer social responsibility. The authors discuss the concept of personal social responsibility as "the way a person performs in his daily life as a member of the society---and not only as a consumer---basing his decisions in a desire to minimize the negative impacts and maximize the positive impacts on the social, economic and environmental in the long run" (Davisa, Rives & de Mayaa, 2017, p.160). Then they highlight how the social responsibility concept involves the perspectives for its future examination, including education and general development. In the view of Davisa, Rives and de Mayaa (2017), personal social responsibility "should describe the individual's behavior toward and the effects on his/her social and ecological environment through his/her daily decisions" (p.148). Consequently, the decisions of the individuals will be grounded on "seeking greater relationships with their stakeholders - in this case families, friends, colleagues or the community" (Davisa, Rives & de Mayaa, 2017, p.148).

While emphasizing the significant role of social responsibility in the contemporary era, Tkachenko and Hromovyk (2019) explore the methodological approaches to the integrated assessment of socially responsible behavior of undergraduate and post-graduate pharmacy students as a compulsory component of their professional activity. The authors identify some mandatory components of the pharmacists' social responsibility, including moral, psychological, legal, professional, political, civil, and environmental components. They also examine a structured set of internal determinants that are characteristic for socially responsible pharmacists, regulate their behavior and guide them along the course proposed by society. On similar lines, this study is closely related to research by Tkachenko, Chervonenko and Demchenko (2018) that investigated the personal social responsibility constituents of pharmacy specialists using the opinion of the representatives of practical pharmacy. In more detail, it explored their understanding of the nature and completeness of the definition of the concept of personal social responsibility" (PSR), as well as the qualities of the character that should be inherent in the responsible pharmacist at the present stage of development of the pharmaceutical industry. The authors emphasize the complex nature of the concept of personal social responsibility. They point, firstly, to its connectedness to the "study of the nature of the person himself (man), his spiritual and moral values, and the forms of their manifestation" (Tkachenko, Chervonenko & Demchenko, 2018, p.833). Secondly, Tkachenko, Chervonenko, and Demchenko (2018) explain that in the phrase 'social responsibility', the first component refers to its social dimensions, while "the interpretation of the second component is ambiguous" (p.833). However, according to them, in the context of social responsibility, responsibility is the result of the individual's interactions with the society; therefore, a socially responsible individual is a result of social activities "related to the satisfaction of the needs of the subject, his interests, priorities, internal guidelines … formed, manifested and evolved only in the process of human activity (Tkachenko, Chervonenko & Demchenko, 2018, p.834). In addition, social responsibility incorporates "the mandatory presence of the object of socially responsible behavior" that represents the subject of the activity entrusted to the individual or "taken by him as a commitment, the norm of activity" (Kolot, 2011, as cited in Tkachenko, Chervonenko & Demchenko, 2018, p.834); consequently, moral, psychological, legal, professional, political, civil and ecological components are integral for the social responsibility construct. In the authors' view, these are developed as personal qualities due to self-control in the process that transforms the individual into "an active and creative subject of activity" (ibid.). Their study further illustrated that the list of the personal social responsibility's constituents includes, for example, awareness of the need to act in accordance with public requirements and norms; prediction of consequences for one's choice, decision, action; criticality, and constant control over their actions, etc. As for the characteristics of personal social responsibility, they involve readiness to be responsible for their actions; awareness of the need to act in accordance with public requirements and norms; prediction of consequences for one's choice, decision, action, etc. The list of the qualities that characterize a person's attitude to the case, to the chosen profession involves professionalism, responsibility for their actions and decisions, devotion to his profession, care about the order, quality and acuteness, teamwork and cooperation, ability to influence (ability to persuade or persuade), ability to motivate oneself and others for professional, activity persistence, initiative, commitment to the company. The qualities that characterize the relation of humans to other people, community, and society involve patience, self-control behavior, communication, ability to listen to others, tact, justice, the same attitude to all people, kindness, compassion, and keenness. In the social sphere, the concept of personal social responsibility is explored in the study by Pihovsky (2018) that underscores the value of forming a social responsibility of a specialist in the social sphere for the fulfillment of the individual's professional duties. Following this line of argument, 'responsibility' is understood as an awareness of the significance of one's acts and their consequences for society, and 'social responsibility' refers to conscious and voluntary meeting social requirements, norms and regulations. Pihovsky (2018) focuses on the development of social

responsibility of a specialist in the Ukrainian social sphere which, in the author's view, is characterized by different levels (maximum, minimum, permissible and actual, as well as mega-, macro-, meso-, micro-), characteristic features, structure (subject and object), types (non-legal (includes state, civil, political, economic, moral, national, religious, industrial, family, etc.) and legal (legal social responsibility), principles (humanism, transparency, accountability, moderation in the decision-making process, patriotism, duty, spirituality, professional competence, creative orientation, hard work) and forms (voluntary and forced) implementation of social responsibility. The complex analysis of the social responsibility in the study by Pihovsky (2018) also determines the prospects of social responsibility development as a personal quality of future specialists while emphasizing the essential role of higher education in this endeavor.

III. The Study

This part of the paper discusses and explains the findings of the study that investigated teachers' understanding of the concept of personal social responsibility The subjects of the study were the representatives of the English language teaching community with diverse teaching experience and educational background who work in Oman's system of higher education that is "dynamic and has grown rapidly over the past three decades" (Baporikar & Shah, 2012, p.9). In order to explore the concept of personal social responsibility, several modes of gathering information were followed. The survey was administered to study participants online both via Survey Monkey, and email. The important areas in this study were teachers' views and perceptions of the level of importance of the personal social responsibility construct's constituents, individual characteristics of a person's attitude to the chosen profession, individual's behavior towards other people, community and society, and the ways in which personal social responsibility in teaching and learning might have an impact on how students learn and develop.

A. Methodology

This study adopts a quantitative methodology that examined English language teachers' understanding of the concept of personal social responsibility. A survey was developed to include some of the items adapted from the questionnaire used in the research by Tkachenko, Chervonenko, and Demchenko (2018) to fit the purpose and the context of the study and be meaningful to its participants. The adaptations involved modifications of the items, as well as the creation of new items and sections in the survey.

The data in the survey had four major sections. The first part of the survey contained information related to the demographic characteristics of the study participants. These items gathered information regarding the participants' background information, including gender, age, education, teaching experience, and teaching position. The second part of the survey explored teachers' understanding of the concept of personal social responsibility. This section of the survey focused on the constituents of personal social responsibility, for example, self-confidence, self-actualization, self-management, self-efficacy, diligence, etc.; the characteristics of a person's attitude to the chosen profession, for example, professionalism, perseverance, initiative, reliability, etc., and the qualities that characterize individual's behavior towards other people, community and society, for example, patience, self-control, communication, courtesy, confidence, etc. The participants were asked to evaluate these items as 'very important,' 'important,' 'not so important,' 'not important at all,' and 'not applicable/I am not sure.' Thus, the first two sections consisted of quantitative questions that defined the participants 'traits and opinions. These questions took the major bulk of the survey. The final part of the survey was an attempt to draw qualitative data. In this section, the researchers asked the participants to provide their autobiographical accounts and share their memorable experiences of teaching personal social responsibility in the classroom. The survey was pre-tested with eight senior English instructors and revised accordingly. It was also reviewed by the researchers from Sultan Qaboos University, whose feedback was used for the last minor revision before the data collection.

The survey was administered online as an email attachment and on the surveymonkey.com platform to be available to the English language educators in the higher education institutions in Oman. Out of 100 surveys, only 56 reposed, yelling a 56% response rate. The surveys were taken by the educators based on their agreement to be part of the study sample on a voluntary basis. In total, 56 surveys were collected; however, only 47 of those were fully completed, and 9 participants skipped the questions in the second and the third sections of the survey. The overall data obtained from 47 participants were categorized as Question Summaries, Data Trends, and Individual Responses. Question Summaries were arranged as graphs and tables containing answer choices, responses in numbers, percentages, and weighted averages. Individual Responses and autobiographical accounts were labeled as Participant 1, Participant 2, etc. All these data were saved on one computer for examination and qualitative analysis.

B. Participants

The target participants in this study were English language teachers representing the multicultural teaching community in the Sultanate of Oman. Data showed that there were differences in terms of the participants' age, gender, teaching experience, educational background, and teaching position. Fifty-six subjects (male (29-51.79%) and female (27-48.21%) responded to the survey and participated in this research. The study participants represented a diversity of educational levels with 13 (23.21%) participants having the highest educational level, e.g., Ph.D., EdD. However, the Master's degree (e.g., MA, MSc, MEd) holders comprised the majority of study participants (39-69.64%) with other

education level holders (4) making up 7.14% of all the participants. As for their teaching experience, 5.36% (3 participants) had from 1 to 5 years; 10.71% (6 participants) from 6 to 10 years; 12.50% (7 participants) from 11to 15 years; 17.86% (10 participants) from 16 to 20 years, and 53.57% (30 participants) more than 20 years of experience. These participants occupied different academic positions at the institutions of higher education in Oman, namely the positions of Assistant Professor (12.50% - 7), Language Lecturer (60.71% - 34), Assistant Language Lecturer (5.36% - 3), Senior Language Instructor (10.71% - 6), Language Instructor (5.36% - 3) as well as some other positions not specified by the subjects (5.36% - 3). Out of these 56 participants, nine individuals completed only the background information section. They skipped the sections of the survey that focused on their opinions and views. The results and discussion section will describe the insights provided by 47 participants in this study.

C. Results and Discussion

The findings related to teachers' understanding of the concept of personal social responsibility covered the constituents of personal social responsibility, the characteristics of a person's attitude to the chosen profession and the qualities that characterize an individual's behavior towards other people, community and society.

Such constituents of personal social responsibility, as self-confidence (76.60%), understanding of values underpinning the profession and its socially responsible practice (74.47%), wish to avoid hurting or possibly causing another person harm (74.47%), commitment to the highest professional standards (70.21%), self-management (70.21%), readiness to take responsibility for actions and demonstrate responsible behavior that involves honesty, compassion/respect, fairness (What is responsible behavior?, n.d.) (68.09%), preparedness to meet a situation and carry out a planned sequence of actions (63.83%) and awareness of the effects of the organization's activities on the quality of human and social life (63.83%) were evaluated as 'very important' by the majority of the participants. The constituents of personal social responsibility rated as 'important' involved self-actualization (40.43%), self-efficacy (40.43%), diligence (42.55%), awareness of the necessity to act following public policy interests, requirements and norms (40,43%). Among other constituents of personal social responsibility, prediction of potential consequences of actions and choices was considered as 'very important' by 46.81%, 'important' by 44.68% and 'not so important' by 6.38% of the participants whereas 2.13% of the participants found it challenging to evaluate this constituent. Similarly, 2.13% of the participants were unsure when ranking such constituents, as diligence, prediction of potential consequences of actions and choices, awareness of the necessity to act following public policy interests, requirements and norms, and understanding of values underpinning the profession and its socially responsible practice. Interestingly enough though rated as 'very important' by most of the participants, such constituent of social personal responsibility as wish to avoid hurting or possibly causing another person harm was rated as 'not important at all' by 2.33% of the study participants. The prediction of potential consequences of actions and choices had the highest weighted average among all the constituents of the personal social responsibility as perceived by the study participants (1.66), while the varying degrees of importance of the numbers and percentages were in a data set referring to such constituent, as self-confidence (see Table 1 for more information). Nevertheless, this constituent was valued highly by the participants and, as mentioned by one of them, "it is important for the teacher to have self-confidence, i.e., the ability to judge one's own social and personal standing, in the classroom, and when dealing with individual students; students can tell if the teacher lacks confidence, and this may be transmitted to the student themselves" (Participant 12).

TABLE I.
CONSTITUENTS OF PERSONAL SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AS RATED BY ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATORS

Constituents	Very important	Important	Not so important	Not important at all	Not applicable/I am not sure	Total	Weighted average
Self-confidence	76.60% 36	24.30% 11	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.23
Self-actualization	59.57% 28	40.43% 19	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.40
Self-management	70.21% 33	29.79% 14	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.30
Self-efficacy	59.57% 28	40.43% 19	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.40
Diligence	55.32% 26	42.55% 20	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	47	1.51
Prediction of potential consequences of actions and choices	46.81% 22	44.68% 21	6.38% 3	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	47	1.66
Preparedness to meet a situation and carry out a planned sequence of actions	63.83% 30	31.91% 15	4.26% 2	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.40
Readiness to take responsibility for actions and demonstrate responsible behavior components involve honesty, compassion/respect, fairness, accountability, and courage	68.09% 32	31.91% 15	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.32
Awareness of the necessity to act following public policy interests, requirements and norms	55.32% 26	40.43% 19	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	47	1.53
Awareness of the effects of the organization's activities on the quality of human and social life	63.83% 30	34.04% 16	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.38
Understanding of values underpinning the profession and its socially responsible practice	74.47% 35	21.28% 10	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	47	1.34
Wish to avoid hurting or possibly causing another person harm	74.47% 35	21.28% 10	2.13% 1	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	47	1.32
Commitment to the highest professional standards	70.21% 33	25.53% 12	4.26% 2	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.34

When asked about their opinion about the characteristics of a person's attitude to the chosen profession, most of the participants (85.11%) rated work commitment as 'very important.' A characteristic such as respect for others was also rated high as 'very important by the participants (80.85%). The elicited information about professionalism as another characteristic of the attitude of a person to the profession showed that it was ranked as 'very important' by 78.72%, 'important' by 19.15% and 'not important' only by 2.13% of the participants. As for the other items in the list of the characteristics, for example, reliability, initiative, perseverance, ability to work in harmony with co-workers, almost each of them were rated as 'very important' or 'important' by more than half of the participants (see Table 2 for more information about these characteristics). The views and considerations of the study participants about the characteristics of a person's attitude to the chosen profession seem to indicate that they mostly present a valuable set of features and qualities since they received a high evaluation by the majority of the participants. However, for example, enthusiasm about life was evaluated as 'very important' by 57.45%, 'important' by 31.91% of the respondents, while 10.64% of them ranked this characteristic as 'not so important.'

TABLE II.
CHARACTERISTICS OF A PERSON'S ATTITUDE TO A CHOSEN PROFESSION AS RATED BY ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATORS

Characteristics	Very important	Important	Not so important	Not important at all	Not applicable/I am not sure	Total	Weighted average
Professionalism	78.72% 37	19.15% 9	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.23
Perseverance	68.09% 32	27.66% 13	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	47	1.40
Initiative	59.57% 28	36.17% 17	4.26% 2	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.45
Reliability	76.60% 36	21.28% 10	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	47	1.28
Ability to work in harmony with co-workers	74.47% 35	23.40% 11	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.28
Work commitment	85.11% 40	14.89% 7	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.15
Respect for others	80.85% 38	17.02% 8	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.21
Responsibility for actions and decisions	76.60% 36	21.28% 10	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	47	1.30
Dedication and diligence to profession	74.47% 35	23.40% 11	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.28
Helpfulness with others	61.70% 29	36.17% 17	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	47	1.43
Enthusiasm about life	57.45% 27	31.91% 15	10.64% 5	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.53
Job involvement	68.09% 32	31.91% 15	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.32
Innovative ideas and finding new ways	59.57% 28	34.04% 16	4.26% 2	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	47	1.51

As for the participants' opinions about the qualities that characterize individual's behavior towards other people, community and society, the data revealed that compassion, empathy, and respect for the essential dignity of all persons (78.72%), moral courage and high ethics (78.72%) and a reputation for honesty, integrity and fairness (74.47%) received 'very important' evaluation from the participants. An almost similar number of the participants highly valued confidence (72.34%), strong, dignified interpersonal skills (65.96%), patience (63.83%), self-control (63.83%), ability to listen to what others say (63.83%), communication (61.70%), and evaluated these qualities as 'very important'. Regarding commitment to principles of accountability to the community, nearly half of the participants valued this quality as 'very important' (57.45%) and 'important' (40.43%). Only 2.33% of the participants rated it as 'not so important.' Nearly similar responses were obtained for some other qualities listed in this part of the survey, for example, keen interest in people and humanity, including cross-cultural experience and engagement was rated as 'very important' by 59.57%, 'important' by 36.17% and 'not so important' by 4.26% of the participants with weighted average 1.45. Although ranked as 'very important' and 'important' by most study participants, a quality such as demonstrated commitment to community service received a little less emphasis, namely 48.94%, and 46.81% respectively. Additionally, 2.13% of the respondents rated this quality as 'not so important" and 2.13% of the respondents were undetermined when rating it (see Table 3 for more details about the participants' opinions on the qualities that characterize individual's behavior towards other people, community and society).

TABLE III.
QUALITIES THAT CHARACTERIZE INDIVIDUAL'S BEHAVIOR TOWARDS OTHER PEOPLE, COMMUNITY, AND SOCIETY AS RATED BY ENGLISH
LANGUAGE EDUCATORS

Qualities	Very important	Important	Not so important	Not important at all	Not applicable/I am not sure	Total	Weighted average
Patience	63.83% 30	36.17% 17	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.36
Self-control	63.83% 30	31.91% 15	4.26% 2	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.40
Communication	61.70% 29	38.30% 18	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.38
Courtesy	51.06% 24	40.43% 19	8.51% 4	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.57
Confidence	72.34% 34	25.53% 12	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.30
Ability to listen to what others say	63.83% 30	34.04% 16	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	47	1.40
Compassion, empathy, and respect for the essential dignity of all persons	78.72% 37	19.15% 9	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.23
Strong, dignified interpersonal skills	65.96% 31	31.91% 15	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.36
A reputation for honesty, integrity and fairness	74.47% 35	23.40% 11	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.28
Moral courage and high ethics	78.72% 37	21.28% 10	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.21
Commitment to principles of accountability to the community	57.45% 27	40.43% 19	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.45
Keen interest in people and humanity, including cross-cultural experience and engagement	59.57% 28	36.17% 17	4.26% 2	0.00% 0	0.00% 0	47	1.45
A demonstrated commitment to community service	48.94% 23	46.81% 22	2.13% 1	0.00% 0	2.13% 1	47	1.60

Overall, the participants' autobiographical accounts supported their rating of personal social responsibility, its constituents and related qualities and characteristics as highly valued, necessary and of great consequence to teaching, learning, and acting in the best interests of the society as a whole. This can be illustrated by the words of one of the participants in the study who believes that as an educator in the English classroom, it is important to "consider the individual's personal social responsibility to not only guide the students in their learning of the English language but also to guide them in how to be socially responsible" (Participant 10). Along the same line, another participant noted: "We may not always be aware that, as teachers, we are communicating social responsibility to our students in the classroom, which ultimately spreads into society as a whole. I believe that it is all about playing a part, setting a good example, and being a good role model for the class as a whole and for individuals in the class" (Participant 7).

The participants' autobiographical accounts demonstrate that good citizenship and social responsibility, engaging in community affairs, and being mindful of contemporary issues are among attributes that graduates of the higher education institutions in Oman should achieve. Therefore, students are guided towards these attributes by introducing the learning of the English language in a social context, i.e., the context that refers to "certain aspects that characterize each learner along with the learning conditions that surround him/her" (Aguirre, 2013, p.27). Some of the most common examples of teaching personal social responsibility in the English language classroom in the context of higher education institutions in Oman provided in the participants' autobiographical accounts include firstly and most of all teaching a language skill "that would be of direct use in students' daily lives" and "embodies social responsibility" (Participant 8), as well as introducing community-based learning projects as part of the curriculum and integrating problem-based learning projects with students. To illustrate, one of the participants in the study described community-based learning and problem-based projects that were used to encourage students to further develop their sense of personal social responsibility. In this participant's English language program, community-based learning projects are a part of the curriculum, involving students connecting their classroom and their language learning to their community (Participant 3). These projects were exemplified by a reading activity on the Oman Botanic Garden that engaged students with the botanists, and garden workers at the garden directly. As described by the participant, "the reading text explored the environmental situation in Oman where indigenous plants are becoming endangered, and described the garden being

established to preserve, protect and showcase these plants. For some students reading about this local environmental problem may have been enough to encourage social responsibility. However, having the opportunity to visit the garden in person and ask the botanists and garden workers who are physically involved with the preservation and protection of these native plants was clearly an eye-opening experience for many students. The student reflections later revealed how many had not known that Omani indigenous plants were endangered. By connecting directly with the community beyond the classroom, their awareness had been raised, and they were encouraged to raise the awareness of their friends and family" (Participant 3). Another example of promoting personal social responsibility in the language classroom referred to introducing problem-based learning projects with English for Science students. According to the participant's autobiographical account, "in these language learning classes, students work in teams on a semester-long project to research and find solutions or ways of mitigating an ill-structured socio-scientific problem. The project generally focuses on environmental issues, and the teams give a presentation to classmates, put on a poster exhibition and write reflections on their experience" (Participant 3). The participant further explained: "When the students reflect I have found that they are honest and often relate that when they started the project they were unaware of the problems. However, by the time they come to present the problems they are convinced that a solution needs to be found. At the end of the course after the team has researched together, they exhibit their solutions on a poster to the whole community of students and staff at their learning center" (Participant 3). The participant also expressed her pride and genuine surprise about the knowledge and awareness her students have gained through the projects, and they were able to passionately disseminate them to a large number of their peers through a public forum. As exemplified in the study participant's autobiographical account, "students who researched the problem of microplastic ocean pollution had previously bought several plastic bottles of water a day to quench their thirst in Oman's hot climate, and they said they never thought about the effect that this might have on ocean plastic pollution. However, by the end of the project they were all using reusable water bottles". Overall, according to her, in general, students "who have been involved in both kinds of projects showed that they were moving towards the university's goal for its graduates being socially responsible, engaging in community affairs and being mindful of contemporary issues" (Participant 3).

The majority of the participants noted the importance of teachers as role models in teaching personal social responsibility while focusing on such aspects, as creating friendly classroom atmosphere; having respect for the classroom environment as a part of showing students good social behavior; for example, treating the classroom equipment with respect, and keeping the classroom tidy and not creating any litter there; on-going support to students in terms of demonstrating sensitivity to their culture and empathy towards their social issues. To exemplify, one of the study participants in her autobiographical account wrote: "Generally speaking, a teacher should be a good role model for his/her students. I remember trying to create a welcoming atmosphere towards the students as they entered the classroom. As they entered the classroom gradually, it was nice to greet each one as they came in, using their name, thus acknowledging their presence. I believe that I was also showing sensitivity to their culture and empathy towards their social issues, by behaving appropriately myself. For example, if a student came with a problem regarding family matters, I tried to be sympathetic and empathetic. As a teacher, I hope I was showing them that consideration for others and patience with each other are important. Hopefully, they also appreciated the need to be responsible for their own actions and the consequences of those actions" (Participant 12). The participant elaborated further and emphasized some other aspects of being socially responsible in the classroom, which can have a positive effect on students' learning and participation and when those students go out into the community at large. This would include encouraging students to be volunteers, whether answering questions voluntarily, or doing something to help a fellow student in difficulties. Teachers would motivate students to be socially responsible towards each other, and thereby be good role models for each other by being punctual for class, being prepared for classes, respecting school property, completing all homework assignments, managing time well, respecting themselves and others, listening attentively in class to the teacher and other students, making their best effort (Participant 12). These thoughts of the study participant were supported by three examples from her experience of teaching English in the higher education institutions in Oman. In the first example, Student A had had excellent English, but as required by all the students in her study program at the time, she had to attend English classes. However, she did not always listen and pay attention in class. This affected her performance on a simple class assignment concerning writing the correct times shown on some clocks. Most of the time, while the other students were doing the task, she would talk to her peer and would not keep quiet and focus on the task in hand, despite the teacher's requests to do so. Consequently, she did poorly on the related assignment, and later agreed to see the teacher in the office. It turned out that she had a poor grasp of the concept of expressing the time in English. The teacher went over the assignment with her and then felt that the student regretted her lack of attention in class and admitted she should have listened more carefully. In the example of Student B, the student's attitude to his homework was his main problem. He just did not do it. As a result, his exam results were not very good. During a conversation with him in private, the teacher learned that he was married with children, so she showed her appreciation that he had family responsibilities. However, one day, he persistently tried to persuade the teacher to give him a better grade. At that the teachers became rather upset with the student. She reminded him that as a father he should surely have a more responsible attitude to his work if he wanted to be a good role model for his children. The example of Student C that was narrated by this particular study participant showed a great deal of her sympathy, empathy, and understanding towards one student, who himself was training to become a teacher, but had many family issues that he was dealing

with at the time. He missed his classes frequently, but always brought a valid excuse for his absence, which seemed acceptable. His teacher training schedule was very demanding, and the English class was at the end of the day. He struggled to get to class on time, partly because of his schedule and partly because of the demands of his family. In response, the teacher thought that it was better for the student if she showed some sympathy and understanding, rather than put him under more stress by being unconcerned or unkind (Participant 12). This participant's autobiographical account and supporting examples from the English language classroom corroborate with Pihovsky's (2018) description of teaching and learning personal social responsibility as voluntary and not forced. For example, in retrospect, she interpreted her reactions and behavior towards her students as part of her overall efforts to teach them social responsibility. However, according to her, she was not necessarily conscious of that at the time, and the students, in her view, were appreciative and grateful and tried to have a positive attitude in response. Additionally, according to this participant's opinion, students also have a certain impact and 'teach teachers.' This participant, for example, contended: "Some of the students' behavior probably did influence my teaching, as I saw most of them as good role models that I would like to emulate myself throughout my profession. I thank them and sincerely hope that our students would also one day remember that something we did or said will remain in their minds as a positive influence in their lives" (Participant 12). In the same style of writing, another study participant emphasized the role of teaching personal social responsibility in the English language classroom as a venue giving both teachers and students a "sense of personal responsibility" (Participant 8) in addition to encouraging language educators to "identify learners' needs and work to address and support them" (Participant 8), listen to their students and "be open to dialogue and communication" (Participant 11). To use the ideas of Bakhtin (1981), during these interactional processes, the meaning is jointly constructed.

IV. CONCLUSION

The results of the study clearly demonstrate that the constituents of the personal social responsibility as well as related characteristics and qualities have exceptional importance for the English language educators in Oman. Firstly, the attributes that graduates of the institutions of higher education in Oman should achieve include good citizenship and social responsibility, engaging in community affairs and being mindful of contemporary issues. Secondly, teachers value personal social responsibility highly and make every effort to engage with the students in their English language classrooms and guide them towards these attributes by introducing language learning within a meaningful socio-cultural context. Moreover, during the interactive process of personal social responsibility teaching and learning, the meaning is jointly constructed by both teachers and students. By further exploring the constituents, qualities and characteristics of personal social responsibility in the context of the English language teaching and learning practice in the country's system of higher education, effective educational and pedagogical approaches can be developed, communicated and taught to give students further guidance, empower them and enhance their academic success.

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Issues, Challenges, and Future Directions for Multilingual Assessment

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Abstract—**Multilingual teaching and learning practices are often implemented in K-12 classrooms. However, issues related to multilingual assessment are rarely investigated. With the growing population of multilingual learners in the classroom, there is a great need to understand what multilingual assessment is and how to assess students who come from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. The current study attempts to fill the research gap by reviewing the assessment literature over the past 15 years on multilingualism. We summarize and synthesize three main themes: 1) issues related to multilingualism, 2) difficulties, and challenges of multilingual assessment, and 3) approaches to assessment for multilingualism. We further divide the third theme into five subcategories: ideological shift, new ways of measuring English language proficiency, translanguaging-based assessment, dynamic assessment, as well as incorporating qualitative research. The study introduced the challenges of implementing multilingual assessment, offers an overview of the different approaches, and calls for more work to be conducted using the approaches.**

Index Terms—**multilingual assessment, multilingualism, sociocultural context**

I. INTRODUCTION

With increasing globalization, mass migration, and growing mobility in modern society, multilingualism has become a widespread topic across many continents. Although multilingual teaching and learning practices are often implemented in classroom settings, issues involving assessment for multilingualism are rarely addressed. Assessment policies and practices have a history of lagging behind the advances in teaching (Mathew, 2008). As Shohamy (2011) points out "Although multilingual teaching and learning are currently promoted, encouraged, and practiced, especially in a European context, there are no voices that argue in favor of multilingual tests" (p. 421). The sociopolitical and economic reasoning behind this is to ensure that the dominant group maintains its power and the status quo of the society. The monolingual tests reflect "one language, one nation" collective ideology and perpetuate the traditional "native-like" norm. This deficit monolingual view overlooks the changing socio-cultural context and further marginalizes the minority groups.

Additionally, tests are powerful tools that have a tremendous influence on learning and teaching (Shohamy, 2011). Shohamy presents empirical data that monolingual tests such as national achievement tests, citizenship tests, and Program for International Assessment (PISA) have a negative influence on individual students, especially bilinguals. Second language learners and emergent bilinguals are often left behind because their content knowledge is often assessed in their second or third language (Solano-Flores, 2016). On the other hand, multilingual assessment can more accurately reflect test takers' academic knowledge and provide more accurate, fair, and valid information about learner's competence (Menken & Shohamy, 2015; Gorter, 2015).

Due to the sparse investigation on multilingual assessment and its importance in educational and social development, a need for an integrative review of the literature on assessment for multilingualism is imperative. The current issue highlights the trend of research studies on multilingual assessments over the past 15 years. Our guiding research question is: what are the central topics of multilingual assessment?

II. METHODOLOGY

We first searched for articles that contained all of the words "multilingual assessment" in the title published from 2003 to 2018 in Google Scholar. 116 articles appeared in the results. We then searched words consisting of "multilingual assessment" in article title/keywords/abstract in Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts (LLBA) and ERIC databases. Only peer-reviewed academic journals from LLBA and ERIC published from 2003 to 2018 were included. There are 137 articles from LLBA and 10 articles from ERIC. We then applied the following exclusion criterion: 1. Article duplicates. 2. Journal publications related to learning disabilities, applied psycholinguistics,

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language pathology. 3. Articles published in languages other than English. A final result of 31 articles was used in the current literature review.

III. RESULTS

A review of literature on multilingual assessment from 2003 to 2018 yields three major research concentrations: Advantages of being bi/multilingual, challenges of multilingual assessment, and diverse approaches to multilingual assessment.

A. Advantages of Being Bi/Multilingual

Studies suggest that bi/multilinguals significantly outperform monolinguals on both verbal and nonverbal intelligence tests (Peal & Lambert, 1962; Andrade et al., 1989). According to Thomas and Collier (1998), multilinguals not only exhibit advantages over monolinguals in linguistic domains such as larger vocabulary size, better proficiency and accuracy, and effective reading and grammar strategies, they are also better in some cognitive, social, and personal areas. Multilinguals have better working memory in terms of storing and processing information (Bialystok et al., 2004). Learning a second language was shown to have beneficial effects on the main elements of executive functioning (Diamond, 2006). Additionally, bi/multilinguals have fewer problems with concentration (Wodniecka, 2007). They are more effective in multitasking and better at resolving conflicting information (Costa et al., 2008). Learning another language was also found to help improve cultural awareness and intercultural competence (Paradowski, 2011). Moreover, there are social and employment benefits of being able to speak multiple languages. Lastly, bilingualism has long-term health benefits in developing the brain (NNELL, 1996), reducing the risk of attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (Toppelberg et al., 2002), and even delay dementia (Bialystok, Craik & Freedman, 2007). Ample studies demonstrated considerable benefits of learning a foreign language and being bi/multilingual. The concepts of multi-competence, multi-dialectal, multicultural, and multimodal were called for in the field of second language acquisition (Block, 2013). Therefore, assessment for multilingualism can significantly contribute to the development of multicompetent individuals in society.

B. Difficulties and Challenges of Multilingual Assessment

Multilingual assessments are often used in classrooms in the form of formative and classroom-based assessments. However, cases where multilingual assessments are administered in standardized and large-scale testing situations, are very rare (Garcia & Li, 2014). Since multilingual dimensions include complex features and it regards language as a fluid dynamic system (Canagarajah, 2011; Garcia & Li, 2014), developing tests and rubrics that are based on the multilingual constructs of language is a challenge (Shohamy, 2011). McNamara (2015) indicates that the challenges of conducting multilingual assessments include the lack of teachers' multilingual competence, resources in developing, administering, and scoring dynamic assessments, as well as overcoming resistance from the dominant monolingual ideology. There has been a lack of bilingual certified teachers in the United States. A significant number of pre-service or in-service teachers did not have adequate training on English language learners. Teachers' multilingual competence posed a serious problem in implementing a multilingual approach in schools.

Another important issue is the definition and assessment of English language proficiency (ELP). ELP is closely related to English language assessment, as indicated by Sposky (1989), "one cannot develop sound language tests without a method of defining what it means to know a language, for until you have decided what you are measuring, you cannot claim to have measured it" (p.138). The question of what counts as the norm of English is extremely problematic. Language assessments have long been regarded the native speaker's English as the scoring model. The traditional monolithic view of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) is highly criticized as it represents imperialism and hegemonic power.

Seidlhofer (2005) and Murray (2016) discussed the view of "World English" and "Englishes." They agreed with Rajagopalan who posited that "Word English (WE) belongs to everyone who speaks it, but it is nobody's mother tongue" (2004, p.111). The widely used communicative competence model proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and the CEFR framework took into account the cultural context in assessing language. However, the multilingual environment and the problem of what counts as correct and appropriate use of a language in specific settings are not addressed. The definition of language needs to change in the context of globalization and multilingualism in order for tests to better assess learners and achieve construct validity (Shohamy, 2011).

C. Approaches to Multilingual Assessment

To overcome these challenges and promote social equity and justice, various language conferences, organizations, and projects focused on promoting multilingual assessment. Ideological shifts are needed to reconceptualize assessment practices. Educational policies such as the Every Student Success Act passed in 2015 in the United States and the Every Child Matters legislation launched in 2003 in the UK were announced. Language assessment scales such as CEFR, ACTFL, and WIDA have moved to can-do statements.

Shohamy (2011) believed that a multilingual approach can lead to a more construct valid assessment that enables further knowledge of bilingual students' skills and abilities. Gorter and Cenoz (2016) stated three trends of a holistic

multilingual approach. First, is assessing comprehension. Ensuring that students are assessed in their first language (L1) or both their first and second language (L2) in content-based tests. Second, is regarding multilingual scoring which takes into account scores from both L1 and L2 exams and computes a composite score. Third, is the translanguaging approach in assessment. That is, legitimizing translanguaging in language tests and allowing tests to reflect actual language practices and design bilingual rubrics. Solano-Flores (2016) proposes to use a 'confusion matrix' and 'linguagrams' to assess multilinguals. Confusion matrix refers to the way where multilinguals were assessed twice using comparable tests. Based on the consistency of two test results, educators can eliminate false positive or negative English proficiency classifications of students. Another suggestion was the use of linguagrams which measure students' four subskills in both languages. By using these two methods, educators can obtain a more comprehensive evaluation of students' learning abilities (Solano-Flores, 2016; Wang, 2017).

We now turn to the five key topics to multilingual assessment which include an ideological shift in assessing languages, new ways to measure English language proficiency, dynamic assessment, translanguaging-based assessment, and qualitative approaches.

1. Ideological Shift.

An ideological shift from a monolingual to a multilingual perspective was presented by leading scholars over the past 50 years. Gorter and Cenoz (2016) proposed an ideological shift from traditional views of defining and assessing languages separately, to an innovative emergent view of teaching and assessing multilinguals as a whole. That is, rethinking multilingualism in a situated, interactional, dynamic, and changing context (Blommaert, Collins, & Slembrouck, 2005). Multilingual learners should not be treated as a homogenous group (De Backer et al, 2016) and emergent bilinguals should not be viewed as two different monolingual individuals (Solano-Flores, 2016). Thus, moving from an ideology of language as problems, to language as resources (Ruiz, 1984). Key assessment practices include: assessment *for* learning other than assessment *of* learning (Leung, 2004; Rea-Dickins 2006); culturally responsive assessment practices (Laher & Cockcroft, 2017); Nelson-Flores' (2018) ecological approach and "water cycle-based" assessment; Shohamy's (2001) democratic approach; De Backer et al.'s (2016) Functional Multilingual Assessment for Learning (FMA4L); as well as ethical issues and social impacts on language assessment (McNamara & Roever, 2006).

Additionally, other reframing and reconceptualization, including ELF and CEFR framework, were put forth to better understand and assess multilinguals. House (2003) called for a change of conceptualization on English as a lingua franca (ELF). He believed that ELF involves code-switching and negotiation of meaning during interactions using a variety of languages. He further discusses several terms associated with ELF such as interlanguage, multicompetence, and "World Englishes". He stated that ELF should not be viewed as a threat and discusses three research projects which demonstrate how local discourse norms are not influenced by deficit views of ELF. According to House (2003), EFL speakers' interactions are unique and consist of a hybrid of different discourses. McNamara (2018) also saw ELF as a positive phenomenon and used ELF as a term similar to *multilinguals*.

Moreover, Jones and Saville (2009) called for the use of CEFR as a multilingual assessment framework for language learning and teaching. The CEFR framework is created as a standard for all languages, however, the one-sided adoption of the CEFR framework focuses primarily on English language assessments. This caused people to criticize the framework and its impact on learning. They believed that CEFR should be implemented flexibly in a sociocultural context, not restricted in its own prescriptive standards. Three initiatives that were proposed include Asset Languages which is a multilingual assessment framework created for pupils, European Language Portfolios, and European Survey on Language Competences (Jones & Saville, 2009). These initiatives were aimed at supporting learning, teaching in a multilingual context, and achieving comparable measures across different languages.

2. New Approaches in Measuring ELP.

Since the 1990s, new approaches were put forth to define and measure English language proficiency. Martinez-Flor et al. (2006) agreed with the multimodality dimension of language and believed that non-verbal behaviors, such as body language, facial expressions, eye contact, should be considered during a spoken interaction. Following the multimodal dimension of language and interaction patterns, Kramsch (2005) argued to include the notion of intercultural communicative competence in the construct of communicative competence. Martinez-Flor et al. (2006) suggested the inclusion of language functions, including cohesion and coherence, and turn-taking mechanisms in interactional competence. In CEFR (2001), turn-taking, cooperation, and asking for clarification were deemed as three illustrative acts for measuring interaction strategies.

However, according to Leung's analysis of the CEFR's three components of competences and their can-do descriptors, resided solely in the individual's communicative language ability and only considered advanced level learners using English in a sociocultural conventionalized way. The definition was still limited and restricted as it disregarded the social dynamics of the interaction. Therefore, Leung (2014) posited that participatory involvement must be taken into account in considering a language learner's proficiency. Similarly, Davis, Norris, Malone, McKay, & Son (2018) have incorporated turn-taking, collaboration, engagement, and appropriateness in looking at a learner's English interactional competence.

Furthermore, scholars suggested the importance of the inclusion of context and environment while examining multilinguals. Blommaert et al. (2005) proposed the use of scale and spatial analysis to assess multilinguals and

introduced the term "truncated multilingualism." Truncated multilingualism argues against the deficit view and sees multilingualism as being fully competent in various languages. Truncated multilingualism also refers to linguistic competences organized on the basis of topics and specific activities. For example, indexicality and positionality are important to understand the situatedness of people's linguistic competence. Blommaert et al. (2005) believed that the value of what is deemed appropriate in a given environment is related to the notion of negotiation and repair that occurs during conversation exchanges. Multilingual speakers scale their expectations and change the variety of their speech depending on their environment and space (Blommaert et al., 2005). Therefore, when assessing a person's linguistic competence, it is important to include the context in which the conversation is based upon.

3. Translanguaging-based Assessment.

According to De Backer et al. (2016), translanguaging practices need to be acknowledged and accommodations should be implemented in large-scale testing. Additionally, "interlanguage" needs to be considered in the context of assessment (Mathew, 2008). Heugh et al. (2016) showcased the possibility of using translanguaging and code-switching in large-scale assessment. Given that a nation-wide multilingual assessment practice was difficult to implement in both Europe and North America, Heugh et al. (2016) presented a reverse case in South Africa where for centuries the majority of the population has been instructed and assessed in multiple languages. The authors implemented system-wide education policies and school exit examinations in South Africa and argued that large-scale assessment can include the use of students' multilingual capabilities and repertoires. Students were given exam papers in two languages, one language on the left, another on the right side. What was found to be surprising was that even English-speaking students found the translation helpful. The system-wide assessment provided support for each linguistic background. Heugh et al., (2016) indicated that systematic support of bilingual education was missing for low socioeconomic status African students. However, such support is vital for overall student achievement. Solano-Flores (2015) also proposed the use of a translanguaging-based testing approach to address the tension between the following two: general accessibility of test materials for all students and addressing the language heterogeneity of bilingual students. Several specific strategies were provided to address this tension. One of them is to develop an alternative framework of standardized exams that measure the relationship between language and the test constructs.

4. Dynamic Assessment

Activities such as using digital videos, classroom-based assessment, and self-assessment are ways for teachers to understand and assess learners' abilities and potential in a multilingual environment. Gajek (2011) illustrated the use of digital video projects in classrooms to raise students' awareness of nonverbal communication and develop visual literacy. Through the use of dynamic assessment, the project facilitated cultural awareness and improved intercultural, media, and cognitive competences. The FMA4L model provided by De Backer et al. (2016) showed the potential for schools to move from a narrow monolingual assessment to a broader multilingual assessment context. The paper presented classroom-based assessment as a possible way to implement a learning-oriented assessment approach where social interaction and evaluation, in the form of teacher feedback, were used in the classroom. Students' well-being and self-efficacy were improved as a result. Thompson (2015) provided an alternative way to assess the language background of participants through the use of self-assessment in SLA research. Using the CEFR can-do statements as a way to measure learners' linguistic data, she presented empirical data where self-assessment scores were collected from seventy-nine participants enrolled in an English language program. It was found that there was a moderate, significant correlation between the CEFR can-do statements and Michigan State University English Language Test (MSUELT). CEFR self-assessment materials were translated into participants' L1. In situations where participants with different languages were involved, designing and administering tests in multiple languages were costly and impractical. She argued that the self-assessment technique could provide information about the diverse linguistic background of students and build multilingual language profiles of the learner. This is similar to projects illustrated by Jones and Saville (2009) that a European Language Portfolio was created based on CEFR, in order to gain information about the culturally and linguistically diverse population across Europe.

5. Qualitative Research

Drawing from the sociocultural perspective, a few qualitative studies were carried out to investigate multilingual assessment. Nelson-Flores (2018) conducted field notes, interviews, and collected classroom artifacts from ethnographic classroom case studies in the United States. He discussed the New York State Common Core State Standards (CCSS) policy and interpreted that the No Child Left Behind exams are "monoglossic". He proposed a "water cycle-based" assessment, and interpreted CCSS as a way to promote dynamic assessment by using bilingual scaffolds. The ecological approach to assessment includes the use of ethnographic methods in linking assessments and classroom practices.

Laher and Cockcroft (2017) investigated multilingual assessment practices in the context of South Africa. They pointed out that the majority of the assessments in South Africa were delivered in English and were psychological assessments which cause problems in social equality. They argued that psychological tests were one-sided and were in conflict with the culturally, ethnically, socioeconomically, and linguistically diverse South African population. They believed that while psychological assessments were necessary, as it provided applicability in a large context, qualitative and flexible approaches should also be supplemented to obtain a comprehensive picture of the background and behavior of the diverse multicultural population.

IV. CONCLUSION

Assessment development needs to catch up with the fast-paced and changing multi-cultural, multi-dialectical, and multi-ethnic society. Ideological shift, multiple measures, and new approaches to assessing language competence should be advocated, promoted, and implemented in international contexts. Assessment instruments such as portfolio, self-assessment, peer-assessment, can-do statements, and reflective essays need to be incorporated. A review of the literature indicated that although studies on multilingual assessment are emerging and various conceptualization and approaches are proposed, it has remained largely unexplored. Studies with concrete examples of rubrics, test developments, implementations of various learning-oriented assessment in classrooms, and standardized contexts are greatly needed. Efforts to close the gaps between teaching, learning, and assessment need to be made. Additionally, most of the investigations centered around emergent bilinguals and K-12 multilinguals. Multilingual assessment in the higher education context is greatly needed. Despite the plethora of difficulties and challenges ahead, it is evident that multilingual assessment will improve language learning and teaching, support social equality, and enhance assessment practices.

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Chinese EFL Learners' Motivation Mediated by the Perceived Teacher Factors—Different Voices from Different Levels of Education

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Abstract—**This study examines Chinese EFL learners' motivation at different educational levels and their perceptions of teacher-related motivators. The questionnaire survey and follow-up interview were administrated among students from junior high schools, senior high schools and universities, and the results reveal the impact of teachers' perceived commitment on students' motivational level together with the most motivating teacher factors identified by three student groups. With the English learning experience accumulating, students tend to place less value on teachers' emotional support whereas rate teaching competence as the key factor for their motivation. Also, striking findings related to learners' motivation at the tertiary level have been elucidated: first, compared with young learners, university students not only do not think that teachers' commitment would exert much influence on their motivation but also show a tendency to follow this belief in action. Second, teachers' capacity for knowledge transfer is rated highest by them as the most crucial motivator rather than the communicative teaching style, which is instead overwhelmingly prioritized by secondary school learners. Based on these findings, recommendations on motivational instruction for English teachers at different levels of education are suggested.**

Index Terms—**EFL learning motivation, teacher-related motivators, teaching commitment, motivational strategies**

I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation is an inevitable concept in second or foreign language acquisition (SLA/ FLA), and the last few decades have witnessed a tangible improvement upon the investigation on the role of motivation in the arduous process of SLA (e.g., Dörnyei, 1994; Wi & Joh, 2010; Zarei, Ahour & Seifoori, 2020). Studies have shown that among all factors affecting learners' second or foreign language (L2/ FL) motivation, the language teacher is one determinant (Dörnyei, 1994; Kikuchi, 2009), and based on this preliminary observation, further investigation into what teachers say, do or are like can capture learners' interests has also been conducted, contributing to the findings that some prominent qualities of language teachers like good subject knowledge, teaching competence, interactive skills and classroom management could exert a profound impact on students' engagement and persistence in English learning (Miller,1987; Borg, 2006; Koç, 2012).

However, what noteworthy is that these identified teacher factors must be mediated by learners' perceptions before they impact learners' motivation. In other words, students' L2 motivational level is subject to how they feel about the language teacher (Williams & Burden, 1997), like whether the teacher is perceived as an ideal model of English speaker, learner, mentor, consultant or facilitator. Therefore, the decision on which teacher factors can serve as motivators depends on students' appraisal of teachers' personal qualities and teaching behaviors or events (Wen, 1997; Matsumoto, 2010).

To further the research agenda into how English learners perceive the language teacher's motivational instruction in the field of language pedagogy, and given that the majority of previous studies relevant to this topic either merely involved the attitudes of one particular learner group or compared the views between students and teachers (e.g., Jacques, 2001; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2008; Kikuchi, 2009), whereas seldom accommodated the diverse needs of different learner groups, leaving the teacher-related motivators perceived by students from different levels of education still a puzzle, the current empirical study intends to address this research gap by inquiring into the motivation of Chinese EFL learners from different educational levels and their perceptions of teachers as the affecting factors.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

L2/ FL motivation can promote students' language learning willingness, pushing them to initiate and work relentlessly to get the learning objectives (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). With all the potential for facilitating students' English learning, motivation has always been the major concern for language educators and researchers, contributing to a growing body of studies about the specific motivators related to language acquisition (e.g., Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Liu, 2020). Also, among all identified factors, teacher-related ones are predominant, and even more so in the

educational context where English is learned mainly through classroom teaching and teachers' instruction is the most crucial, if not the sole, source for students to acquire knowledge (Wen & Clément, 2003), just like the case for EFL learning in China. Therefore, concentrated attention should be drawn to explore the teacher-related motivators situated in the classroom-based English learning context. For example, a seminal study by Williams and Burden (1997) found that the motivators concerned with teachers perceived by learners were mostly relation-oriented, like teachers' feedback, rewards, praise and punishment, which emphasized teachers' facilitative roles in boosting students' affective learning. Also, such research finding was echoed by Scott et al. (2002) who claimed that teachers' interpersonal communication styles (e.g., responsive, friendly) could fuel students' participation in English class and increase their learning motivation.

In addition to affective characteristics, other teacher factors like teaching skills, academic knowledge, personalities and classroom management have also been highlighted by the studies in the field of EFL motivation (e.g., Borg, 2006; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2009). According to Usman and his colleagues (2016), teachers' cognitive competence, namely whether or not language teachers could excel in giving lessons and teaching English as a subject, influenced how they were perceived by students and thus on students' learning motivation. Furthermore, language teachers' subject knowledge and personality traits like gentleness and amiability were also reported as major constructs affecting learners' motivation (Borg, 2006; Miller, 1987).

To conclude the identified teacher factors, Göksel and Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez (2018) have outlined a category comprising four dimensions: academic knowledge, personality, socio-affective skills and teaching competence. Academic knowledge concerns teachers' subject knowledge and personality refers to teachers' personality traits. Socio-affective skills are teachers' capabilities to establish positive relations with students and their attitudes towards the teaching profession, for example, whether they can consider personal differences between students and engage in teaching, and lastly, teaching competence deals with teachers' effective use of teaching methods and materials. The detailed description of each category, based on which the most motivating teacher factors perceived by different student groups will be measured by the questionnaire in the current study, is given in Table I.

TABLE I.
DETAILED DESCRIPTION OF FOUR CATEGORIES OF TEACHER-RELATED MOTIVATORS MEASURED IN THE STUDY

Academic competence	Professional knowledge and development		be confident with his/her language skills and content knowledge, know grammar well, have a wide vocabulary and good pronunciation, have earned a reputation in the research field
Personality	Personality traits and teacher roles		Be patient and approachable, be positive towards life; have a good physical appearance, could be a good organizer and set a role model for his/her students
Socio-affective skills	Social context		Consider the differences between students, know students well, motivate and communicate with them
	Attitudes toward the profession		Engage with the profession, have a strong sense of devotion to the job
Teaching competence	Instructional process	Communicative methods	Have effective communication skills, create student-centered classes, use different types of classroom activities, methods and approaches to create various opportunities for students to practice English
		Knowledge transfer	Have prepared well before the class, can stand out the thematic knowledge, explain grammar or knowledge points clearly and logically, give specific instruction and feedback before and after student activities in class
	Instructional resources and materials		Use visual, printed and authentic materials actively, make use of the projector and the computer in the classroom
	Classroom management		Manage the class well, have effective classroom management skills, can control students' anxiety and grab their attention
	Evaluation and feedback		Give personalized feedback and future learning objectives according to students' learning performances
Nothing about my teacher affects my motivation			
Other factors			

On the other hand, regarding the research insight into the demotivators relative to teachers' misbehavior, Kearney et al. (1991) initiated this topic by examining college students' description of teacher behavior distracting them from the English learning, and 28 categories of teacher misbehavior generally summarized as incompetence, offensiveness and indolence were identified as shown in Table II. In the same series of studies, teachers' annoying personalities, lack of teaching skills, boring lecturing styles (e.g., giving lessons that put overdue stress on grammar), and the inappropriate use of teaching materials were also reported as the demotivators by learners at high schools (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2009).

TABLE II.
CATEGORIZATION OF TEACHER MISBEHAVIOR IN KEARNEY ET AL. (1991)

Categories	Definition	Misbehavior
Incompetence	Lack of basic teaching skills; behave in a way that interferes with teaching goals and students' learning.	Confusing lectures, apathetic to students, unfair testing, information overload, do not know the subject matter well, unrecognized accents, bad grammar/spelling.
Offensiveness	Humiliate, insult and publicly embarrasses students.	Sarcasm, verbally abusive, unreasonable arbitrary rules, sexual harassment, negative personality, favoritism/prejudice.
Indolence	Absent-minded, from whom students fail to learn as much as they should.	Absent, tardy, unprepared/disorganized, deviate from the syllabus, information underload.

Based on the above analysis, it can be seen that though there has been a growing consensus about the perceived teacher factors which may affect English learning motivation, they are mostly extracted from the studies that examine learners' perception or motivational state at a certain educational point rather than compare learners' attitudes between different levels of education. This is extremely puzzling as learners' FL motivation is not static or stable. Instead, it is subject to change with the accumulation of learning experience (Cohen & Dӧrnyei, 2002), indicating that the perception of or expectation towards language teachers for junior high school students would be very different from that for senior high school or university students. Therefore, it is necessary to explore the differences in the most crucial teacher-related motivators perceived by students at different levels of education. To answer this question, Matsumoto (2011) found that students at elementary level tended to be motivated by teachers' non-verbal interaction with them, signifying the importance of teachers' perceived personality to teenagers' EFL learning, whereas for students at higher school stages, teaching-related ones were given more weight. Besides, in the study conducted by Hamada (2011) which investigated the change of demotivators perceived by Japanese students over the secondary school period, it was found that factors related to teachers' affective characteristics and teaching skills were rated to be more demotivating by the senior high school students than by the junior high school students.

However, for studies concerned with EFL learners' motivation mediated by their perception of teachers in the Chinese educational context, those comparing different voices of students from different educational levels have been scarce. With participants coming from two types of colleges--comprehensive and technical colleges in Taiwan, Hsu's (2013) study revealed students' attitudes to teachers' misbehaviors and the effects of these misbehaviors on students' motivation for English learning. It was suggested that students' motivation would be frustrated if the English teacher gave boring and unprepared lectures, explained unclearly, ignored students' needs and failed to notify students in time. These findings support Dörnyei (1994)'s claim that teachers' commitment to teaching, to be more specific, the model teachers establish for students by showing how they value L2 learning as an enriching experience themselves and how seriously they take students' learning process, is specifically pertinent to students' motivation for and investment into English learning, and conversely, teachers' indolence or lack of devotion to their job would be "the fastest way to undermine students' motivation" (p. 282). Since up to date, few studies have investigated that for Chinese EFL learners at different educational levels, whether and to what extent do their FL motivational levels change correlating with teachers' perceived commitment levels, and how they would regard the most important teacher-related motivators differently, the current study, with the overarching purpose to explore Chinese EFL learners' motivation at different levels of education and their perceptions of teachers as the affecting factors, is an attempt to bridge the gap by addressing the following questions:

1. Do students at junior high schools, senior high schools and universities have different levels of English learning motivation?

2. If yes, to what extent is the difference caused by teachers' different perceived levels of commitment? Or is there any correlation between students' motivational level and their perception of teachers' commitment?

3. How about the differences among the three learner groups' perceptions of the most motivating teacher-related factors when factors are measured in terms of four dimensions: academic knowledge, personality, socio-affective skills and teaching competence?

III. METHODOLOGY

To provide an insight into different learner groups' EFL motivation mediated by their perceptions of teachers, a questionnaire survey and follow-up semi-structured interview were used to collect quantitative and qualitative data in this study.

A. Participants

A total of 182 Chinese students learning English at different levels of education participated voluntarily in our research. The first learner group was 95 junior school students at the age of 13-15. The second group consisted of 54 senior school students with 6-8 years of English learning experience, and the last group, with 33 respondents, represented the undergraduate students. Having learned English for more than 9 years and been admitted to universities, they were at a relatively high level of English proficiency. Also, among these 182 participants, 84 were male and 98 were female, and since selected by a convenience sampling, they were concentrated in the northern area of China. However, with participants at three educational levels enrolling in different schools and having different English

proficiency, the data obtained in the current research were to some extent unbiased and representative of student voices from diverse backgrounds.

B. Instruments

Participants completed one instrument, which was the questionnaire adapted from Matsumoto (2011) and Koç (2012). The questionnaire was constructed on the basis of the existing items or categories mainly for two reasons: first, it would be convenient for us to compare the results reached by other researches focusing on a similar topic. Second, the established categories and constructs had been employed and examined were considered more reliable than those which had not. The questionnaire was written in Chinese to be more reader-friendly, and it contained four major questions: (1) students' current motivational intensity for English learning, (2) students' perception of their teachers' level of commitment to the job, (3) students' degree of agreement about the positive relationship between their motivational level and teachers' commitment, and (4) the most dominant teacher-related motivators perceived by students in their current English learning. For questions 1 to 3, the five-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) was used to elicit students' responses, and in question 4, students were asked to select one teacher-related motivator affecting them most strongly from a list of eight provided by the questionnaire. Furthermore, the categories that the eight factors would fall into were set in advance according to the dimensions examined by the third research question, which were academic knowledge, personality, socio-affective skills and teaching competence (Göksel & Rakıcıoğlu-Söylemez, 2018), and as mentioned above, the detailed statement of each factor on the questionnaire was shown by Table I. Also, the fourth question was open-ended as it allowed respondents to list other teacher factors perceived to be the most motivating yet not provided on the questionnaire.

To ensure the validity of the survey, the questionnaire draft was analyzed and checked by two invited colleagues who were masters in English studies and experienced English teachers. Based on their comments, some items were revised, modified or omitted. Then a pilot study was conducted among 10 students who had a similar background to our intended participants and would be excluded from the following formal survey. Their advice was also taken to resolve any ambiguities or misunderstandings and to improve the comprehensibility of the questionnaire.

C. Data Collection Procedures

Questionnaires were distributed to subjects on the Internet, and the objectives of our study were informed at the beginning of the survey. It was also indicated to our respondents that their confidentiality and voluntary participation in the survey would be assured, by which the author has fulfilled the ethical procedures in researching human participants. Data were collected as soon as participants fulfilled the survey. In the following data analysis, if anything worth attention was discovered in the collected questionnaires and the participants also left their phone numbers or emails to show a willingness to be contacted, they would be invited to join the follow-up interview.

D. Data Analysis

To get more reliable answers to our research questions, the obtained data were first examined by the author. Answers had been given carelessly in an extremely short period (within 10 seconds) were abandoned. Then the remaining data were analyzed by SPSS 17.0. Kendall's tau was computed to identify the relationship between the subjects' motivational level and the perceived teachers' commitment for the whole sample and at each study level, and Chi-square test or Fisher's exact test was used to analyze the differences in the most significant teacher-related motivators chosen by students from different levels of education. Lastly, the descriptive data got from the interview were used to validate participants' responses to the questionnaire and to interpret the quantitative data when necessary.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Different Levels of English Learning Motivation between Students at Junior High Schools, Senior High Schools and Universities

TABLE III.
STUDENTS' MOTIVATIONAL LEVEL

Educational level	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
Junior high school	3.13	.743	6.3%	9.5%	56.8%	20%	7.4%
Senior high school	2.80	.752	5.6%	29.6%	44.4%	20.4%	0%
University	3.27	.939	9.1%	9.1%	42.4%	24.2%	15.2%
Overall	3.05	.863	6.6%	15.4%	50.5%	20.9%	6.6%

Kruskal-Wallis test: $H = 29.077$, $df = 2$, p < .001.

The statistical results for the first research question were provided in Table III. First, the Kruskal-Wallis Test showed that there was a significant difference in the motivational capacity of students from different levels of education ($H=29.077$, $df=2$, $p< .001$). In addition, it can be seen that university students' (n=33) English learning motivation was the highest among the three with the mean score at 3.27, whereas the senior high school students (n=54) were the least motivated (M=2.80). Besides, there were 39.4% university students thinking that they were either motivated or highly motivated to learn English at the current stage, whereas this percentage for senior school students

was as small as 20.4% with even not a respondent among this group thinking himself or herself was strongly motivated to learn English currently. As for junior high school students, they were at the intermediate level and the proportion of participants who thought their English learning motivational level was relatively high (27.4%) was larger than the proportion of those believing they were less motivated (15.8%).

Studies on L2 demotivation can shed light on why students at different educational levels were motivated differently. For senior high school students, they were least motivated because they were more likely to confront the increasingly difficult learning contents, heavy workload and the accumulated effect of the experience of failure (Hamada, 2011). To take the difficult learning contents as an instance, given that grammar, one major obstacle that senior high school students encounter in English learning, is not so stressed in junior high school period, students who have not learned grammar in depth are more likely to have difficulty in understanding the structure of English when entering the senior high school, which partly accounts for the lowest motivational level that senior high school participants showed in the current study.

B. Correlation between Teachers' Perceived Level of Commitment and Students' Motivational Intensity

TABLE IV.
STUDENTS' MOTIVATIONAL INTENSITY AND THE PERCEIVED TEACHERS' COMMITMENT LEVEL

		Junior high school	Senior high school	University	Total
Ss' Motivation	Mean	3.13	2.80	3.27	3.05
	N	95	54	33	182
	SD	.914	.833	1.126	.944
Ts' Motivation	Mean	4.15	4.00	3.15	3.92
	N	95	64	33	182
	SD	.743	.752	.939	.863

The intensity of students' learning motivation and the perceived level of teachers' commitment at different levels of study were provided in Table IV. It was shown that the mean scores for both junior and senior high school English teachers (M=4.15, M=4.00 respectively) were conspicuously higher than their university counterparts (M = 3.15). At the same time, the mean for respondents' (N=182) overall perception of teachers' motivation was 3.92, obviously higher than the mean for learners' own motivational level (M=3.05), and interestingly enough, though this result was particularly valid for senior high school students who believed that their teachers' average commitment level (n=54, M= 4.00) was much higher than their own motivation (n=54, M=2.80), it could not represent the case at the tertiary level, as university students' motivation capacity (n=33, M=3.27) on average was higher than their teachers' perceived level of commitment (n=33, M=3.15).

Next, the correlation between students' motivational level and teachers' perceived commitment was analyzed by Kendall's tau-b correlation. The results indicated a positive relationship based on the overall sample and at the junior high school level, but such correlation was not found at the senior high school and university levels (Table V).

TABLE V.
KENDALL'S TAU BETWEEN TEACHERS' PERCEIVED COMMITMENT AND STUDENTS' MOTIVATIONAL LEVEL

		Junior high school	Senior high school	University	Total
Ts' perceived commitment	Correlation coefficient	.269**	.001	.217	.129*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.993	.149	.045
	N	95	54	33	182

$** = p < .001$, $*=p < .05$.

To account for the statistical results mentioned above, first, the low mean score rated for university teachers' commitment relative to the secondary school teachers' can be explained by the interview results that some university students thought their professors failed to strike a balance between the language teaching and research, concentrating too much on their own research yet less devoted to teaching, and such impression resulted in "the profile of stereotypic, absent-minded and indolent college teachers" (Kearney et al., 1991, p. 323) from whom students did not feel they could acquire as much knowledge as they expected. Moreover, considering that in Xiang and Borg's study (2015), evidence of "exhaustion, lack of appreciation, and a reduced sense of accomplishment" (p. 110) which leads to burnout has been identified among college teachers, and the negative impact of teachers on university EFL learners' motivation has even been noted explicitly by Kikuchi (2019), we can infer from the current survey that university teachers, compared with their counterparts in secondary schools, are more susceptible to the reduced commitment and investment into pedagogical duties.

Furthermore, the results of students' motivation in relation to the perceived level of teachers' devotion concur with some of the earlier research findings. First, given that the literature in favor of the role of teachers' positive modeling and increased investment in enhancing learners' motivation, especially when the learners are young teenagers (e.g., Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005), the present study can be considered as additional support to this line of research. Second, the results echo the findings of Matsumoto (2011), showing that students tend to rate teachers' perceived level of commitment higher than their own motivational intensity, and this might partly be attributed to the fact that students somehow have an instinct for pleasing their teachers (Dörnyei, 1994). In the current study, though participants were assured of the anonymity of the survey, we still could not exclude the possibility that respondents, teenage respondents

in particular, rated their teachers to be highly devoted instinctively or subconsciously. However, in the light of the scores rated by secondary school students for their language teachers are higher than 3.00 (M=4.15 and M=4.00, respectively), signifying that teachers are believed to be more than moderately devoted to the job, it is safe to conclude that English teachers at the secondary school level are mostly committed and recognized to fulfill their teaching obligation.

Lastly, students' response to the third questionnaire question which elicited the extent to which respondents agreed on the statement that English teachers' commitment affected their motivation for English learning also proves the impact of teachers' perceived commitment on students' motivational level. As shown by Table VI, university respondents showed the least extent of agreement to the statement (M=3.61) relative to the perception of junior (M=3.76) and senior high school participants (M=3.69). Also, compared with the senior high school students, learners at junior high schools had a much smaller standard deviation of 0.896, signifying that they had a very similar higher level of agreement on the fact that the language teacher's commitment would affect their learning motivation, thus validating the previously-mentioned finding that young learners are more inclined to be influenced by teachers in their language learning process. On the contrary, the lowest mean score given by university students indicates that they as adult learners are more self-disciplined and less dependent on teachers' push and supervision, consistent with the prior finding that compared with teenager learners, university learners would be more likely to have a relatively high level of motivation in English learning even if without the presence of a committed teacher.

TABLE VI.
STUDENTS' PERCEIVED LEVEL OF AGREEMENT ABOUT THE IMPACT OF TEACHERS' COMMITMENT ON THEIR MOTIVATIONAL INTENSITY

	Junior high school	Senior high school	University	Total
Mean	3.76	3.69	3.61	3.71
N	95	54	33	182
SD	.896	1.241	1.059	1.034

C. Students' Perception of the Most Motivating Teacher-related Factors

What teacher-related factor, then, was perceived by students as the determinant of their motivation for English learning? In response to this question, 6 students believed that no teacher factor could influence them so they were excluded from the analysis, and no students responded to this open-ended question by giving unmentioned factors. The remaining 176 students' response was categorized into four factors: socio-affective characteristics, teaching competence, academic knowledge and personality. As for the statistical analysis of the data, to start with, since the Chi-square test generally requires a minimum frequency for each cell to be five, but our survey results showed that some cells fell below five due to the small sample, a Fisher's exact test was used instead, from which a significant difference in the most motivating factors related to teachers perceived by students from three levels of education (p=.025 < .05) has been found. Moreover, teaching competence featured prominently in the result for overall respondents (58%), especially for university respondents (62.5%), and socio-affective characteristic (19.9%) was the second most cited dimension, followed by personality (12.5%) (see Table VII).

TABLE VII.
STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE MOST MOTIVATING TEACHER-RELATED FACTORS

Educational level		Teacher factors				Total
		Academic knowledge	Personality	Socio-affective characteristics	Teaching competence	
Junior high school	count	5	9	25	55	94
	(%)	(5.3%)	(9.6%)	(26.6%)	(58.5%)	
Senior high school	count	6	11	6	27	50
	(%)	(12.0%)	(22%)	(12%)	(54%)	
University	count	6	2	4	20	32
	(%)	(18.8%)	(6.3%)	(12.5%)	(62.5%)	
Total	count	17	22	35	102	176
	(%)	(9.7%)	(12.5%)	(19.9%)	(58.0%)	

Despite that teaching competence was most valued by all the three groups, other teacher dimensions were given different importance by different learner groups. To elaborate upon it, junior school respondents placed the second highest value on teachers' socio-affective characteristics (26.6%), followed by personality (9.6%), whereas students at senior high schools believed that compared with socio-affective characteristics (12%), teachers' personality (22%) would be a stronger motivator for their English learning. They expected that the English teacher was genial, kind, approachable and had a positive attitude to teaching and life as well, serving as a guide and role model for their English learning. Lastly, university English learners regarded teachers' academic knowledge and research ability (18.8%) as the second most motivating source. Therefore, it can be found that as respondents' educational level went higher, the total percentage for teachers' socio-affective characteristics and personality decreased whereas the percentage for teaching competence increased.

Results of the current study demonstrate the richer emotional needs that learners at junior high school, a lower educational level, have for their teachers but a stronger preference for teachers' pedagogical skills over the personal

qualities expressed by the university learners, both of which reinforce Matsumoto's (2011) finding that "L2 learners tend to shift the importance in teacher-related factors from personality-based to teaching-based ones as they develop proficiency" (p. 47). As beginning learners who lack knowledge foundation and communicative skills, junior high school students are not so capable to comprehend what teachers are saying in English and to independently assess teachers' teaching methods and skills, thus compared with learners of higher study levels, it is more likely for them to focus on teachers' ability to establish a good rapport with students which connects with their emotional needs more directly and doesn't need background language knowledge and skills to interpret. However, for students at university levels, professional skills are valued since they can get the point of teachers' instruction and to assess teachers' use of teaching resources and techniques, ways to impart knowledge and organize student activities as indications of their teaching competence. Therefore, the discrepancies in the most dominant teacher-related motivators perceived by three groups are caused by students' different levels of English proficiency and emotional development.

In addition, since two of the five teacher-related dimensions, teachers' socio-affective characteristics and teaching competence, had more than one subcategory tested by the questionnaire, there was a need to delve into the varying degrees of significance given by different groups to each of the specific factors. For one thing, with regard to teachers' socio-affective characteristics, teachers' positive attitudes to individual students and willingness to pay close attention to students' learning were higher on the list regardless of the educational levels (see Table VIII), indicating that both secondary and university students would be more easily affected by teachers' attentiveness to their personalized learning needs than by teachers' general devotion to the job. This finding concerning students' relationship-oriented expectations to their teachers has already been reported by Park (2006) and Nikitina and Furuoka (2009), both of which show that though situated in Asia where teacher-centered and hierarchical culture norms prevail, students still have emotional needs in their relationship with teachers and value teachers' good interpersonal skills. Therefore, when considering a stimulus for students' learning motivation, it is preferable for teachers to start the change by establishing an emotional connection with individual students.

TABLE VIII.
STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE MOST AFFECTING MOTIVATORS CONCERNED WITH TEACHERS' SOCIO- AFFECTIVE CHARACTERISTICS

Educational level		Socio- affective characteristics		
		Social context	Attitudes toward the profession	Total
Junior high school	count	15	10	25
	(%)	(60%)	(40%)	
Senior high school	count	4	2	6
	(%)	(66.67%)	(33.33%)	
University	count	4	0	4
	(%)	(100%)	(0%)	
Overall	count	23	12	35
	(%)	(65.71%)	(34.29%)	

For another, when subcategories of teaching competence are concerned, the Fisher's exact test showed a significant correlation between the learners' levels of education and the perceived most dominant motivators related to teachers' teaching performance (p=.033 < .05). Second, as indicated by Table IX, teachers' instructional process was placed highest by all the three respondent groups whose responses to the fourth question fell into the category of teachers' teaching competence, accounting for 81.83%, 59.26% and 85% respectively. Besides, something interesting can be found by an inquire into the preferred instructional process among the three groups, since communicative-based teaching (52.73%) was far more valued than knowledge transfer (29.10%) by junior high school participants, whereas the case for university learners was that more importance was attached on teachers' knowledge transfer (55%) than communicative teaching styles (30%). Such difference was also validated statistically by the Chi-square test which indicated a significant difference in the perceived most affecting motivational instruction between students at the junior high school and university level (χ^2 = 4.265, df = 1, p = .039 < .05). Besides, compared with students from a lower level of education, university respondents tended to think that their teachers' classroom management ability had little or even no effect on their motivational level.

TABLE IX.
STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE MOST AFFECTING MOTIVATORS CONCERNED WITH TEACHING COMPETENCE

Educational level		Teaching competence					Total
		Instructional process		Instructional resources and materials	Classroom management	Feedback and evaluation	
		communicative method	knowledge transfer				
Junior high school	count	29	16	3	2	5	55
	(%)	(52.73%)	(29.10%)	(5.45%)	(3.63%)	(9.09%)	
Senior high school	count	8	8	9	1	1	27
	(%)	(29.63%)	(29.63%)	(33.34%)	(3.70%)	(3.70%)	
University	count	6	11	2	0	1	20
	(%)	(30%)	(55%)	(10%)	(0%)	(5%)	
Total	count	45	33	14	3	7	102
	(%)	(44.12%)	(32.35%)	(13.73%)	(2.94%)	(6.86%)	

The different preferences for teachers' instructional styles between learners at universities and secondary schools can be found from the survey results. Though secondary school students, especially junior high school students are prone to be motivated by the communicative teaching approach, university students would rather regard teachers' abilities to express themselves clearly and provide enough valuable guide or feedback as more effective motivators. As Hamada (2011) claims, most English teachers in Japanese high school nowadays still adopt grammar-translation and examination-oriented teaching methods, organizing few communication activities under the pressure of training students to perform well in exams. Unfortunately, this may also be the case for English lessons in China (Gao & Huang, 2010). Though the CLT approach has been introduced to reform the traditional grammar-focused language teaching, shifting the focus to a more communicatively oriented one to guide students to use English meaningfully in authentic contexts, this goal has not been realized until now, especially at the secondary school level (Hu, 2002). Given that the examination is still the major measure of assessment and the grade-getting goal remains unchanged in the EFL context of China, it is not surprising to find that the secondary school respondents perceived teachers' communicative teaching styles as the most motivating factor, as it produces a more relaxing, non-intimidating classroom environment which stressful students enjoy. Whereas for adult learners in universities, the interview has revealed the twofold reasons for their values attached to teachers' ability for knowledge transfer. For one thing, in the face of professional expertise, they need teachers' explicit guide more urgently yet no longer pursue the appealing learning atmosphere as strongly as teenagers do, and for another, some of the university learners suppose that their instructors when adopting the communicative activities often overemphasize students' self-teaching but offer little scaffolding or tutorials, in which cases activities are misused by teachers as a way to shirk teaching responsibilities, so students would rather not choose the communicative teaching process in the survey, and value teachers' knowledge transfer instead. Such interpretation has not only validated the previously mentioned finding that university students are already capable of assessing teachers' professional performance, but also identified the potential problems of the implementation of student-centered CLT exported from western in the educational context of China, heightening the significance of pedagogical suggestions mentioned in the next section.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Implications of the Study

In this study, the roles of teachers in motivating Chinese EFL learners' have been supported consistent with the previous research (e.g., Alrabai, 2016; Lee, Gardner & Lau, 2019; Zarei, Ahour & Seifoori, 2020), and some insightful findings about the perceived varying degrees of impact of teachers' commitment, socio-affective skills, teaching competence, academic knowledge and personality on learners' motivation at different levels of education, varying from junior high school to university have also been reported to add to the existing literature. To conclude our findings more specifically, first, a positive correlation has been identified between the teachers' perceived level of commitment and students' learning motivational intensity for the whole sample, whereas for university students, they do not think that teachers' commitment would exert as much influence on their motivation as believed by the secondary school learners since though they themselves are the most strongly motivated in English learning among the three groups, their teachers are perceived as the least devoted to teaching, indicating a tendency for adult learners to follow their belief in the impact of teachers' devotion in the actual learning process. Second, the probe into the most motivating teacher factors perceived by learners at different educational levels has revealed that compared with university students, secondary school students attach more importance on teachers' communication-based aspects, like personality traits, socio-affective characteristics and the use of communicative activities in class, whereas university respondents with a comparatively high level of English proficiency tend to rate teachers' teaching competence as the top priority when the determinant of their English learning motivation is concerned. It is also noteworthy that the communicative teaching styles, though favored by the secondary school students, are not so stressed by university students, who instead consider teachers' sufficient knowledge transfer to be more crucial. These findings, while based on the groups of learners under investigation in the current study, are of broader relevance to EFL teaching at both secondary and tertiary level in educational situations similar to that of China, suggesting that teachers can serve as motivators for

students' English learning only if they adjust the strategies in accordance with students' different proficiency levels, learning needs and developmental stages. Specifically speaking, the following pedagogical implications can be considered:

1. Given that language teachers' professional teaching performance is considered by students to be overwhelmingly important and communicative teaching methods are stressed by secondary schools learners in particular, language teachers should abandon the traditional teaching monologue, increasing students' participation in class through interactive activities like game-based grammar learning and the integration of online English forums, blogs, mobile learning and video-making projects into the curriculum (Fithriani, 2018; Jiang & Luk, 2016). Most importantly, teachers while designing student activities must incorporate scaffolding and tutorials as indispensable parts. As noted by Jacobs (2013), no students would attribute the motivating power of communicative methods solely to such activities as the video-making project, which advises teachers against the assumption that the use of interactive activities in classroom teaching is innately motivating and can be employed without the knowledge input and teachers' assistance. Instead, they are expected to instruct in the skills or knowledge to be exercised in the self-learning process and offer help during the peer interaction. Also, teachers can group students heterogeneously, giving students of different backgrounds and abilities a chance to capitalize on their own talents and tap into the expertise of others (Jiang & Luk, 2016), thereby reducing the perceived difficulties and demotivators arising from the activities.

2. In response to junior high school students' expectation that language teachers can build a good rapport with them and attend to their emotional needs, English teachers at the secondary school level should adjust their self-important mindsets as the absolute authority and strict manager for students. Instead, they can employ various strategies to project themselves as friends willing to establish emotional attachment with students, for example, by observing individual students in class and giving support (McEowna & Takeuchib, 2014), by redressing their face-threatening instructional feedback via the use of encouraging words and hedges (Amiryousefi & Geld, 2019), and by tailoring different homework or in-class student activities for students of different levels of English proficiency and foreign language anxiety to meet their cognitive needs (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004).

3. As findings especially related to language teachers as the motivational sources at the tertiary level have been provided in this study, strategies on how to motivate university students' English learning should also be informed in particular. First, it is noted that though nowadays learners' autonomy has been advocated a lot, the significance of teachers' autonomy, their use of L2 motivational strategies and connection with students in promoting students' learning abilities should by no means be underestimated (Little, 1995; Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998). Moreover, special attention should be given to the student-centered CLT class especially in the Asian EFL learning context to examine whether teachers' roles have been marginalized yet students' roles been magnified improperly. If students can decide the teaching objectives, the progression of English lessons and the classroom discourse whereas teachers only serve as facilitators, helpers and consultants, it seems that the advantages of school education over self-teaching, which is more planned, organized, efficiency-oriented and led by the educational practitioners would not be fully manifested (Wen, 2015), making advanced learners acquire and improve a little. Also, given that the imported teaching philosophy of CLT has been raised based on the western learning culture characterized by individualism, whether it is applicable to Chinese traditional cultural environment, can a sudden shift from the teacher-centered class to the absolute student-centered one be accepted by students and can the competence-based interactive teaching methods take up the moralizing function to cultivate the students towards the right direction are issues worth considering before we employed the CLT. At this point, English teachers can try to adopt the learning-centered teaching approach which is raised based on the Chinese pedagogical context and featured by maximizing students' knowledge input, emphasizing the exercise of productive skills and assessing students' learning effects in time (Wen, 2015). Meanwhile, teachers can also attend training workshops to update their teaching beliefs and theory-informed teaching approaches (e.g., a Systematic Functional Linguistic genre pedagogy, the visualization and cooperative strategies and critical pedagogical approach) (Shi, Baker & Chen, 2019; Miller, 2015). Last but not least, institutions should be more proactive in listening to and resolving teaching staff's concerns, thereby persuading teachers from burnout and motivating them to respond more positively to the professional duties.

B. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

There are some limitations to the current study. First, the follow-up interview was merely employed to account for or validate participants' perspectives elicited from the survey when something worth noteworthy was identified, making the findings not descriptive and rich enough. Also, since students' perception of L2 teaching changes constantly, inquiries into students' attitudes towards their teachers as a motivating factor and how their attitudes change over time are accordingly needed in future research. Finally, to inform teaching practice better, the research can take a micro perspective and be designed at the individual classroom level where teachers will take the role of researchers to generate detailed results about students' perspectives on and actual pedagogical effects of the teacher-related motivators.

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The Status of Women in Renaissance Drama: An Analytical and Critical Study of Elizabeth Cary's *The Tragedy of Mariam* (1613), and John Webster's *The Duchess of Malfi* (1612)

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Abstract—This paper attempts to analyze two plays, Elizabeth Cary's *The Tragedy of Mariam* (1613), and John Webster's *The Duchess of Malfi* (1612). It focuses on main characters in these works which compares and contrasts between them. These plays were selected to highlight issues related to Renaissance women such as marriage, feminism, misogynist, silence, and obedience. This analysis shows the tyranny of the husband against women, and their revolution against their social status. The outcome of this analysis endeavors to present new kind of heroines who want to change the traditional stereotype about women. Special attempt is given to propose feminist explanations for these characters.

Index Terms—misogyny, renaissance women, feminism and male-authority

I. INTRODUCTION

Throughout the ages, women encountered many problems and difficulties in their lives. They were treated as a property, and they were deprived of the power to prove or assert their selfhood. Abushihab and Abushihab (2016) state that women were controlled by their parents in their childhood, and then handed over to their husbands who controlled their lives as well. Unmarried girls had to live as nuns in convents under male authority. Critics of misogyny say that women should only appear in the margin of history, and they are born to be subjected to male-authority. They consider women as a source of trouble in their society starting from Eve who is believed to be responsible for all of human misery because of eating the fruit of the Tree of Knowledge. They accuse her of entering the province of men "your eyes shall be opened and you shall be as gods knowing good and evil" (qtd. In Findlay, 1999, P. 12). We can say that Eve is a good woman, but the serpent allures her to eat the Fruit of Knowledge.

In the Renaissance period, women are expected to be dutiful to their fathers and husbands. They are supposed to restrict themselves to feminine activities, such as child-rearing. Women allegedly play Passive roles in their society and adopt men's viewpoints. Nawal El Saadawi says that family does not support their ambitious daughters.

> My brother took a bigger piece of meat than me, gobbled it up and
> drank his soup noisily and my mother never said a word. But I was
> different: I was a girl. I had to watch every movement I made, hide
> my longing for the food, eat slowly and drink my soup without a
> sound (qtd. Athamneh, 2008, P. 4).

Therefore, many women writers focus on the inequality that women themselves impose upon their own sex as mothers. This quotation shows the traditional view of gender differences on the children.

The issue of the suppressed women is considered as a rich area for play writers to write about the Greek era. Roberts (2002) says that "A continually intriguing puzzle in the study of Greek drama is why an Athenian society, which according to all accounts suppressed and ghettoized women, should have produced plays with such strong central female characters as Clytemnestra, Electra, Jocasta, Phaedra, Helen, Iphigenia, Agave, Alcestis, Medea, and Antigone" (p. 201). This issue is also an area of interest for Greek writers like Euripides who wrote a prominent play entitled *Medea* in which the heroine, Medea, revolts against her repressed conditions. Her reaction against men is severe. She decides to take revenge by killing her children as a reaction against her husband's betrayal. She revolts against being inferior in her society and complains against repressive conditions imposed upon women in general. In the Renaissance period, women never took part in lawmaking procedures and were silenced by men in their society.

Under these miserable conditions, the rebellious voices of women appear in various English places. Women decide to fight for freedom. They have the power to change their passive position in their society and challenge the tyranny of their society. Many writers deal with this issue in their writings. Renaissance women dramatists challenge the demands of their society to be obedient and raise their voices to assert their selfhood. The treatment of the rebellious women in drama has not been adequately investigated, because any such treatment would be considered as a rebellion against the patriarchal society. Accordingly, most works in the Renaissance period deal with men's issues which are easily accepted in the society.

II. THE STATUS OF THE REBELLIOUS WOMEN IN *THE TRAGEDY OF MARIAM, THE FAIR QUEEN OF JEWRY*

Abushihab and Abushihab (2016:95) stress that plays written by Renaissance dramatists provide voices in which women characters speak of their struggle over marriage and the restrictions imposed on them. Marriage obliges women to be under control all the time. Elizabeth Cary (1585-1639) is the first woman dramatist to write about women humiliation. Beilin (1998) says "In 1641, Carendon [remarks] that Elizabeth Cary [is] 'a lady of a most masculine understanding, [allays] with the passions and infirmities of her own sex" (p.167). She struggles against male-authority of her parents, the Protestant church, her mother-in-law, and her husband. Some critics say that the problems of Elizabeth Cary are her independence and her own sex at that time. *The Tragedy of Mariam* which was the most important play in Renaissance era was written by a woman who criticized her society because of the class discrimination between men and women. Cary put the blame on patriarchal society for the suffering of women.

Cary tries to show two kinds of women in her play *The Tragedy of Mariam*. She presents Mariam as a woman who decides to revolt against the patriarchal society. At the same time, she presents Salome as a woman Herod's sister who represents the stereotype of the Renaissance women. Ferguson (1991) says that Salome represents the model of "private vice, public virtue" (p. 188). One feels that Ferguson argues that the patriarchal society accepts such women, but at the same time this society refuses Mariam who expresses her identity. Wang (2010) in his article "Women's Position in the Renaissance Period: the Case of *The Tragedy of Mariam" tries* to make a contrast between Mariam and Salome. He says Mariam challenges her husband's authority and maintains her physical and moral virtues. Wang adds that Salome exceeds by her speech and sexuality but without the moral virtues.

> May with a bill divorce her from his bed.
> But in this custom women are not free
> Yet I for once will wrest it; blame not thou
> The ill I do, since what I do's for thee,
> Though others blame, Silleus should allow (I. 331-340).

In this quotation, Salome criticizes the society indirectly, especially the Jewish marriage which prevents women to be free from the patriarchal authority. Because of her marriage, she cannot get rid of her husband Constabarus.

In *The Tragedy Of Mariam*, Cary focuses on marriage and divorce as one of the most important issues which affect the Renaissance women. The play deals not only with Mariam's marital marriage and separation but also with Herod's divorce from Doris, his first wife because Mariam is Herod's second wife and Salome is Herod's sister. Salome's desire is to get rid of her husband Constabarus. Britland (2010) in *Elizabeth Cary: The Tragedy of Mariam* says that "[Some] biblical texts such as Ephesians 5.22-3, command wives to 'be obedient to their husbands' and to submit because 'the man [is] head of the woman in marriage'" (p. 15).

The Tragedy of Mariam focuses on marriage problems, and how women are imprisoned in the marriage relationship which restricts their freedom. Raber (2002) in "The Gender and the Political Subject in *The Tragedy of Mariam"* states that "Cary's play reproduces these arguments about women's changeable and imperfect nature, but in a dramatically different way-literally, since she dramatizes inconstancy itself, exposing its source" (p. 326). After her declaration of her public voice, Cary decides to state the problems of the oppressed Renaissance women.

Both Mariam and Salome refuse treatment of women in the Renaissance period. At this point, presumably both Mariam and Salome are at crossroads of their lives. In this case, Cary shows that Renaissance women have the power to describe their identities, but they punish themselves by refusing to face the patriarchal authority such as Salome who does not confront her society. Britland (2010) in *Elizabeth Cary: The Tragedy Of Mariam* focuses on the Renaissance women by saying that "There is a fundamental paradox in social injunctions toward women's selfless obedience: if one is exhorted to submit, one's will that must be given up. Indeed, the act of submission itself implies an act of will" (p. 16). Cary focuses on this issue by presenting Salome who hides her will and ambition to live in her tyrannical society safely. When she says "To Constabarus by itself is tied" (I. V. 16-17), she talks about her tongue. Here, Salome has the power to control her tongue by describing her desires to leave Constabarus.

Cary shows how men mistreat women by presenting Constabarus, Salome's husband who tries to humiliate her because he knows that women have the power to threaten men's authority:

> Are Hebrew women now transformed to men?
> Why do you not as well our battles fight,
> And wear our armor? Suffer this and then
> Let all the world be topsy-turved quit
> Let fishes graze, beasts swim and birds descend (I. 421-425)

Consequently, the Renaissance men think that the best way to defend themselves is not to give women a chance to threaten their authority. Constabarus represents the Renaissance man who sees that the world will be destroyed if women have power. Wang (2010) also mentions that women in the Renaissance period have three virtues: chastity, silence, and obedience. Any woman who tries to revolt against these virtues will be severely punished. She will be considered as a threat to her patriarchal society.

This play highlights virtuous woman's psychological conflicts that show how a woman becomes like Christ. Beilin (1998) sheds light on Renaissance women in her article "Elizabeth Cary (1585-1639)". She says that Cary tries to use her dramatic works to express her feeling towards the society. At the end of the play, Mariam finds herself. She represents the revolutionary voice of women who refuse humiliation by men.

> Wherein humility and chastity Doth That mind for glory of our sex might stand,
> march with equal paces hand in hand…
> My soul is free from adversary's power (VI. 559-569).

Mariam is punished, because she refuses to give up her ideas. She knows that she will lose her life, but she decides to free her soul. She does not try to change Herod's mind. Ironically, Cary shows a contrast between Salome and Mariam. Both of them want to free themselves from their husbands. Mariam is loyal to her husband, but she falls in a trap between her loyalty to her relatives and her freedom. She is punished for her rebellious voice. At the same time, Salome betrays her husband, and loses her chastity, but she is not punished at the end of the play. It is known that, Salome rebels against her society in her own way without breaking its traditions.

III. THE REBELLIOUS VOICE OF WOMEN IN *THE DUCHESS OF MALFI*

Women's issues have been treated in many English Renaissance plays by men and women writers alike. Some of these writers depict women as being a source of danger to their societies, and they treat them as inferior and dependent characters. For example, Desdemona in *Othello* is treated as an inferior character who cannot face her patriarchal society. As mentioned in earlier, Cary tries in *The Tragedy Of Mariam* to defend her sex by refusing such accusations about women. This play is considered as the first work which defends women in public.

The Duchess of Malfi (published in 1612) is another work which shows the humiliation of women in the Renaissance period. Bartels' article (2002) "Strategies of Submission: Desdemona, the Duchess, and the Assertion of Desire" maintains that many feminist writers and critics focus on the miserable situation of women in the Renaissance time. This play focuses on *The Duchess of Malfi* as a voice against the patriarchal authority, especially in the Renaissance period.

Many writers like George Hersey and Vincent Hopper deal with the origin and source of *The Duchess of Malfi*. They say that *The Duchess of Malfi* is taken from the Italian documents: Bandello's *Novelle* (1554), and Belleforest's *Histoires Tragiques* (1565), which is translated and included by William Painter *Palace of Pleasure*. Hersey and Hopper in *John Webster* (1960) have this to say about *The Duchess of Malfi* "Belleforest, priggishly and petulantly makes the Duchess a lustful lady who pursues her pleasure behind the screen of marriage" (p. 15). This is the image of women in ancient decades that are identified with lust, sex, and betrayal. The present paper shows how women start to refuse this image, and decide to acquire a new identity.

In *The Duchess of Malfi*, Webster presents the Duchess as the heroine of the play trying to get her liberty from patriarchal authority. She has two brothers, the Cardinal and Ferdinand, who want to control her life. At that time, men think that women are unable to plan their lives. Webster starts his play by presenting the passive image of women in the Renaissance era. He states that Ferdinand and the Cardinal threaten their sister the Duchess not to marry again. In this play, Webster reveals the domestic life of Renaissance women. *The Duchess of Malfi* is considered as an unusual play, because it presents the humiliation of Renaissance women.

Webster shows the negative position of women in Renaissance period, and they have no authority over anybody even their children. The Cardinal and Ferdinand represent the patriarchal power over the Duchess.

Abushihab and Abushihab (2016:95) remark that at that time, "men control the social, political, religious, and economic lives of the whole society, especially those of women. Many of the Renaissance writers try to bind between marriage and religious issues." Leech (1963) focuses on this issue by saying that "Dr. Bradbrook notes from Thomas notes from Thomas Beard's account of the story in *The Theatre of Gods Judgments* his view that the Cardinal was an instrument of God's justice 'to punish those who under a veil of secret marriage thought it lawful for man to commit any villainy', and [the Duchess] draws attention to the strong words used on the subject of secret marriage" (p.53).

At that time, secret marriage is considered as an evil event. Many writers focus on the passive consequences of the secret marriage in their works like Webster in *The Duchess of Malfi* and Shakespeare in *Romeo and Juliet*. At that time, secret marriage is presented as blameworthy. For that, Webster and Shakespeare show the dangerous consequences of it. Secret marriage is a kind of revolution against the society.

Webster does not show the role of religion in his play. The Church is 'secularized'. He shows the Cardinal as an official in the Roman Catholic Church who does not represent the Church. Webster suggests that men use religion to help them control women. Antonio criticizes the Church, when he says "Churches and cities, which have diseases like men, /Must have like death that we have" (V. III. 20-21). Here, Antonio shows the passive role of the Church and considers it similar to men.

At the same time, women cannot govern their lives; they are treated as a property. Many writers stress the Passive image of women in their works like John Ford in *'Tis Pity She's a Whore*, Shakespeare in *Othello* and *Hamlet*, and in other important works. At that time, any woman who dares to express her selfhood will be accused of revolting against the traditions of the society, and is called a whore.

In general, we can say that Webster shows an interest in the patriarchal traditions that allow men to control everything. He submits in his play that the brothers are anxious to control the Duchess's sexuality. Webster shows one of the most important weapons that help women get their rights, which is their tongue. Their tongues give them the freedom to govern their lives "While the Duchess strives to move outside the patriarchal family circle, Ferdinand longs to bind her within it, as is clear when he returns her wedding ring" (Findlay, 1999, p. 103).

Webster portrays the Duchess in two different ways: the first one is the political woman who leads many people and the second is the Renaissance woman who is controlled by the patriarchal society. Jankowski (2001) in "Defining/Confining the Duchess: Negotiating the Female Body in John Webster's *The Duchess of Malfi*" says that Webster depends on three important issues: first, the political contexts of this play especially the presentation of the Duchess as a ruler of Malfi. Second, the patriarchal relationship between the Duchess and her brothers Ferdinand and Cardinal, and third, how the Duchess tries to develop her life as she wants without heeding the dangerous consequences.

Both the Cardinal and Ferdinand try to warn the Duchess not to do anything against their will. Choudhury (2010) in his article "Subjugation of woman in Webster's *The Duchess of Malfi*" says that "Under the veil of court, Webster draws a domestic life and relations between man and woman. The head of the family, either father or in his absence his surrogate, a male, controls the social, political and economic lives of those in his charge-his kins and dependents. Male controlling power over woman is explicitly visible in this drama" (p. 1). In this case, Webster discusses the relation between the Duchess and her brothers, Ferdinand and the Cardinal. The brothers refuse the second marriage because she is their sister, not because of her political position.The Duchess decides to challenge her patriarchal authority by marrying again. She wants to find her own identity although she knows all of the consequences. Lall (1988) in his book *John Webster's The Duchess of Malfi* comments on the Duchess's situation in relation to her brothers: " [she] will attempt the dangerous enterprise of a re-marriage in spite of their threatening and frightening [her], just as men, by coming to grips with danger in the course of certain great battles, have accomplished impossible brave deeds"(p. 23). At the Renaissance time, women cannot face their society, because if they try, they will be punished severely. Thus, the Duchess cannot declare that she will not obey her brother's directions, because she knows that they will prevent her in various ways

The Duchess of Malfi is a story of resistance of a widow who defies her brothers in disregard to the traditions of her society. She challenges her brothers by marrying Antonio who is below of her class. Bartels (2002) says that the Duchess's actions push women to fight back against patriarchal domination. She adds "[Writers] routinely assume [women] either constrained or restrained, despite histories that suggest otherwise. When aggressively outspoken women such as Jane Anger apologize for their rashness, [the readers] read their gestures as a sign that they 'accepted silence as a feminine ideal" (p. 418). For example, Anne in *A Woman killed With Kindness* is accepted to be subjected at the end of the play. At the beginning of the play, she gets out from the patriarchal traditions, but she cannot bear the consequences of her doings. Anne, unlike the Duchess retreats from her new position and gets back under the patriarchal authority. The Duchess decides to lead the life she likes. Evidently, she decides to choose a man from the middle class to prove her selfhood, but, at the same time, she gives him the reins.

At the end of act one, Antonio and the Duchess become husband and wife. The Duchess rebels against male authority, and shows willingness to subject herself to her husband in order to make him her lord and to be led by his hand. In this case, I think that the Duchess gives Antonio the leadership by her own freewill.

Webster focuses on this issue by presenting the Duchess and Antonio's marriage. He wants to show the passive image of such marriage. Leech (1963) in *Webster: The Duchess of Malfi* says that "The Elizabethans had a term, 'disparagement' for the wrong done to a person if a marriage with one of lower rank was inflicted on him…For that reason it was easier for a woman to be raised to her husband's level than for a man to win nobility through marriage" (p. 51). When the Duchess's marriage is threatened by Ferdinand's defiance, she wants to save her marriage, without heeding her duties to defend her country.

Webster criticizes the Duchess's marriage by saying that it makes her neglect her duties. Under all this pressure, the Duchess describes the miserable situation of the Renaissance women, when she says "I account this world a tedious theatre" (IV, I, 87). Here, the Duchess describes her life as a tedious theatre which she wants to escape. She wants to live her own way of life, not as her brothers want. She decides to face her society by showing that she has the power to prove her selfhood. At the end of the play, she decides to face death courageously. She does not want to live under the patriarchal society any more.

In the following quotation, Webster presents the Duchess as one of the courageous women who face torment boldly, and does not show fear of death. This situation shows that the Duchess defends her freedom.

> The Duchess: pull and pull strongly, from your able strength
> Must pull down heaven upon me (IV, II, 227, 28)

The Duchess of Malfi presents a new kind of female rulers who try to help other women to take their rights, but in reality many women rulers do not care about women such as Queen Elizabeth. One may say that there are big

differences between the Duchess and Queen Elizabeth. Both of them live their lives as rulers, but Queen Elizabeth does not dare to face her society or defend her sex. For that, many critics criticize her because the Queen Elizabeth does not take any step to rescue the Renaissance women. On the other hand, Webster in *The Duchess of Malfi* creates a woman ruler who challenges the Renaissance society's views. She sacrifices herself for the Renaissance women. At the end of the play, the Duchess takes her political role showing power as a sovereign prince. She does not give up under the patriarchal authority. She uses her political role to assert that Renaissance women have rights in the patriarchal society. In this case, the Duchess is presented as an example of the rebellious woman who refuses to be under humiliation.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The Tragedy of Mariam and *The Duchess of Malfi* focus on identity, sexuality, and patriarchal power. In both plays, the heroines are obliged to be like the ordinary model of the Renaissance woman. When Mariam and the Duchess try to search for new identities, the patriarchal authorities stop them by punishing them severely. On the other hand, sexuality is related to identity. In both plays, Mariam and the Duchess are punished for their sexuality. For example, Mariam is accused of betraying her husband Herod, and the Duchess marries for the second time. These behaviors are seen as a threat to their position in their societies.

Women start to become aware of their role in society in the modern time. Therefore, Women writers try to highlight on the image of women in their fiction by projecting the female self-consciousness. Their works can be considered a drive for women's liberation. Al-Salman (2005) argues this issue "[Women writers] have condemned both authors and critics for their disenfranchisement of the woman character in literature by regarding her either as a stereotype or as an extension of phallocentric fears and desires" (p. 6). Some feminist critics focus on the great works of male writers and examine the image of women characters in their fiction. They criticize the patriarchal ideology and the tradition of masculine dominance over female characters.

Many women writers like Jane Austen try to follow the way of Elizabeth Cary and John Webster by presenting different kinds of women. Jane Austen is one of the most important feminist writers that criticize the masculine traditions by presenting two kinds of women. The first type is the heroines who prove their identities and independence like Elizabeth Bennet, Elinor Dashwood, and Emma Knightly. The other type is seen as inferior characters, and depends on men like Lydia Bennet, Marianne Dashwood, and Maria Bertram. (Al- Salman, 2005, p. 7)

Abushihab and Abushihab(2016) point out that "Mariam and the Duchess are presented as rebellious women who refuse to be under male authority. Critics focus on Mariam and the Duchess as characters representing the contradictions of female identity in patriarchal cultures. Both characters have the right to choose between two paths. One path is to give vent to their grievances and challenge their societies regardless of the dangerous consequences. The second path is to abide by the supremacy of men, and the social code of their societies. Accordingly, they have to be silent and obedient. Both have chosen the first rugged path and have decided to challenge the norms and customs of their societies." (p.95)

Some critics say that both plays rely on companionate marriage. Both plays focus on the childless couples, and a loveless marriage which compares well with a prison. For that reason, both heroines Mariam and the Duchess rebel against the patriarchal authority. Some critics say that these plays can be deemed a spark of the women's revolution. The image of the 'New Woman' which is against the traditions of the patriarchal society is shown in *A Doll's House*. Ibsen (1988) supports greater freedom for women. Nora the main character represents the rebellious women when she refuses to be an inferior character. At the end of the play, she slams the door behind her. This action shows the changing role of women in the modern time, and it shows the emergence of women's self-consciousness.

The conclusion shows how modern feminist writers try to break the conventions of women's silence. We can say that women gain a significant role in the current society, and they get what they want away from any injustice. Nowadays, there are a lot of women's rights organizations which help women to get their rights.

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Ideologies in College EFL Textbooks–A Content Analysis Based on Critical Pedagogy[*]

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Abstract—The goal of college English teaching is not only to convey language knowledge and improve students' language skills, but also closely related to the current political, economic, social and cultural realities. Its textbooks are largely a manifestation of the country's dominant ideology and also the way the ruling class realizes social control. This study, based on Professor Apple's theory of critical pedagogy, attempts to provide an insight into the most commonly used college EFL textbooks in Mainland China and show what and how ideologies and values are presented on the pages. Literature and content analysis methods are employed. The results reveal that the two sets of textbooks are imbued with the ideological ideas which center on the theme of "harmony", highlighting the peaceful coexistence between the country, society and individuals. Dominant ideologies have been implemented as the core spirit of textbook compilation, and the themes such as multiplicity, equality, tolerance and so on frequently appear in explicit and implicit ways. The implicitness of political ideologies, the prominence of economic development, the dominance of social issues, the awakening of individual consciousness, etc. are expressed and transmitted through EFL textbooks.

Index Terms—dominant ideology, value orientation, college EFL textbooks, Michael W. Apple

I. INTRODUCTION

"The Guide to College English Teaching" issued by the Ministry of Education in 2017 pointed out that "College English courses are part of humanities education in colleges and universities, and its important task is to carry out cross-cultural education. In addition to scientific and technological or professional information, students should also learn about foreign societies and cultures, enhance their understanding of different cultures, raise their awareness of the similarities and differences between Chinese and foreign cultures, and develop intercultural communication skills...The core values of socialism should be integrated into college English teaching…to achieve an organic unity of instrumentality and humanity." The Guide highlights the two-way nature of cross-cultural communication, that is, not only to understand the world's outstanding cultures, cutting-edge scientific and technological achievements and management experience, but also to tell Chinese stories and pass on Chinese voice well (Li & Zhang 2018). Therefore, the goal of college English teaching is not only to convey language knowledge and improve students' language skills, but also closely related to the current political, economic, social and cultural realities.

Textbooks, as one of the essential parts of teaching, are designed, edited and structured based on the national education policy, combining the characteristics of the subject and the teaching objectives. Critical sociology of education theory holds that the "legitimate knowledge" in the textbook is not arbitrary or random, nor is it neutral or value-free. It is the result of the selection and organization of a wide range of possible social knowledge based on a series of principles and values. It is the embodiment of the ideology of the ruling class and the realization of social control. Therefore, only the content that conforms to the dominant ideology can legally enter into the textbook and then become the knowledge that students learn and master.

This study, based on Professor Apple's theory of critical pedagogy, attempts to provide an insight into the most commonly used college EFL textbooks in Mainland China and show what and how ideologies and values are presented on the pages. Literature and content analysis methods are employed.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Critical Pedagogy and Apple's Theory of Cultural Politics and Education

Critical pedagogy emerged in the 1970s and continued Marxist pursuit of social rationality and justice. Its scholars believe that education is not neutral and objective, but is full of conflicts of interest, and teaching is an inherently political act. The purpose of critical pedagogy is to reveal the interest conflicts behind specific educational practice. One of the important purposes of school education is to guide the development of people's thinking patterns and shape their ideological values. Therefore, what types of knowledge and whose knowledge are given priority in school defines the way and method to control the education process.

American educational sociologist Michael W. Apple is one of the most famous representatives of the neo-Marxist critical sociology of education. His research focuses on the relationship between knowledge and power and the political attributes and essence of curriculum, teaching and education. Curriculum is not only a technical, educational, and epistemological issue, but also a product of the interactions between class, economic power, and cultural hegemony; it is the result of the explicit or implicit conflict of values, so it is essentially a political and ideological issue and a matter of value (Huang 2003). The ruling class screens knowledge and selects the part that fits its own ideology as the course content in order to gain social control. In other words, as the legitimate knowledge, textbooks achieve the purpose of social control by selecting and organizing existing culture and knowledge. In the book "Ideology and Curriculum", Apple (2004) argues that historical and contemporary perspectives should be used to examine how specific, normative, and legitimate cultures, values, and concepts become part of the curriculum, thereby revealing the "hidden curriculum", namely the essence of "social control". He believes that social control is still the goal of education, but it is no longer presented in the explicit way, and is hidden under the social structure, becoming the hidden curriculum. Curriculum and teaching serve to play an indoctrination role, in which ideology plays an important part and conveys the underlying meaning of education.

Apple (2000) raised the question of "Whose knowledge is of most worth?" on the basis of Spencer's "What Knowledge is of most worth?". This has shifted the focus of educational research from knowledge choice to value choice, that is, the relationship between ideology and education. Power determines official knowledge, and official knowledge reacts to power, which shows a two-way interactive relationship (Zhang et al. 2016). In order to make the people accept the given ideology, the ruling class often packages ideology in the form of "objective knowledge" and "universal morality", and then delivers it through social communication and educational institutions (Xu 2014). Educational institutions play a role in transmitting and distributing ideologies, values and knowledge, and also help to produce certain types of knowledge to coordinate and maintain socio-economic, political and cultural relations. The formal or implicit knowledge in schools all involve the interrelationship between power, economic resources, and social control. School knowledge reflects "cultural capital" and "political cultural power". Curriculum content and its design are controlled by some hidden values or ideologies, and people can only accept prescribed knowledge in prescribed ways. Therefore, only under the guidance of relevant theories, through systematic investigation and in-depth analysis of the historical, political, cultural and economic reasons behind the phenomenon, especially the changes in the ideological functions of school education and curriculum, can these hidden factors be discovered.

B. Dominant Ideology in Mainland China

Ideology refers to the views, beliefs, or values held by a person, group, or class. Ideology is not only epistemic, but also political, social, ethical, and value-laden (Honderich 1995). Marxists believe that the economic base of production determines the political superstructure of a society, and superstructure denotes the dominant ideology. Ideology includes interpretations of history, beliefs about human nature and society, and visions for the future. Its themes cover nation, class, race, gender, religion, relation to the land and environment, etc. This study takes modern China as the background and college EFL textbooks as the research object. Therefore, the ideology here refers to the political, social and value-laden thoughts, ideas and positions held by a group or class, which can represent the political system, the economic development and cultural changes in China today.

Dr. Wu (2013) argued in his paper "Research on the Change of Ideology in Contemporary China" that the changing process of ideologies in China has basically gone through three stages, from "the revolutionary ideology" to "the constructive ideology " and then to "the harmonious ideology"; the traditional ideology in China, under the new historical environment, has continuously broken away rigid ideas and absorbed advanced concepts and ideas from the West, gradually forming a cohesive socialist ideology with the theme of "harmonious development".

Yang et al. (2015) also mentioned in "Research on Contemporary Chinese Ideology" that the construction of modern Chinese ideology was first influenced by the former Soviet Union during the early days after the founding of the People's Republic of China, and was later impacted by Western capitalist countries during the period of reform and opening up; after entering a new stage of development, the Communist Party of China, in accordance with the profound changes in economy and politics, has sought to find the root of Chinese philosophy from traditional culture and thus formed its ideology based on both Marxism and Confucianism.

The "Opinions on Cultivating and Practicing Socialist Core Values" clearly states that to realize China's dream—the great rejuvenation of the Chinese nation, we must cultivate and practice the core values of socialism. The so-called "value orientation" refers to the organized, internalized, and stable ideas that affect the judgment and behavior choices made by individuals or groups. The China's dream and the core values of socialism are the mainstream ideologies of modern China under the leadership of the Communist Party. "Prosperity, Democracy, Civilization, Harmony; Freedom, Equality, Justice, Rule of Law; Patriotism, Dedication, Honesty, and Friendliness" comprehensively clarifies the value goals, orientation and norms of China as a nation.

It can be concluded that the dominant ideology of contemporary China is formed on the basis of Marxism and China's historical traditions and realities with distinct Chinese characteristics, emphasizing the concept of nation and collective consciousness, aimed at building a harmonious and prosperous socialist country. The dominant values are the manifestation of the will of the ruling class, which inevitably affect all aspects of the country and society. How to influence and cultivate the ideology and values of citizens, especially of young students, is of strategic significance to

the stability of the country. At the "National College Ideological and Political Work Conference" in 2016, President Xi Jinping proposed: "We must carry out ideological and political work throughout the entire process of education and teaching... we must unremittingly cultivate and promote the core values of socialism, and guide the majority of teachers and students to firmly believe in, spread and practice the core values of socialism..." Therefore, it is very necessary to further explore the forms and functions of ideology in the field of higher education.

C. Studies of College EFL Textbooks in China

As the carrier of teaching content, college EFL textbooks are the basic tools for teachers to organize teaching and the main source for students to obtain relevant knowledge. Therefore, it is essential to make comprehensive and in-depth analysis and research on textbooks. Domestically, from 2000 to 2019, the results of paper retrieval on CNKI with the keyword "College EFL textbooks" show as follows: First, the overall number of studies on college EFL textbooks is relatively small. There are a total of 134 related papers published in foreign language journals and the number of papers each year varies from several to dozens. Secondly, the studies, from the perspective of linguistics and pedagogy, are mainly teaching-oriented and focus on textbooks as tools (Li 2007), such as the ideas and principles of compilation, writing methods and specific problems, analysis and evaluation of textbooks, evaluation standards for textbooks, teachers and teaching methods, learners and textbooks, corpus applications, etc. Thirdly, some studies have begun to involve cultural background, cultural content, and cultural value in the textbooks, recognizing the importance of cultural factors and the absence of Chinese culture, but most of them still remain at the surface level, lacking the in-depth discussion of hidden influencing factors such as politics, economy, power, control, etc. However, Fu (2004) pointed out that textbooks are the main source for students to inherit value and meaning; it is difficult to reveal the real operating mechanism behind college EFL textbooks merely through technical analysis and research.

Dr. Shi (2013), based on the theory of critical pedagogy, has comprehensively explored the value orientation presented by the selection of College English textbook content since the founding of new China. The value orientation and the structural changes of each set of textbooks in China are controlled by the dominant ideology in each period. This research approaches language and teaching from the perspectives of history, politics, and power distribution. This has given us a deeper understanding of the social and political attributes of language teaching, which provides a good reference for future research.

III. THEME CATEGORY AND FREQUENCY STATISTICS

After decades of development, College English education has achieved great progress and occupies an important position in the higher education system in China. At the same time, college EFL textbooks have undergone massive changes and flourished with economic development, political reform and social opening-up. From 1949 to the post-Cultural Revolution period, from the 1980s and 1990s to the 21st century with "internationalization" as its main trend, each generation of college EFL textbooks are fully loaded with the value of the times, and the content not only reflects the continuity of history, but also highlights the characteristics of each period.

Content analysis and frequency statistics are effective ways to analyze the value orientation of textbooks, and thus to reveal the ideologies in course content and the characteristics of social control. Wu (1999) developed a "value orientation category scale" in his study of junior middle school textbooks of Chinese language, in which there are two major categories, "morality" and "politics", and 36 sub-categories. The current study has modified the scale, and the revised version includes eight major categories, that is, nation and politics, economy and business, moral and ethics, science and technology, social life, education and culture, personal development, and nature and environment. At the national, social, and individual levels, the author tries to analyze the dominant ideology and value orientation in college EFL textbooks through frequency counts of the selected topics. It is hoped that this study, with focus on the internal relationship and logic of politics and economy, society and culture, power distribution, and official knowledge in textbooks, will provide some inspiration for the construction of the college English education system with Chinese characteristics.

At present, there are dozens of college EFL textbooks being used in colleges and universities in mainland China. This study will select two sets of the most widely used textbooks published by the most authoritative publishing houses in the field of foreign language education. "Reading and Writing Course" in "New Horizon College English Series" (Third Edition) was published by "Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press" in 2015 (hereinafter referred to as "NH"), and "Comprehensive Course" in "New Target College English Series" by "Foreign Language Education Press" in 2016 (hereinafter referred to as "NT"). The two sets of textbooks each have 4 volumes, and each volume contains eight units (eight topics), so there are 64 topics in total. The frequency counts and proportion data collected by the above eight categories are shown in the table below.

FREQUENCY AND PROPORTION OF TOPICS IN NH AND NT

Topics	NH		NT	
	frequency	proportion	frequency	proportion
Nation & politics	1	3%	2	6%
Economy & business	3	9%	1	3%
Moral & ethics	7	22%	1	3%
science & technology	1	3%	5	16%
Social life	13	41%	4	12%
Education & culture	3	9%	9	28%
Personal development	2	6%	5	16%
Nature & environment	2	6%	5	16%
Total	32	100%	32	100%

There is a big difference in the choice of topics between the two sets of textbooks. In NH, the topics related to social life take a big proportion, and the content is rich and diverse, involving college life, family life, work and study, love, attitude to life, and travel. At the same time, NH also puts more emphasis on the theme of moral and ethics, of which seven units are related, such as gender equality, human rights and animal rights, friendship, honesty, the essence of success, etc. In addition, there are three units about economy & business and education & culture respectively. Under the theme of economy & business, the focus is on financial management and self-employment in the perspective of students, while education & culture mainly emphasizes the importance of learning at college, language learning and cross-cultural communication. Moreover, there are two units related to personal skills development, such as how to achieve success and overcome fear; the other two are concerned with nature & environment, mainly about how to rationally protect the environment and cope with energy crisis. Finally, there is only one unit on each of the two topics, nation & politics and science & technology. Nation & politics is about war and peace, while science and technology is related to digital campus. Compared with NH, NT is relatively balanced in the choice of themes. The topics most involved are education and culture, which include university life, studying abroad, higher education, literature, reading, music, sports, art, etc., and equal attention is paid to Chinese culture and traditions. Secondly, the three topics—science & technology, skill development and nature & environment—each have 5 units. The science & technology category includes new technologies, smart devices, space technology, medical technology, etc.; the skill development category focuses on creativity, leadership, self-improvement, image building, how to overcome depression, etc.; the theme of nature & environment covers nature, animals, renewable energy, green revolution, etc. There are another 4 units about social life, such as growth, love, friendship, and body language.

IV. CONTENT ANALYSIS

Based on the content analysis of the texts, it can be concluded that the two sets of textbooks have the following characteristics in value orientation:

A. The number of topics concerning nation & politics is relatively small, and the political values tend appear in a more implicit way, no longer overtly promoted or criticized. In Unit 6 Book 3 NH, Text A tells about the cruelty of the war, and Text B depicts the love and friendship between people in the war with touching strokes and allows readers to put themselves in a real context, reflect on war and cherish peace. Unit 8 Book 2 NT discusses the theme "globalization" from a dialectical point of view, and puts the concept of nation in a larger scope of the world. Text A, starting with people's worries about immigration, recognizes and emphasizes the benefits of immigration to the US economy, culture, production, population structure and other aspects, prompting the public to reexamine the issue; Text B also begins with people's suspicion of globalization and the argument that globalization is dead, and with very detailed data attempts to propose that globalization today develops in a new way and emerging nations are playing an increasingly important role in world trade, politics, finance, and culture. This provides the learners a new perspective to know better about globalization and the relationship between developed and under-developed countries. These selected texts break through the stereotypes, abandon the preaching tone, and trigger learners to think and judge from multiple angles and have a more comprehensive understanding of the concept of nation, politics and the development trend in the new era.

B. The topics on economy and business have started to appear in textbooks, and although the number is not large, it still reflects the importance of economic development and the popularity of commercialism. The aim is to cultivate students' economic awareness and innovative spirit. Relevant texts do not care about economic principles or market rules, but pay more attention to how to deal with personal finance and respond to crises in a real social and economic environment, and focus more on training students' financial quotient. There are three units in NH covering this topic, such as Text A, Unit 5 Book 2, "Spend or save: the students' dilemma", which is new and very practical for Chinese university students who have had little exposure to personal finance since childhood. It is to guide the learners to be able to identify real and effective information in a complex situation, do rational thinking, and become a smart and well-trained consumer. Text A, Unit 7 Book 3, from the perspective of an unemployed person, tells about the serious impact of the economic crisis on and painful experiences of individuals, while Text B systematically introduces the causes and conditions of economic bubbles, which allows readers to feel and think about the economic activities and problems at both levels of sense and sensibility. Moreover, Text A, Unit 2 Book 2 of NT compares the differences between A

students and B students, and points out some of the characteristics of B students who can become entrepreneurs; Text B introduces a 13-year-old young entrepreneur, including his inspiration, goals, parental support, his own efforts, etc. These two texts show readers the basic framework of entrepreneurship and the necessary qualities of entrepreneurs, provide inspiration and information, and try to help students to carry out innovative activities in accordance with their actual conditions.

C. In terms of morals and ethics, there are 8 units related, which account for a large proportion, including success, friendship, gender, human rights, etiquette, etc. This shows that moral education remains as one of the main functions of college English teaching and students are supposed to form positive and upward ethical values. Books 1 and 2 of NH cover most of the moral issues, from people's attitudes towards success to friendship, from honesty to women's rights and gender equality, all of which reflect the constant pursuit of justice, fairness, harmony, dialogue and other values. Gender is one of the most important issues in today's world, and gender equality is the moral requirement of modern civilization and an important indicator for a harmonious society. Two units of NH are about this topic and attempt to explain the values of equality, coexistence, and harmony. Text A, Unit 7 Book 2, discusses the changes in women's positions in the workplace and the problems and confusions they face, while Text B describes the development trend of women from family to workplace and the change of their status. Besides the focus on women, Text A, Unit 6 Book 4, from a male's perspective, tells about the hard work and helplessness of men, especially men at the bottom of society, expressing a strong desire to pursue equality beyond gender and class. These texts encourage both male and female students to feel empathy for each other and think more and deeper about gender roles in society and family. Then, Unit 8, Book 2 NH, discusses human rights and animal rights, which is a new and controversial topic especially when animal rights movement is now gaining momentum. The author of Text A is a doctor who emphasizes the importance and necessity of animal experiments and denounces the destructive impact of extreme animal rights movements on medical research. However, Text B, in a dog's monologue, tells its attachment, expectation and loyalty to the owner, and also expresses great confusion and sorrow about the owner's abandonment. These two texts discuss human rights and animal rights from opposing perspectives, allowing learners to reexamine the relationship between humans and animals, and the role and responsibility of humans in nature.

D. Social life is absolutely the most valued topic in college EFL textbooks, highlighting the importance of social development, interpersonal relationship, and family life in modern Chinese ideology, and showing a more practical, diverse, and inclusive trend. The texts create a real life situation for learners, most of which discuss the problems and possible solutions that may occur in learning and living, attaching importance to the experiences and feelings of students. This affects and guides their thoughts and actions while making them feel familiar and friendly. For example, Text A in Unit 1 of the first book of NT tells from a student's perspective his experience of studying and growing up at Harvard University, including learning pressure, teamwork, community activities, and multiculturalism, and especially the busy and vibrant campus life in Harvard Yard where the dormitory is located. The whole text is full of rejoicing, positive, upward and satisfying emotions, and it depicts a real and beautiful picture of college life for learners. Besides, there are two units in NH related to family life. Text A, Unit 2 Book 1, tells a story between mother and daughter who have both conflicts and love. While, Text A Unit 8 Book 3 compares the differences in parenting between Chinese and Western parents, and gives family relations social and cultural value, which intends to help students develop a good parent-child relationship and a right view of parenting. In addition, there are two units in NH and one unit in NT about love and romance, which is very important to college students. Many of them are exposed to love for the first time at this stage of life and they often encounter problems and troubles. The texts selected help them have a better understanding about what love is and how to handle relationships. Also, the textbook introduces some new concepts with unique characteristics of the times. For example, Unit 6 "Less is more", Book 2 NH, begins with the well-known story of Xiang Yu burning the boat and discusses difficult choices that everyone may come across in life. This text develops step by step in a very rational way, guides students to realize the necessity of "fewer options", and conveys the idea of "minimalism".

E. The cultural value of the text content has been strengthened, with particular emphasis on the cultivation of learners' cross-cultural awareness and self-confidence in Chinese culture. In Text A, Unit 1 Book 2 NT, the American author discusses what Americans can learn from Confucianism. He compares Confucianism with other religions, highlights the value of Confucianism as a philosophy of life, and promotes the basic values of harmony, friendliness, diligence, and respect for teachers in Confucian culture. This provides Chinese students with a new perspective; that is, English learning not only familiarizes themselves with the outside world, but also allows them to review their own culture and social conventions and thus raise their cultural awareness. This gives students more input of Chinese culture, helps students adopt a more dialectical and objective attitude towards it, and also enables them to tell Chinese stories in English.

F. The selection of texts keeps pace with the times, and popular topics such as technology, energy, and environmental protection have received attention. Since Deng Xiaoping proposed that "Science and technology are primary productive forces", technology has always occupied an important position in the Chinese ideology. It has made great contributions to China's economic development and the rise of its international status. Therefore, the cultivation of college students' scientific thinking and attitude is the proper meaning of university education. In addition, college EFL textbooks also pay attention to the personal life and mental health of college students, including teaching students how to cope with

fear and depression, how to cultivate creativity and success, how to develop leadership skills and build a good image, etc. These texts help to guide students to better deal with various problems they encounter or may encounter in their lives and careers, and to achieve a state of both internal and external harmony.

In all, the two sets of college EFL textbooks are closely centered on the theme "harmony", highlighting the values of harmonious coexistence and development of the country, society and individuals. Ideology is implemented as the core spirit of textbook compilation. Multiplicity, equality, inclusiveness and other themes appear frequently in an explicit or implicit manner. The implicitness of political ideologies, the prominence of economic development, the dominance of social issues, the awakening of individual consciousness, etc. are all expressed and transmitted through EFL textbooks. The key topics of concern in today's world, such as the relationship between the country and the world, interpersonal relationships, human and nature, moral awareness, personal growth, economy and technology, are reflected in the textbooks. It is revealed that the choice of textbook content, as a product of power struggle, is controlled by dominant ideologies.

V. CONCLUSION

College English teaching in China involves many learners and has a wide range of influence. In addition to instrumental functions, college English also bears important ideological or value functions, that is, to deliver specific values to learners and shape students' moral outlook to achieve social control. Students learn English through textbooks, receive the culture and thinking mold behind them, and form their own thoughts and expressions through perception, analysis, and judgment. This is also the process of the formation, institutionalization, and consolidation of dominant ideologies and social control.

The college EFL textbooks are produced in conformity to the historical background and dominant ideology. As China enters the modern society, economic development, scientific and technological progress, cultural diversity, and social harmony have become the main themes, and the changing trends in the political, economic, cultural, moral, and ideological fields that constitute this grand picture are all reflected in education. The selection of teaching content and compilation of textbooks show the combination of Marxism and realities in China, the fusion of Western ideology and traditional Chinese culture, the integration of internationalization and localization, the parallelism of collectivism and personal development, etc. Chinese President Xi repeatedly emphasized the important role of educational institutions in ideological propaganda and political education. However, the current college EFL textbooks seem to deviate slightly from that, failing to strictly follow the requirement of the government, which is mainly due to the time lag between political development and textbook planning and writing. Also, the original materials and resources in English fit for political propaganda is rare. Therefore, it is essential to collect, organize and write the relevant materials in a timely manner. This is the mission and responsibility of college EFL textbook researchers and teachers, and also the focus of follow-up studies.

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Culture in Second or Foreign Language Acquisition*

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Abstract—**Many theorists have pointed out that in real world communication, the usage of a language is always colored by a cultural norm so that the language used in communication can be understood by the majority of a cultural community or society. The relationship between language usage and cultural norms or pragmatic rules can never be broken in communication. In cross-cultural communication, the differences in pragmatic rules, communicative strategies, cross-cultural psychology among other may become problematic areas in learning a second or foreign language. Consequently, making the differences known to both learners and teachers is of paramount importance in teaching and learning a second or foreign language. By addressing and discussing some cultural-specific factors in teaching and learning a second or foreign language, this thesis aims to provide useful learning factors in which learners frame meaning in a second or foreign language and thus emphasize the importance of teaching culture to second or foreign language learners, it also tentatively provide some instructional strategies for teaching culture in second or foreign language acquisition (SLA/FLA) classroom.**

Index Terms—**culture, language, SLA, FLA, cross-cultural communication**

I. INTRODUCTION

Language and culture are closely related. Language is the carrier of culture, and culture is transmitted through language. The presence of Culture representations in a second or foreign language teaching is inevitable. By tradition and necessity, second or foreign language instruction often addresses cultural issues, and teachers who teach English as a second or foreign language are often called upon to explain English-speaking cultures and cultural differences, and to help students adjust to the target culture. No matter how difficult it would be in discussing culture with their students, teachers' views of themselves, their students, teaching curriculum and the relationship among cultures have great impact on teaching outcome. Meanwhile, students' positive and objective attitudes toward the target culture as well as the culture of their own may mostly facilitate SLA/FLA and vice versa. Moreover, a person's world view, beliefs, and presuppositions affected his or her understanding of second culture. These beliefs and presuppositions are of great pedagogical significance in second or foreign language teaching and learning.

II. DEFINITION OF CULTURE

The problems of understanding the role of culture in the classroom are made more acute when culture itself is the subject of study. Before discussing cultural-specific or cultural-determinative aspects in SLA/FLA, it is prerequisite for us to know what culture is.

The term "culture" can have different meanings. Some language teachers refer it to literary or architectural works. Others refer it to background information like the history or geography of countries. According to Scollon and Scollon, "culture" has two normal uses in English, i.e. high culture and anthropological culture. High culture, as Scollon and Scollon defined, "focuses on intellectual and artistic achievements." We say that Beijing is a historic and cultural city because it has magnificent ancient palaces and other buildings that are typical in feudal times. "When culture is referred to in its anthropological sense, it means that culture is any of the customs, worldview, language, kinship system, social organization, and other taken-for-granted day-to-day practices of a people which set that group apart as a distinctive group." (Scollon & Scollon, 2000:p126). It is also proposed that the term of culture may be understood in broad and narrow senses. "It may refer to the intellectual refinement and artistic endeavor, or the appreciation of music, literature, the art, and so on." (Wang Lifei, 2000:p193). This is culture in its broad sense. On the other hand, culture may also refer to whatever a person must know in order to function in a particular society. This is culture in its narrow sense. Bates and Plog's definition belongs to this category. They claim that "culture is a system of shared beliefs, values, customs, behaviors, and artifacts that the members of a society use to cope with their world and with one another, and that are transmitted from generation to generation through learning." (Samovar & Porter, 1997:p36) Although some scholars and language educators suggested that culture acquisition include both the narrow and broad sense, here we mainly focus on the narrow one.

III. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Language is a means of communication in our social lives, and it has an indispensable relationship with culture. Kramsch has proposed that "Culture and language are inseparable and constitute a single universe or domain of experience" (Hinkel, 2001:p6). Language is a symbolic system of human communication and also a part of the conventional culture. The languages are the carrier of cultures, so a society's language is an aspect of its culture. Culture and language influence each other. Every language is part of a culture and every culture is part of a language. As such, language can only reflect cultural needs and no one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture. For example, Eskimos have seven different words for snow to distinguish among different types of snow, while African　 have no word for snow; Chinese has a complex system of kinship terms to distinguish among 叔叔、舅舅、姑爷、舅父、姑父, and so on while in English these terms have just one tally "uncle". Examples like these suggest a simple principle that different cultural background produce different linguistic features.

On the other hand, language is the carrier of culture. Language can reinforce and preserve a culture, its beliefs and customs, and sometimes, conditions in its future course of development. As long as a language is in use, the culture it represents will survive. Even if a culture is wiped out, it can still be studied by looking at its language. Culture and language at all time are considered to be two principal and inseparable, if not all identities of a social group, a nation or a state.

IV. THE IMPORTANCE OF CULTURE IN SLA/FLA

Applied linguists and language teachers believe that in learning and teaching a foreign language, we should make more use of the culture of the language community. According to Schumann's Acculturation Model as a seminal theory of SLA, SLA "is just one aspect of acculturation and the degree to which a learner acculturates to the target language group will control the degree to which he acquires the second language." Based on Schumann's theory, Brown defines acculturation as "the process of becoming adapted to a new culture". That is to say, acculturation is a crucial step which lies within the continuum of SLA, because language is one of the most observable expressions of culture and because in second language (L2) settings the acquisition of a new language is seen as tied to the way in which the learner's community and the target language community view each other (Ellis, 1985:p251). Before we touch upon the importance of culture in SLA/FLA in this paper, one question is paramount for us to get an appropriate answer: What does it mean to know a language? It is now generally accepted by linguists and educators that the factors involved in knowing a language include linguistic competence and communicative competence, and the status of these two facets depends upon whether we adopt a linguistic or sociolinguistic perspective on language. In our discussion, we adopt the latter one. Hymes first introduced the notion of communicative competence that has subsequently had a great deal of influence on second or foreign language research and teaching methodologies. He pointed out that "in addition to our knowledge of rules of grammar, knowing a language entails being able to use it for social and communicative interaction, that is, knowing when it is appropriate to open a conversation and how, what topics are appropriate to particular speech events, which forms of address are to be used, to whom and in which situations, and how such speech acts as greetings, compliments, apologies, invitations and complements are to be given, interpreted and responded to" (Richards, 2001:p145). Byram also pointed out that communicative competence involves appropriate language use which, in part at least, is culture specific." (Hinkel, 2001:p6). From the sociolinguistic views, communicative competence extends beyond linguistic competence and requires learners' context-specific knowledge of interactive practices in a second or foreign culture. To become qualified communicator in a second or foreign culture, learners need to be taught to become sensitive observers, use proper language. Learning to pay attention to interaction can make learners to make well-informed choices of behaviors when they are communicating with members of a second or foreign culture. Still there is an argument that until learner's first cultural identity is established, it may be harmful to learn about other cultures. In this view, it is acceptable for younger students to learn English as a foreign language (EFL) or English as a second language (ESL) but not for them to learn about English-speaking culture. This argument depends on the separability of language and culture, yet, as stated above, many scholars in the field maintain that such separation is impossible and undesirable if communicative competence is the goal. A cultural focus on communicative competence has communicative ends, but there are further important advantages. It may not only encourage the development of language learner's identity but also encourage the awareness of others' identities. Moreover, it is important that second or foreign language learners should know the different cultural frameworks; otherwise they will use their own cultural system to interpret second or foreign language message which is quite different.

V. LEARNING STYLE AND CULTURE

So far we have adopted a sociolinguistic perspective to discuss generally the importance of culture in SLA/FLA. Culture is the pervasive phenomenon which affects L2 or foreign language learners in many aspects, and its impact on learning style has been given special attention by language teachers and educators.

A. Definition of Learning Style

Research has shown that different person vary greatly in the ways they learn a L2 or foreign language. Some learners

are good at analyzing and breaking down words and sentences, others need to experience the overall pattern of the language in a meaningful context, some focus on the visual, others are more focused on the sound.. According to Reid's definition, learning style "refers to an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills. These learning styles persist, regardless of teaching methods and content areas." (Reid, 2002:34).

B. Relationship between Learning Style and Culture

Seeing from the aspect of definition, learning style and culture seem to be at odds. Learning styles focus on individual difference, while culture focuses on what a group of individuals have in common. It is true that culture is shared. Nevertheless, culture is also learned by individuals through the socialization process. People learn how to learn within their cultural circumstance, i.e. the cultural learning styles are learned in families and through other social relationships before children are old enough to attend school.

C. Cultural-specific Differences between the Learning Styles of Chinese Students and Western Students

The differences between the learning styles of Chinese students and that of Western students can be partly traced from the distinction between the Confucian and Socratic tradition of education. Dialogue is at the heart of the Socratic method of education, the Western classroom emphasizes the art of rhetoric as a search for knowledge and truth, while in Confucian education, the primary goal is to acquire wisdom and teach students to act in accordance with moral principled. Furthermore, as Scollon emphasizes, that the assumptions of group identity and harmony maintenance, ubiquitous in the cultures that embrace Confucian philosophy, may appear to be a paramount goal for Chinese students operating in their first language or second language that is not necessarily shared in the Western Socratic teaching and learning tradition (Hinkel, 2001:p18).

The Confucian tradition places a high value on education, and particularly on educating the members of society in the ways humans should relate and interact with each other. Confucianism respects age, seniority, rank and family background, and ESL/EFL teachers in China and abroad are particularly interested in the Confucian teacher-student relationship, which is more hierarchical than the Western teacher-student relationship, and teachers are more instructive about what happens in the classroom. In China, the teacher is an authority figure. Confucius taught that the teacher must know all and it is firmly believed by Chinese students especially in primary and middle schools. It is always the case that students are reluctant to raise questions against their teacher in class even if they believe what the teacher has said is problematic and unacceptable. Confucius and his students also modeled a close teacher-student relationship in which teachers, like parents, help students grow into complete and adjusted human beings. On the other hand, Socrates thought of himself as midwife. Just as in the Greek tradition a midwife was required to be past childbearing age, Socrates claimed to be beyond giving birth to brilliant ideas. His role in relationship to his students is to lead them to the truth by means of questioning (ibid., p.19). Therefore the Western teachers nowadays are likely to assign tasks for which the teachers do not take responsibility, students often assume that these tasks are assigned because they have value for their own sake. It is also unsurprisingly that classes become a hot debate among teacher and students so long as disagreement exists.

Another characteristic of Chinese learning style is cooperation. The Chinese preference for cooperation contracts with the Western preference for individualism and competition, a system in which the child is trained to look at the members of his group as constant competitors and urged to make great effort to surpass them. In China, all children are expected to achieve good results; everyone is required to help each other. In the community, people understand each other and sincerely care about each other's happiness. In order to survive in the country where natural resources are limited, members of a community perish the importance of cooperation. Unlike the competition and individualism that motivate Western children, Chinese schooling encourages cooperation almost exclusively. Personal success is meaningful, rewarding and humbly accepted, but those who succeed give credit first to their class, parents, and country, and last to personal success. In Western cultures, one's worth is often based on what one has achieved, and students frequently learn through competition with each other. In China, however, efforts at competition may result in embarrassment and loss of face for the students.

VI. INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING CULTURE IN SLA/FLA CLASSROOM

From what have been mentioned above, we can see that second culture acquisition is a crucial sector and predominant goal over linguistic competence in SLA/FLA. As communicative competence is concerned, the aim of second or foreign language teaching is to develop students' communicative competence. Nevertheless, it is argued that merely integrating second language teaching and the culture of its speakers is insufficient for learners to develop communicative competence and social effectiveness. Although research has long recognized a need for teaching materials to facilitate the development of learners' communicative competence, textbooks and methodologies reflect the source and target cultures in ways that lead to mismatches and create obstacles to learning. What constitutes good teaching and learning is often based on the socialization processes and the internalization of roles and expectations that teachers and students take for granted. These are closely interwoven with attitudes, values, and beliefs that underlie the teaching of culture. To be effective and to help students achieve communicative competence, the teaching and the

learning of culture need to become a dialogue between the source and the target culture. There are several instructional strategies that can be employed to achieve our goals in teaching culture in SLA/FLA.

A. The Introduction of Literature

Literary texts often contain cultural information and attract reader's memorable reactions. A literary text is the real language in context. It offers exploration and discussion of content and also the examination of language. What you say and how you say it are closely related. And students come to understand and appreciate this. Literary texts provide examples of language resources, and the language learners use the language resources to fulfill their learning goals. i.e. contextually appropriate and linguistically graded, can be very helpful in allowing students to acquire insight into a culture. Moreover, literature teaching can provide the students with rich cultural background knowledge of different nations. It helps the students learn the history, politics, economy, people's habit, customs and moralities. The biggest obstacle in learning a second language is the unfamiliar culture it represents. Literature teaching can solve this problem in the environment of the learned language and can to some degree shorten the distance between the target language and language of the learners' own (Brumfit & Carter, 2000:p42).

B. The Application of Multi-media

The application of multi-media to language teaching and learning has provides teachers and students with abundant information of the target language that is taught as a L2 or foreign language. This has significant predominance over the traditional means of language education. For example, film and television make students have an opportunity to witness behaviors that are rarely found in texts. Scollon suggested that film is often one of the more current and comprehensive ways to encapsulate the look, feel, and rhythm of a culture. Film also connects students with language and cultural issues simultaneously, such as depicting conversational timing or turn-taking in conversation. At least one study showed that students achieved significant gains in overall cultural knowledge after watching videos from the target culture in the classroom (Hinkel, 2001:p184).

VII. CONCLUSION

To summarize, in this paper we have presented speculations and arguments concerning the definition of culture, the relationship between language and culture, and the importance of teaching culture in SLA. We have also provided some instructional strategies concerning culture acquisition in SLA/FLA. We think that learning a second or foreign language is not simply mastering the linguistic systems of a language, rather, it focuses on learning about the culture as a means of communication. Finally, we have to bear in mind the cautionary remark proposed by Hall that "it is necessary not only to study and understand foreign culture which underlies cross-cultural communication, but also to be aware of one's culture so as to learn more about how one's system works, about something useful and enlightening about oneself." (Wang Li fei 2000: p195). Culture and language are such closely interwoven facets in a society that the distinction of one would probably lead another to perdition. A learner cannot totally acquire a language without getting a full understanding of its culture. At the same time, it is inexpedient for those learners who attempt to get rid of his or her mother tongue or culture in the process of SLA/FLA, which means the vanishing of their identities in society.

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Between Statements and Actions: A Speech Act Analysis of President Buhari's Media Political Discourses

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Abstract—**The study of Buhari's statements on "jailing of more thieves," "rule of law should be subjected to national interest," and "being fair in federal appointments" seem not to have been approached from speech act perspective. As such, this paper analyses the** *locutionary acts, illocutionary acts*, **and the** *perlocutionary effects* **of Buhari's statements on the above subject matters. The data were obtained from the online version of Nigerian Dailies. Austin's speech acts theory serves as the theoretical framework for data analysis. The findings of the study reveal that Buhari's statement on "jailing of more thieves" is based on fact that he has already jailed some high-profile Nigerians since he was elected as the President of Nigeria. The findings of the study reveal the locutionary and illocutionary acts of Buhari's statements. The study also shows how Buhari's statements abided by or flouted Austinian felicity conditions. The perlocutionary effects of the statements were also identified.**

Index Terms—**locutionary acts, rule of law, felicity conditions, perlocutionary effects, national interest, Nigeria**

I. BACKGROUND

Pragmatics has provided approaches for analysing text and talk. Political speeches have received critical attention by pragmatists. For a statement to be tagged political, it must perform a political function and may or may not be uttered by a politician or public office holder (van Dijk, 1997). As such, it behooves politicians to issue press releases and/or make political statements on issues bordering on their constituencies or the polity generally. Buhari, the President of Nigeria, is not left out in this act. Speech act theory has been adopted in analysing different political discourses in Nigeria (cf. Krisagbedo, 2010) but Buhari's statements on "jailing of more thieves," "rule of law should be subjected to national interest," and "being fair in federal appointments" seem not to have been approached using speech acts theory.

On Saturday, the 18th day of August 2018, as Buhari returned from his ten day working vacation in London; he was asked what Nigerians should expect from him as he resumes office. The President replied, "Most Nigerians are expecting me to jail more of the thieves that brought economic problem to the country. I think is being expected of me and I will do it." In another event, Buhari on Sunday, 26th August 2018, in his address delivered at the opening of the 2018 Nigerian Bar Association Annual General Conference in Abuja, made a statement that attracted the reactions of many Nigerians. The President said, "The rule of law must be subject to the supremacy of the nation's security and national interest." He further stated, "Our apex court has had cause to adopt a position on this issue in this regard and it is now a matter of judicial recognition that; where national interest is threatened or there is likelihood of their being threatened, the individual rights of those allegedly responsible must take second place, in favour of the greater good of society." The claim made by the President that the rule of law is subject to national interest generated uproar amongst legal luminaries and citizens of Nigeria. Some refuted the statement (as reported in Asadu, 2018; Egbe, 2018) while Project-2019 (P2019) defended it.

More so, on Monday, the 17th day of September 2018, Buhari received a delegation of Akwa Ibom elders and leaders at the presidential villa. In one of his statements, Buhari opined, "I have taken note of your appreciation of appointments into the Federal Service from your state. I assure you that I shall continue to be fair and equitable in federal appointments to all states of the country." What Buhari meant here is that no state will be sidelined in federal appointments.

Daily, political leaders provide pragmatists with data for scholarly investigation. The above three political discourses of Buhari, obtained from the online version of Nigerian Dailies, will be analysed using speech act theory. The aims of this study are to identify the *locutionary acts, illocutionary acts*, and *perlocutionary effects* of these statements and to examine the above speeches of Buhari in order to ascertain whether the speeches are felicitous or infelicitous beginning from when he made the statements and the time of writing this research (October, 2018). In doing this, Austin's (1962) felicity conditions of sincerity, preparatory, executive and fulfilment will be employed. A review of speech acts and felicity conditions will be handled in the next section.

II. FRAMEWORK

Austin's (1962) work, *How to Do Things with Words,* opened a new area of linguistic research that is rooted in communicative competence and social function order than mere knowledge of linguistic rules as propagated by Chomsky (1957) in his *Syntactic Structures.* In as much as Austin is credited with the theory of speech acts, it was developed and organised by Searle (1969), a student of Austin. In this regard, Agbedo (2015, p. 306) opines, "While Austin's theory was open ended and Platonic, Searle systemized it, made it formal and Aristotelian, with a set of necessary and sufficient conditions, constitutive of a basic categorization of speech acts."

From the title of Austin's work, it is claimed that individuals perform an action with their utterances, hence the term *performatives*. Speech acts centres on identifying the intentions of the speaker. Being able to identify this intention requires both linguistic and communicative competence (Ndiribe, 2016) and such act could be "stating a fact, an opinion, confirming or denying something, making a prediction or request, asking a question, issuing an order, giving a permission, a piece of advice, making an offer, promise etc." (Agbedo, 2010, p. 47). Similarly, Agbedo (2015) notes that speech acts theory aims to do justice to the fact that even though words encode information, people do more things with words than just conveying information and when people convey information, they often convey more than their words encode. Essentially, just as phone and phonemes are units of analysis of phonetics and phonology respectively, morpheme and word for morphology and syntax, speech act is defined as the "basic minimal units of linguistic communication" (Searle, 1969, p. 16).

Austin (1961) draws a line between *constatives* and *performatives*. Constative, on the one hand, is the verity or falsity of an utterance while performative, on the other hand, is the action an utterance carries. Austin (1961) further notes that locutionary act is performed alongside illocutionary act because in every locutionary act, instances of promising, warning, committing, ordering, expressing an intention, among others, can be found. In illocutionary act, there is a force with "certain consequential effects upon the feelings, thoughts or actions of the audience, or of the speaker, or of other persons" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 285), which Austin calls perlocutionary. "In using a performative utterance, a person is not just saying something but is actually doing something if certain real-world conditions are met" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 285).

Nevertheless, the theory highlights three distinct levels of action beyond the utterance itself. These levels as were identified by Austin (1961) include: *locutionary act, illocutionary acts*, and *perlocutionary effect*. The locutionary act implies the act of saying something and the forms of the words uttered. On the other hand, illocutionary acts refer to the function of the words i.e. the purpose the speaker has in mind for making such utterances. Perlocutionary effect means the influence the words have on the hearer or decoder. For instance, when someone says "I pronounce you husband and wife", the sentence the person utters is the locutionary act. The force (based on context) which the statement carries to change the order of things is the illocutionary acts whereas the resultant effect of the statement which is changing the single state of the intending couple to a married state is the perlocutionary effect. Utterances have performative verbs such as 'to promise', 'to name', 'to pronounce,' which make the illocutionary force overt. These performative verbs give rise to five categories as highlighted by Austin; *verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives*, and *expositives*. Verdictives gives a verdict or an appraisal like 'He is worthy to be promoted. Exercitives, on the other hand, exercises powers by advising, warning, ordering etc. as in 'I declare you a terrorist.' Commissives are characterized by promising, announcing or making someone to execute an action as in 'I hereby declare…' The fourth category, behabitives, comprises issues like blessing, cursing, challenging or apologizing. The last category exposes one's intention (cf. Mey, 2001, Wardhaugh, 2010, Krisagbedo, 2010, Agbedo, 2015).

Later, Searle (1969) reclassified Austin's performatives into; *representation* (conveys a proposition that is believed to be true); *directive* (ordering, commanding or requesting); *commissives* (promising, vowing, pledging); *expressives* (apologizing, congratulating, appreciating); and *declarations* (pronouncing, betting, giving a verdict). Mey (2001) criticises the speech act verbs of Austin and Searle by asserting that it is not always the case that the verb 'promise' reflects in commissives. For example, the utterance: "I will be there" is a promise even though the speaker did not say, "I promise to be there." The criticisms Mey (2001) holds against speech acts necessitated his propounding of 'pragmatic acts,' which according to him has to do with action, situated speech, and direct and indirect speech acts.

One recurring feature of speech acts theory is context. Context determines the kind of interpretation that will be given to any utterance. Context is culture-specific. In this regard, Mey (2001, p. 94) notes:

> Asking how a particular communicative act functions in a particular society presupposes that we examine the *conditions* that hold for communication in that *society*. The language we use, and in particular the speech acts we utter, are entirely dependent on the *context* of the situation in which such acts are produced (italics ours).

This then implies that there are conditions that are stipulated by the society in analysing language use in different particular contexts. These conditions that are attached to speech acts are what Austin (1962) refers to as the felicity conditions. In other words, any successfully and appropriately performed speech act must have met the felicity conditions of sincerity, preparatory, executive and fulfilment. Any speech act that flouted these conditions, according to Austin (1962), is adjudged *infelicitous*. These conditions are discussed in section C of data analysis.

Austin's and Searle's contributions to speech acts theory have provided platform for analysing utterances in interactive events. The theory gains required attention and has been applied in different language situations. It awakens

the consciousness of interactants or interlocutors to know that their words have some actions they perform. As such, they should be conscious of what to say, when to say it, and how to say it (in order to achieve the required result).

In this paper therefore, the selected political discourses of Buhari will be subjected to the three-level analysis of *locutionary acts*, *illocutionary acts* and *perlocutionary effects*. The extent to which the discourses fulfilled the felicity conditions will also be examined.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

Here, the selected political discourses of President Buhari will be analysed based on the *locutionary acts* (the grammar of the language, i.e. the literal meanings of the structures), *the illocutionary acts* (the intentions of the speaker) and the *perlocutionary effects* (the effects of the locutionary and illocutionary on the decoders).

A. Locutionary Acts

Three political discourses of Buhari were selected for this study. These political discourses serve as the locutionary acts. They include:

1. "Most Nigerians are expecting me to jail more of the thieves that brought economic problem to the country. I think is being expected of me and I will do it."
2. "The rule of law must be subject to the supremacy of the nation's security and national interest." He further stated, "Our apex court has had cause to adopt a position on this issue in this regard and it is now a matter of judicial recognition that; where national interest are [sic] threatened or there is likelihood of their being threatened, the individual rights of those allegedly responsible must take second place, in favour of the greater good of society."
3. "I have taken note of your appreciation of appointments into the Federal Service from your state. I assure you that I shall continue to be fair and equitable in federal appointments to all states of the country."

The above utterances are typical political discourses because they were uttered by a politician (the President) and they play political functions. The locutionary acts highlight the intentions of Buhari, which are to continue his fight against corruption by jailing more thieves, his preference of national interest over rule of law, and his eagerness in being fair and equitable in federal appointments that will represent the federal character of Nigeria.

B. Illocutionary Acts of Buhari's Discourses

Illocutionary acts are what speakers do in line with their locutionary acts. Illocutionary acts are the force speakers apply to their locutionary acts in order to get the desired effects. Few weeks after President Buhari made the statement that he will jail more looters, on the 13th of October 2018, the Presidency placed a ban on 50 high-profile Nigerians who are accused of corruption because their assets are valued at fifty (50) million naira and above. Prior to the statement made by Buhari on jailing more thieves; Buhari, during the 2015 electioneering campaigns, had made the fight against corruption one of his campaign promises and agenda. In his anti-corruption war as the President, Buhari has implemented a number of policies like whistle blowing policy, the Treasury Single Account and the formation of the Presidential Advisory Committee against Corruption. His anti-corruption war made the Archbishop of Canterbury, Justin Welby to say that this particular President (Buhari) is not corrupt and he is trying very hard. The Treasury Single Account (TSA) as implemented in September 2015 demands that all Ministries, Departments and Agencies should remit all incomes, revenues and receipts of the Federal Republic of Nigeria to a single account (Adeolu, 2015). Former President Goodluck Jonathan initiated the TSA policy but lacked the courage to implement it because his administration was not transparent enough but it was fully implemented by Buhari because of his anti-corruption war (Jegede, 2015). In addition, as reported by the acting chairman of the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) in September 2017, about 15% of Diezani's loot has been recovered. Buhari, in his 2018 Independence Day speech, told Nigerians that the whistle blowing policy has helped Nigeria to recover over 500 billion naira.

Another action that has been performed by Buhari is his statement about jailing more thieves. For him to have said that he will jail more thieves means that he has jailed some thieves in the past. Information Nigeria (2018) on June 17 published a list of top politicians Buhari has sent to jail (although it resides with the Judiciary to send anyone to jail). Some of the persons that have been jailed by Buhari as enumerated by Information Nigeria (2018) are a former governor of Kaduna State, Mukhtar Ramalan Yero who was sent to Kaduna Convict Prison from May 31 to June 6, 2018 because of fraud. More so, a former governor of Plateau State, Jonah Jang spent eight days in Jos prison because of a 12-count charge of diverting 6.3 billion naira alongside a former cashier in the office of the Secretary to the State Government, Yusuf Pam. Another personality that was jailed was a former governor of Adamawa State, Bala James Ngilari. Ngilari was sent to five-year imprisonment in March 2017 for obtaining 25 vehicles worth N167 million naira for his commissioners without due process. A former governor of Taraba State, Jolly Nyame was convicted and sentenced to fourteen-year imprisonment for 1.64-billion-naira fraud. The former National Security Adviser, Colonel Sambo Dasuki has spent many months in detention over allegation of mismanagement of $2.1 billion meant for the purchase of arms. Oliseh Metuh, a former spokesman of PDP has been accused by EFCC of receiving N400 million naira from Sambo Dasuki. A list of persons that have been linked with Dasuki mismanagement (Dasukigate) of funds includes: Bello Halliru, Bello Sarkin, Mahmud Aliyu and Attahiru Bafarawa. This highlights some of the actions Buhari

has taken in his fight against corruption and desire to jail more looters. Some others like the former Chairman of People's Democratic Party (PDP), Adamu Mu'azu and the former Minister of Petroleum, Diezani Alison-Madueke are on self-exile.

In the second discourse used in this study where Buhari purported that the rule of law is subject to national interest, the actions of Buhari after the statement and before it suggest that what Buhari said reflected his position on the subject matter. The rule of law stipulates that no person is above the law. In other words, the laws as enshrined in the constitution must be obeyed by all and sundry.

The failure to obey court orders by the Presidency is another evidence of Buhari's stance on the supremacy of national interest over the rule of law. Olaniyan (2018) concurs that Buhari's flouts the rule of law as demonstrated by "the tendency to pick and choose which court orders it complies with." "This selective application of the rule of law," continues Olaniyan, "implies an agenda of delegitimizing the judiciary and perhaps, inadvertently, rendering it incapable of contributing to the anti-corruption fight." This neglect to court orders by the Presidency is seen once more in the case of Colonel Sambo Dasuki who was granted bail by the judiciary but was illegally detained for over two years.

Buhari's statement, "I shall continue to be fair in my federal appointments" have been backed up with ironical actions. The Federal Character Principle (FCP) in the third schedule of the 1999 constitution as amended states that all governmental institutions should fairly reflect the linguistic, religious, ethnic, and geographic diversity of the country. Section 318 (1) of the 1999 Constitution conceives federal character of Nigeria as "the distinctive desire of the peoples of Nigeria to promote national unity, foster national loyalty and give every citizen of Nigeria a sense of belonging to the nation as expressed in section 14 (3) of the Constitution". Buhari has been heavily criticised for his lopsided appointments where many key public offices are headed by northerners. Buhari made this statement on the 17th of September 2018. Three days before that day, Buhari replaced the acting Director-General of Department of State Service (DSS), Seiyefa, from Bayelsa state with Yusuf Magaji Bichi, from Kano State. After the appointment of Bichi as the new DSS boss, on his visit to Aso villa, the President was reported to have asked Bichi (a person he appointed) if he (Buhari) has met him before. This question posed by the President to Bichi reveals that nepotism overrides competence. Ikhide (2018) reports that the next six qualified individuals to replace Seiyefa are from the southern part of Nigeria. However, Buhari appointed a northerner that retired more than one year ago to head the DSS. Ikhide further remarks that this one-sided appointment occurs in military services where Air Force boss, Inspector General of Police, DG of DSS, Chief of Army Staff, Immigration, Civil Defence and Prison are all from the northern part of Nigeria. This nature of *fair* federal appointments is what Buhari promises to continue.

C. Felicity Conditions

As explained by Austin in his speech acts theory, every illocutionary act has a force that aids it to achieve the desired effects. In order for a speech act to produce the expected force, there are certain conditions, which it must fulfill. These conditions are sincerity, preparatory, executive, and fulfilment. An illocutionary act that fulfills these real world conditions is said to be felicitous whereas illocutionary act that flouts these conditions is said to be infelicitous.

The Sincerity Condition

The sincerity condition demands that a speaker should believe what he is saying and should show appropriate behaviour when called upon. The sincerity or veracity of Buhari's statement, "I will jail more thieves" cannot be verified because of its futuristic feature. As at the time of writing this research (14-20 October 2018), the attempt Buhari has made to fulfill the promise of jailing more thieves is the banning of fifty (50) high-profile Nigerians from travelling outside Nigeria. This ban is as a result of the accusations against these people over misappropriation of funds, embezzlement or involvement in one corrupt practice or the other. But if one wants to determine the sincerity of Mr. President, the previous efforts of Buhari to jail corrupt politicians can go a long way. The statement, "I shall jail more thieves" implies that there are people Buhari has jailed or detained in the past such as Dasuki, Jonah Jang, Oliseh Metuh among others. Judging based on the previous efforts of the President in jailing kleptomaniacs of Nigeria's resources and the ban of 50 high-profile Nigerians, it can be concluded that Buhari believed what he said. As such, his statement is adjudged to have obeyed the sincerity condition.

On the other hand, the President flouted the sincerity condition in his statement that the rule of law is subject to national interest. One of the key driving principles in a democratic state is the rule of law, which is enshrined in the constitution. In a statement made by the Chief Justice of Nigeria, Walter Onnoghen, he remarked that without the rule of law, the society is doomed. The supremacy of the rule of law over everything is captured in the quote of John Locke, "Where-ever law ends, tyranny begins" and that of Thomas Paine, "In free countries, the law ought to be king, and there ought to be no other." Thomas Sowell in one of his quote opines, "Politics is the art of making your selfish desires seem like the national interest." What Buhari failed to understand is that national interest comprises aligning to a common law that represents equity and fairness under the law. Ironically, five days after Buhari made that comment in front of lawyers and legislators, he said to the visiting German Chancellor, Angel Merkel, that he would always uphold the rule of law in governing the country. Ndukwe (2018) in reaction to the sincerity that could be discerned from Buhari's comments opines, "It is the stark reality of the banality of the president's stance, something he could neither defend nor promote before the civilised world that made him contradict himself before the German Chancellor." As such, Buhari flouted the sincerity condition.

Buhari's administration has come under heavy criticism in relation to the lopsidedness of his federal appointments based on FCP as stated in Section 318 (1) of the 1999 Constitution (as amended). The statement, "I shall continue to be fair in my federal appointment" suggests that the President has been fair and equitable in his federal appointments and wants to continue in this regard. This statement flouts the sincerity condition because the statement is unbelievable. Facts and figures are against the claim of Buhari that he has been fair in his appointments. Buhari replaced the former acting Director-General of DSS, Seiyefa, a southerner with a northerner, Bichi and also replaced the former Minister of Finance, Kemi Adeosun from South-West with Zainab Ahmed, a northerner. Similarly, these lopsided appointments occur in military services where virtually all the top officials are from the northern part of the country. The speech act of Buhari was not well-performed in relation to the sincerity condition.

Preparatory Condition

The preparatory condition stipulates that the performer of a speech act must be the appropriate person. The statement of Buhari that he will jail more thieves is inappropriate because it does not constitutionally lie on him to sentence anyone to jail. All adjudicatory functions reside with the judiciary. This statement by the President implies that the judiciary is not independent. The implicature of this statement does not entail recommending to Attorney General of Minister for Justice to take action. Instead, it appears to be a case of total control of the executive and the judiciary. This explains the reason behind the neglect of court orders by the Presidency. In the fight against corruption, the Economic and Financial Crimes Commission (EFCC) is charged with the duty of fishing out corrupt officials. More so, the claim by the President that the rule of law is subject to national interest is inappropriate. In a democratic nation like Nigeria, the President is not the only person to determine what constitutes national interest or not. The event at which the statement was made is also inappropriate. As observed by Ndukwe (2018), it is a monumental failure on the part of the Honourable Minister of Justice and Attorney-General of the Federation, Mr. Abubakar Malami SAN, for the President to be allowed to commit a gaffe on such matter of national and international concern. Lastly, the statement that he (Buhari) will continue to be fair in his federal appointments is appropriate on the one hand and inappropriate on the other. It is appropriate in the sense that the right to make federal appointments resides with the President with the approval of the Senate (in most cases). On the other hand, PDP's chieftains in Delta state, Sunny Onuesoke, claims that it is inappropriate in the sense that the statement was made by a man who has vindicated those who accused him of tribalism, nepotism, sectionalism, and religious bigotry.

Executive Condition

Executive condition states that in order for one to successfully do things with words, what is said must tally with stipulated objectives and facts. As such, President Buhari's statement, "I will jail more looters" was properly executed when viewed from the aspect that his government has vowed to fight corruption. This fight has led to the introduction of Treasury Single Account and Whistle-Blowing policies. On the other hand, the statement on the rule of law being subject to national interest runs counter to the dictates of the Constitution, which upholds the rule of law over national interest (Asadu, 2018). In as much as Buhari in his inaugural address on 29th May 2015 said that he belonged to everybody and nobody, his actions as they concern federal appointments, made the statement, "I will continue to be fair in my federal appointment," flout the executive condition.

Fulfilment Condition

Every speech act, in line with Austin's performatives, is aimed towards performing an action. The fulfilment condition examines the level to which the speech act was successfully performed. The timeline for the fulfilling this statement is the end of Buhari's first tenure and possibly the end of his second tenure. But the timeline used in this research is towards the end of his first tenure. As at the time of writing this paper, Buhari has not 'jailed' anyone except that he banned 50 high-profile Nigerians from travelling outside the country and thirty-four out of the 50 names have been unveiled by *The Nation*. From the thirty-four names, *The Nation* revealed, included 13 former governors and seven ex-ministers. After the statement that the rule of law is subject to national interest, Buhari has not acted in line with what he said. On the contrary, five days after he made the statement, he contradicted himself by telling Angel Merkel that he (Buhari) would always uphold the rule of law governing the country. On the other hand, a key appointment Buhari has made after his speech on being fair in his appointment was to replace former Minister of Women Affairs and Social Development, Aisha Alhassan, who resigned on 30th September 2018 with Aisha Abubakar, the Minister of State for Industry and Investment as acting Minister of Women Affairs. This is in contrast with replaying Seiyefa from Bayelsa with Bichi from Kano State as DSS chief. It seems that Buhari did not tergiversate from his appointment ideology. Maybe what he meant by being 'fair' in his federal appointments was to cede appointing people from other parts of Nigeria aside the north into federal positions. However, since there have not been further appointments made by the President after the statement, the fulfilment of the speech act cannot be ascertained.

D. Perlocutionary Effects

The last level in the three-level analysis of speech acts is the perlocutionary effects. That is, the influence that the force of the locutionary and illocutionary acts has on people. The timeline of effects employed in this research is from the time the statements were made and mid-October 2018. In this regard, we will examine the reactions of Nigerians to the political discourses made by Buhari.

One of the first persons to react to Buhari's statement of jailing more thieves is the former Deputy National Publicity Secretary of the All Progressives Congress (APC), Timi Frank, who took the statement as a threat to Nigerians. Frank

equally noted that Nigeria is a democratic state, which demands that a recognised and skilled court must find an accused guilty before sending the person to prison. Timi Frank also challenged Buhari to start his jailing spree with the members of his party (APC) who have stolen Nigeria's common wealth at all levels. He concluded that the President does not have the right to jail anybody because Nigeria is not in military rule. A former governor of Akwa Ibom State, Victor Attah, as reported by Adeniji (2018), has urged Buhari to rescue the kidnapped Christian Dapchi schoolgirl, Leah Sharibu, as he (Buhari) moves to jail more looters.

Prior to this statement made by Buhari to jail more looters, there have been commendations on the anti-corruption war by the President on the one hand and hues and cries on the other. As reported by Nwachukwu (2018), the United Nations Secretary-General, Antonio Guterres has commended Buhari for his anti-laundering efforts, which have seen funds returned. In the same vein, the French ambassador to Nigeria, Dennis Guaer remarked that Buhari is now popular with his anti-corruption war and it appears as a historical effort to fight corruption (Oyibode, 2016). Amidst these international commendations, the former Prime Minister of America (David Cameron) has referred to Nigeria as a 'fantastically corrupt' country and comments like 'shithole' and 'lifeless' have been uttered by the United States' President, Donald Trump.

From the local scene, the anti-graft war led by President Buhari has attracted a lot of reactions from Nigerians. Anele (2018) opines that "it is undeniable that in the on-going war against corruption, Muhammadu Buhari is not really eager to beam the searchlight on his loyalists, cronies and rapaciously corrupt politicians who contributed significantly to his electoral victory in 2015." He further claims that the insincere prosecution of Senate President, Bukola Saraki, by the Code of Conduct Tribunal and the suspension of Secretary to the Government of the Federation, Babachir Lawal were probably meant to mislead gullible Nigerians that anti-corruption programme is not discriminatory. The concern of Olaito (2018) is that the war against corruption must not be focused on individuals based on religious and ethnic cleansing or just to settle a score or two. Rather, the war should be fought with equity and clean hands. This implies that it appears that APC has become a strong tower where corrupt personalities run to and are saved.

The statement that the rule of law is subject to national interest also had its effects on Nigerians. Egbe (2018) reports that Wole Soyinka has criticised Buhari's statements by saying, "Here we go again! At his first coming, it was 'I intend to tamper with the Freedom of the Press' and Buhari did proceed to suit action to the words, sending two journalists Irabor and Thompson to prison as a reward for their professional integrity." The Nobel Laureate added, "The Rule of Law, however, outlasts all subverters, however seemingly powerful. If the consequence for society in defence of the Rule of Law were not so costly, any new attempt would have merely banal and boring, hardly deserving of attention. We know, historically, where it will end." Those who share the same thoughts with Soyinka are Ozekhome, SAN and Prof. Ojukwu, SAN. In reaction to Buhari's comment, Ozekhome retorted that "…without rule of law, there can be no nation state and without nation state, there can be no national interest." In the same vein, as reported by Nnochiri (2018), Prof. Ojukwu opined, "It is unfortunate that our President made that speech. If our President says that the rule of law must be subject to national interest, then it is an ominous sign that our democracy has failed." Another Senior Advocate of Nigeria, Abney Mohammed decried the statement of Buhari saying, "What is national interest that rule of law must be sacrificed for? A country without rule of law is a lawless jungle. It is the first time in our jurisprudence that I will hear a President complaining that the rule of law must give way for national interest."

Contrary to the above position, a civil society organisation, Project-2019 (P2019), rallied their support for the President by asserting the President's statement on national interest is legal and constitutional. They based their position on the premise that rule of law can only exist when security and national interest are assured in a place where there are peace and decorum.

Following the criticisms against Buhari on his statement that he will continue to be fair in his appointment, the Minister of Information and Culture, Lai Mohammed in his visit to the headquarters of Channels Television in Lagos defended that Buhari's appointments are not lopsided because those proposing equilibrium and federal character should focus on the overall appointments made by Buhari and the state of origin of those occupying governmental positions. Many Nigerians have criticised Buhari for not taking federal character into consideration during his appointments. As stipulated in Section 14 (3), public offices at the federal level should be evenly allocated in such a fashion that eschews partisan and promotes federal character. Anele (2018) bemoans the neglect of federal character by Buhari by asserting that he sees himself first as the President of the northern part of Nigeria and not as the President of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. This then implies that in practice, Buhari has shown that his statement, "I belong to everybody and I belong to nobody" should be discarded based on his latter statement, "I hope you have a copy of the election results. The constituents, for example, who gave me 97% [of the vote] cannot, in all honesty, be treated on some issues with constituencies that gave me 5%."

IV. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we have examined how Buhari did things with words by adopting the three-level analysis of Austin's speech acts theory. Three locutionary acts of Muhammadu Buhari, which centered on his eagerness to jail more thieves, preference of national interest over rule of law and issues bordering on federal appointments were studied. The study revealed that these three locutionary acts are typical political discourses because they were uttered by a politician and they perform political functions. As these discourses were subjected to illocutionary acts analysis, that is, discovering

what Buhari does with his words, the research discovered that many high-profile Nigerians have been jailed under Buhari's administration because of corruption-related offences. More so, the actions of the Presidency to choose the court orders it obeys, and a kind of act that should be regarded as terrorism, suggest that Buhari is yet to key into the democratic process of Nigeria. In addition, there is no connection between the statement of Buhari on being fair in his appointments and his actions. Buhari, through his lopsided appointments, has shown that he is the President of northern Nigeria as he continually flouts the federal character principle in his appointments.

Furthermore, in order to ascertain whether Buhari's speech acts have the expected force to achieve the desired effects, they were subjected to the felicity conditions of sincerity, preparatory, execution, and fulfilment. The analysis revealed that Buhari in the two locutionary acts flouted the sincerity conditions because rule of law is above national interest and that Buhari is not fair enough in his appointments, at least judging by the denotative meaning of 'fairness.' It was discovered that Buhari flouted the preparatory condition in his first locutionary act because all adjudicatory functions reside with the judiciary. In other words, the President has no power to jail anybody. On the other hand, it is surprising that a President of a democratic state who was elected through rule of law will posit that national interest is above rule of law. This unexpected statement from the President in front of legal luminaries and Senior Advocates of Nigeria violates the preparatory conditions. Buhari's statement to jail more looters when viewed from his anti-graft war was properly executed because fighting corruptions is one of the objectives of the Buhari-led administration. On the contrary, other statements were not properly executed. Due to the futuristic nature of Buhari's statements, they are yet to be fulfilled. These statements have generated a lot of reactions and responses from Nigerians. These reactions are what constitute the perlocutionary effects of Buhari's locutionary acts on Nigerians. Whereas some people criticised the President over his statements, others supported and defended him.

From the analysis, it is clear that there are communication deficits in Buhari's statements where statements run counter to the actions being performed. This seems to have made some Nigerians to lose faith in the promises and words of the President because of his ambivalence. After Atiku was declared as the presidential candidate of PDP in the 2019 general elections, Festus Keyamo, a strong supporter of Buhari on his Twitter handle welcomed Atiku to the presidential race and opined that it is a case of corruption (Atiku) and credibility (Buhari). This tweet attracted a lot of comments by many Nigerians, which x-rays Nigerian's faithlessness on Buhari. In conclusion, Buhari must reinvent himself in order to reignite the hope that made him to be elected in 2015 by fulfilling his campaign promises.

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Linguistic Landscape for Korean Learning: A Survey of Perception, Attitude, and Practice of Korean Beginners at a Korean University

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Abstract—**This study aimed to investigate the perception of, attitude to and practice of linguistic landscape for Korean learning among the international Korean beginners. A questionnaire as a self-assessment instrument was given to a group of 41 international university students with lower Korean language proficiency studying in a Korean university. The descriptive statistics indicated that for perception, although they pay attention to English the most, they could also notice Korean and Romanized Korean on the linguistic landscape (LL). They are positive to the LL as authentic input for Korean learning in terms of attitude. What is more, they could use the LL to enhance their Korean learning particularly in practicing pronunciation and enriching vocabulary, with relatively less practice on grammar checking. This study attested the previous studies concerning the LL as an authentic source for language learning on the one hand, and on the other hand, it showed that even without guidance from the teachers in formal settings, the students could also spontaneously use the LL to learn the Korean language in natural settings.**

Index Terms—**linguistic landscape, Korean language learning, perception, attitude, practice, input**

I. INTRODUCTION

Linguistic landscape (LL hereafter) is an emerging field of applied linguistics focusing on language(s) "displayed and exposed in public spaces" (Shohamy & Gorter, 2009, p.1). It is originally termed by Landry & Bourhis's seminal study in 1997 and specifically refers to various written language appears in "public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings in a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration" (Landry & Bourhis 1997, p.25). Since then, a great number of scholars exhibit special interest in it and incorporate it into a wide range of theories and disciplines, containing and not limited in language policy, semiotics, literacy studies, applied linguists, communication, politics, sociology, anthropology, geography, urban studies, economics, architecture, as well as education (Shohamy & Gorter, 2009; Van Mensel et al., 2016).

In the arena of education, the LL is bestowed theoretically with a special function as an out-of-classroom and additional input in language education particularly in second or foreign language learning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008; Gorter, 2018). Numerous studies (Dagenais et al., 2009; Clemente, Andrade & Martins, 2012; Sayer, 2010; Rowland, 2013) have been conducted to attest to it as a legitimate source in enhancing language learning. However, it should be noted that the existing studies were conducted in classroom settings with formal language learners who were provided with systematic language instruction. And for those who often encounter the LL in the natural settings and who lack formal language instruction, what is their perception of the LL and to what extent will they use the LL to enrich their language learning is rarely touched.

In South Korea, by April 1, 2019, the number of registered international students in higher education has reached 160,165 (Min-seo & Kim, 2019). These students hold various Korean proficiency studying in this country: some with little Korean (but required to attend the language center to gain formal language training for further study), some with intermediate to advanced proficiency (holders of TOPIK 4 or above) (are following the syllabus of the universities). In addition to those who may potentially be proficient Korean users and those who are already proficient ones, there is a special group in which some students are pursuing their master's or doctor's degree in certain universities. They were admitted into universities via English language proficiency (TOEFL or IELTS) but not Korean. In other words, they are advanced users of English but their Korean proficiency is low or very basic, which may be a big challenge for them to study or live inside or outside campus where Korean is the dominant language.

In this paper, we will focus on this "weak" group who are immersing themselves in a new language environment and simultaneously are striving to learn the target language (mainly by self-learning without formal training) in the

university where the author studies. From the perspective of the LL as input for language learning, we hope to find out what their perception of the LL is and how they will make use of the LL for their Korean language learning. A survey will be conducted among a group of international students of various disciplines studying at a South Korean University. By discovering their attitudes and views to the LL, we also keep a hope that this case study can contribute to verifying the role of the LL as authentic input in the international students' language learning process in natural situations. In the paper, we will first review the literature of the LL pertaining to language learning, followed by a survey in the form of a questionnaire. After that results and discussion will be presented.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The exploration of perception regarding the LL in general education settings can be dated back to Landry & Bourhis's (1997) seminal work on linguistic landscape. In that study, questionnaires about the perception of the LL were given to a group of about 2000 Francophone secondary education students in Canada. The result indicated that the LL could be perceived as "the most salient marker" (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p.45) showing ethnolinguistic vitality from the subjective perspective. In addition to perception, attitude and preference of the LL were added to Cenoz & Gorter's (2011) study with a total of 191 university students in the Basque Country (Spain) and Friesland (the Netherlands). It was found that the students in these two multilingual areas perceive the LL varied as more bilingual (in the Basque Country) or as more monolingual (in Friesland). In the same vein, Chestnut, Lee & Schulte (2013) used a narrative methodology to discover the perceptions of three undergraduate students engaged in a linguistic landscape project. They also found that the students, by noticing the linguistic patterns of urban signs, came to have a new perspective on the linguistic environment.

In terms of the LL in the context of second language acquisition (SLA), Gorter & Cenoz (2004) asked more specific questions such as 'How is the linguistic landscape perceived by L2 users?', 'What is the role of the linguistic landscape as an additional source of language input in SLA?' and furthermore 'What attitudes do these L2 users have towards the linguistic landscape?'. They concluded that the LL or parts of the LL can potentially influence our knowledge about language and language use. Furthermore, they theoretically analyze such roles of the LL as providing an additional source of input, developing pragmatic competence, literacy skills, as well as multicompetence and reflecting symbolic and affective functions (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008).

A theoretic analysis is by no means sufficient to convince the practitioners. For the real application of the LL in the pedagogy, Sayer(2010) did an LL-related project in Oaxaca (Mexico) with his students who investigated the purposes, intended audiences and different meanings of English on signs in a Spanish dominant environment. In this study, the LL was regarded as a pedagogical resource so that the students could learn to connect the language in the street to the language in the classroom. Similarly, Malinowski (2010) collaborated English learners in Korea with Korean learners at a university in the US via a virtual website to discuss Korean-English images from signs in the LL. It is positive that the LL can foster the learners' reading abilities, develop their fluency in the target language and enhance their motivation by using real places and activities. And not coincidentally, in an EFL setting of a Japanese university, Rowland (2013) researched with a bunch of 27 students who were asked to collect photos in the public and analyze English used on the signs by answering 'How and why is English used on signs in Japan?'. This study verified that pedagogical linguistic landscape projects can benefit EFL students in developing their symbolic skills and critical literacy skills, especially from authentic and contextualized multilingual input.

After reviewing the available research particularly the ones by Sayer (2010), Malinowski (2010) and Rowland (2013) (and of course many more not listed in this paper), we could find that whatever level the students were in, they benefited from participating certain LL-related research. In other words, it is with the instructor's mediation through the LL that the learners "can make intentional use of the relevant aspects of their linguistic environment" (Kim, 2017, p.69). While for the learners who have no guidance from their teachers and lack systematic language training, particularly the international students immersing in a new environment to strive to study and live, the issues of what is their perception of, attitude to and practice of the LL in their natural and informal language learning need to be further explored. Focusing on a small group of international students in a Korean university, this study aims to touch the following three research questions.

(1) What language will the international students pay attention to more (most)?
(2) What is their attitude toward the LL as authentic input to learn the Korean language?
(3) What do they do with the LL to aid their Korean language learning?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

Due to limited access to approaching more international students, the authors only got the permission of 47 international students. Among whom there were 6 high-proficient Korean users, who are considered invalid sources, and therefore were excluded in this study. Eventually the participants in this study were 41 international students who enrolled in a Korean university (for limited access to involving). There were 25 males and 16 females aging from 20 to 42. They are from different countries, among them were 20 Chinese, 5 Vietnamese, 4 Pakistani, 4 Uzbek, 3 Indian, 2

Bangladesh, 1 Irani, 1 Japanese as well as 1 Russian. They went to this university to pursue a master's or doctor's degree and had various academic backgrounds including mechanics, bioscience, electronics, and English linguistics, etc.

Though different in backgrounds concerning gender, nationality, age, specialty, or degrees, they had similar language proficiency in common. In other words, on the one hand, they were high-proficient English users in that English was required in their master or doctor application and accordingly is their main medium of instruction in the study. On the other hand, they were low-proficient Korean users since they paid no or little attention to the Korean language study before going to this university. What is worse, since they studied and lived in a Korean dominant environment, it is inevitable for them to suffer the "headache" of language problems although nearly all of them learned Korean all by themselves or attended to language centers irregularly. However, admittedly, they were exposed to an atmosphere where both oral and visual Korean language were available from various sources and may aid their Korean learning to a certain degree.

B. Instrument

For this small-scale case study, a questionnaire was adopted as the main instrument for quantitative research. The questionnaire was developed by the two authors on the basis of the reviews of the literature pertaining to perception, attitude, and practice of the LL used as an additional source for language learning. The questionnaire consisted of two parts, one of which was the demographic information, and the other of which included 12 questions regarding their perception, attitude, and practice of the LL. All the questions were measured by a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 point (strongly disagree) to 5 points (strongly agree). Table one is detailed information about the questionnaire. It should be noted that since all the subjects were newcomers of lower Korean proficiency, all the questions were simple and basic especially for language practice (which only included the level of pronunciation, word, grammar, and general information gaining), which are shown in Table 1.

TABLE I.
TOPICS AND QUESTIONS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Topic	Question
Perception	I often see the LL (signages, road names, shop names, posters, notice, etc.) around.
	I read the Korean language more than other languages.
	I read the English language more than other languages.
	I read the Romanized Korean (e.g. Daehak-ro for 대학로) more than other languages.
Attitude	I think long and complicated Korean LL waste my time.
	I think long and complicated Korean LL is difficult for me to understand.
	I think the Korean language on the LL is an authentic input to enhance my Korean learning.
Practice	I spontaneously use the Korean language on the LL to practice my pronunciation of Korean when I see it.
	I spontaneously use the Korean language on the LL to enrich my vocabulary of Korean when I see it.
	I spontaneously use the Korean language on the LL to check my grammar understanding of Korean when I see it.
	I read the LL to get information.
	I use an electronic dictionary or translation apps to help me understand the information.

C. Procedure

Exemplified by many scholars, pilot test is with remarkable magnitude in the refinement of questionnaires previous to formal survey in order to examine potential errors and enhance validity (Churchill, 1979; Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Due to the reason that errors might be related to the layout and question clarity, the primary purpose of pilot study is to acquire advice from respondents with respect to the design of questionnaires so that the completion of survey in the future study will be simplified and the bias can be lessened.

In order to validate the selection of the proper instruments measuring the perception, attitude and practice of LL by Korean language beginners, the author of the current study did a pilot test with a small number of 10 international undergraduates from the same university. The respondents were asked to help the author test the validity and reliability of the items included in the questionnaire, and more importantly, reduce ambiguous or misleading attributes to achieve comprehensive understanding of the questionnaire and improve the level of relevancy and accuracy. Afterwards, the questionnaire was refined accordingly and sent to the third author and one extra EFL professors for validity verification. The final refined paper-and-pencil questionnaires were then distributed to the target 41 participants with their consent and acknowledgment that their responses to the questionnaire will only be used for academic purposes in this study and all the demographic information will be kept in confidential. After data collection, the collected data were input manually into SPSS Statistics 24 for further descriptive analysis.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study concentrated on the low-proficient international students, who were accordingly the only specific group without comparing with other groups. Therefore, the results were shown in descriptive statistics by comparing with the pre-set 5-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree=2, Neutral=3, Agree=4, and Strongly Agree=5).

A. What Language Will the International Students Pay Attention to More (Most)?

In South Korea, languages on the LL include different languages including Korean, English, Chinese, and Japanese, etc. In this study, considering the background of the international students and the prevalence of languages, only three commonly used language forms were included, namely the official language Korean, the Romanized version of Korean, and the lingua franca English (Crystal, 2003).

In general, as is indicated in Table 2, these 41 international students agreed that they could often see the LL with a mean score of 3.71. Based on the visibility of the LL, their perception of the languages on the LL varied from the highest of reading English (M=3.61) to the lowest of reading Romanized Korean (M=2.54). It should be noted that their perception of English exceeded the average line of 3 points, indicating that English was the language that they paid attention to the most. In contrast, Korean (M=2.80) gained relatively lower attention, followed by the Romanized Korean (M=2.54), the lowest.

TABLE II.
PERCEPTION OF LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE

Perception	Mean (SD) N=41
See the LL	3.71(.844)
Read Korean	2.80(1.269)
Read English	3.61(1.159)
Read Romanized Korean	2.54(.977)

Statistically, English was paid the most attention among the three language forms. However, it is easy to understand why it was so. For these international students living and studying in a foreign country, English was the main tool for them to communication and study, and when there was no mother tongue available, English automatically became the only choice. In this study, English on the LL could not be regarded as a source of language learning since they were already high-level English users. The only possibility for them to focus on English on the LL is to get information (to solve practical problems like getting the name of a road or a shop, to get informed of warning or notice, etc.) which is confirmed by the result demonstrated in Table 4 where there was a high score on reading the LL to get information (M=3.61).

Though relatively low in the perception of Korean and Romanized Korean, it does not mean the LL could not be a source for Korean learning. Gorter & Cenoz (2015), by broadening the differentiation between an informative and a symbolic function of the LL (Landry & Bourhis, 1997), classified the languages or subject content on the LL as an informative function. In other words, through the process of getting information on the LL, the perceivers can automatically acquire language. Hence, it is reasonable to say that the international students in this study could use the LL as a potential source of language learning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008), in way of "incidental learning" (Kim, 2017, p.69).

B. What Is Their Attitude toward the LL as Authentic Input to Learn the Korean Language?

The attitude towards the use of the LL as authentic input for Korean learning is on the following consideration. If the students do not deny the use of long and complicated Korean LL, it can lead to a reasonable conclusion that they will definitely be positive to such short and simple ones as road name signs, notices, or shop name signs. Therefore, in this survey, these international students were provided the questions in terms of the length and complicacy of the LL.

Table 3 shows their attitudes to long and complicated LL. It is clear that, for these students, they had a high agreement with the difficulties of long and complicated LL (M=3.71). However, they were more tolerant of the time spent in reading long and complicated LL (M=2.71). As such, their attitude to the LL as input for Korean learning went over the average line, reaching a relatively high point (M=3.51).

TABLE III.
ATTITUDES TOWARDS LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE

Attitude	Mean (SD) N=41
Korean waste time	2.71(1.006)
Korean difficult	3.71(.929)
Authentic input	3.51(.771)

For the low-proficient Korean users, it is not surprising to feel difficult in reading long and complicated LL. However, it is surprising that they did not think reading such LL would waste their time. This can be possibly explained by drawing into the use of an electronic dictionary or translation apps. As a result, when asked the general attitude to the use of the LL as authentic input for language learning, they acted positively. This finding is in line with the previous studies by Gorter & Cenoz (2004) and Cenoz & Gorter (2011), which surely proves the possibility of the LL for Korean learning from the perspective of attitude.

C. What Do They Do with LL to Aid Their Korean Language Learning?

Taking into account the fact that these international students were newcomers in an unfamiliar environment with lower Korean ability, this study did not cover such topics that Cenoz & Gorter (2008) suggested as pragmatic

competence or multi-competence but included very basic linguistic abilities in terms of pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar. Besides, the purpose of their noticing the LL and the strategy of using the electronic dictionary or translation apps were included for self-assessment.

Table 4 presents the results of what they did when paying attention to the LL. It is clear that from the linguistic perspective, they made more use of the LL to practice pronunciation (M=3.39) and enrich the vocabulary (M=3.17); however, checking grammar was relatively low (M=2.88). In terms of the function or purpose of their reading the LL, they showed a high agreement that they read the LL to get information (M=3.61). What is more, electronic dictionary or translation apps play a very important role in their reading of the LL (M=3.90).

TABLE Ⅳ.
PRACTICE OF THE LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE IN LEARNING

Practice	Mean (SD)
	N=41
Practice pronunciation	3.39(.082)
Enrich vocabulary	3.17(.834)
Check grammar	2.88(.812)
Get information	3.61(.833)
Use Dictionary	3.90(1.068)

The features of the Korean language may explain the different degrees to the practice of the LL. First, Korean is a phonogram which means that each character corresponds to a specific sound so that it is easier for the speakers to manage abundant sounds of a language. Therefore, it is natural for any learners in Korea to follow the phonogram to practice their pronunciation. As to vocabulary, there are many loanwords in Korean vocabulary borrowing from other languages, when noticing the LL, it is possible for these international students to compare or associate a Korean word with their native language or English. On the contrary, the lower score of grammar checking may be due to the relatively complex Korean grammar system where there are language peculiar particles, changeable verb endings and various connectors, which of course, could be a headache for these new Korean beginners.

Different from the previous studies reviewed where the LL as mediation in certain experiments to facilitate language-related study, this study was more a self-assessment of these lower proficiency Korean users. The simple and basic questions regarding the practice of pronunciation, increasing vocabulary, and grammar learning were by no means a summary of their practice with the LL. In other words, their performance with LL made the LL in fact as an effective way of their language learning. What is more, by using electronic dictionary or translation apps to deal with difficulties on LL, they could extend and consolidate their instant Korean learning.

V. CONCLUSION

With a simple and basic questionnaire, this study portrayed a general view of the Korean language learning situation of a particular group of international students. The descriptive statistics from their self-assessment uncovered that first they noticed the LL around them and paid attention to English the most, followed by Korean and Romanized Korean which could be a potential source for their Korean learning. Their positive attitude to the LL as authentic input was also confirmed. What is more, in terms of linguistic ability, they frequently made use of the LL to practice pronunciation, enrich their Korean vocabulary and at times checked their Korean grammar.

Admittedly, this study is small-scaled with a limited number of participants involved. However, just because of the availability of admission for international students with certain English language to South Korean universities, this so-called "weak" group exists in nearly every Korean university and they cannot be neglected. This study, for practical use, opened a door to perceive how these students made use of LL in their Korean language learning. At the same time, for theoretical use, this study contributed to verifying the previous studies about the use of LL in language learning. Again, it should be noted that this study was conducted in an informal setting where no language teachers mediated with an LL-related treatment or help. The result showed that in natural settings, the international students, who were seen as "weak" in studying and living in a totally unfamiliar environment could also survive themselves in the language aspect by using the LL as an additional and useful tool.

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Research on Junior High School English Reading Class Based on the Principle of Timing and Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning

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Abstract—**Thorndike was a famous American psychologist in the early 20th century. Based on the hungry cat box experiment, he proposed three famous learning laws in 1911: The Law of Readiness, the Law of Exercise and the Law of Effect. With the reform of contemporary education -- the rise of quality-oriented education and the popularity of task-based teaching, Thorndike's three Laws of Learning have played an important theoretical support for our contemporary research. At the same time, we also see a huge research prospect and correlation between educational psychology and English teaching methods. This paper intends to study the efficiency and interesting teaching of a junior English reading class, and solve the research problems caused by the combination of Thorndike's three Laws of Learning and the principle of timing. By using the methods of questionnaires and interview, the author collected the effective data and information concerning high efficiency and interesting learning in junior high school English reading class.**

Index Terms—**Thorndike's three laws of learning, the principle of timing, teaching reading**

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, in the 21st century, with the development of task-based teaching method and increasing popularity of well-rounded education, many theories in educational psychology were found to apply in our teaching class of junior high school. These theories have large research prospect, which can enlighten today's English teaching. What's more, the ultimate aim of educational psychology research is to put into practice, proving the effectiveness on the theory, and to give teachers some instructions and inspirations, combining with teaching methodology. However, the researches to put these theories into English learning class of junior high school seems scarce, let alone Thorndike's Three Law of Learning. This study will focus on providing efficient and interesting inspiration, as well as the adjustment between actual teaching and students' expectations for today's junior high school English reading classes, combining Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning with the principle of timing, according to relevant theories and students' actual expectations. Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning own great research value. And the principle of timing is not just one aspect, but need to run through the whole English class, which should be included in teaching rhythm, teaching instruction, feedback, etc. Combining the two, the scope of the research can be more extensive and the content of the research is more substantial. It is hoped that the author's research will be helpful to the teaching of English reading class in junior middle school.

II. THE BACKGROUND OF STUDY

A. Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning

Thorndike is the first American psychologist to systematically discuss educational psychology, who did pioneering work in many areas of education. By the end of the 19th century, Thorndike was conducting a number of animal experiments. The most famous of these was an experiment in which the hungry cat learned how to get food out of their cages. In addition, based on these experiments, Thorndike proposed three laws: Law of Readiness, Law of Exercise, and Law of Effect. Although these theories maintain some flaws, there is still much worth studying.

Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning cover many fields. Nevin (1999) applied the law of effect in the notion of a bond in chemistry area to conclude that the magnitude of satisfaction is consistent with current research on resistance to change. Santos (2018) found that as behaviors that lead to reinforcement tend to be repeated more often, the neural activity patterns that lead to reinforcement are re-entered more frequently based on the law of effect. The problems can be that no researcher is involved in the field of teaching, and the amount of research has been decreasing since the 21st century.

It is worth mentioning that, in China, there are many researches and applications of Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning in teaching. Lihua Fang (2011) pointed out the significance of Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning and gave

some ideas on English teaching. What's more, Shuzhi Geng (2013) echoed the idea of that we need to pay more attention to Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning and put forward some enlightenment. There are still some essays discussing about the English teaching, combined with the three laws. We can see that Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning can shine in the teaching field, and combined with the teaching methodology will be more helpful for teaching.

B. Law of Readiness with Principle of Timing—Good Preparation and Motivation

With the combination of Law of Readiness and principle of timing, if students are well prepared, they can fully participate in activities in class, and they will be satisfied. Instead, when students are well prepared but there are no activities, they will feel anxious. In addition, no preparation and compulsive activities will make students anxious, too (Chen & Liu, 2018). In addition, Thorndike's preparation is the preparation of motivation (Ma, 2001). It can be proved that the preparation of motivation is significant. Harmer (1998) pointed out some causes of motivation and reported that motivation plays an indispensable role in starting a class.

With the principle of time, we need to generate the motivation before class, which is called "preview". Considered the interest and the efficiency in class, teachers should design pre-class tasks and activities carefully. Miaoying Chen (2020) concludes some rough suggestions about how to preview, which inspire me to put the theory into practice.

C. Law of Exercise with Principle of Timing—Exercise in Class and after Class

With the combination of Law of Exercise and principle of timing, the repetition of a learned response will enhance the stimulus-response connection, known as the S-R connection. The more the connection is practiced and used, the stronger it becomes. Instead, it gets weaker (Chen & Liu, 2018). Combined the principle of timing, repeated and timely practice, not only during the class but also after the class, can improve the efficiency of reading classes and students' interest in learning. The problem is how to order the activities during the class and the homework after class. Xinli Cha (2017) explains disadvantages of current practice and design strategies and gives some tips on how to overcome them.

D. Law of Effect with Principle of Timing—Error Correction

With the combination of Law of Effect and principle of timing, Qi Chen and Rude Liu (2018) gives the concrete explanation about Law of Effect that behaviors which produce satisfying results in a given situation tend to occur repeatedly in that situation. In a situation where an action is followed by a satisfactory change, the likelihood of the action being repeated in a similar situation increases. If not, it will be less likely. Therefore, combined with principle of timing and English reading class, we need to focus on the error correction in class and our correction should be timely.

As for the error correction, Harmer (1998) first gives a comprehensible explanation of why do students make mistakes. In addition, Corder (1967) said that no matter how hard we try, there is always bias. Qiang Wang (2006) further explains how to choose the type of correction. Jingru Wang (2020) looks at more concrete interpretations in English classroom error correction study, through further research, summarizes the four principles. The above theory provides a very comprehensive basis for error correction, however, these theories did not explore one of the specific English classes, and also did not explore the current situation of error correction in junior high schools. These gaps are worthy of the further study.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN AND FINDINGS

A. Research Objects

This study carried out questionnaire investigation to junior high school students who accepted the new English syllabus and engaged in a certain number of reading classes. The author took 133 junior high school students as satisfactory samples from the research objects to reflect the real classroom situation and students' expectation. A total of 133 questionnaires were collected on the professional online questionnaire platform called SO JUMP. All the 133 respondents were effective subjects, and the effective rate was 100%. And the 133 students came from four different classes.

B. Research Methods

At the end of April, the author established the project of "Research on Junior High School English Reading Class Based on the Principle of Timing and Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning". In order to explore the efficiency and interest of English reading class, the author sent the online questionnaire to the respondents in SO JUMP for random sample collection. The content of the questionnaire includes the students' grade information, the students' expectation of the preview activities in the reading class, the task in class and after class, as well as the teacher's feedback mechanism. The questionnaire, which lasted for one week, was completed on May 5 and was fully valid.

C. Research Results and Date Analysis

TABLE I.
TEACHERS' ARRANGEMENT OF A READING CLASS PREVIEW ACTIVITY (MULTIPLE CHOICES)

	Number	Rate
Searching Internet	42	31.58%
Copying new words and reading the text	93	69.92%
Questions in the book	75	56.39%
No arrangement	14	10.53%
Other	11	8.27%

From table 1, it is self-evident that most teachers are inclined to complete the preparation activities with closed tasks. A small number of teachers will see the importance of Internet and combine open and closed tasks together.

TABLE II.
RESPONDENTS' EXPECTATIONS OF A READING CLASS PREVIEW ACTIVITY

	Number	Rate
Internet	52	39.10%
Copying new words and reading the text	33	24.81%
Questions in the book	40	30.08%
Other	8	6.02%

From table 2, we can see that students' expectations are not particularly one-sided. However, the majority of students (39.10%) still prefer to finish the preparation activities of the reading class through the Internet. Second only to the Internet, students (30.08%) prefer to complete the reading preparation activities by combining with book thinking questions. Compared with table 1, it is not difficult to find that students are not interested in copying new words or reading the text.

TABLE III.
TEACHERS' ARRANGEMENT OF THE OPEN QUESTIONS

	Number	Rate
Yes, many times	68	51.12%
Yes, some times	57	42.86%
No, they just focus on 2c-2e	8	6.02%

TABLE IV.
RESPONDENTS' EXPECTATIONS OF THE TYPE OF THE QUESTIONS

	Number	Rate
All in 2c-2e	18	13.53%
All about open questions	10	7.52%
Combined two, 2c-2e is more	69	51.88%
Combined two, open questions are more	36	27.07%

From table 3, we can draw a conclusion that most teachers (93.98%) will not adopt a rigid way of asking questions, so they can better inspire students to think in various aspects by asking open questions. And from table 4, most students (78.95%) accept that the open questions should be combined with the problem sets in the book(2c-2e), but surprisingly, the majority of students prefer 2c-2e. According to their answers about why they prefer 2c-2e, most students are influenced by exam-oriented education, believing that it can improves their grades, involves more tests, and is easier to answer. A few students think the text can be better consolidated. We find that exam-oriented education has a greater influence on students than quality-oriented education. It should be taken seriously.

TABLE V.
WHETHER TEACHERS' AFTER-CLASS TASKS ARE RELATED TO THE ACTIVITIES IN CLASS OR NOT

	Number	Rate
Yes	102	76.70%
No	31	23.30%

From table 5, most of the teachers' homework will be arranged in combination with classroom activities, and through the description of many students, such related homework will usually be presented in the form of oral output. For example, if a topic is discussed in class, the teachers will let students make up the dialogue and act it out. These are of great help to today's English reading classes.

TABLE VI.
TEACHERS' ARRANGEMENT ON THE HOMEWORK (MULTIPLE CHOICE)

	Number	Rate
Copying new words or phrases	81	60.90%
Reciting the passage	111	83.46%
Oral practice	53	39.85%
Oral practice in combination with the topics discussed in class	60	45.11%
Writing practice in combination with the topics discussed in class	46	34.59%
Interesting activities	16	12.03%
Other	8	6.02%

From table 6, many teachers like to combine closed homework with open homework when assigning homework. But in the table 9, most teachers prefer to use closed homework as the main methods (including words, passages, homework books, etc.). Although the extended exercises of oral writing are involved, they belong to the in-class types and the emphasis on interesting activities is not really high.

TABLE VII.
RESPONDENTS' EXPECTATIONS OF HOMEWORK (MULTIPLE CHOICE)

	Number	Rate
Copying new words or phrases	69	51.88%
Reciting the passage	66	49.62%
Oral practice	65	48.87%
Oral practice in combination with the topics discussed in class	61	45.86%
Writing practice in combination with the topics discussed in class	47	35.34%
Interesting activities	73	54.89%
Other	7	5.26%

From table 7, we can see that in the context of exam-oriented education, many students want closed homework. However, according to the data, the popularity of interesting activities among students is very high, which shows that there is still a contradiction between exam-oriented education and quality-oriented education in contemporary English classes.

TABLE VIII.
TEACHERS' REACTIONS AFTER STUDENTS' ANSWERS (MULTIPLE CHOICE)

	Number	Rate
Hardly encourage us	22	16.54%
Telling us the mistake directly	41	30.83%
After encouraging us, point our mistakes	65	48.87%
Telling us the mistake indirectly	63	47.73%
Other	5	3.76%

TABLE IX.
RESPONDENTS' EXPECTATIONS OF TEACHERS' REACTIONS AFTER THEIR ANSWERS (MULTIPLE CHOICE)

	Number	Rate
wrong answer- tell us mistakes directly	32	24.06%
wrong answer- give us more encourage words	64	48.12%
wrong answer- encourage us with error correction indirectly	88	66.17%
right answer- encourage us	85	63.91%
right answer- not encourage us	24	18.05%
Other	5	1.76%

From table 8, we conclude that most teachers avoid direct error correction and teach through a combination of encouragement and indirect error correction, which is worth rejoicing. However, some teachers take the way of direct error correction. This way is fast, but not conducive to the long-term growth of students.

From table 9, we find that the majority of students want to be encouraged and praised by their teachers. Even if there are mistakes in the answer, they do not want the teacher to correct directly, but through a gentle way. Through the

combination of the two tables, it is not difficult to find that most teachers' reactions cater to students' expectations.

IV. DISCUSSION ABOUT THE PROBLEMS

A. The Conflict of Expectations between Teachers' and Students'

According to Law of Readiness and principle of timing, we should set up preview activities before class. But there is a big difference between the arrangement of teachers and the expectation of students in the selection of previewing activities. For example, teachers tend to carry out preview activities by copying words, reading the text and combining thinking questions. But for students, they tend to use the Internet to learn more about their reading background. One is the emphasis on mechanical training; one is the emphasis on interesting activities. So, the conflict rises.

For teachers, this kind of traditional mechanical preview can better enable students to adapt to the rhythm of the class. This kind of task is simple and fixed, but lacks vitality. For students, giving full play to the role of the Internet can help them better understand more or less information. It's efficient and interesting, but requires a little more of a teacher.

B. The Gap between Exam-oriented Education and Quality-oriented Education

According to Law of Exercise and principle of timing, combined with the classroom activities and assignments assigned by teachers, the classroom activities and assignments expected by students and the reasons of students, it is not difficult to see that students hope to consolidate and practice through interesting activities on the one hand, so as to stimulate their enthusiasm and initiative for learning. But on the other hand, due to the influence of exam-oriented education, students tend to do 2c-2e in class, and copy words, recite texts and other mechanical activities after class, which may be helpful for exam-oriented education. However, these tasks make no sense for quality-oriented education.

The students' answers about why they are inclined to choose 2c-2e or some mechanical activities rather than the open questions or some interesting activities are all related to the exam-oriented education. For example, some students think that these tasks are helpful for the exam; some believe that these will improve the scores, some think that these are related to the passage they have learned, and some also hold the idea that these may be better to enhance the basic knowledge. However, we doubt that whether these tasks are helpful to students.

Meanwhile, as for the reasons why no choosing 2c-2e, they feel that open tasks are more motivating and challenging and can expand their extracurricular knowledge, thus promoting their study. That's what quality-oriented education like. But, under the circumstance of exam-oriented education and examination pressure, how to narrow the gap between the two educational models, or on what basis can the two education models be better coordinated, is well worth studying in depth.

C. How to Meet Students' Expectations in Terms of Feedback

For teachers' feedback to students' answers, many teachers are concerned with what can be the best way to deal with answers from their students. There are some common situations. For example, first of all, some teachers will naturally show disgust after students answer the questions in a wrong way, but tell students that it is fine. Students will be aware of this contradictory behavior actually. Second, some teachers think that pointing out mistakes pointedly can help students improve their level to a greater extent, but ignore the importance of students' internal psychological changes. Third, some teachers believe that as long as students are encouraged, students will be proud, which are completely ignoring the relevant knowledge of educational psychology and the achievement motivation of students. So, how to meet students' expectations in terms of feedback can be a problem.

V. SUGGESTIONS

A. Making Preview Activities Diversified

Due to different expectations of teachers and students, imagine that if only mechanical preview activities are arranged, students will lose their enthusiasm, have low classroom efficiency and be easily distracted. On the contrary, if students are simply allowed to preview on the Internet, they will neglect classroom knowledge, use computers in a wrong way, and develop bad habits of relying on computers.

When assigning preview activities, it's suggested to follow the principle of combining Internet and mechanical activities, among which the proportion of Internet should be greater than that of mechanical activities. Teachers should pay attention to the following principles when arranging mechanical activities. First, the principle of flexibility. Some flexible and various activities should be designed to satisfy the needs of students. Second, the principle of innovation. Teachers can innovate mechanical activities and combine them with the current hot pots of the relevant course and some related information on the Internet.

What's more, teachers need to pay attention to one principle when using Internet—diversification. Teachers should look for the elements that are conducive to students' learning and play their due role through the investigation of students. According to the survey, most students (80.77%) are inclined to video. It tells us that we can arrange some movies and documentaries which are beneficial for learning when we need to use Internet. Teachers should also have a better understanding of the plots and themes of the films they assign, so as to better sublimate students' thoughts.

B. Conducting Class Activities and Homework Based on Students' Interest

Combined with the Law of Exercise and principle of timing, the exercise should be effective and timely, as well as the exercise after class should be related to the exercise after class. So, the students' enthusiasm plays an indispensable role in the English class. Without interest, all tasks are in vain. Based on this theory, teachers should not place too much emphasis on mechanical training when designing class tasks and homework. As long as students are not willing to learn, no matter how teachers effectively code knowledge, it is not effective at all. Teachers are supposed to find ways to motivate students, not to instill knowledge in a hurry.

When teachers design the class activities, they should ensure that the activities should be related to the actual life and our topic in class. Students will lose interest in answering abstract knowledge and questions, which requires teachers to try their best to match the activities with reality.

When designing homework, teachers should consider the links to class activities and follow the principle that open homework oriented and close homework is complementary. Based on the principle, teachers should design some interesting homework which is apt to student's interest. When students complete these interesting activities, they can not only have a further understanding and consolidation of knowledge, but also indirectly improve their comprehensive English ability.

C. Giving Encouragement Frequently

Whether the students' answers are correct or not, teacher's first response should be encouragement. In educational psychology, reinforcement is better than punishment, especially the positive reinforcement. Learning a foreign language is strongly equipped with interest. When students get up the courage to answer the question, and then they rise the expectation that teacher should cater to, however, the teacher did not give reinforcement which can be critical, so students will soon lose confidence and motivation, and the effect of study becomes worse and worse.

Therefore, teachers should pay attention to the following points when giving feedback. First, it is easy for students to detect the teacher's expression of sincerity and consistency if teachers are not satisfied with students' answers from inner heart, but saying "It's fine" to the students. Second, before pointing out mistakes, teachers should encourage students to express their affirmation on the one hand, and maintain students' confidence and self-esteem on the other hand. Thirdly, although encouragement is an external motivation of students, students really need it. Junior high school students are more sensitive to external feedback. Teachers should try to promote students' external motivation to internal motivation through the feedback.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, the author combined Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning with the principle of time, from which we draw the conclusion in each part. First of all, according to Law of Readiness and principle of timing, because of the difference between teachers' and students' expectations, what we have to alter is to make preview activities more diversified. Single activity lasting for a long time is easy to produce the bored and tired feeling. Diversified activities can actually let the whole class more efficient and arouse students' motivation, which is beneficial to the next law. Secondly, according to Law of Exercise and principle of timing, focus on the students' interest plays an indispensable role in our teaching. As for teachers, we should design the homework linked to the classroom discussing questions, which require teachers not to skimp on convenience. Last but not least, according to Law of Effect and principle of timing, we are apt to use encouragement frequently in a suitable way. No matter the answers are true or false, what students need most is encouragement.

All in all, the combination of Thorndike's Three Laws of Learning and modern English teaching methods has a huge research and application prospect, and some changes should be made to refine the current English teaching. It is beyond doubt that utilizing the theory in English teaching can make the class more efficient and interesting.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

初中英语阅读课堂高效性和趣味性学习问卷调查

本问卷旨在了解各位同学对于当前初中英语阅读课堂的看法和倾向，逐步提高英语阅读课堂的高效性和趣味性。问卷采用匿名的方式，题量少，仅用于学术上的统计和分析，感谢大家的填写。

一．你的年级是

1）初一　　　　2）初二　　　3）初三

二．对于预习活动，老师通常是如何布置的（可多选）

1）结合互联网，了解相关背景　　　　2）抄写新单词、熟读课文

3）结合课后思考题提前熟悉课文　　　4）通常不布置预习活动　　　　5）其他

三．对于预习活动，你更希望是

1）结合互联网，了解相关背景　　　　2）抄写新单词、熟读课文

3）结合课后思考题提前熟悉课文　　　4）其他

四．你更喜欢通过什么方式了解阅读背景（若第三题选择 1）则出现此题）

1）观看英文电影　　　　　2）上网搜索文字资料　　　　　　3）听老师口头介绍

4）观看时间不长的纪录片（类似于：六分钟了解英国文化）　5）其他

五．在课堂中，老师会提问开放式问题，让你们进行讨论吗

1）会的，次数挺多　　　　　2）会的，不过次数不多　　　　3）不会，基本都是讲解课后习题（2c-2e）

六．在阅读课堂中，对于老师的提问内容，你更倾向于什么类型

1）全是书中课文后的习题（2c-2e）　　　　　2）全是开放式的讨论问题

3）两者结合，但课后习题（2c-2e）应多一点　　　4）两者结合，但开放式问题应多一点

七．在英语课堂中，对于你回答的问题，老师通常采取什么反馈（可多选）

1）老师几乎很少说鼓励/表扬的话语　　　2）老师会直接告诉我，我的错误是什么

3）老师会先鼓励我，再纠正我的错误　　4）老师会委婉的纠正我的错误　　　　　5）其他

八．当你回答完老师的问题后，你希望老师能够做出什么样的反馈（多选）

1）回答错误了，希望直接提出我的错误，不要鼓励　　　　　2）回答错误了，希望能够多点鼓励

3）回答错误了，希望在鼓励的同时，能够委婉的提出错误　　　4）回答正确了，希望得到表扬

5）回答正确了，希望不要表扬我

九．对于阅读课堂，老师布置的作业是否跟课上的活动有联系

1）是，有联系　　　　　　　　2）否，无联系

3）无联系的作业多　　　　　　　4）有联系的作业多

十．对于阅读课堂的作业，老师通常是如何布置的（多选）

1）抄写新单词/新词组　　　　　2）背诵全篇课文或课文若干内容　　　　3）小组/同桌/家长口语对话练习

4）会结合课上的讨论话题，进一步进行口语练习　　　5）会结合课上的讨论话题，进一步进行写作练习

6）会结合课上的内容，课下布置趣味性活动　　　7）其他

十一．对于阅读课堂的作业，你希望是什么呢（多选）

1）抄写新单词/新词组　　　　　2）背诵全篇课文或课文若干内容　　　　3）小组/同桌/家长口语对话练习

4）会结合课上的讨论话题，进一步进行口语练习　　　5）会结合课上的讨论话题，进一步进行写作练习

6）会结合课上的内容，课下布置趣味性活动　　　7）其他

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Enhancing Reading Comprehension through Translanguaging Strategy

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Abstract—In the reading process, reading comprehension is an essential part. This concept is in line with the Minister of Education and Culture Regulation number 23 in 2015, about the literacy movements to build a good character. However, students sometimes could not achieve it because the student cannot comprehend the reading material well. Besides, most students seem complicated to understand an English text and lazy to find the appropriate strategy to elaborate on their reading comprehension in rural living areas. Those become some researchers' concerns to conduct this research when doing observations at SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa in Enrekang Regency South Sulawesi, Indonesia. The students showed feeble and problematic reading comprehension. Then, taking the benefit of the tongue's benefits, adapted the translanguaging strategy as problem-solving for students' lack of reading comprehension. The object of this study is whether or not the translanguaging strategy can enhance student reading comprehension of eight-grade students SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa. The researchers applied the quasi-experimental method, with two groups pre-test and post-test design. The samples of the research consisted of 35 students from two classes. The result of the data analysis showed that the students' reading comprehension improved significantly. It indicated that the translanguaging strategy could enhance the reading comprehension of the students at that school. The students who learned reading through the translanguaging strategy had better improvement than the students who learned through the translation strategy.

Index Terms—translanguaging, strategy, mother tongue, translation, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

People read because they need to know a piece of information according to their necessity. Reading is defined as a process to gain information related to someone's purpose through the written information that has been published by the writer (Grabe & Stoller, 2013). The information can be easily found in printed or digital media, complete with translation of every language, for instance, into Indonesian or English itself. Technology development in the twenty-first century had helped humans and led them to use the internet as digital information media frequently to find information easier than printed text. Reading source availability should be in line with people's interests and understanding. Unfortunately, some Indonesian cannot understand English literature, which makes them have less valuable education and contribution than other countries (Andrade, 2006). The minister of Education and Culture set out school literacy movements in its' regulation number 23 in 2015 and confirmed the growth of character through the reading process performed within 15 minutes each day (Kemendikbud, 2016). It means students' reading interest can improve by implementing school literacy movement routines in their daily school life. Reading any kind of book or information in Indonesian or English will become a student's reading experience. The world knowledge and word meaning influence student understanding, where the more students read and learn about the topic, the more comfortable the student is to understand the passage (Klingner, Vaughn, & Boardman, 2015). Students' character as government goals also can be achieved by the teacher's role in the classroom by improving students' reading interest and comprehension.

Comprehending the reading material is an essential part of the reading activity. Meaning, learning, and pleasure are the ultimate learning goals to read (Klingner, Vaughn, & Boardman, 2015). Teacher's roles are also important in the classroom during reading activity. Hence, the reading activity is not eligible without understanding the content by having a piece of basic knowledge, reading experience, and teacher's guidance to achieve reading for a purpose.

As a multicultural country, Indonesia has different local languages in every region, especially in Sulawesi Selatan. There are four ethnicities dominate Sulawesi Selatan. They are Makassar, Bugis, Toraja, and Mandar, which have their mother tongue. Therefore, it is difficult for the indigenous to gain valuable education and information in other languages because they only understand their local language. According to García & Wei (2014), the multilingual term refers to people in a group who use more than two languages, wherein Sulawesi Selatan; the mother tongue is a first language (L1) that learned by indigenous people from their forefathers, followed by the Indonesian as the second language (L2) also as a national language. Then, learning new languages like English becomes their third language (L3).

The research took place in a school of rural areas, known as SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa, in Enrekang district Indonesia, with a robust local mother tongue. After doing pre-observation to 36 students of two eighth-grade classes as total sampling, the researchers found that the student used their mother tongue mixed with the Indonesian language to communicate with each other in their home, school area, and even in English class. Another result found by giving the test of reading comprehension, where only 5.56 % student can pass 75 minimum score based on the assessment criteria of the minimum standard of learning mastery that has been determined by SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa, according to the Department of Education No. 020/2007 about education assessment standard of Kurikulum Tingkat Satuan Pendidikan (KTSP). Meanwhile, there is 94.44 % of students still below the score criteria.

After performing pre-observation to 36 students, the researchers found that student English reading comprehension still problematic. The test result shows that most of the students have a low capability to interpret the text given. Most of the students already found the text keywords based on the students' answer sheets, but they could not elaborate on the content of the text based on the questions provided. Moreover, according to the questionnaires, most students would easily understand the story or information in English when they were getting help from someone's instruction, the explanation from other students or teachers, translated text, and using their strategy. Meanwhile, using the dictionary to find the meaning was students' most strategy used before. It indicates that most of the students dependent on others. The students are challenging to be independent because of the inappropriate and unvaried strategies they used in the classroom.

The title of this research is enhancing the reading comprehension of the eighth-grade students of SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa through translanguaging strategy. The researchers chose to use the translanguaging strategy as an appropriate strategy to improve student reading comprehension collaborating with the teacher's role during the learning process.

Teacher's roles are needed during the student learning process, explaining and translating the material, and guiding them into a good understanding. Reading comprehension will be fulfilled by understanding the meaning, learning the content, and enjoying the reading. Translanguaging comes up with direct instruction, build an interaction to help students face their learning obstacles. The language practices use translanguaging in one linguistic unity as belonging to more than two separate languages (García & Wei, 2014). Therefore, the teacher should actively control and manage the class with the interaction in the multilingual term based on teacher's and student's agreement in translanguaging.

The multilingual students are comfortable in using their mother tongue. By taking the mother tongue's benefit in the local area, the translanguaging strategy was efficient during the class. According to the second questionnaire, there were 51.35% who sometimes understand illustration using the mother tongue, 64.86% of students usually understand with text translated in the mother tongue, and 51.35% natural to interpret the text using mother tongue. The student seems to be more understandable when interacting in the mother tongue or local language. In other words, students would understand when their mother tongue was also used during the reading comprehension class to interpret the meaning in order to achieve reading goals. Therefore, the translanguaging strategy is an effective solution to be used in the learning process.

II. TRANSLANGUIGING

The strategy in teaching is an essential part of enhancing student understanding. The strategy is used to define as a set of abilities under the reader's awareness control, which commonly not as a natural of reading (Grabe and Stoller, 2013). Constructed by some definitions, the translanguaging strategy refers to a specific way to solve student learning obstacles in reading comprehension by learning to interpret the meaning of reading text independently. Translanguaging term originally comes from the Welsh, which Cen Williams used in 1994 to alternate languages for receptive to a bilingual school in Wales (García and Wei, 2014). Garcia and Wei (2014) state that translanguaging is a language practice that applies different language features against each other in one interaction. Translanguaging also helps to make a meaning using two or more languages in an integrated manner (Desmond and Makalela, 2013:88). Baker (2011:288) was the first translated translanguaging as 'the process of making meaning, shaping experience, obtaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages.'

A translanguaging is accurately adapted to facilitate inference-making strategies using the learners' mother tongue and English in the same classroom lesson. Translanguaging is also a way to reinforce students' bilingualism in using all of their languages as a resource for learning, reading, writing, and thinking in the classroom (Celic, 2012). Simultaneously using two languages might reflect the learners' identities in a positive light in the learning process, which could encourage them to consciously engage and take possession, resulting in more in-depth understanding and essential outcomes (Desmond and Makalela, 2013). It hopefully can help the student to face their learning difficulty, especially in a local area. To produce the different ways of multilingual speakers, create and interpret different kinds of

linguistic signs to communicate across contexts and participants, and perform their different prejudices (Garc á and Wei, 2014).

Students could better comprehend the complex texts when they access their background knowledge of other languages. (Otheguy, Garc á, & Reid (2015) claimed that translanguaging allows students to retrieve their full linguistic repertoire without being conscious always of socially and politically defined boundaries of named, national, and state languages. This flexible use of linguistic resources liberates linguistic minority students' voices, promotes deep and reflexive thinking, and enables rigorous cognitive engagement with texts (Garc á and Wei, 2014). Translanguaging assigns that bilinguals have a single integrated linguistic repertoire from which they strategically draw appropriate features to communicate effectively. The translanguaging as a pedagogical approach results from the deliberate alternating input and output languages between the teacher and the learners to enhance understanding. In principle, translanguaging may refer to a process through which a teacher allows learners to formulate and share ideas using a needlepoint of vocabulary in their linguistic repertoire (Desmond and Makalela, 2013:89). It also allows a space for multilingual language learners to apply different scopes of their experiences and linguistic knowledge into one organized and meaningful performance.

Translating the meaning without background knowledge will be difficult for the reader to understand the meaning. Translanguaging significantly enhanced learners' ability to apply background knowledge when answering questions based on the English reading text (Desmond and Makalela, 2013). Therefore, translanguaging is in line with the component skill of reading comprehension to construct a better reading understanding. The ability to draw inferences of translanguaging also helps a reader understand complex and subtle implicit messages carried through the writer's choice of particular vocabulary. (Desmond and Makalela, 2013). Thus, they understand the meaning and know the explicit message by shaping a new inference.

As a strategy, translanguaging in reading allows every student to read any book in multiple languages to build student understanding. Celic (2012) allows her bilingual student to read thematically in multiple languages to process a new language by taking notes and discussing the reading material. The student can share their reading experience and opinion related to the reading text in both languages used. After doing extensive English reading, the student will be asked to find the other information in their native language, then draw the English reading inference into a new idea in their home language. In other words, translanguaging allows students to be independent in reading and writing to gain information.

Translanguaging is different from code-switching, code-mixing, and translation. Code-switching and code-mixing are well-known characters in the speech pattern of the average bilingual in any human society. Code-switching is a bilingual-mode activity in which more than one language, typically speakers' native language and second language (L2), are used as interference language (Park, 2012:50). Bokamba (1989) also posits that code-switching is the mixing of words, phrases, and sentences from two distinct grammatical or sub-systems across sentence boundaries within the same speech event. A code-mixing, meanwhile, is the embedding of various linguistic units such as affixes (bound morphemes), words (unbound morphemes), phrases, and clauses from a co-operative activity where the participants must reconcile what they hear with what they understand in order to infer what is intended (Ayeomoni, 2006).

Translanguaging differs from code-switching and code-mixing, which refers not merely to a shift or a shuttle between two languages. In translanguaging, however, the speakers' construct and use the original and sophisticated interrelated conversational practices that it cannot easily assign to one or another traditional definition of a language, but that makes up the speakers' complete language repertoire (Garc á and Wei, 2014:22).

The process of code-switching, going back and forth from one language belonging to one grammatical system, has admitted much attention in the literature on bilingualism (Auer, 1999; Myers-Scotton, 1993 in Meteus, 2014:367). In code-switching, for instance, the student says: "I want to eat candy, *tapi saya takut gigi saya rusak*." The sentence shows that there is a switching language between English into Indonesian. Another example in code-mixing is the student saying: "I am sick, *tapi* do not *cerita ke* anyone" or "*Ibu saya* **support** *semua* **activities** *yang* **I** *lakukan*." The sentences clearly show the inserted words in a different language, which is called code. Every language has a different code but has the same meaning. A translanguaging approach is typical as "going back and forth from one language belonging to one grammatical system to another" (Mateus, 2014). Translanguaging uses a language repertoire as a whole, where there is no code-switching or even code-mixing in produce the sentence or language. In translanguaging, the students, who get utterance in English, will answer the question in different languages except for English, for instance, in Indonesian without any interference language or any other words inserted.

Translation has been typically employed to transfer written or spoken source language texts to equivalent written or spoken target language texts. The purpose of translation is to duplicate some kinds of texts such as religious text, literary, scientific, and philosophical texts in another language, making them available to more extensive readers (Ordudari, 2010). It also involved such as form, meaning, style, proverbs, and idioms. While translanguaging involves all the form needs in translation to shape a new idea with a different language. It is not adequate to only make meaning by changing or transferring the source language into a target language without interpreting its connotation. In translation, "I want to eat" will be translated into "*Saya ingin makan*," but in translanguaging, the sentence will mean in Bahasa Indonesia "*Dia ingin makan, berarti dia sedang lapar*." It indicates how translanguaging takes the learner to understand and learn to outline a notion from a source language into a target language by paying attention to the language manner.

Every single strategy used has its purpose related to the study. A translanguaging theory in education views was integrating the students' full linguistic repertoire as merely the only way to develop language practices valued in school and education (García and Wei, 2014:74). A translanguaging is accurately adapted to facilitate inference-making strategies using the learners' mother tongue and English in the same classroom lesson. Simultaneously using two languages would possibly reflect the learners' identities in a positive light in the learning process, which could encourage them to consciously engage and take possession, resulting in more in-depth understanding and essential outcomes (Desmond and Makalela, 2013:89). It hopefully can help the student to face their learning difficulty, especially in a local area.

III. METHOD

The research on the use of translanguaging strategy to the English reading comprehension of students formulated the problem of the research into a simple question: "Do the implement of translanguaging strategy can enhance reading comprehension of eighth-grade students of SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa, Indonesia?" Based on the problem, the research objective, then, was to find out whether or not the translanguaging strategy can enhance reading comprehension of eighth-grade students of SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa.

The research population was the second-year students of SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa in the academic year 2017/2018. The total numbers of the population were 35 students. The sampling technique was total sampling because there were only two classes, VIII A and VIII B, with 35 students. To assign the experimental and control group, the researchers chose the class by implementing random sampling. Where VIII A was an experimental group, and VIII B was a control group.

Data collection was conducted from July to August 2018 by applying a reading comprehension test as the instrument. The reading comprehension test was in the form of a multiple-choice test, consisting of an Indonesian and English text with ten questions with the English or Indonesian. The researchers composed the questions by considering the material and reading technique that was learned by students. It involved the main idea, figures, topic sentence, historical events, and the text's moral message to answer the questions. The standard of competency and basic competence based on school determinate

This research applied a quasi-experimental design that applies the pretest-posttest control group design. The researchers used inferential statistics to conduct data analysis. The test of the hypothesis used a t-test with $\alpha = 0.05$ level of significance for independent sample, the formula degrees of freedom is df = n1+n2-2 (Gay, E. Mills, and Airasian, 2011). The formula of the statistical hypothesis in this research is two-tailed (Sugiyono, 2016). The researchers would accept the null hypothesis and reject the alternative hypotheses if the t-test calculation were lower to the t-table.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Findings

The findings present the result of the pre-test, the post-test result, and the result of inferential statistics.

The *Rate Percentages Scores of Pre-test and Post-test of Experimental class and Control class*

This part consists of the pre-test and the post-test rate percentages score for both experimental and control classes.

Pre-test

The result of the pre-test of students for the experimental class and control class were as follows:

TABLE 1
THE PERCENTAGE SCORES READING COMPREHENSION OF EXPERIMENTAL CLASS AND CONTROL CLASS IN THE PRE-TEST

Scale 1-100	Predicate	Classification	Experimental Class		Control Class	
			F	%	F	%
96-100	A	Very good	-	-	-	-
91-95	A-		-	-	-	-
86-90	B+		-	-	-	-
81-85	B	Good	-	-	-	-
75-80	B-		-	-	-	-
70-74	C+		-	-	-	-
65-69	C	Fair	-	-	-	-
60-69	C-		-	-	-	-
55-59	D+	Poor	-	-	-	-
<55	D		17	100	18	100
			17	100	18	100

Table 1 shows the result of the conducted pre-test in both classes, categorized as a low classification score. The result was released before giving some treatment to students learning the process. The rating percentage of pre-test scores of the experimental and control classes was both in the same classification score. It means the reading comprehension of students is still problematic, where there were 100% of students who had low scores were categorized as poor achievement.

Post-test

The result of the post-test of students for the experimental class and control class were as follows:

TABLE 2
THE PERCENTAGE SCORES READING COMPREHENSION OF EXPERIMENTAL CLASS AND CONTROL CLASS IN THE POST-TEST

Scale 1-100	Predicate	Classification	Experimental Class		Control Class	
			F	%	F	%
96-100	A	Very good	-	-	-	-
91-95	A-		-	-	-	-
86-90	B+		-	-	-	-
81-85	B	Good	1	6	-	-
75-80	B-		2	12	-	-
70-74	C+		2	12	1	6
65-69	C	Fair	4	24	2	11
60-69	C-		1	6	4	22,22
55-59	D+	Poor	3	18	3	16,67
<55	D		4	24	8	44,44
			17	100	18	100

According to Table 2, there were improvements in the experimental and control class. The post-test was conducted twice after giving treatment for both classes to determine the validity of the test. The first post-test was given with the different pre-test, while the second post-test was given with the same pre-test text, then the result was valued by calculating the mean score of both post-test results. The experimental class used a translanguaging strategy, and the control class used a translation strategy to enhance reading comprehension. There are heterogeneous data from low to good classification appear in the table. The cause might be the time distance between the first post-test and the second post-test. Besides, the respondents had assigned the text of the second post-test at the first meeting. Despite the fact, there were improvements for both classes.

The Mean Scores difference between Experimental class and Control class

The mean score difference for both experimental and control class after calculating the result of pre-test and post-test presented as follows:

TABLE 3
STUDENTS' MEAN SCORE DIFFERENCE

Class	Pre-test	Post-test	Mean difference
Experimental	27.64	61.17	33.52
Control	37.22	53.61	16.38

Table 3 shows the improvement of each class, where the experimental class and the control class had improvements in their study after giving some treatments. The mean difference of the experimental class had a higher different score to control class score. There was a 17.14 difference score between both classes. It shows that the reading comprehension of the experimental class and control class both enhanced. However, the experimental class had better improvement to control class.

According to the mean difference, the researchers inferred that translanguaging could enhance the reading comprehension of students.

The Standard Deviation in Pre-test and Post-test

The following table described the standard deviation of the experimental and control pre-test classes in both the pre- and post-test.

TABLE 4
THE STANDARD DEVIATION OF STUDENTS IN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST
STANDARD DEVIATION

Standard Deviation	Pre-test	Post-test
Experimental	12.51	11.25
Control	9.58	9.36

The standard deviation in Table 4 shows the pre-test had a higher standard deviation score rather than post-test. The pre-test had a higher value because there was still much variance in learning style. After giving some treatment, both classes had descended value in the post-test. Even both classes did not decrease significantly, but the variance of students' learning style decreased after the treatment. The result indicated that the treatment for both classes was not done maximally. However, the result shows that the standard deviation score was lower than before giving treatment..

Hypothesis Testing

The researchers used the t-test formula in the testing hypothesis. The level of significance was set α=0,05.

TABLE 5
THE T-TEST AND T-TABLE VALUE IN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Test	T-Test Value	T-Table Value
Pre-test	-2.5503	2.042
Post-Test	2.167	2.042

Table 5 shows the result of the calculated t-test. The t-table value was set α=0,05 for a two-tail test with 2.042 significance, where the degree of freedom was 33. The t-test value of the pre-test was lower than the t table value, while the post-test t-test value was higher than the t-table value with small space. According to the research hypothesis, if the t-test value was equal with the t-table value, the null hypothesis was accepted, and the alternative hypothesis was rejected. Meanwhile, if the t-test value was unequal with the t-table value, the null hypothesis (H0) was rejected, and the alternative hypothesis (H1) was accepted. After giving some treatment used translanguaging and translation, the alternative hypothesis (H1) was accepted, and the null hypothesis (H0) was rejected. The final result of hypothesis testing was that the mean score of the students who learned reading through translanguaging strategy in enhancing reading comprehension was unequal to the mean score of the students who learned reading through translation strategy to enhance reading comprehension. Therefore, the researchers inferred a significant difference in the students' reading comprehension of the eighth-grade students of SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa, who learned reading using the translanguaging strategy than the students who learned reading by using translation strategy.

B. Discussion

The translanguaging process was used during the task given and presentation. The researchers found that students were independently easy to answer and understand the text well by using translanguaging strategy, according to a significantly increasing task score. During the treatment, the experimental class could elaborate on their efforts more while doing the task given. Since the students did the tasks in a translanguaging strategy, they could actively share their understanding with other students. This in in line with the works of other researcher like Swanwick (2015) and Panda (2016) who suggested the use of this strategy in language teaching especially in teaching reading.

The Indonesian text with the English question, for instance, could facilitate them to find out the answer to the text. They only needed to find the English vocabulary to write down the result. Thus, students could share their reading experience and opinion related to the reading text in both languages using translanguaging strategy.

By using the limited technology, the students put the benefit of the school library to find any text to be learned using translanguaging strategy, then presented and wrote the content out in the English language or local language. The student seemed to be more understanding when they were presenting tasks in their mother tongue or local language. According to the last treatment, individual tasks showed that students could autonomously analyze the content of their reading text. The students understood when mother tongue language be used during the reading comprehension class to interpret the meaning, in order to achieve reading goals. Therefore, the translanguaging strategy is an effective solution to be used in the learning process. It can help the students to solve their learning obstacles (Grabe and Stoller, 2013). The students can practice the language by applying different features of language which against each other in one interaction (Gracia and Wei, 2014).

There was a different condition in the control class. The text and question given should be translated into the students' mother tongue or Indonesian firstly. The students used the word to word translation in this phase, because they had to lack English vocabularies. There were only a few students wanted to find the meaning in the dictionary. The reason was they were lazy to see lots of vocabulary to be translated, then answer the question also in the English language—this strategy, sometimes used by the other teacher during the English class. The researchers found that the translation strategy made students boring in the learning process. Students could not actively reproduce various kinds of text coming from translated words. The students always asked for the teacher's help to translate the text while they only tried to find a better answer for a good score.

The teacher applied the way by asking the basic knowledge of the students before reading. The text was in a narrative text. Hence some of the students had read or listened to the stories given. Students applied the translanguaging to explain their prior knowledge about the text during the reading process in the experimental class. Formerly, after reading the text, they easily answered the text based on their reading interpretation. The control class also interpreted their reading, but the student took too much time to understand the text. It was because they were inactive to translate all the text. As a consequence, the task could not be done in proper time allocation, and the text could not be understood maximally. However, the score tasks significantly increased for both classes.

To assess the effects of four meetings for the treatment, the researchers conducted a post-test in each group. The first post-test was given with different text and questions to determine whether students could answer the different text. The result shows a different result, where the experimental class had a higher score than the control class. The score difference of the experimental class was higher, but the result could not be classified as a significant result. Therefore, the researchers drove to conduct the second post-test with the same reading material with the pre-test. After conducting the second post-test, both classes had a raising score. Based on the results of the first post-test and the second post-test, there was a more significant improvement in both classes. The improvement for both classes might cause the experimenter effect because the text for the second post-test had been taught through each class strategy. Things happened. The experimental class still had a higher score rather than a control class. The final result of hypothesis testing was the mean score of the students who were taught through translanguaging strategy in enhancing reading comprehension was unequal to the mean score of the students who were taught through translation strategy in enhancing reading comprehension. Therefore, the researchers inferred that there is a significant difference in the students' reading comprehension of the eighth-grade students of SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa, who were taught by using translanguaging strategy than those who were taught by using the translation strategy.

V. Conclusion

Based on the findings, the researchers then conclude that the use of a translanguaging strategy could enhance students' reading comprehension. It was proved that the use of translanguaging strategy in teaching reading comprehension of the eighth-grade student of SMP Negeri 4 Maiwa has a significant effect on enhancing students' reading comprehension.

Applying the t-test formula for the students for both groups found that the t-test was unequal with the t table, which means this translanguaging can be used to enhance student reading comprehension. The result also shows that the student means difference was different. From these data, the researchers concluded that translanguaging could improve students' reading comprehension by combining it with the other classroom strategy.

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Application of Compensatory Translation Approach to English Idioms

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Abstract—**Idioms, the gems of a language, best reflect the national characteristics embodied in a language and always have rich national flavor and cultural connotation. It is not easy to translate idioms since not all English idioms have equivalents in Chinese idioms mainly due to cultural differences. There are six translation approaches in translating English idioms into Chinese: compensatory translation, literal translation, free translation, borrowing, integrated approach, explanational translation. This paper aims to propose the compensatory translation approach, one of the important and indispensable tactics to Chinese translation of English idioms based on Eugene A. Nida's equivalence view. It is worth discussing on compensatory translation approach to English idioms from cultural perspective so as to better understand the application of this tactic, hoping to cast some enlightenment on further research in this area.**

Index Terms—**idioms, culture, compensatory translation, application, translation approach**

I. INTRODUCTION

Eugene A. Nida once said "Differences of culture may also be a reason for having marginal notes in a translated text." (Nida, 2001, p.82) It is known that cultural awareness is quite important while translating since there are many factors influencing the process of translating.

Sometimes, although the literal translation of some idioms may not cause cultural conflict, the practice is likely to lead to the ineffective cultural transfer. If idioms cannot possibly be understood without cultural context, they are usually translated literally, together with paraphrasing or footnotes, making the comprehension complete. The approach is called compensatory translation approach, which is an important and indispensable tactic to better convey the connotative meanings of English idioms when translating them into Chinese.

II. USING COMPENSATORY TRANSLATION APPROACH TO CONVEY CONNOTATIONS

To make the comprehension of idioms with special origins complete, they are usually translated literally, together with compensatory notes, paraphrasing or footnotes. In this case, a translator can first render the idiom literally, so as to retain the vividness and the original flavor of the idiom; then bring out the connotative meaning by paraphrasing or explanation, that is, to add a note as a compensation, so as to fulfill the function of communication.

For instance: "A Procrustean bed" has the meaning of "an arrangement, plan, scheme, ordinance, that produces uniformity by violent and arbitrary measures". To understand it better, a note is added: "Procrustes was a legendary robber of ancient Greece who forced his victims to fit the bed be offered them by stretching their limbs if too short, or shortening them if too long." (Yu & Guo, 1999, p.115). With the help of the compensatory note, the connotation of the idiom is brought out and the vividness and the original flavor are kept.

To better know the effective use of compensatory translation approach, let us take "A Pyrrhic victory" as an example:

> "A Pyrrhic victory" refers to "a victory gained at such cost that it is almost equivalent to a defeat, or a victory that was not worth winning because the winner has lost so much in winning it". The reference is to the defeat of the Romans by Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, at Asculum, 280 B.C. To those who came to congratulate him he said: "Another such victory and we are done for" (Collins, 1960, p.184).

It can be translated into "*pí luò shì de shèng lì, dé bù cháng shī*" with a note in Chinese:

> *Gōng yuán qián 279 nián, gǔ xī là yī bì lǔ sī guó* (Epirus) *de pílu ò shīwáng* (King Pyrrhus) *zài zhàn shèng luó mǎ jūn duì de zhàn yì zhōng fù chū le jí dà de dài jià, tā de dà bù fēn jīng ruì bù duì hé zhǐ huī guān zài nà cì zhàn dòu zhōng zhèn wáng. Dāng yǒu rén xiàng tā biǎo shì zhù hè shí, tā shuō: "zài yǒu yī cì zhèi yàng de shèng lì, wǒ men jiù yào chè dǐ kuǎ le." Yǐ hòu rén men biàn yòng "pí luò shì de shèng lì* (Pyrrhic victory)" *lái biǎo shì yīn dài jià chén zhòng ér dé bù cháng shī de shèng lì.*

It is the literal translation that helps to retain the vividness and the original flavor of this idiom and it is the compensatory note that helps the target language (TL) readers figure out why "a Pyrrhic victory" proves to be almost equivalent to a defeat.

Take "Hobson's Choice" as another example:

"Hobson's Choice" means "the acceptance of what is offered when there is no alternative, or situation in which a person must accept what is offered because there is no alternative other than taking nothing at all." which can be translated into "*huò bù sēn de xuǎn zé, háo wú xuǎn zé*", meaning "*wú kě xuǎn zé de xuǎn zé, méi yǒu xuǎn zé yú dì de jú miàn*" in Chinese.

In order to make readers understand it better, a Chinese note is added:

"*Huò bù sēn de xuǎn zé* (Hobson's choice) *qǐ yuán yú shí liù shì jì de yīng guó. Dāng shí yǒu wèi míng jiào tuō bài è sī huò bù sēn* (Tobias Hobson) *de shāng rén, tā de gōng zuò jiù shì jià zhe zài rén sì lún dà mǎ chē, zài lún dūn* (London) *hé jiàn qi áo* (Cambridge) *zhī jiān pǎo yùn shū, bìng bǎ xián zhì de mǎ pǐ chū zū gěi jiàn qiáo dà xué* (University of Cambridge) *de xué shēng. Huò bù sēn zǒng shì duì tā de gù kè shuō: nǐ men kě yǐ xuǎn zé rèn hé zì jǐ kàn zhòng de mǎ, zhǐ yào tā shì lí mǎ jiù mén zuì jìn de nà yī pǐ. Huò bù sēn de bù jìn rén qíng shǐ gù kè méi yǒu rèn hé xuǎn zé de yú dì, yīn cǐ zhāo zhì le bù shǎo zū jiè mǎ pǐ de rén de wēi cí. Hòu lái，huò bù sēn de xuǎn zé* (Hobson's choice) *de shuō fǎ jiù zhú jiàn chuán kāi le.*"

By adding the note, readers would know that Hobson was Tobias Hobson, a legendary figure, who kept an inn at Cambridge and hired out horses. Though he had a large number of horses, he always insisted that a prospective hirer should take the one nearest the stable door: whence, 'it became the proverb, when what ought to be your selection was forced on you, to say "Hobson's choice"' (Collins, 1960, p.143). It has been pointed out that Hobson's practice was sensible, because the horse nearest to the door was the one that had been longest in the stable since it was previously used, and so the most rested (Collins, 1960, p.143-144).

Although the succinctness of the idiom is somewhat lost by adding the note, it can still help to explain clearly why Hobson's choice is no choice at all. Obviously, the vividness and the original flavor of the idiom are retained and the connotative meaning is brought out by the explanation of its source.

It is obvious that the above idioms, either derived from ancient fables, myths, legends or historical events, are usually translated literally to retain the vividness and the original flavor, and by adding explanation or notes, their connotative meanings are more comprehensible to target readers.

III. THE IMPORTANCE OF COMPENSATORY APPROACH

Good literal translation can help Chinese readers acquire the direct cultural information of English idioms, but sometimes the direct literal translation without any compensatory notes will puzzle readers so that cultural gaps will be naturally produced. So the compensatory approach may supply notes to backgrounds, English allusions, rhetoric meaning, sources and context, etc., strengthen the acceptability of English idioms and keep their original flavor (Chen, 2007). For example:

"Round-table conference" refers to "political or other conference attended by representatives of various interests to discuss matters and reach agreement".

Today the table at which the representatives sit may not be round, but the idea originally was that a round table prevented there being a head-seat, and that all present should be on equal terms, without any jealousy on the score of precedence. An article by Brewer has some interesting information about round tables. Details of the legendary Round Table of King Arthur come from Malory's *Morte d' Arthur*, but such tables, he points out, were common in the age of chivalry. He refers to the one shown at Winchester, used to accommodate twelve favourite knights of Henry III,which Henry VIII showed to Francis I; to a table established at Kenilworth in the reign of Edward I by Roger Mortimer; and one erected by Edward III at Windsor (Collins, 1960, p.190-191).

Take "carry coals to Newcastle" as another example:

"You're really carrying coals to Newcastle. She has many a diamond rings." can be translated into "*nǐ zhēn shì yùn méi dào niǔ kǎ suǒ, duō cǐ yī jǔ, tā yǒu de shì zuàn shí jiè zhi.*"

"Carry coals to Newcastle", an idiom with strong national characteristics, means to "take something to a place where it is so plentiful that it is not wanted; figuratively, do something that is absurdly superfluous". The first use of the phrase is by Fuller in 1650, though 'as common as coals from Newcastle' appears in 1606. The French have *porter de l'eau à la rivière* ('to carry water to the river') (Collins, 1960, p.57).

As to this version, the note "*duō cǐ yī jǔ*" still could not explain well about its meaning, Chinese readers might be confused about "*yùn méi dào niǔ kǎ suǒ* (Newcastle), *duō cǐ yī jǔ*", so another note in Chinese must be added like this: "*niǔ kǎ suǒ* (Newcastle), *yīng guó dōng běi bù yī gè gǎng shì, shì zhù míng de chǎn méi zhōng xīn.*" The meaning is "Newcastle, a seaport city in Northeast England, which is a famous coal production center". Thus the readers may understand the relationship between Newcastle and "*duō cǐ yī jǔ*" and they could acquire new information about this idiom (Luo, 2006, p.79).

IV. ALLUSION OF ENGLISH IDIOMS

English allusion is a part of idiom, which has many splendid stories. Literal translation with notes to allusion can make Chinese readers recognize the origin and wider their knowledge when reading the translation.

For instance, "The Middle East Oilfield seems to be an apple of discord between the two superpowers." can be literally translated into "*zhōng dōng yóu tián fǎng fú chéng le liǎng gèchāo jí dà guó zhēng duó de 'jīn píng guǒ'*" in Chinese. In order to make readers understand it better, a note is added: "*yuán zì xī là luó mǎ shén huà, zhǐ bù hé nǚ shén* (Eris, the goddess Discord) *tóu dào hūn yàn shàng bìng yǐn qǐ zhēng zhí de jīn píng guǒ.*" (Luo, 2006, p.42).

By adding the note, readers know that in classical mythology, an apple of gold was thrown into a banquet of the gods and goddesses by the goddess Discord, who had not been invited. The apple had "For the Fairest" written on it. When three goddesses claimed it, the choice among them was referred to the handsome Paris, prince of Troy. So "the apple of discord" means "cause of contention, trouble, hatred, etc." or "any subject of disagreement and contention; the root of the trouble or dispute", which is literally translated into "*jiū fēn de píng guǒ*", meaning "*dù jì zhī yuán, zhēng dòu zhī yīn*" in Chinese. The allusion is to the apple that the goddess Eris (Discord) threw among the gods and goddesses at the marriage of Thetis and Peleus, to which she had not been invited, and that Paris gave to Venus as the most beautiful of the three goddesses, from which action resulted indirectly the Trojan War (Collins, 1960, p.33).

It is translated literally to keep the image of the sentence, since many Chinese readers may not know what "the apple of discord" is, through the note Chinese readers not only get to know the origin of the idiom "an apple of discord", but also acquire new information and get a deeper understanding of the Middle East Oilfield situation.

V. METAPHORICAL IMAGES IN ENGLISH IDIOMS

Some English idioms have metaphorical images which have been accepted by Chinese readers. Due to the communication between cultures for a long time, such kind of English idioms not only have been accepted by the Chinese people, but also have become the phrases and expressions for everyday use in Chinese. They can be first translated by literal translation, so as to retain the vividness, the original style of the idioms and their figures of speech; then by adding notes as compensations to bring out the connotative meanings in fulfilling the function of communication. For example:

> "The favors of Government are like the box of Pandora, with this important difference, that they rarely leave hope at the bottom" is translated into "*zhèng fǔ de ēn huì rú tóng pān duō lā de hé zi, hòu huàn wú qióng, zhǔ yào bù tóng zhī chù shì: hé dǐ hěn shǎo liú yǒu xī wàng*" (Jiang, 2000, p.144).

Chinese people might understand the literal meaning, but the implicated meaning is hard to figure out.

> "In Greek mythology, Pandora was the first woman, sent to the earth by the gods as a form of punishment. Zeus (or Jupiter, in Roman mythology) gave her a box which she was to give to the man who married her. When this box was finally opened, all the evils in it flew out, and since then have caused trouble to mankind." (Deng & Liu, 1989, p.69)

So "Pandora's box" or "the box of Pandora", means "a present or something which may seem valuable, but which brings trouble and misfortune" or "a box containing all the ills that could plague mankind". In translating it into Chinese, something more about who Pandora is should be added to convey its implicated meaning. Through the employment of compensatory translation, "the box of Pandora" is rendered into "*pān duō lā de hé zi, hòu huàn wú qióng; zāi nàn de gēn yuán*" with a note: "*yuán zì xī là luó mǎ shén huà, pān duō lā* (Pandora) *shì bǎ zāi nàn dài dào rén jiān de měi nǚ.*" Thus the Chinese people might not be confused. Because the implicated meaning in the original text is revealed in the TL, this idiom will be clearly understood by the reader of the TL culture.

VI. TRANSLATION OF IDIOMS FROM CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

Translating means communicating. Culture is the source of translation and translation is the tool of culture communication. Without culture, translation would be a well without water, and without translation, culture might not be so colorful. The cultural development of the world mainly depends on translation. What is important in judging the validity of a translation is the extent to which receptors correctly understand and appreciate the translated text. A correct understanding of the language unit rests upon a due understanding of the relevant facts or features of the culture. Language is an intrinsic part of culture. It carries culture and plays a very important role in it. It is considered as the keystone of culture. Without language, culture would not be possible (Deng & Liu, 1989, p.3). In other words, language should and can only be understood in the cultural context.

As it is known to all, the influence of the culture on the meanings of words and idioms are so pervasive that, without careful consideration of its cultural background, scarcely any text can be adequately understood. Idioms, as the essence or the crystallization of language, are closely related with culture. Necessary sensitivity to the cultural characteristics of both English and Chinese languages is indispensable to adequate understanding of idioms and successful rendering of idioms from English to Chinese (Chen, 2007).

"Translating is a complex and fascinating task" (Nida, 2001, p.3). Probably, it is the most complex type of event in the history of the cosmos. "Bilingual competence has almost always been regarded as an essential requirement for translators" (Nida, 2001, p.81), but "for truly successful translating, biculturalism is even more important than bilingualism, since words only have meanings in terms of the cultures in which they function" (Nida, 2001, p.82). That is to say, "knowing two languages is not enough, it is also essential to be acquainted with the respective cultures" (ibid, p.6). It is the same case when take the translation of idioms into consideration.

As an important part of the language, idioms, influenced and shaped by culture, also reflect culture. As idioms and culture interact with each other, understanding of one requires understanding of the other. It is thus worthwhile to probe into the translation of idioms from English to Chinese in a cultural perspective so as to have a good grasp of the meanings and use of the idioms and to achieve the aim of adequate rendering of the idioms (Chen, 2007).

There are some good examples illustrating the important role that culture played in translating idioms, "There is a black sheep in every flock" can be translated into "*hài qún zhī mǎ, wú chù bú yǒu*"; "All is fish that comes to one's net" can be translated into "*jiǎn dào lán zǐ lǐ biàn shì cài*" and "kick sb. when he is down" in Chinese is "*qiáng dǎo zhòng rén tuī*" (Jiang, 2000, p.192). Although different words are used in English and Chinese due to different cultural background, these idioms express the same idea or meaning. So, in some veins, idioms are influenced and shaped by culture (Chen, 2007).

For better understanding and translating of idioms, one should know not only the two languages, but also the respective cultures. That is, in determining the meaning of words or idioms, the translator must not only look at the syntagmatic contexts but also the cultural contexts, for "the cultural contexts of words are the keys to understanding the meanings of texts" (JFL Correspondent, 1998, p.4)

VII. CONCLUSION

Eugene A. Nida suggests that translation should be based on the establishment of cultural equivalence between the receptor language and the source language and points out that translators should avoid overlooking the cultural differences and applying their own personal set of values formed in their own culture in the translation. Since literal translation has the merits of promoting culture communication and enriching the target language, when there can be several different versions of translation, literal translation is preferable if no misunderstanding will be triggered. Translation is a process of transferring information from one language into another and a bilingual art of cross-cultural communication, which cannot be absolutely separated from certain society and culture.

Translators often rely on paraphrasing, footnotes or provide adequate background information for the understanding of the terms in question so as to ensure acceptance of cultural otherness. The application of compensatory translation approach makes the gap between different languages and cultures narrow and makes cultural exchange among countries more convenient and easier as well. Only by using the method of literal translation with compensatory notes or paraphrasing, can idioms with allusions or strong national characteristics be understood fully in their cultural context. Although the conciseness and explicitness of the idioms are somewhat lost, it is exactly a quite useful and important approach to convey the meaning of English idioms in such a way that it will impose the same effect on the target reader as the original does upon the original reader. This paper is only a preliminary research on compensatory translation approach of English idioms in the perspective of culture. It is believed that further research and more explorations in this field will be worthy and necessary.

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Application of Affective Filter Hypothesis in Junior English Vocabulary Teaching

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Abstract—With the continuous development of new curriculum reform, language teaching is paid more attention to the learners' affective state. Affective factors are becoming more and more important factors affecting learners. Therefore, English educators need to make good use of affective factors during the teaching. This thesis researches the middle school students' emotional problems in the vocabulary learning from three aspects of affective filter hypothesis: motivation, confidence and anxiety and finds the problems of middle school students in English vocabulary learning, then applies this theory in vocabulary teaching. The research shows that the affective filter hypothesis is applied in Junior Middle School English vocabulary teaching. It effectively improves teachers' teaching proficiency and is good for students' vocabulary learning.

Index Terms—affective filter hypothesis, affective factors, English vocabulary teaching, application

I. INTRODUCTION

It is important for us to learn a foreign language because of the rapid development of globalization. The relationship among the countries becomes more intimate and we have more and more opportunities to communicate with the foreigner. In China, with the destruction of the Belt and Road, we are increasingly connected with countries that along the route. Therefore, the world's trend of establishing good relationship among different countries makes more and more people learn a second language, such as English, German, French, etc. Chinese is our mother tongue and it's the main language in China. And the English, the second large language in China, covers all grades in school. However, as for Chinese students, they have difficulty in learning English, which is a second language. In the past, we think the students' problems in learning English are just the negative external environment and the poor cognitive level, but some studies find that the factors that affect English learning include not only the external environment and their own cognitive level, but also the internal affective factors of learners. In the 1980s, Krashen comes up with the Affective Filter Hypothesis, and he believes that the affective factors influence the foreign language acquisition. Arnold (2000) believes that emotion is an important factor affecting language learning and teaching. And Brown (2002) examines the influence of affective factors on language teaching and we should cultivate students' positive emotion. The learners' feelings may stop students from learning to speak a foreign language (Snezana Kirova, Bilijana Petkovska, & Dragana Koceva, 2012). Tayebeh Zarezadeh (2013) points out that emotional intelligence will affect English language learning. Esen Sucuolu (2017) uses a research to analyze the influence of motivational strategies in secondary school and points out teachers should adopt more motivational strategies in the class. Therefore, learners' affective factors should not be ignored and the affective factors also play an important part in the process of learning English. In our county, we start to pay attention to the affective factors on the process of learning English very late. In the past, teachers are the leaders in the class and all students must obey the teacher. Consequently, in the English class, teachers teach the knowledge regardless of students whether accept the knowledge, and many students also have affective problems in learning English. Because of the improvement of the new curriculum reform, students' learning way is not in a passive way and students are the leader of the class. We notice the affective factors can influence the English learning based on the development of the affective filter hypothesis because of the development of the technology. Therefore, teachers should pay attention to the affective factors in the process of teaching English. Nowadays, many researches apply the affective filter hypothesis to guiding English teaching and make students learn English efficiently. Wu Xue (2014) applies the affective filter hypothesis to alleviating freshman oral English fossilization. Li Ping (2017) points that the middle school students English writing score prominently connects with students' feelings through three aspects: motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. Therefore, teachers apply the affective filter to teaching vocabulary, it will be good for English educators to use effective and various ways to teach vocabulary. It is not only good for the teachers, but also good for the students. Teachers can adopt many innovative teaching ways to teach vocabulary efficiently and students are willing to learn vocabulary efficiently. For teachers, first of all, they will take a variety of measures to arouse the students' learning motivation and they can give right advice to students or change their teaching way to arouse the students' learning motivation. Secondly, teachers use targeted approaches to enhance students' learning confidence. Teachers can fully consider the individual differences of students in the teaching process and take advantage of students' strengths and let them develop their strengths in the class. Therefore, students will have confidence in learning English words well. Thirdly, teachers could create a good atmosphere to lower student's anxiety. When students study vocabulary in an relaxed condition, they can master vocabulary quickly and well. Wang Fan (2019) notes that teachers

should actively explore and use a variety of teaching methods flexibly, and pay attention to students' emotional changes in class. Zhang Juanjuan (2018) mentions that many art students lack the confidence and motivation of learning English and they have high anxiety. It means that they have a high affective filter. Therefore, the affective factors have an essential impact on English teaching and learning. Between teachers and students, students can exchange their emotional state and control their emotion through these three aspects: motivation, confidence and anxiety. Teachers can take a variety of measures to enhance students' motivation and confidence, lower their anxiety, which is helpful to improve students' learning ability and teachers' teaching proficiency.

II. RESEARCH OBJECT AND DATA ANALYSIS

A. Research Object

This study takes 121 students from two classes in Grade Eight in Xinfeng Jiudu Middle School as the research object, and investigates the students' emotional state in vocabulary learning through the questionnaire survey, and finds the problems of middle school students in English vocabulary learning. The author uses questionnaire method, and 121 questionnaires were sent out and 121 were recovered. The content of questionnaire, based on three aspects of affective filter hypothesis, was about the influence of affective factors in the process of students' vocabulary learning. In this questionnaire, the author designs fifteen questions that all of these are about choice questions. The questionnaire mainly includes three aspects: motivation, confidence, anxiety. The research content mainly includes four aspects: students' interest in learning English, students' learning motivation in vocabulary learning, students' confident level in vocabulary learning and students' anxious level in vocabulary learning. Questions 1 to 2 have a fair idea of the students' interest in learning English; questions 3 to 5 are about students' learning motivation in vocabulary learning; questions 6 to 10 are about students' confidence in vocabulary learning; questions 11 to 15 are about students' anxious level in vocabulary learning. According to this questionnaire, it finds that there are some problems in English vocabulary teaching in Junior Middle School.

B. Data Analysis

First of all, 88% of the students are interested in English learning. And 80% of the students agree that they learn English because of their interests. This shows that many students like English rather than dislike English and interest is an important factor in the process of English learning. So we should make students keep this enthusiasm in learning English and cultivate the interest of other students who are weak in English. But only 20% of the students think that they are interested in English words, and 96% of the students agree that they have to learn English vocabulary in order to pass senior high school entrance examination. 92% of the students argue that they learn English vocabulary in order to pass the English test. The result reveals that although students do not want to learn English words, they still have to learn English words and it's mainly because of their external motivation. A majority of students are willing to learn English vocabulary in order to pass the test. Nowadays, students learn English at very young age, but 28% of students agree that learning English vocabulary is easy with the help of teachers' teaching way, and 15% of students don't agree that they can master a large number of English words under the teaching. 81% of students feel dissatisfied with their vocabulary memory level and 81% of students agree that they will seek for the help of dictionary firstly rather than guess the right meaning when they see unfamiliar vocabulary. 90% of students are lack of confidence in reading English words because they don't master phonetic symbols well. These answers show that lots of students don't have sufficient confidence in vocabulary learning even under the guidance of teachers.

Anxiety also has an effect on vocabulary learning. Based on this questionnaire survey, 88% of the students agree that they feel nervous when they know the teachers will ask question to them during English class, and 80% the students think that they feel nervous when they don't understand what the English teacher say during English class.70% the students agree that they will feel nervous when they read unfamiliar word. But only 20% students are not afraid to read words when they read unfamiliar word.75% of students think that they feel nervous when they dictate English words. This shows that students have high level of anxiety. The survey shows that a majority of students have problems in learning vocabulary from the perspective of affective factors. Therefore, the author will discuss these affective problems in English vocabulary learning in junior middle school and analyze how to improve English vocabulary teaching in junior middle school under the basis of affective filter hypothesis.

III. PROBLEMS EXISTING IN ENGLISH VOCABULARY LEARNING

From the data obtained from the above survey, we can know that students have high affective filter. It means students absorb less information and filter more information, resulting in less language acquisition. And from three aspects of the affective filter hypothesis, there exist the following problems in the English vocabulary learning in current junior middle school: lack of enough internal motivation, lack of sufficient confidence, and high level of anxiety.

A. Lack of Enough Internal Motivation

Although a majority of students like English, they spend less time learning vocabulary. And they are also not willing to remember vocabulary. According to the survey, we can know that a lot of students are not interested in vocabulary

learning, their internal motivation that want to learn vocabulary well and contact more vocabulary is not strong. And they think they have to learn vocabulary in order to pass the examination. Therefore, the main motivation of students on learning vocabulary is external motivation. They learn vocabulary because of the force of environment. Zhuan Juanjuan(2018) thinks that "external motivation is more unstable than internal motivation, and students are easy to give up the goal when encountering difficulties or setbacks" . Thus, lots of students learn vocabulary passively and then they will neglect the vocabulary when they have difficult in learning vocabulary. During the current English class, students do not always learn and recite the vocabulary actively because they do not want to learn vocabulary internally. Even sometimes teachers assign task about vocabulary, students are not willing to do it. This shows that students don't have enough internal motivation to learn vocabulary which results in students' low enthusiasm for vocabulary learning. Because a majority of students think that they learn English in order to pass examinations, they don't remember the words they learned after a long time. They can learn and recite vocabulary in a short time in order to finish the task, but they forget the vocabulary quickly after the examination. Although students have enough external motivation to learn vocabulary, many students think it's difficult for them to remember vocabulary. But if students have enough internal learning motivation to learn vocabulary, they will want to know the history and the culture contained in the words and to explore the mysteries of English words. Teachers should pay attention to cultivate students' internal motivation.

B. Lack of Sufficient Confidence

Confidence is the foundation of the road to success, which reflects our confidence in life. Therefore, confidence is an important factor in vocabulary learning. When Students who have sufficient confidence face difficulties, they often mobilize their existing knowledge and ability to overcome difficulties and then complete the task. But when students who are lack of confidence when facing difficulties, they always choose to neglect difficulties or avoid making mistakes. When students have confidence in learning vocabulary, they can learn English well. However, according to the survey, many students don't have sufficient confidence in the process of learning English. When students meet unfamiliar words, they would look for the help of the dictionary or the teachers firstly rather than guess the meaning firstly. This shows that they don't have enough confidence in their ability about guessing the meaning of vocabulary. Moreover, some students think that they can't master a large number of vocabularies in the English class. They think even under the guidance of teacher, they can't fully master these extra words in the English class. In the current English class, students are afraid of reading vocabulary in the class because they are afraid of being laughed at by their classmates.

C. High Level of Anxiety

In the traditional class, teachers always teach vocabulary in the class and they always read them and then let students follow her to read. Then, teachers may ask some students to read words after reading them a few times. Some students who don't comprehend the words feel nervous when teacher ask students to read. They are in a state of high anxiety when they are in English class. Anxiety plays a part in vocabulary learning and will influence the students' normal psychological state, even hinder students' language acquisition. Students will feel nervous and feel blank when they are in anxiety. According to the survey, a majority of students think they have a high level of anxiety when teachers ask questions. Because they are afraid of making mistakes when they answer the questions or they don't know the answers. And lots of students think that they will be nervous when they don't understand what the teacher says and they will feel nervous when they read unfamiliar words. Therefore, when students learn vocabulary, they are in high level of anxiety.

IV. APPLICATION OF AFFECTIVE FILTER HYPOTHESIS IN ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING

This chapter will apply affective filter hypothesis to the English vocabulary teaching class from three aspects: applying activities to enhance students' internal learning motivation, adopting team work to build up students' confidence and creating a relaxed atmosphere to reduce anxiety, to decrease affective filter function and improve students' learning enthusiasm.

A. Applying Activities to Enhance Students' Internal Learning Motivation

As we all know, interest is the best teacher. Therefore, increasing students' interest in learning vocabulary is good for enhancing students' internal learning motivation. When teachers teach the words, they can use various activities to increase students' interest. During the vocabulary learning, firstly, playing a game: you draw I guess. Teachers draw some half-finished pictures about related English words and let students guess words. Students can think up many related words, and this can arouse their interest so that they are willing to guess the words and learn words. In this way, students feel happy and relaxed when they learn new words and can lay a good foundation for the next process of learning. Then, when teachers teach the new words, they use related colorful pictures to present vocabulary that could leave a vivid image in students' brain. For example, when teachers teach English words about jobs, they present some pictures about jobs and then let students guess the new words. Then show a video to present situation in which the words are used and let students pay attention to the words of pronunciation. Junior middle school students often show great interest in watching the video and they can concentrate on watching it. During watching the video, students would learn the words in the context and experience the difference even in the same words. After that, teachers play a role-playing game and divide students into several groups, then students play their roles to practice the conversation in

their groups. Then teachers choose a group to show. In this way, Students are willing to learn and understand the words well in the process of practical use. Then teachers also tell the cultural connotation or some cultural stories contained in the words. This way will let students know culture atmosphere or cultural differences between the East and the West so that it can deepen students' understanding of words. Teachers can also organize cultural background knowledge speech about vocabulary. Group members search the words' information from the perspective of source, development, difference. Each group chooses a representative to present the information which they search about English words. Through this way, students will know more about English words and further know words so that they can transfer their external motivation to internal motivation. Then teachers use continuous games to let students read words in the happy atmosphere. Such as passing the ball, what is missing, bomb bombing. After students learning new words, teachers play a song when students pass the ball. When the music stops, the student who holds the ball reads the words. Next, play a game of what is missing, teachers let students remember the new words in a short time in the screen, and then students speak out the missing words. Teachers also could choose a word as a bomb or choose some words as bombs. Students have to avoid these words when they read. If they read these bomb words, they will fail. These ways of learning words is good for students' image memory of vocabulary and can make it easier for students to remember words. Many students think it's difficult for them to remember. Therefore, teachers can play a reorganized words game. Teachers scrambled the letters of the words and make students put the letters in right order to make a word. Students who answer it quickly and accurately will get a point. In the end, teachers reward the person with the highest score. Teachers also can adopt mind map to expand related vocabulary by using a group competition game. For example, when teachers teach words about weather, group members could use a mind map to write more words about weather. Then the group which writes the largest number of words wins. And teachers also explain some common structure in some words and then guide students to conclude some useful methods, the method of roots, affix, etc, to remember words. Therefore, students could find that it's not difficult for them to learn and remember vocabulary when they have difficulty in learning vocabulary.

B. Adopting Team Work to Build up Students' Confidence

Students' confidence comes from two parts: one part comes from the teachers and the other part comes from students. The latter seems more important for students. Effective teaching not only requires good cooperation between students and teachers, but also requires good cooperation among students. According to the survey, a majority of students in the junior middle school are afraid of reading vocabulary because they don't know how to read and be afraid of being laughed by their classmates when they read. And as for vocabulary learning, phonetic symbols are the foundation of English words. Therefore, from the perspective of teachers, teachers should build solid foundation of phonetic symbols for students to build up students' confidence in vocabulary learning. Teachers can show some interesting cartoons about phonetic symbols to teach phonetic symbol again and give students more encouragement to reduce students' inferiority complex in vocabulary learning. In the process of teaching, teachers divide students into several teams. During teaching phonetic symbols, teachers design an answer-question game. When teachers point a phonetic symbol, one student read it quickly and accurately. Then his group will get a point. At the end, the teacher rewards the winning group. In this way, it can not only help students review the knowledge, but also help students build up their confidence in learning vocabulary. When teachers teach new words, firstly they can choose to teach some easy words from the new words and then gradually teach the difficult words. It is good for students to understand vocabulary form easy to difficult. When students still don't know to read the words, teachers can use encouraging way to lead him to read them out slowly instead of saying I don't know. At the same time, it is a good way to gradually build up students' confidence in vocabulary learning. Then teachers can design a group competition game. Group members read the new words one by one, teachers see which group reads fast and then reward the winning group. During learning new words, some students are afraid of reading even if they know how to read. In this way, students would pluck up the courage to read words in order to help their team win the glory. Teachers also let groups make up a story according to these new words. After telling the start of story, group members have to make up the story through sentence by sentence. These ways enable students to increase students' confidence unconsciously and lets them feel the happy atmosphere while learning. When one student read the words mistakenly, teachers could ask this student to look for help of his group members and ask this student read it again. Then, the whole class applaud him. In this way, students would feel the kindness of his group members instead of the ridicule from his classmates so that it can build up students' confidence in reading vocabulary.

C. Creating a Relaxed Atmosphere to Reduce Anxiety

As for the teachers and students, teaching is a kind of emotional communication. Effective teaching not only depends on understanding and mutual trust between teachers and students, but also on the harmonious atmosphere. Anxiety is one of the most important and the most complex affective factors in language acquisition. Krashen's affective filter hypothesis inspires that vocabulary teaching needs to create a relaxed atmosphere to make a low affective filter. Less anxious learning environment is good for vocabulary learning, which demands teachers master the methods to decrease students' anxiety. Relaxed and cheerful teaching atmosphere is benefit for students' study in the class. The participants of teaching are the teachers and students and teachers are the creators for the class atmosphere. And according to the survey, most students think the class atmosphere is anxious and they will be nervous when they answer questions. Therefore, firstly, when teaching English words, teachers should be amiable and they can use interesting competition

games to reduce students' anxiety. So that teachers create relaxed teaching atmosphere and students could master knowledge quickly. Then, teachers could give positive reaction or encouragement, rather than give the simple evaluation of right or wrong when students answer questions. In this way, students may produce less anxiety and have a sense of achievement. Next, in the class, teachers could find learners' advantages and take pride in their subtle improvement. When students answer questions even they make mistake, teachers should take an encouraging approach. Because many students are afraid of making mistakes, they feel nervous when they answer questions that teachers ask them. Therefore, when students answer questions, the teacher should understand, encourage and respect students. They shouldn't be completely denied when students make mistakes. During traditional way of dictating English words, students always feel nervous. Therefore, the teacher could use different ways to examine students' mastery degree of English words. For example, use a Binggo game during dictating English words or play a filling blank game to exam students.

V. CONCLUSION

The combination of affective filter hypothesis and junior English vocabulary teaching brings many benefits and it's also offer lots of development space for junior English teaching. In the meantime, students' emotion plays an important part in language learning and it's viable for teachers to teach vocabulary and it's effective for students to learn vocabulary. Under the guidance of affective filter hypothesis, teachers can further know students' psychological state and improve students' interest in learning and give useful advice for students' English learning. Students can learn the vocabulary effectively and actively. The use of affective filter hypothesis in English vocabulary can offset some disadvantages in traditional teaching. As for teachers, teachers can make use of the affective factors and reduce students' affective filter to help students to learn vocabulary. They can adopt various ways to reduce the influence of affective factors on students so as to facilitate students' vocabulary acquisition. Teachers can create peaceful teaching environment and use the teaching method of vocabulary according to students' individual emotion, so that students can acquire vocabulary in a positive attitude and educators could control the class with high efficiency.

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Hyponyms of Insect in Ovoko Lect

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Abstract—**Earlier researches have focused on hyponymy in different languages. There appears to be lack of research in the study of hyponyms of insect in a dialect of Igbo. As such, this study examines the hyponyms of insect in Ovoko lect. The objectives of the study are to identity hyponyms of insects in Ovoko lect and classify them based on their superordinate terms or hypernyms. The study employs componential analysis in the analysis of data which were drawn from introspection and confirmed by selected native speakers of Ovoko lect. The study discovers that there are so many hyponyms of insect in the lect under study and all the hyponyms of insect therein are hyponyms in other levels. The study also shows that all the co-hyponyms in every superordinate term, though have their peculiar features, share some features in common which include them under such superordinate term. The researchers, therefore, recommend more study on the topic to help expand the vocabulary of the Igbo language.**

Index Terms—**hypernyms, componential analysis, co-hyponyms, Ovoko lect, semantics**

I. INTRODUCTION

Semantics is generally known as the study of meaning. Determining the meaning of meaning has been a controversial issue in linguistic studies. In trying to explain why meaning failed to be conceptualized, Yule (1996) argues that in semantics, the focus is often on what words ordinarily mean as against what the speaker of the word has in mind in the context. There are two schools of thought in semantics which are traditional semanticists and linguistic semanticists. While the traditional semanticist contends that words have exact meaning and definite definitions, the linguistic semanticists believe that there is no definite meaning arguing that a set of words or meanings can be associated with a particular word or form (Anagbogu Mbah & Eme, 2010). Linguistic semanticist studies semantics at two grammatical levels: word level and sentence level. At world level, semanticists are concerned with the meaning relationships that exist between words in a language. This is conceptualised as sense relations and which include synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, homonymy, polysemy, etc. As Saussure rightly puts it, words are signs and their relationship to the world is symbolic that they signify concepts rather than things. This results from the fact that individual sign derives its meaning from its existence within a semantic field or related signs and not from the real world (Ani, 2017). In recent years, the study of terminology and specialised language have been undergoing cognitive shift which places a greater focus on conceptual representation and knowledge organisation (Benitez, 2009).

Hyponym, as one of sense relations, is a word whose semantic field is included within that of another word which is its hypernym. Two or more words that are related in a way that they can be classified under another umbrella term are called hyponyms (Anagbogu, Mbah & Eme, 2010). Put differently, hyponym can be seen as a word, phrase or lexeme of narrower or more specific meaning that comes under a term with wider meaning. Examples of such are dog, cat, snake, bird, etc. under the term 'animal'. From this example, the word 'animal' is a superordinate term or hypernym; dog, cat, snake, bird are hyponyms of the word 'animal' and in essence relate to each other as 'co-hyponyms' in this context. In addition, a word can serve as a hyponym of more than one superordinate term. An example can be seen in the term 'eagle' which is a hyponym of 'bird' and as well as hyponym of 'animal' (*Concise Oxford Companion to the English Language*, 2018).

Hyponymy can be seen based on inclusion or on hierarchical relationship between terms. From the angle of inclusion, one can say that 'billy', 'nanny' and 'kid' are contained in superordinate term 'goat' because in their definitions 'goat' is involved. Example: a kid is a young goat while a nanny is an adult female goat. Taking it from the hierarchical perspective, one can see that a hypernym/superordinate term in a given level can become a hyponym in another higher level. Example can be seen in 'bird' which is a hypernym/superordinate term of hyponyms like eagle, wren, dove, pigeon, hawk, vulture, etc. and as well a co-hyponym with reptile, insect and mammal under the higher superordinate

term 'animal' (Nordquist, 2018). The members of a category that best represent the category as a whole are its prototype.

On the other hand, insect is a small creature that has six legs. It is a member of the largest class of the phylum Athropoda which is itself the largest of the animal phyla (Wigglesworth, 2018). Insect has the following characteristics: chitinous exoskeleton, a three-part body (head thorax and abdomen), a three pairs of jointed legs, compound eyes and a pair of antennae. Insect is synonymous with ectognatha or entomida. Scientists posit that the most successful creature is insect and that out of about 1.5 million species of organisms on the planet, insects make up about two thirds of it (Hadhazy, 2015). This success is attributed to their tiny body size which helps hiding and reduces overall energy requirement wide diet of both natural and artificial foods, tough protective exoskeleton, frequent possession of wing which enhance their safety, grub and mates and again their prodigious ability to reproduce. Another fact about insects is their life span. Even through some live for only few days or weeks as reproducing adults, having spent longer period as larvae and pupae, there are still exceptions (Hadhazy, 2015). Out of numerous facts about insects is the fact that they are called by their unique names even though being so numerous. Every lect in a language has different terms for different insects. Ovoko as a lect in the Igbo language is not an exception.

The Ovoko lect is a variety of the Igbo language which is an East Benue Congo language of Niger Congo phylum spoken in South Eastern Nigeria. It is spoken by the indigenous people of Ovoko which is in Igbo-Eze South Local Government Area of Enugu State. Ovoko is bounded by Uhunowere on the North, by Orba on the South, by Iheaka on the East and by Obukpa on the West. Apart from Obukpa which is in Nsukka Local Government Area and Orba which is in Udenu Local Government Area, other communities at its boundries are in Igbo-Eze South Local Government Area of Enugu State.

One way of linking environmental concepts is through the study of hyponymy. It is observed that in sense relations hyponymy is a less familiar term to most people among its co-terms like synonymy, antonym, polysemy, etc. On this note, studies carried out on hyponyms of insects in Ovoko lect of Igbo is lacking. As a result, this study seeks to identify hyponyms of insects in Ovoko lect and classifies them under their subordinate terms. This study generally examines hyponyms of insect, but specifically focuses on the hyponyms of insect in Ovoko lect. So many insects that are found in the environment in the area under study have their peculiar names different from the names common to the group of such insects. Some of these peculiar names are dying as a result of the fact that many children in this new age lack knowledge of them. Therefore, this study will be a way of keeping record of such terms and bringing them to the knowledge of the young generation in the community. It will also bring to light the subordinate term to which every named insect belongs. The research work will also serve as a way of enriching Igbo vocabularies and as a reference material for further researches in the area.

This research paradigm is a qualitative research one which adopts descriptive approach in the analysis of its data. The method of data collection is introspection as two of the researchers are competent speakers of the lect. The obtained data were confirmed by selected native speakers of Ovoko lect. The geographical area of the study is Ovoko in Igbo-Eze South Local Government Area of Enugu State and the content area is sense relation, which is one of the preoccupations of semantics. The data are analysed using the tenets of componential analysis.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

This study employs the componential analysis propounded by Katz and Fodor (1963) in studying hyponyms of insects in Ovoko lect. Componential analysis (CA) is a theory of semantics which claims that meaning of any lexical item can be decomposed into its basic components. In other words, for any lexical item, there are isolable properties that can be used to determine its true semantic content. Componential analysts claim that semantic components permit a succinct characterization of lexical and sentence relation (Ifegwazi, 2016). In CA, words are deconstructed into semantic components, which constitute the total sum of the meaning in a word (Katz & Fodor, 1963). In all, Bussmann (1996) conceives componential theory as the analysis of words through semantically structured sets of features having the presence or absence of a feature in reference

In componential analysis, therefore, binary features (+) are used to characterize the inherent features of the lexical items. (+) indicates the presence of such feature while (-) indicate its absence. Examples as provided by Nwaozuzu (2013, p. 13) include:

Man is expressed as   Woman is expressed as
    + Human   + Human
    + Adult   + Adult
    + Male   - Male
Boy is expressed as   Girl is expressed as
    + Human   + Human
    - Adult   - Adult
    + Male   - Male

Componential analysis has been extolled for its merits. First, it is effective in describing meanings and meaning relationships like hyponymy, entailment, and the grammatical behaviour of word classes. Second, the basic important features of language distinction are revealed in the area of semantics, especially to the speakers of the language. Third,

its effectiveness in the description of grammatical morphemes and words is highly pronounced. Lastly, the words belonging to relatively closed lexical sets such as animals are easily described by using componential analysis (cf. Ifeagwazi, 2016).

Inasmuch as componential analysis can account for some of the content words, it cannot account for functional or grammatical words such as prepositions, conjunctions and pronouns. It does not have any universal features that are applied in distinguishing lexemes. However, componential analysis is apt in accounting for the objectives of the study since the study centres on insects, which belong to noun category. Therefore, it forms the framework of the study. In using CA as the theoretical framework for this research, some components of superordinate terms under insect will be used to identify differences between co-hyponyms of such superordinate term using binary number ($\pm$). By so doing, the identified insects in the lect under study will be seen under their hierarchical relationships which are found under one superordinate term "insect".

III. RELATED STUDIES

Nakamura, Kobayashi, Ogawa and Toyama (2012) adopted a pattern-based approach in studying hyponymy relation acquisition for the agricultural thesaurus. The paper aimed to increase the vocabulary of an existing thesaurus using hyponymy relations. The main objective was to acquire AGROVOC – qualified candidates from the hyponymy relation of legal texts. Using a pattern-based approach to hyponymy relation acquisition, the study showed that over 1,000 terms were extracted, some of which have not been registers in AGROVOC despite agricultural related terms. Though the two works study hyponym, the present study is on hyponyms of insect while Nakamura et al.'s study dealt with hyponymy relations acquisition for the agricultural thesaurus.

Onoja (2014) compared hyponyms of cooking terms in English and Igala. In the study, he established that English and Igala share some similarities in some hyponyms by having some relationships in different areas and having equivalent lexical items. He observed that their major difference is that the English language has more cooking terms than the Igala language and this factor may be because English has borrowed widely. Ayegba (2018) conducted a comparative hyponymous study of kinship terms in Igala and English. The objective of the study was to compare English and Igala kinship terms with the aim of subjecting the differences and similarities of kinships terms of the two languages into analysis. The data for the study were gathered through introspection and analysed using componential analysis as a theoretical framework. Finding of the study showed that there is a good number of differences between English and Igala kinship terms which include: (a) English kinship system is purely classificatory while the Igala kingship system is both classificatory and descriptive (b) in English worldview of kinship the distinctions are made between close and distance kin relationship, but in Igala worldview of kinship, the idea of distant kin relationship is insignificant because of the strong feeling of genealogy that exist in Igala culture. The present study and that of Ayegba (2018) are focused on hypenymous study, but while Ayegba (2018) studies kinship terms in Igala, the present study is on the hyponyms of insects in Ovoko lect.

Atadoga (2018) examined the semantic field of kinship terms in the Igala language. The objectives of the study were to explore what constitute kinship terms in the Igala language, itemize some kinship terms in Igala and determine superordinate terms and hyponyms of kinship terms in Igala. The data for the study were sourced through interview and textbooks. The investigation revealed among others that father, mother, grandparent, in-law, and brother/sister are general superordinate terms for kinship terms that have other co-hyponyms in Igala.

Nyambura, Gathigia and Nyarigoti (2018) studied hyponyms in Gikuyu church sermons in Nyeri County, Kenya. The objective of the study was to look at hyponymy in Gikuyu church sermons with a view to interpreting the nexus between a hypernym and its hyponyms. The study also looks at the influence of gender on hyponyms used in Gikuyu church sermons. The study adopted the semantic field theory (SFT) for the analysis of data which were drawn from tape recording of eight live sermons delivered in the Presbyterian Church of East Africa (PCEA) in Nyeri County, Kenya. The study found that there are superordinate terms and sets of co-hyponyms manifested in Gikuyu Church sermons. It also noted that sense relation is used more by women than men in Gikuyu Church sermons. It concludes that hyponymy is employed in Gikuyu Church sermons in order to create prelateship between hyponyms and superordinate terms. The relationship between this study and the present study is that both study hyponymy but while Nyambura et al. studied hyponyms in Gikuyu church sermons in Nyeri County, Kenya, while the present study is on hyponyms of insects in Ovoko lect.

From the related studies, it is observed a study of hyponyms in a variety of Igbo is lacking. The researchers could not come across any research work carried out on hyponymy in Ovoko lect. As a result of that, the researchers find it justified to fill the gap in literature by studying the hyponyms of insects in Ovoko lect.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Insect in Ovoko lect is commonly known as "ụ̀mụ̀ éhọ̀họ̀". As noted by Wigglesworth (2018), insect is the member of the largest class of the phylum arthropoda, which is itself the largest of the animal phyla. Semantically, insect is a superordinate term that houses a great number of other superordinate terms. "Ụ̀mụ̀ éhọ̀họ̀" as they are commonly called in Ovoko are of different types, which include: 'éhọ̀họ́' (ants), 'ébọ́shì' (crickets), 'ìgbélé' (grasshoppers), énwū (bees),

èkókàrà (termites), íjījī (flies), chínchì (bedbugs), ùtú (weevils), ígwū (louse), ébélé (beetles), énwū (mosquitoes), ògwùgwù (butterflies), ùchíchā (cockroach), etc. All these are hyponyms of the term "insect" but are as well superordinate terms in another level.

In this study, some of the above mentioned insects are going to be analysed using componential analysis in a matrix table. Here, the data that will be used in the analysis are presented with their names in English language.

TABLE 1:
INSECTS AND THEIR HYPONYMS

	Ovoko lect	English language
	Ụmụ̀ ẹ́họ́họ́	insects
1	Ehọ́họ́	ants
a	Ákpórò	sugar ant
b	Ṅdā	regular ant
c	Ṅdá ōnwūnwū	ghost ant
d	Òtá mpā	carpenter ant
e	Ídò	fire ant
f	Ákpọshị	pavement ant
g	Áyáshì	jack jumper ant
h	Íchẹkwúrú	Bullet ant
i	Íérè	Black army ant
j	Íjéré mānū	Red army ant
k	Ákpọshī ílòlò	Flying ant
l	èshínèẹshíáhʷà	Flying ant
2	Ẹgbẹdé	Grasshopper
a	Ẹgwùrùbè	Locust
b	Nshẹshẹ mánū	Long-horned grasshopper
c	Ókéòkə īgbēlē	Differential grasshopper
d	Ìgbélé mā	Lubber grasshopper
e	Òtépàkɗkə	Painted/rainbow/barber pole grasshopper
f	Ẹgbẹdé égā	Pasture grasshopper
g	Ùrá	Forest grasshopper
h	Èbəlèbà íshí ēkwē	Pygmy grasshopper
i	Ónyénwé àlə	Sprinkled grasshopper
j	Òtə ḿkpəm-è	Carolina grasshopper
k	Ònə̀ mɛny íózə	Club-horned grasshopper
3	Èbọshì	Cricket
a	Tétékwūrū	Mole cricket
b	Nshèshè ḿanū	Bush cricket/long-horned grasshopper/tree cricket
c	Chíchígbēgbē	Camel cricket/spider cricket/cave cricket
d	Èbọshì	Field cricket

From table 1 above, it can be seen that Ovoko lect is rich in vocabulary which they use to refer to different insects which are within their environment. At the surface level, one who is not conversant with these insects may classify all co-hyponyms of ant as ant as well as grasshopper and cricket. The importance of CA in this study is to deconstruct the salient features of the hyponyms of these insects.

The hyponyms of ẹ́họ́họ́ 'ant' in example 1 can be analysed using CA as in the matrix table below:

TABLE 2:
COMPONENTIAL MATRIX FOR ẹ́họ́họ́ 'ANT'

	Insect	Flying	Biting	Stinging	Household	Ant	Black	Bigger	Wood
Akporo	+	–	–	–	+	+	–	+	–
Nda	+	–	–	–	+	+	+	–	–
Nda onwunwu	+	–	–	–	+	+	–	–	–
Ọta mpa	+	–	+	–	–	+	+	+	+
Ido	+	–	+	–	–	+	–	+	–
Akpọshị	+	–	–	+	+	+	+	–	–
Ayashị	+	–	–	+	–	+	+	+	–
Ichekwuru	+	–	+	–	–	+	+	+	–
Ijere	+	–	+	–	–	+	+	–	–
Ijere manx	+	–	+	–	–	+	–	–	–
Akpọshị ilolo	+	+	–	+	–	+	+	+	–
Eshị nẹ ẹshị ahʷa	+	+	–	+	–	+	+	–	–

The componential matrix above shows the feature(s), which a hyponym of 'ant' has or does not have. These features as can be seen in table 2 include: insect, flying, biting, stinging, household, ant, black, bigger and wood. From the table above, it is obvious that some ants are more related than others though they are all co-hyponyms in the hypernym 'ant'.

'Akporo' and 'uda' only contrasted at their size. 'Ọtampa' and 'ido' have their contrast at their colour and habitat only. 'Nda' and 'nda onwunwu' have their contrast at colour. 'Ẹshị nẹ ẹshị ahʷa' and 'akpəshị ilolo' contrast at their

size. 'Ijere' and 'ijere manu' has theirs at colour. 'ichekwuru' and 'ijere' contrast at their size here. [+] sign shows that the feature is present in the insect while [-] sign shows absence of the feature in the insect.

Below is also the componential analysis of the hyponyms of the term grasshopper 'Igbele' in a matrix table.

TABLE 3:
COMPONENTIAL MATRIX FOR *igbele* 'GRASSHOPPER'

	Long antenna	Insect	Flying	Slant face	Edible	Colourful	Stinks	Grasshopper	Bigger thorax
Igwurube	–	+	+	–	+	±	–	+	+
Nsheshe manụ	+	+	+	–	–	–	–	+	–
Oke oke igbele	–	+	+	–	+	+	–	+	+
Igbele ma	–	+	±	–	–	+	+	+	–
Ote pakekə	–	+	+	–	–	+	–	+	+
Igbele ẹgə	–	+	+	–	–	±	–	+	–
Ụra	–	+	+	–	+	–	–	+	–
Ebəle bə ishi ekwe	–	+	+	–	–	±	–	+	+
Onye nwe alə	–	+	+	+	–	±	–	+	–
Qtə mkpəme	–	+	–	–	–	–	–	+	–
Qnə mənyi ozə	–	+	+	–	–	–	–	+	+
Amịrọwa	–	+	+	–	–	–	–	+	–

The anatomy and functions of grasshopper are different from those of ant to an extent. As such, not all the same features that apply to ant apply to grasshopper. From the table above, some hyponyms of grasshopper are edible because of their nutritional contents whereas others are not.

The matrix above shows, just like that of ant, that some grasshoppers have more common components than others. Take for instance: 'Nsheshe manu' and 'an[rowa' have their contrast only at the length of their antenna. 'Onye nwe al' and ofe mkpme' have their contrast at the size of their thorax just as 'onə mənyi ozə' and 'amirowa'. Onye nwe alə' and Igbele ẹgə have their own contrast at their shape of face. It is only three species of grasshoppers that Ovoko people eat.

± sign shows that such component may be present or absent in the grasshopper in the sense that such type of grasshopper has species in it where one exhibits such feature, the other does not.

The hyponyms of cricket 'ẹbəshị' can also be analysed using CA as in the matrix table below:

TABLE 4:
COMPONENTIAL MATRIX FOR *ébəshị* 'CRICKET'

	Insect	Edible	Flying	Chirping	Household	Cylindrical	Cricket
Ebəshị	+	+	+	+	–	–	+
Tetekwuru	+	+	–	–	–	+	+
Nshẹn ḍemanụ	+	–	+	–	–	–	+
Chịchịgbẹgbe	+	–	–	+	+	–	+

From the matrix above, it is clear that species of cricket have clear distinctive features. They do not share much features in common. However, they are all co-hyponyms in the hypernym "cricket". However, *Ebəshị* is the prototype of the term *ebəshi* in the lect. With this matrix and the features therein, one can easily identify any of the hyponyms of cricket where one sees them. This often applies to non-native speakers of Ovoko lect who have different names for these hyponyms.

V. CONCLUSION

From the study carried out above, it is discovered that there are so many hyponyms of insects in Ovoko lect such as 'ẹbəshi', 'igbele', 'ẹhəhə', 'ụchicha', 'igwu', 'ẹkəkara', 'ẹnwụ', 'ebele', 'ijiji', 'ogwugwu', etc. However, all the hyponyms of insects are hypernyms in other levels as different insects have different species that bear their unique names in the lect under study.

The analysis done above on 'ant', 'grasshopper' and 'cricket' shows that all the co-hyponyms in every superordinate terms share some features in common, which made them to be included under such superordinate term. However, they have their contrastive features which isolate them whenever their names are mentioned. For instance, the chirping household cricket in Ovoko lect is called *chịchịgbẹgbẹ*. This study has identified hyponyms of insects in Ovoko lect and classified them based on their superordinate terms in a way that will be beneficial to the enrichment of the Igbo language vocabulary.

The researcher encourages researchers to study topics in hyponymy in the Igbo language or its lects as that will enrich Igbo vocabulary. This is pertinent because in most cases, the Standard Igbo language may not have a word for the hyponyms of insects studied in this paper. As such, Igbo linguists may draw some terms from Igbo dialects and incorporate them in the Standard Igbo.

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On the Establishment of Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotations for Modern Chinese Compounds

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Abstract—**This research establishes Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotations for Compounds, and statistically analyses the using frequency of morphemes and their meanings in the database. The research shows that the using frequency of "zi" (子) and "er" (儿) is the highest, and their meanings with the highest using frequency are applied when the morphemes are affixes. Among various meanings of one morpheme, only one meaning would be applied with high frequency, with simpler and specific implications. By overviewing all morphemes, it is observed that those with higher using frequency do not necessarily have meanings with high frequency of use. By analyzing internal structures of compounds, this paper finds that noun-modification compounds are the most, followed with verb-object compounds and affixation compounds. The semantic logic relations between morphemes and compound words can be: word definitions can be the abstraction of objects signified by morpheme meanings, or of senses signified by morpheme meanings, or of spatial meanings signified by morpheme meanings.**

Index Terms—**compound words, morpheme meaning, database, word formation**

I. INTRODUCTION

Searching on CNKI, there are 214 academic papers researching on morpheme meanings of modern Chinese words. By analyzing the existing studies in this area, it is discovered that they mainly focus on the Chinese language itself. For example, by investigating on new word selection and new meaning compilation in *Modern Chinese Dictionary*, Cheng (2017) discusses the relationship between them and other related issues. In addition, most of the existing studies are on the annotation of certain vocabulary in a specific corpus. For example, Wang, Yang et al. (2017) research on the annotation of polysemous words in *Modern Chinese Dictionary*, but it is short of studying on database with all compounds' morphemes and their meaning annotations. Moreover, from the perspective of natural language processing, the current academia lacks a database of all morphemes to construct compounds and morpheme meaning annotations. To solve these issues, this research will establish a Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotations for Modern Chinese Compounds.

II. ESTABLISHMENT OF DATABASE OF MORPHEME MEANING ANNOTATIONS FOR COMPOUNDS

A. Design of Database Structure

In the fifth edition of Modern Chinese Dictionary (herein referred to as MCD 5), a compound entry includes Pinyin, part of speech, word definition and sample sentence. Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotations for Compounds (hereinafter referred to as Database of Morpheme Annotations) annotates morphemes in compounds. As pronunciation and part of speech are not directly relevant to morpheme annotation, they are omitted in the database, whereas only word definition and sample sentence are kept since they contribute to an accurate morpheme annotation. In addition, every compound in the database has an ID (see column A in picture 2-1). As the longest compound in the database has eight morphemes, eight morpheme fields are set up, with each morpheme distributed in its corresponding field.

In summary, Database of Morpheme Annotations includes several fields, such as ID, word, word definition, morpheme 1, morpheme 2, morpheme 8, and so on (see figure 2-1).

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	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H
1	ID	词	词义	语素1	语素2	语素3	语素4	语素5
2	29274	扭力	力。	扭	力			
3	29275	扭力天平	。由钨丝悬挂一根两端	扭	力	天	平	
4	29276	扭捏	故意左右摇动，今指举	扭	捏			
5	29277	扭秧歌	〈轻〉跳秧歌舞。	扭	秧	歌		
6	29278	扭转	子，向车间走去。	扭	转			
7	29279	扭转形变	另一端加一力偶使它绕	扭	转	形	变	
8	29282	纽带	或事物：批评和自我批	纽	带			
9	29283	纽扣	扣起来的小形球状物或	纽	扣			

Figure 2-1 The structure of Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotations for Compounds

Meaning Annotation Database is based on Morpheme Annotation Database. "Morpheme meaning" field is added after "morpheme" field, and "morpheme meaning" contains full meanings of a certain morpheme, which is associated with word definition under a single-character entry. Also, "accurate meaning" field is added to indicate the exact meaning of a morpheme in a compound. At the same time, computer automatically generates a new ID (see "ID" bar in Figure 2-2). In Morpheme Annotation Database, a compound has a maximum of eight morphemes, thus, in the corresponding Meaning Annotation Database, a compound has up to eight fields of "morpheme meaning" and "accurate meaning".

To summarize, the database includes fields such as ID1, ID, word, word definition, morpheme 1, morpheme 1 meaning, accurate meaning 1, morpheme 2, morpheme 2 meaning, accurate meaning 2 and so on (see Figure 2-2).

A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J
ID1	ID	词	词义	语素1	语素1义	准确义1	语素2	语素2义	准确义2
40350	47563	拥护	对领袖、党	拥	47560* yǒ	47560（4）	护	16902* hù	16902（1）
40351	47564	拥挤	（1）（人	拥	47560* yǒ	47560（3）	挤	18310* jǐ	18310（1）
40352	47565	拥塞	拥挤的人马	拥	47560* yǒ	47560（3）	塞	34091* sā	34091（1）
40353	47566	拥有	领有；具有	拥	47560* yǒ	47560（1）	有	48322* yǒ	48322（1）
40354	47568	痈疽	毒疮。	痈疽	47568*；毒	47568+(1)			
40355	47570	邕剧	广西壮族自	邕	47569* yǒ	47569(2)	剧	21855* 1 jù	21855(1)
40356	47573	庸才	＜书＞指自	庸	47571* 1 y	47571(2)	才	3370* 1 c	3370(2)

Figure 2-2 The structure of Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotations for Modern Chinese Compounds

B. Establishment of Compound Database

A compound is a word consisting of two or more morphemes. In Chinese, except for retroflex suffixation [e.g., "huār" (花儿) has two Chinese characters with one morpheme], a Chinese character has a syllable, so a compound has two or more syllables. By screening compounds with two or more syllables, this study preliminarily establishes Compound Database. On the other hand, since simple words such as "pútáo (葡萄), línglóng (玲珑), xiāoyáo (逍遥), fúróng (芙蓉), qiǎokèlì (巧克力)" also have two or more syllables, they will also be in Compound Database, which will have a certain adverse effect on the authenticity and scientificity of the data. Therefore, after the initial screening of compounds, manual annotation is also necessary to do a secondary correction for the data.

Compound Database contains a total of 44,905 compounds, including some polysyllable morphemes that are not yet confirmed to be compounds. These words will be re-judged integrating word definition and morpheme meaning in the subsequent establishment of Morpheme Annotation Database and Meaning Annotation Database.

C. Establishment of Morpheme Annotation Database for Compounds

A morpheme is the smallest phonological and meaningful language unit. "Meaning" refers to lexical meaning and grammatical meaning. Zhiwei Lu (1957) proposed to use the "extension method" to identify words, namely the later generally applicable "substitution method", which was using a known morpheme to replace another language unit that is not yet confirmed to be a morpheme. Due to restrictions on meaning selection when compiling dictionaries, it is difficult for any dictionary to exhaust all compounds. Therefore, considering some single characters that are selected into MCD 5 and MCD 7 while other compounds starting with these particular characters are not selected, or only one compound starting with these particular words is included, this research will include words and meanings in The Great Chinese Dictionary (hereinafter referred to as GCD) and The Grand Dictionary of Chinese Characters (hereinafter referred to as GDCC). For example, under the single-character entry "qǐ" (迄) in MCD 7, only the word "qìjīn" (迄今)

is included. If this morpheme was categorized by "substitution method", it could be difficult to find a morpheme that can substitute "jīn" (今), which would cause challenges to judge whether "qì" (迄) is a morpheme or not. However, based on GCD, "qìjīn" (迄今) can be searched out, and another word "qǐqì" (起迄) is included as well, so "qì" (迄) can be defined as a morpheme.

Morpheme Annotation Database divides units according to characters, and computer defaults a Chinese character as a morpheme. For example, in the table below, "ānkāng" (安康) is divided into two Chinese characters, "ān" (安) and "kāng" (康), i.e., two morphemes, and they are placed in the fields of "morpheme 1" and "morpheme 2" respectively; similarly, "ānlèwō" (安乐窝) is divided into three Chinese characters and respectively placed in "morpheme 1", "morpheme 2" and "morpheme 3".

TABLE 2-1
EXAMPLES OF MORPHEME ANNOTATION DATABASE

ID	Word	Word definition	Morpheme 1	Morpheme 2	Morpheme 3
132	ānkāng (安康)	平安和健康 contented and in good health	ān (安)	kāng (康)	
133	Ānlā (安拉)	阿拉伯语音译词。意为真主。 A word transliterated from Arabic. Means Allah.	Ān (安)	lā (拉)	
135	ānlèwō (安乐窝)	泛指个人（构筑的）所谓安逸舒适、与世无争的生活环境。 snug retreat; cosy nest	ān (安)	lè (乐)	wō (窝)

However, since Morpheme Annotation Database divides morphemes by computer, setting a character as a unit, while characters do not necessarily correspond to words, errors of division may arise, so it is necessary to manually correct the data in later stage. As shown in the above table, "Ānlā" (安拉) is a transliterated word from Arabic, which should be one morpheme, but the computer divides it into two morphemes. Thus, in manual correction stage, "Ānlā" (安拉) is put in "morpheme 1", whereas "lā" (拉) is deleted in "morpheme 2". See the table below.

TABLE 2-2
MODIFIED EXAMPLES OF MORPHEME ANNOTATION DATABASE

ID	Word	Word definition	Morpheme 1	Morpheme 2	Morpheme 3
133	Ānlā (安拉)	A word transliterated from Arabic. Means Allah.	Ānlā (安拉)		

In addition, a total of 851 other words modified in the database: āfēi (阿飞), āyì (阿邑), Ēpánggōng (阿房宫), bèndàn (笨蛋), bǎnlì (板栗), cànlàn (灿烂), càntou (孱头), duǒyí (朵颐), Hóngmén (鸿门), Xuānwǔ (宣武), húlì (槲栎), huìyàn (会厌), huìhuì (哕哕), Huáinánzǐ (淮南子), jījí (积极), làngmàn (浪漫), Lǎozǐ (老子), Kǒngzǐ (孔子), sānmèi (三昧), shùndang (顺当), tǐngtuō (挺脱), wándàn (完蛋), suǒyǐ (所以), wèiyǔ (谓语), lěngbùdīng (冷不丁), lěngbùfáng (冷不防), xiángshí (翔实), Xuāntǒng (宣统), chíchú (踟蹰), yǔqí (与其), gàiniàn (概念), zǐxū (子虚), zǒushuǐ (走水), zījiān (仔肩).

D. Establishment of Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotations for Modern Chinese Compounds

Firstly, we associate definitions of words under single-character entries in MCD 5 with morphemes in the established Morpheme Annotation Database, so that each morpheme is followed by a corresponding meaning. Generally, a Chinese character is a syllable, so we screen out words with one character in MCD 5, then we have multi-character words under single-character entries and their definitions in MCD 5, as shown in Table 2-3.

TABLE 2-3
EXAMPLES OF SINGLE-WORD ENTRIES IN *MCD*

Word	Definition
cán (蚕)	3788*Cán 桑蚕、柞蚕等的统称，通常专指桑蚕。generic name for the silkworm, tussah, etc., usually referring to the silkworm
gē (歌)	13190*gē (1) 歌曲 song: 民～ mín~|山～儿 shān~r|唱一个～儿 chàng yīgè~r. (2) 唱 sing: ～者~zhě|高～一曲 gāo～yīqǔ.
mó(模)	27953*Mó(1) 法式；规范 standard: ～型~xíng|楷～kǎi~. (2) 仿效 imitate: ～仿~fǎng|～拟~nǐ. (3) 指模范 model:劳～láo~|评～píng~. (4) 名 姓 a surname. See also mú. 27954*Mú (～儿) 模子(~r) mould; matrix; pattern: 铅～qiān~|铜～儿 tóng~r. See also mó

After extracting multi-character entries in MCD 5, we associate morphemes with their meanings, following the steps below:

First, adding two fields after each morpheme in Morpheme Annotation Database, and naming them as "morpheme meaning" and "accurate meaning" respectively. Second, corresponding one to one between the extracted multi-character entries and the same morphemes in Morpheme Annotation Database. Finally, associating definitions of multi-character entries with the "morpheme meaning" field. After matching morphemes and their meanings, computer

automatically generates a new ID, i.e., the "ID" column in the following table. For example, the morphemes of "móxíng" are "mó" and "xíng". By adding fields "morpheme meaning" and "accurate meaning" after "mó" and "xíng" respectively, and definitions of "mó" and "xíng" into their corresponding field "morpheme meaning", computer then automatically generates a new ID 27967. As shown in Table 2-4.

TABLE 2-4
EXAMPLES OF ASSOCIATIONS BETWEEN MORPHEME AND ITS MEANING

ID1	ID	Word	Word definition	Morpheme 1	Morpheme 1 meaning	Accurate meaning 1	Morpheme 2	Morpheme 2 meaning	Accurate meaning 2
23635	27967	móxíng (模型)	依照实物的形状和结构按比例制成的物品，多用来展览或实验 small copy or imitation of an existing object made to scale for exhition or experiment	mó (模)	27953*Mó (1) 法式；规范；标准 pattern; standard：～型~xíng｜楷～kǎi~. (2) 仿效 imitate：～仿～fǎng｜～拟~nǐ. (3) 指模范 model：劳～láo~｜评～píng~. (4) a surname See also mú. 27954*mú (~r) 模子 mould; matrix; pattern：铅～qiān~｜铜～tóng ~r. See also mó.		xíng (型)	44439*xíng (1) 模型 mould: 砂～shā~. (2) 类型 model; type; pattern; size: 脸～liǎn~｜血～xuè~｜小～xiǎo~｜大～dà~｜新～xīn~｜流线～liúxiàn ~.	

Regarding data deviations generated during the process of associating morphemes with meanings, manual annotations will be applied to ensure reliability and authenticity of the data. The steps to annotate entries are as follows:

In the first place, checking whether the compound morpheme annotations are right, and correcting them if there are mistakes. If so, we annotate meanings to ensure accuracy of the meaning annotations. Due to the drawbacks of computer annotations, there are certain errors in morpheme annotations. After data correction, two main types of morpheme annotation errors are found: first, compounds that should be annotated as multiple morphemes are annotated as single ones. For example, "gējù" (歌剧) is composed of two morphemes, but it is marked as a morpheme in Morpheme Annotation Database and is placed in the "morpheme 1" field. Second, words that should have one morpheme are annotated as multiple morphemes. For example, "Ālābó" (阿拉伯) in "Ālābóhǎi" (阿拉伯海) is a single morpheme, but it is annotated as three morphemes in Morpheme Annotation Database. In the above two types of situations, morphemes need to be corrected before their meanings are annotated. Furthermore, the method to modify morphemes is to split "gē" (歌) and "jù" (剧), putting them in "morpheme 1" and "morpheme 2" respectively, and to supplement their morpheme meanings respectively into "morpheme 1 meaning" and "morpheme 2 meaning" fields. Similarly, merging "ā" (阿), "lā" (拉) and "bó" (伯) into "morpheme 1" field, and moving the morpheme "hǎi" (海) and its definitions into "morpheme 2" and "morpheme 2 meaning" fields.

Secondly, annotating meanings for compounds with the right morpheme annotations. Choosing the exact meaning for each morpheme from "morpheme meaning" field, then filling morpheme's ID and its meaning number into the field "accurate meaning". Taking the term "gējù" (歌剧) (see Table 2-5) as an example, the ID of morpheme "gē" (歌) is "13190", meaning "song" in the word "gējù" (歌剧), which corresponds to "(1) Song" in "morpheme 1 meaning". Therefore, when manually annotating, "13190 (1)" is placed in "accurate meaning 1". Similarly, the ID of morpheme "jù" (剧) is "21855". In the term "gējù" (歌剧), the meaning of "jù" (剧) is "drama", which corresponds to "(1) drama" in the field of "morpheme 2 meaning". Therefore, "21855(1)" is annotated in "exact meaning 2" field.

Several points to note: (1) Some morphemes have only one meaning. In "morpheme meaning" field, there is only the ID of the morpheme, but no serial number annotation. Therefore, when manually annotating such morphemes, it is necessary to add "+(1)" after ID to distinguish the annotations of other morphemes in order to facilitate subsequent data analysis and processing. For example, in the word "biànlùn" (辩论), morpheme "biàn" (辩) has only one meaning, "debate", with the ID "2577". When annotating its meaning, it is marked as "2577+(1)". (2) Some morphemes have multiple meanings, with one meaning corresponding to one ID, so when manually annotating the entries, special attention should be paid to the corresponding ID number to avoid reducing accuracy of the data. For example, when annotating morpheme "mó" (模) in "móxíng" (模型), "mó" (模) has two IDs, namely "27953" and "27954". "*1" and "*2" represent the order of meanings of "mó" (模), and these two IDs correspond to the meanings of "pattern; standard", "imitate", "model" and "mould". In the word "móxíng" (模型), the meaning of "mó" (模) is "pattern; standard", which

is the meaning (1) under ID27953, so "27953(1)" should be marked.

TABLE 2-5
EXAMPLES OF MEANING ANNOTATIONS

ID1	ID	Word	Word definition	Morpheme 1	Morpheme 1 meaning	Accurate meaning 1	Morpheme 2	Morpheme 2 meaning	Accurate meaning 2
11456	13195	gējù (歌剧)	综合诗歌、音乐、舞蹈等艺术而以歌唱为主的戏剧。 opera; drama work that foregrounds singing and synthesizes poetry, music and dance	gē (歌)	13190*gē (1) 歌曲 song: 民歌 mín~folk song ｜ 山 ～ 儿 shān~r folk song in the fileds during or after work ｜ 唱一个～儿 chàng yí ge ~r ;sing a song (2) sing: ～者～ zhě singer｜ 高～一曲 gāo ~ yì qǔ sing a song loudly	13190(1)	jù (剧)	21855* 1 jù (1) 戏剧 theatrical work; drama; play; opera : 演 ～ yǎn~ ｜ 话 ～ huà~ ｜ 独幕～ dúmù~ ｜这个～的主题很鲜明 zhège~ de zhǔtí hěn xiānmíng ◇ 惨 ～ cǎn~ ｜ 丑~chǒu~. (2) (Jù) a surname. 21856*2 jù 猛烈；厉害 acute; severe; intense; sharp: ～烈~ liè ｜ ～痛 ~tòng ｜ ～饮 ~yǐn ｜~变 ~ biàn ｜加~jiā~.	21855(1)

According to incomplete statistics, the number of morphemes annotated with meanings in Meaning Annotation Database is about 105,000, including morphemes that have confirmed meanings, those that are difficult to accurately judge meanings, and those that need to supplement meanings from other dictionaries due to the lack of meanings in this database. Taking "biāo" (镖) as an example, in Meaning Annotation Database, the meaning of "biāo" (镖) is "lance; old-fashioned weapon thrown to injure or kill", but if this meaning is used to explain "biāokè" (镖客), it is not accurate enough. So, the meaning "armed escort (of travellers or merchants' caravans"[1] is applied by referring to GCD.

III. QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

A. Using Frequency of Morphemes and Their Meanings

In this study, software Excel and Access are used to count the morphemes in Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotations for Compounds, arranged in order of using frequency. The statistics show that 10,688 unrepeated morphemes are in the database, and the total using frequency of all morphemes is 97,035 times, with the average frequency 9.08 times for each morpheme. 2,023 morphemes are used more than the average frequency, and 170 morphemes are used more than 100 times.

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[1] *The Great Chinese Dictionary* (volume 11, page 1377)

TABLE 3-1
EXAMPLES OF MORPHEMES WITH USING FREQUENCY OVER 100 TIMES AND THEIR FREQUENCY

Morpheme	Frequency	Morpheme	Frequency	Morpheme	Frequency	Morpheme	Frequency	Morpheme	Frequency	Morpheme	Frequency
zi(子)	1111	xiǎo(小)	217	shū(书)	170	jūn(军)	138	míng(名)	121	hào(号)	108
er(儿)	698	fǎ(法)	216	rán(然)	168	shí(时)	137	yòng(用)	121	guò(过)	107
rén(人)	386	fēn(分)	215	jiā(家)	167	pí(皮)	137	qì(器)	120	luò(落)	107
shuǐ(水)	338	xíng(行)	214	yǎn(眼)	165	dìng(定)	137	chǎng(场)	118	zhuǎn(转)	106
shēng(生)	338	miàn(面)	212	mén(门)	165	yè(业)	135	xuè(血)	118	bàn(半)	106
tóu(头)	334	xìng(性)	211	dào(道)	163	sè(色)	135	rì(日)	118	xìn(信)	106
dòng(动)	320	zhōng(中)	210	tōng(通)	163	shí(石)	134	duì(对)	118	gàn(干)	105
xué(学)	316	zhàn(战)	209	chǎn(产)	160	hǎi(海)	134	rè(热)	117	chóng(虫)	105
dì(地)	311	xiàn(线)	206	mín(民)	158	qǐ(起)	134	shí(实)	115	guǎn(管)	104
xīn(心)	300	kǒu(口)	205	lǎo(老)	157	cǎo(草)	134	zú(族)	115	cài(菜)	104
diàn(电)	294	fā(发)	203	lǐ(理)	157	shān(山)	133	zhèng(政)	115	tiáo(调)	104
dà(大)	292	shì(事)	203	lù(路)	157	zuò(作)	132	yùn(运)	114	xiāng(相)	104
huā(花)	290	zì(自)	199	gāo(高)	155	zhèng(正)	132	biǎo(表)	114	zī(资)	104
qì(气)	283	wài(外)	197	nián(年)	150	chéng(成)	131	pǐn(品)	114	liào(料)	104
bù(不)	277	zhǔyì(主义)	191	jiào(教)	149	jīng(经)	131	cí(词)	114	zhǒng(种)	103
gōng(工)	267	běn(本)	189	píng(平)	149	zì(字)	130	huí(回)	113	mù(木)	103
wù(物)	263	yī(一)	189	zhǔ(主)	148	tǔ(土)	129	liàng(量)	112	bào(报)	102
jī(机)	252	guāng(光)	184	chē(车)	146	diǎn(点)	129	jiǎo(角)	111	bǎo(保)	102
huà(化)	244	huì(会)	182	yóu(油)	146	dǎ(打)	129	huà(话)	111	máo(毛)	102
tǐ(体)	241	bìng(病)	180	fāng(方)	146	huáng(黄)	127	yì(义)	110	yǔ(语)	102
hé(合)	240	wú(无)	179	jiāo(交)	146	zhǎng(长)	126	dé(得)	110	hēi(黑)	102
guó(国)	240	shàng(上)	179	chū(出)	144	lùn(论)	125	sān(三)	110	fàng(放)	101
shǒu(手)	235	zhì(制)	178	hóng(红)	143	yǒu(有)	124	mǎ(马)	110	bǎn(板)	101
tiān(天)	232	shù(数)	177	qíng(情)	142	tiě(铁)	124	yuán(原)	109	yìng(应)	101
huǒ(火)	228	kāi(开)	177	dù(度)	141	shén(神)	123	míng(明)	109	
lì(力)	227	gōng(公)	176	zhòng(重)	140	fǎn(反)	123	nèi(内)	109	
wén(文)	227	yīn(音)	176	jīn(金)	140	tóng(同)	123	gǔ(骨)	109	
bái(白)	224	xià(下)	172	hòu(后)	140	yì(意)	122	bīng(兵)	109	
fēng(风)	220	liú(流)	170	kōng(空)	139	biàn(变)	121	shēn(身)	108	

Although the above morphemes are used frequently in compounds, not all of them have high using frequency for all meanings. Then, this study further ranks the using frequency of all morpheme meanings in the database from high to low to recognize the most frequently used meanings in high-frequency morphemes. For convenience, this paper only shows morpheme meanings that are used more than 100 times (include 100). As shown in the table below:

TABLE 3-2
EXAMPLES OF MEANINGS' USING FREQUENCY

Morpheme	Meaning	Frequency
zi (子)	noun suffix	862
er (儿)	suffix	517
rén (人)	higher animal that can make tools and use them in labor	386
shuǐ (水)	The simplest hydroxide compound combining two hydrogen colorless, odorless and tasteless liquid oxide of hydrogen (H_2O)	318
dà (大)	(as opposed to "small") big; large; great (in volume, area, quantity, force, strength, etc.)	304
diàn (电)	physical phenomenon arising from the existence and change of electric charge, an important energy used extensively in production and daily life to provide light, heat, power, etc.	304
wù (物)	thing; matter; substance	288
dòng (动)	(as opposed to "still") change the place or position of sth..	283
xīn (心)	usually also referring to the heart; mind; feeling; intention	258
xiǎo (小)	(as opposed to "big") small; little; petty; minor;not up to the average, or not comparable in such aspects as volume, area, quantity, strength, intensity, etc.	233
bù (不)	used before verbs, adjectives and other adverbs to indicate negation	227
guó (国)	country; state; nation	225
xué (学)	subject of study; branch of learning	194
zì (自)	self; oneself; one's own	167
shǒu (手)	hand	162
huǒ (火)	fire; light and flame caused by burning	162
zhàn (战)	war; warefare; battle; fight; combat	157
bái (白)	(as opposed to "black") white; color of fresh snow or frost	157
hé (合)	(as opposed to "separate") join; combine	156
jī (机)	machine	143
bìng (病)	abnormal physiological or mental condition; disease; illness; sickness	138
jūn (军)	armed force; army; troops	130
rán (然)	adverb or adjective suffix	129
zhǔyì (主义)	-ism; systematic doctrine or theory on the objective world, society or academic issues	126
yīn (音)	sound	125
huā (花)	flower; shoot of the sporophyte of a seed plant modified for reproduction, having leaves, calyces, thalami, and pistils, some featuring splendid colours and emitting fragrance	122
yóu (油)	oil; fat; grease; petroleum; liquid fat contained in animals and plants, or mixed mineral liquids of hydrocarbon compounds	120
gōng (工)	work; labour	119
xìng (性)	property; quality; attribute of sth. resulting from a certain element contained in it	117
kǒu (口)	mouth; human or amimal's organ for taking food and uttering sounds	116
shì (事)	Matter; affair; thing; business	114
mín (民)	the people	110
huáng (黄)	yellow,like the flowers of towel gourd or sunflower	110
yǎn (眼)	eye; human or animal organ of vision or of light sensitivity	109
fēng (风)	wind; breeze; gale; air current moving approximately parallel to the ground surface, caused by uneven distribution of atmospheric pressure	109
hóng (红)	red; colour of blood or the pomegranate flower	108
guāng (光)	light; electromagnetic radiation that acts upon the retina of the eye, optic nerve, etc., making sight possible; matter that shines over an object, making it visible to the eye, such as sunlight, lamplight, and moonlight.	108

The high-frequency morphemes in Table 3-1 and Table 3-2 are simple, commonly used and close to daily life [such as shuǐ (水), diàn (电), yóu (油), guāng (光), chóng (虫), shǒu (手), huǒ (火), etc.]. By comparing Meaning Annotation Database and "accurate meaning" field, it is observed that high-frequency meanings are those in "morpheme meaning" field with serial number (1) or (2). Furthermore, there are no identical morphemes shown in the table. In other words, apart from the above morpheme meanings, no other meanings are applied more than 100 times. At the same time, other morpheme meanings with lower using frequency and more abstract and general meanings are not included in the table, indicating that among various meanings of one morpheme, only one meaning is more often applied. For example, the high-frequency meaning of "fēng" (风) is "air current moving approximately parallel to the ground surface, caused by uneven distribution of atmospheric pressure" The using frequency of it is 109 times, however, other meanings of "fēng" (风) do not exceed 100 times, indicating that not all meanings of a morpheme are frequently used, and some high-frequency meanings, such as "custom", "scene", and "attitude", are more abstract and difficult to understand. In addition, meanings with higher frequency are relatively simple and specific, such as "zì (自, self)", "kǒu (口, mouth)", etc. Otherwise, meanings are abstract and difficult to understand, such as "zì (自, from; since)", "kǒu (口, gate)", etc.

It can also be seen from Table 3-1 and Table 3-2 that morphemes sorted according to using frequency of meanings

are all included in Table 3-1, but they have different sequences from Table 3-2. For example, in Table 3-1 the using frequency of morpheme "guāng" (光) is higher than that of "mín" (民), but in Table 3-2, the usage frequency of "mín" (民) is higher than that of "guāng" (光). This shows that the using frequency of a morpheme is not necessarily positively related to that of its meanings.

In addition, morphemes with high using frequency may not have meanings with higher using frequency. The reasons may be: (1) a morpheme may have many meanings, with each of them used, so their using frequency could scattered. For example, there are 212 compounds composed of morpheme "miàn" (面), and "miàn" (面) has 12 meanings with each of them applied in different compounds, so there is no certain meaning applied collectively. (2) Conditions of word-formation by morphemes are single. For example, the using frequency of morpheme "bīng" (兵) is 109 times, while that of its highest frequency meaning is only 55 times. Compounds with "bīng" (兵) include bīngqì (兵器), bīngfǎ (兵法), qíbīng (骑兵), zhǐshàngtánbīng (纸上谈兵), etc.. Although many compounds include "bīng" (兵), the use of meanings is limited to a specific condition, so the using frequency is lower than that of other common meanings.

B. Internal Structure

This research extracts 6,806 compounds applying morpheme meanings in Table 3-2 and sets these compounds as the research object to divide their structures. The results show: the compounds with noun-modification structure are the most, with the amount 5,119, accounting for 75.3% of the total. Followings are 729 compounds with verb-object structure, accounting for 10.7% of the total. 499 compound words have affixation structures, accounting for approximately 7.3% of the total; the total number of compounds with predicate-modification structure, subject-predicate structure, parallel-combination structure and verb-complement structure is 459, occupying around 6.7% of the total. E.g.:

Compounds with noun-modification structure: mínfǎ (民法), cháhuā (茶花), ěrjī (耳机), chūnguāng (春光), fēngshēng (风声)

Compounds with verb-object structure: tiǎozhàn (挑战), dòngxīn (动心), chùdiàn (触电), cānzhàn (参战), hébì (合璧)

Compounds with affixation structures: Ànzi (案子), diézi (碟子), chúér (雏儿), ànrán (黯然), ǒurán (偶然)

Compounds with predicate-modification structure: huǒhóng (火红), xuěbái (雪白), làhuáng (蜡黄), bùxǔ (不许), huǒhóng (火红)

Compounds with subject-predicate structure: xīnzuì (心醉), xīnxū (心虚), zìchēng (自称), shuǐshí (水蚀), mínzhǔ (民主)

Compounds with parallel-combination structure: guójiā (国家), rénmín (人民), kǒuchǐ (口齿), huācǎo (花草), shēngyīn (声音)

C. Semantic Logic

A large number of morphemes in compounds in modern Chinese cannot directly express meanings of words. If we only analyze morpheme meanings and internal structures of compounds, it is difficult to explain the compounds derived from metaphor, metonymy, extensions, etc. Therefore, we explore the relationship between morpheme meanings and compounds from the perspective of semantic logic of word formation.

First of all, from Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotation for Compounds, we screen out fields containing "bǐyù (比喻 fig.)" in the "meaning" field, and the selected words should be compounds containing figurative meanings. Secondly, with the same method, fields containing "zhǐ(指 refer to)" are screened out in the database, and through manual correction, compounds with figurative meaning, extended meaning, or metonymy are selected. Finally, from the compounds selected in the previous two steps, compounds containing morphemes and morpheme meanings in Table 3-2 are selected. In the end, we have 261 compounds whose morphemes cannot directly express the meaning of the word, such as kāiyóu (揩油), xīnfēi (心扉), chīxīn (吃心), chánshǒu (缠手), báiyǎn (白眼), hóng'àn (红案), kǔhǎi (苦海), yǎnzhōngdīng (眼中钉), luòshuǐgǒu (落水狗), yángchángxiǎodào (羊肠小道), èyúyǎnlèi (鳄鱼眼泪), etc.

Taking these 261 compounds as an example for a brief analysis, the semantic logic of word formation can be divided into the following categories:

The first category is: word definitions are the abstraction of entities signified by morpheme meanings. Generally, such compounds contain figurative meanings, and learners can understand the meaning of words through the similarity between the signified and the signifier. For example, "xīnfù" (心腹) originally means "heart and belly", which are essential to human body and are used to indicate "trusted subordinate or reliable agent"; also, the term "émáo" (鹅毛) uses the light weight of goose feathers to compare to "something as light as a goose feather"; "tiěrén" (铁人) selects the hard and firm nature of iron to describe people of exceptional physical and moral strength. More such words include "chánshǒu (缠手, (of things) troublesome; hard to deal with)", "xiǎoxiér (小鞋儿, difficulties created or unfair treatment given in secret)", "kāiyóu (揩油, get petty gains at the expense of the government or someone else)", "fēngshuāng (风霜, hardships experienced in life or during a journey)", etc.

The second category is: word definitions are the abstraction of senses signified by morpheme meanings. Such morphemes refer to those that can represent sense of touch, sight, hearing, taste, etc. For example, "huǒrè" (火热) selects people's feeling of touching fire to describe temperature, atmosphere, feelings, etc., as hot as fire; "hēixīn" (黑心) literally means "black heart", and since "hēi" (黑) is commonly used in Chinese to represent issues that are "dark, secret, evil, and wicked", "hēixīn" then becomes a metaphor for "evil mind". Similar words are "xīnhán (心寒, be bitterly disappointed), jiūxīn (揪心, anxious; worried), lěngshuǐ (冷水, dampen the enthusiasm of), hóngrén (红人, favourite person of sb. in power), yǎnrè (眼热, cast covetous eyes at sth.), hóngyán (红颜, pretty woman), léimíng (雷鸣, thunderous), làshǒu (辣手, ruthless method)" and so on.

The third category is: word definitions are the abstraction of spatial meanings signified by morpheme meanings. Morphemes that represent spatial meanings are "shàng (上), xià (下), lǐ (里), wài (外), zuǒ (左), yòu (右), tou (头), gāo (高), dī (低), biān (边), shēn (深), qiǎn (浅)", etc., and the compounds formed by them include "xīndǐ (心底), kǒutóu (口头), zuóyòushǒu (左右手), hǎinèi (海内), shǒubiān (手边), méiyǎngāodī (眉眼高低)", etc. These words spatialize abstract things, with most of them used to reflect people's emotional state or value judgement. For example, people compare "zuóyòushǒu" (左右手) to right-hand man, which reflects a high evaluation of a capable assistant; "dǐ" (底) represents the bottom or base, which refers to places uneasy to be seen, such as "hǎidǐ (海底), chuángdǐ (床底), bēidǐ (杯底)". Therefore, "xīndǐ" (心底) refers to people's innermost world, containing most secret and hidden feelings and thoughts.

This research starts from the perspective of the usage frequency of morpheme meanings, the internal structure of compound words and the semantic logic relationship between word definitions and morpheme meanings, and makes a brief exploration of compound words, which has certain significance for lexical studies and natural language processing.

IV. APPLICATION PROSPECT

A. Establishment of a Research Platform of Modern Chinese Compound

The construction of "Morpheme Annotation Database for Compounds" starts with the morphemes of modern Chinese compounds, analyzes word formation, and statistically analyzes the using frequency of morphemes and their meanings. This can be applied as a start point for building a systematic and comprehensive platform for the study of modern Chinese compounds, in order to facilitate the study of morpheme meanings in lexicology.

B. Improvement of Accuracy of Natural Language Understanding

The database accurately annotates morphemes and their meanings, and extracts all compounds composed of morpheme meanings that are used more than 100 times. Taking this as an example, from the perspective of internal structure of compounds and logical relationship between morpheme meanings and word definitions, the rules of compound word formation have been revealed. Therefore, this research is significant for improving accuracy of machine translation and semantic analysis.

C. Development of Chinese Vocabulary Learning APP

The database classifies morphemes and their meanings. Each morpheme can be combined with different morphemes, and each morpheme (Chinese character) has a detailed explanation. As a result, APPs for Chinese vocabulary learning can be designed according to this feature to help learners quickly acquire the pronunciation, writing and meaning of Chinese vocabulary. It can also be associated with the corresponding vocabulary, adding pictures, audios, videos, etc. to improve the learner's learning efficiency.

V. CONCLUSIONS

By a close study on compounds in Modern Chinese Dictionary, this research establishes Database of Morpheme Meaning Annotations for Compounds, identifies morphemes in compounds and their meanings, and counts up the using frequency of these morphemes and their meanings in compounds. Moreover, compounds that are composed of morphemes and meanings applied over 100 times are extracted, which are studied from the aspects of inner structure, word meaning and semantic logic. The results indicate the application values of the database in establishing research platform for modern Chinese compounds, improving accuracy of natural language understanding, developing APPs for Chinese vocabulary leaning, etc. Although this research has limitations, it can provide certain references for language understanding and language generation in the field of natural language processing, and can offer data support for developing learning software on mobile terminals as well.

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Discussion of the Artistic Aesthetic Transformation between Film and Literature from the Perspective of Adaptation[*]

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Abstract—**Literature relies on text reading to realize its artistic value. With the continuous replacement of communication means, literal reading may become a kind of classical or aristocratic sentiment. More and more people meet the needs of reading by means of image. Therefore, TV series or computer network related to it have become the most popular way, while film has become a very unique artistic way between literature and TV series. Since Chinese films have made some achievements in literary adaptation, this paper attempts to explore and discuss the essence of the artistic subject of the transformation of film and literature.**

Index Terms—**film, literature, adaptation, artistic transformation**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past century, the adaptation of Chinese films to literature has been synchronized with the development of Chinese films themselves. After the 1980s, the adaptation of contemporary literature once showed a strong momentum. Many adaptations won international awards, which made the status of Chinese film in the world filmdom much higher than that of Chinese contemporary literature in the world literary arena. However, if the Chinese film is viewed against the background of the literary history of more than 2,000 years, the number of adapted films is not only small, but also the quality of art and the original literature can not be compared. On the one hand, there are a large number of literary resources for adaptation and the literary noumenon is profound and broad; on the other hand, the adaptation and production are weak and the film is imperfect and superficial. These problems may not be unique in the adaptation of Chinese films to literature, but have existed since the establishment of artistic transformation relationship between film and literature, which can not be avoided in any country's film adaptation.

II. THE INNER RELATION AND ESSENTIAL DIFFERENCE BETWEEN FILM AND LITERATURE

Both film and literature belong to the field of art. They both express society and life and are narrative and lyrical art. Film and literature belong to the same field of art. They both express society and life. They are both narrative and lyrical art. They are created and appreciated through the shaping of aesthetic feeling. Their ultimate purpose is to form cognition and aesthetics through the pleasure of reading or watching. That is to say, their aesthetic connotation is the same, but their aesthetic forms are different. Literature is expressed by the language, while film is expressed by the sound and picture; literature is a simple language form, while film contains many other art forms (such as painting, music, dance, etc.). Literature has existed since the day when human characters came into being, while film was invented in 1895, after the highly developed industrial civilization (Cao, 1988). Therefore, it relies heavily on the power of science and technology. This dependence leads some writers to doubt the expressiveness of films, especially the ability of films to re-express literature. But film, after all, is a new art form. Its expression is three-dimensional, including the abstraction of language, the visibility of pictures, and the mobilization of sound to human auditory ability. Film is a creation that has never been created in the history of human art. More and more writers not only warmly embrace the film, but also welcome the film to adapt their own literary works without hesitation. The adaptation of film to literature comes from its own expressive force. As Henry Miller said, "film is the freest of all means, and you can use it to create miracles." The film not only makes the works of countless writers on the screen, but also brings them great reputation and infinite wealth (Burke, 1986).

Film has become the way of communication that many writers dream of. It also has an inestimable impact on the writers' creation. From narrative structure to character language, from environmental design to psychological description, literature has accepted many techniques of film. Even Leo Tolstoy, who has a strong sense of literary noumenon, has to admit that film is changing the life and creation of writers. Film has become a part of the writer's life, almost every modern writer can not be free from the influence of the film. The film's ability to adapt literature can

penetrate into any part of literature, any kind of creative techniques, including stream of consciousness and other creative techniques highly dependent on human's inner activities (Zhong & Shu, 1995). The works of zengms Joyce and Thomas woolguan became the targets of film hunting. And the works of Hemingway and Steinbeck were also even called "cinematic" novels. There are also many contemporary Chinese writers who can be called film writers, such as Zhang Xianliang, Zhan Rong, Gu Hua, Jiang Zilong, Jia Pingwa, Zhang Chengzhi, Wang Shuo, Liu Heng, Su Tong, and so on. This kind of interaction between film and literature seems to give people an illusion: it seems that the film's ability to adapt literature is infinite, everything in literature can be shown under the camera, and literature can increase the proportion of adaptation without limit by using the performance skills of film.

However, this is not the objective fact of adaptation. Instead of being popular in adaptation, those novels which widely borrow film skills have lost their reading effect. The ability of film adaptation is not as miraculous as people think, and in many fields of literature, the film lens can never reach in. Literature and film are always two forms of art. They have something in common, and there is an insurmountable artistic gap. The difference between the phenomenon caused by visual image and the concept caused by ideological image reflects the most fundamental difference between novels and films. The basic elements of literature are characters, words, sentences, paragraphs, stanzas and chapters, while that of film are various montages composed of lens.

Between literary elements and film elements, we can find a channel of mutual communication-- the channel of aesthetic transformation. From the very beginning, there is a close relationship between them. No matter from what point of view, their reciprocal relationship between them is clear. But the fundamental difference between the two is precisely reflected in the inherent aesthetic relationship: fiction and film are like two intersecting straight lines, meeting at a certain point, and then extending to different directions. There is little difference between a novel and a screenplay at the intersection. But when the two lines separate, they lose all similarities. When they are farthest apart, novels and films, like all arts for viewing, make maximum use of their materials within the range of programs that a particular reader (audience) can understand. In the farthest distance, the most cinematic and the most fictional can not be transformed from each other unless they are completely destroyed. The works of Proust and Joyce, if turned into films, would be as ridiculous as Chaplin's films into novels. The transformation from literature to film is limited, and the film's ability to adapt literature is not endless. The strength of literature may be the short of film, and vice versa.

III. METHODS OF ADAPTATION AND REALIZATION OF AESTHETIC TRANSFORMATION

The reason why literature can become a film is that it contains the aesthetic connotation required by the film and the aesthetic elements equivalent to the film, such as characters, stories, language, sense of time and space, rhythm and so on. These are the common artistic elements of literature and film. To transfer the elements of literature to films in a certain way is adaptation. Film is essentially a narrative art, which can have lyric, argumentative and other rhetorical devices, but they can be realized only when they are included in the narrative. Therefore, the most fundamental part of the adaptation from literature to film is the transformation of narrative. The process of transformation often needs a bridge composed of screenwriters, directors and actors.

A. Methods of Adaptation

Film is a worldwide art language. Although different countries and nations have different requirements for the adaptation methods from literature to film, their basic principles are similar. There are two principles of adaptation: faithfulness and creation. American film adaptation theorists have summed up the adaptation methods into three types: transplantation, annotation and approximation. This division is representative (Zang & Cai, 2020). Most of the film adaptations to literature in Europe and the United States operate in these three modes. Chinese film has experienced nearly a hundred years of adaptation practice, and its basic ways are no more than these three forms. The specific adaptation methods can be decomposed in more details, which can be roughly listed as follows:

1. Parallel transplantation

The capacity of some literary works is similar to the length of an ordinary film (about 100 minutes in length). The narrative mode is also suitable for the performance characteristics of the film, including the structure and characteristics of the characters, which do not need to be changed greatly. Such works can be transplanted to the screen in parallel, forming an internal and external appearance that is very consistent with the written works (Peng, 2020). Such as *Legend of Tianyun Mountain*, *Furong Town*, *the Big Year*, etc. are all adaptations of this type. Most of the original works are novellas or "small full-length novels".

2. Expansion

If some short stories are to be adapted into films with a certain length, and the plot of the original works is not enough, they have to be expanded to add characters and plots, and some even need to adapt the narrative structure of the original works. This kind of adaptation is very difficult. It is a kind of recreation. In the history of Chinese and foreign films, it is a very important adaptation method. Some of Lu Xun's novels are adapted in this way, as are Xu Dishan's *Chuntao* and Shen Congwen's *Xiaoxiao*.

3. Mergence

If the plot capacity of a short story or novella is not enough to be adapted into a film, other works of the same writer can be combined. The plot can be retained completely or part of it can be taken to form a new narrative framework. This

is a common practice in Japanese and Soviet films (Edward, 1993). *Rashomon*, one of Kurosawa's masterpieces, is a combination of two novels by Ryunosuke Akutagawa, namely, *Rashomon* and *Shinzo Bamboos*; *the Night of Petersburg* is based on Dostoevsky's *White Night* and *Nietzvanov*. Since the 1980s, the films merged and adapted in China include *Red Sorghum* which was formed by the mergence of *Red Sorghum* and *Kaoliang Wine*.

4. Excerpt

This method is mainly aimed at full-length novels. Many full-length novels can not be fully expressed in a few hours of film, so one or several chapters have to be chosen as the main object of adaptation, such as *the Yellow River Flows Eastward*, *Xiaohua* and so on. This method is more used in the adaptation of full-length novels, such as *A Dream of Red Mansions* and *Romance of the Three Kingdoms*. There are more excerpts and adaptations to foreign literature. Although the Soviet adaptation of *War and Peace* lasted more than six hours, it could not fully express the content of the novel. *Les Miserables* has been adapted by different directors for more than 30 times, but only part of its content can be taken as the performance object each time (Xie & Qian, 1996).

5. Concentration

In the face of a novel, sometimes the film can not freely select some chapters, or excerpts will damage the integrity of the novel. Only by comprehensively expressing the content of the novel can it reflect the characteristics of the original work, so the film has to condense the content of the original work and put it in a reduced narrative structure. This is a common way to adapt novels, but it is also very difficult to achieve. *Midnight* is a typical example of the failure of concentration. *Xu Mao and His Daughters* is also due to improper concentration, resulting in decrease in value in art.

6. Usage of advantage

Some literary works have their own merits, but they should not be directly adapted into films. The adapters had to take it as a "from the beginning" to recreate. This method is a bit like Lu Xun's historical novels, with only a few reasons and random coloring. There are some artistic lessons to be learned from, and may also be due to some non-artistic factors, such as to obtain the protection of censorship. The most typical example is *The Loess Land*. *Shanghai Triad* is also recreated from the trend of *House Rules*.

7. Creating environment

If the historical and spatial environment presented in literary works is not general or does not conform to the director's habits, the director will recreate a new environment to place the characters and plots in the original work according to his own life experience. This method sometimes leads to criticism of disrespect for the original work, but sometimes it adds new vitality to it. Some of Zhang Yimou's films are successful experiments of this method. *Ju Dou*, *Raise the Red Lantern* and *To Live* all changed the environment in the novel to get new sublimation in the film.

8. Cross-border adaptation

Literature resources belong to all human beings, so the adaptation of film to literature can transcend the national and ethnic restrictions. We can take literature from other countries and integrate them into our own history and customs, or we can also rearrange and adapt the literature of other countries in our own way. The United States, relying on its strong economic strength, has created many achievements in cross-border adaptation. Of course, there are also adaptations of Chinese literature resources. *Hua Mulan*, based on Chinese folklore, is a successful example. Japan is also a big country that is good at cross-border adaptation. Kurosawa is a great master in this field. Moreover, his *The Seven Samurai* has been adapted to the famous western film *The Magnificent Seven* by the United States. Chinese films tried cross-border adaptation in the 1920s and 1930s, but later rarely.

The division of adaptation methods is relative. In practice, it is not completely independent but several methods are often interwoven together. These methods focus on the technical level, and the most important is the transformation of literary spirit, which is to transfer the soul of a work from paper to screen. The division of adaptation methods is relative. In practice, it is not completely independent, and several methods are often interwoven together. These methods focus on the technical level, and the most important is the transformation of literary spirit, which is to transfer the soul of a work from paper to screen (Wang, 1997). Chinese directors and critics have always regarded faithfulness to the original literature as a very important principle. In fact, what is faithful is only external things, such as local plot, language, the authenticity of individual characters and historical events. All of these are superficial. The most important thing is to translate the spirit of literature with the elements that really belong to the film. The fifth generation directors have made some breakthroughs in this respect, but compared with the foreign adaptation attitude, they are still stiff.

After choosing literary works, some western film directors don't have to move the contents of the original works into the films. Sometimes they can even ignore the contents of the original works, just borrow some of them and recreate them. One kind of art, its limitation comes from the image of the activity, the broad audience and the industrialized mode of production. Another kind of art, its limitation comes from the language, the limited number of readers and the individual creative way, the difference between the two is inevitable. In short, after the novel is made into a film, it will inevitably become a complete work of art completely different from the novel on which it is based. Some directors and critics in China have not reached such a level in their understanding of literature and film.

B. The Process of Aesthetic Transformation

From literature to film is the transformation of two art forms. There is a river between them. Literature has already been on this side, and films on the other side need to be transformed from it. Once the transformation is successful, the two artistic entities will exist side by side and set off each other on both sides of the river. On the way from this side to

the other side, a bridge was erected in the air. The aesthetic connotation in literature is transmitted through this bridge and becomes the internal aesthetic factor of the film. The three solid piers supporting the bridge are screenwriters, directors and actors.

It is needless to say that there are differences between the original and the adapted scripts. As far as the adapters are concerned, there are roughly three situations. The first is the author's own adaptation. the second is that the famous film dramatists come out of the mountains, and then they hand it over to the director after adaptation. Third, the director took a fancy to the original work, and asked experienced film playwrights to adapt it according to the director's instructions. The director may participate in the adaptation, sometimes the director himself adapts, the writer and the director merge into one.

It is often very painful for an author to adapt his own works. Every sentence, every character and every plot are made of their own flesh and blood. Now they have to make drastic changes, and many times they have to delete them. This is very difficult emotionally. Even if it is not deleted, it is not easy to rearrange the original perfectly matched art according to the needs of the film. Many American novelists, such as Hemingway, Fitzgerald, Steinbeck, Faulkner, Dreiser and Miller, have been invited by Hollywood to adapt their own works (Sun, 2020). However, few of them can adapt their works to the director's intention. They either feel that they are not suitable for writing dramas or go back to write their own novels, or they think that the film is superficial, and the adaptation of literature is harmful to literature. However, there are still many writers who would rather endure the pain of being dismembered or recreated to adapt their own works. Some other writers are worried that people can't adapt their own works well, so they have to bear the pain to make adaptations. Some Chinese writers feel the same way after they have adapted their works and vowed never to do it again. Liu Huan and Yang Zhengguang can be regarded as representatives of the amphibious.

Because of the plot of masterpieces, many excellent film playwrights constantly challenge the masterpieces, complete the adaptation of the masterpieces with a sacred sense of responsibility, and then hand over the scripts to the director who they thinks can express the spirit of the play. This way is a "strong combination" of the two artistic behaviors, which generally produces good screenplays and excellent films. However, this kind of adaptation often relies on the adapters too much. Sometimes, the film scripts modified by famous masters will cause the bondage to the director and actors. Even the director's objection to the original work can not be implemented in the shooting process, and the role of the director will be ignored or reduced. The script will eventually fall into the hands of the director, and each director's completed script will have a lot of differences with the film script (Yu & Niu, 1990). In order to reduce this difference, more directors participate in the process of adaptation. Or simply the director takes a fancy to the original work and asks the playwright to change it. The director decides the direction of adaptation, and the playwright recombines the characters and plots of the original work strictly according to the director's intention, and even the style of the original work must obey the director's style. The playwright is essentially a ghostwriter. This one is the original, the other is the director, and the playwright is in the middle. Some directors feel that others can't express their intention clearly, so they write their own works. They are both screenwriters and directors (Wan, 2020). Even so, there will be differences between the script and the finished script, because the director will improvise on the scene and add something that is not in the script. And the really warm films often need this.

Because of this, there has always been a saying that directors and screenwriters are made one.

The role of the director is paramount to the film, and the director's understanding of the original work is also the most decisive factor for the success of the adaptation. Among the three piers of the bridge of transfer, the director bears most of the weight of the whole bridge. He (she) wants to transfer and transform the understanding of the original work into the performance of actors and other film elements, so as to turn the beauty of literature into the beauty of film. The director's attitude towards the original work is roughly divided into two kinds: one is reappearance, the other is freehand. The former plans the film strictly according to the original work, from characters to plots, from time to space, to reproduce the style and features of the original work, and even strive to be comprehensive in terms of the complex themes of the original work, as well as some details. The latter can also be called expressive. It does not require the details to conform to the original work, or even to show the whole of the original work. It only takes the most profound idea of the original work or some part of the content suitable for film expression as the object of adaptation, and mobilizes the wisdom of the director for recreation. Although this sometimes gives people a handle, it is said to be unfaithful to the original. In fact, it only transforms the aesthetic core of literature through partial adaptation or in another way. Another method has a great market in contemporary directors. They seem to have overcome the classic phobia. No matter how great the original is, they have to adapt it according to the rules of the film. The author of the original work is only the creator, but the creation right of the film belongs to the director (George, 1981). It turns out that this approach is closer to the nature of the film and enables the spirit of the original to be shown on the screen. Literature has not been devalued, on the contrary, the author of the original works is well known because of its film communication function. Most of the fifth generation directors such as Zhang Yimou and Chen Kaige are such freehand directors, and their attitude towards literature is obviously different from that of the old Chinese filmmakers.

The director's understanding of the original work and the conception of the film are various. The intelligent director will hold on to the characters. The characters in the original work are created by language, while the characters in the film are composed of body, action, dialogue and other factors. In order to make the characters live on the screen, it is an important job for directors to find actors who can express their ideas and have artistic creativity.

Actors and actresses are the ultimate embodiment of the transformation of literary characters and the ideas of directors, and the carrier of literary character spirit. There are two main criteria for a director to choose an actor. One is the similarity in appearance between the actor and the characters in the literature; the other is the actor's understanding and expression of the original work. Although it is good for actors to be close to literary characters, their appearance conditions are not absolute. Even if one actor's appearance is not the same, if he can reflect the soul of the character, he is also a qualified actor. In the history of Chinese and foreign films, there are many examples of "similar in spirit but not in form". Feng Gong does not have much in common with Zhang Damin in the novel *The Happy Life of Zhang Damin*, but he plays as if he is Zhang Damin himself (Qin, 2020). This shows that the understanding and expression of the original play is the most important factor in shaping the characters. The actors' understanding of the original work comes from two direct channels: one is to read the original text, the other is to understand the script and the director's interpretation. After having thoroughly understood the original work and the director's intention, the actors have to find their own way to enter. Generally speaking, understanding is not difficult, but performance is hard. After understanding the characters in the original work, they should jump out of the characters, not fall into the original works, but get into the role naturally.

Performance is a very profound art, which is called "micro-physiognomy" in film theory. Balaz put forward this concept as early as 1912, and there was a similar saying in ancient Chinese opera. "micro-physiognomy" includes facial expression, body movement, psychological activities and so on (Yang, 2020). Film performance is a kind of "micro-physiognomy", which has its own rules. After a film actor has explored his own "micro-physiognomy", he will be very handy in the performance. According to the different styles of "microphase", there are many kinds of classification methods for film actors, the most basic of which are two kinds: one is personality actor, the other is character actor. The former refers to the actor who often plays the same type of characters and forms a relatively fixed style. Moreover, there are many similarities between the characters in the film and the actors themselves. Japanese film star Takakura is a representative of this kind of actor. This kind of actor seems to show a single performance, but he can always perform the rich character connotation of the characters in the same way. The latter is a very plastic actor who can perform a variety of characters. He can blend his own personality into the characters in the film, and has a strong ability to grasp various characters. Many of the world's performing masters are of this kind.

There has been a trinity of self-editing, self-directing and self-acting since the ancient times. There was Guan Hanqing in the Yuan Dynasty on the stage of Chinese drama. In the era of silent film, Chaplin not only wrote, directed and acted himself, but also composed music on his own. Since the 1980s, such talented figures have rarely appeared among Chinese film directors. If they want to realize the trinity of editing, directing and performing from the original literary works, the understanding and adaptation of the original literary works will become the top priority. Only when the adaptation is successful can they achieve the same success as the adaptation in guiding and acting.

IV. CONCLUSION

The development of media urges literature to express itself in a new posture with dazzling speed. The emergence of film not only makes the popularization and commercialization of literature become a trend, but also makes the film itself become the inspiration and inducer of "mass media". It, together with radio, television, newspaper and other media, pushes literature to a wider public. The film is to rely on great artistic concentration to complete the shaping of an artistic entity in a limited time. This is not so much its weakness as its innate constraints, which provide it with opportunities to achieve its own. It must force itself to use the most perfect way to reproduce the wealth and resources that literature has given to it, and can only use the artistic quality that television does not have to pull the audience to the cinema. As the president of a film company in the United States said: the emergence of television is nothing more than to make the best films survive.

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The Effect of Online Learning on Grammatical Accuracy among EFL Upper-intermediate Learners

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Abstract—The present study sought to investigate the effectiveness of online learning via smart phone on Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy improvement. A number of 20 upper-intermediate male and female EFL learners selected as the population. The population selected from Pishtazan English Institute of Janah, a city in Hormozgan province of Iran. To achieve this aim, the researcher adopted the experimental approach. The researcher chose two groups of the upper intermediate learners: one group consisting of (10) students was used as an experimental group and the other also consisting of (10) students was used as the control group. The traditional method was used in teaching grammar to the control group, while the online classroom was used to the experimental group. To analyze the data the frequencies and percentage of each item in the questionnaires computed with the aid of SPSS. The findings showed that there were significant differences between the experimental and the control groups and the experimental group who use online classroom had better performance. The finding of this study is to support the implement of useful ideas and new materials into Iran curriculum and teaching policies to benefit from the boring technologies in the Iran context.

Index Terms—online learning, grammatical accuracy, EFL upper-intermediate learners, flipped classroom

I. INTRODUCTION

As Hajebi (2020) says "Flipped teaching and learning in education has not only changed the traditional learning patterns and teacher-center learning, but also improving student learning achievement and increase interaction among learners and teachers" (p.1).

Technology, with distinctive features such as mobility, reachability, personalization, In recent years, as young users in Asia have been communication with each other via mobile messaging application (such as LINE, Whats App and Wechat), research into the role of such instant and text messaging technologies in education has revealed their positive effects on providing platform for socializing, sharing information, and communicating (Sweeny, 2010). Flipped learning is redefines the instructional procedure by having student self- study lecture or learning materials out of class in order to preview and acquire new knowledge and then guided to students to complete homework (Bergmann & Sams, 2012).

This study aims at highlighting the effectiveness of online learning via smart phone on Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy improvement. The main focus is on how EFL students update themselves to improve their skills through technology in an online learning. The other crucial interest is to find out more about the ways in which those who are engaged in teaching and learning use mobile technology in their daily learning practices. In fact, the research attempts at raising the interest on how this new wave of technology can be beneficial for students so as to work with these devices not to work against them. In other words, this study tries to examine the effect of online learning via smart phone on Iranian EFL learners' grammatical accuracy improvement. This study tries to find out more about how mobile learning is becoming increasingly integrated within EFL students' daily life, especially in teaching and learning foreign languages. The current study attempts to investigate the materials students are using to enrich their English grammatical accuracy. It also tries to clarify the new concept of learning among learners. Therefore, it aims to provide teachers with the necessary guiding lines to start implementing mobile devices into their courses and to prepare the EFL students with new skills. On the other hand, the results of this study would give the student the opportunity to well-understand the concept of online learning via smart phone and its impact on the formal learning. The finding of this study is to support the implement of useful ideas and new materials into Iran curriculum and teaching policies to benefit from the boring technologies in the Iran context. This finding can be effective for teachers to develop the autonomous students and also students can engage in learning and learn better than traditional learning. This study has some limitations and delimitations that as it is crystal clear any research is by its very nature limited. No research can be perfect and this study is no exception. During the process of completing this study, there were some limitations which made it take longer time to accomplish the goals which were set at the very outside of the study. One of the most important problems was limited time. There are also several limitations have to be noted here. Another main limitation of study related to the limited number of participants of the study. The subjects of this study are 20 EFL students at language institute,

there are not equal proportions of male and female participants in each group and the finding of this study cannot generalize to students of other levels. One of main delimitation of the study is that it is not possible to test all students of Iran or Bandar Abbas and the researcher just tests 20 students, so the results of the study cannot be generalized to larger population.

This research attempts to answer the following question:

1. Does Iranian EFL grammatical accuracy improve in the online classes by using smart phone?

Mobile-assisted Language Learning

With the tremendous growth of mobile technologies, Mobile-assisted Language Learning (MALL) has become increasingly common. It is significant to recognize that MALL is not a fully independent field. In addition to its obvious relation to second language acquisition (SLA), Hubbard and Stockwell (2013) claimed that MALL depends on two major bodies which are mobile learning and computer-assisted language learning. Mobile- assisted language learning is a new wave of educational technology uses a wide range of mobile devices. Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008) explicate that unlike CALL, MALL opts for a variety of handheld technologies, often with internet connection, ranging from ultra-portable laptops and handhelds to smartphones, mobile phones, MP3 and MP4 players, digital voice recorders and cameras. Thus, Mobile-assisted Language Learning is a branch of technology-enhanced learning that includes face-to-face, distant or on-line (Amouzegar & Khodashenas, 2013). In fact, MALL has the potential to assist learners and to reinforce their learning process at the exact point of need and in ways that are congruent with the learner's lifestyle (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008). MALL then gives EFL learners the opportunity to learn languages not only in a classroom but also outside a classroom; whenever they desire and wherever they are.

Approaches to Mobile-assisted Language Learning

Mobile learning is considered as a new dimension in the educational process. Indeed, the shift has continued and the changing approaches and theories have increasingly proliferated. In an attempt at providing a systematic review of MALL research within the specific field of SLA, Grönlund and Viberg (2012) found that the two main approaches that dominate the literature are content-related and design-related studies. However, the theories and approaches applied in MALL often originate from various theories of learning, including Behaviorism and Constructivism. Taking into consideration the mediated nature of human mind, Grönlund and Viberg (2012) added that MALL research often relies on other learning theories such as Situated Learning Theory, Collaborative Learning Theory, and Informal and Lifelong Learning Theory. In addition, the currently popular approach to EFL is the Communicative Approach (Beatty, 2013).

Content-related

Content-based or content-related studies address an approach that concentrate on the development of activity types and learning materials. This type of study often focuses on more formal language learning contexts and considers mobile technologies as a means of delivering content to learners (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2007). These approaches support teacher-learner communication and rely on mobile devices to deliver content rather than supporting learners to communicate. Divitini and Petersen (2004) explained that little or no emphasis is given to providing learning support where the learner is able to interact with other learners or parties that can support the learning process (cited in Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2007). In other words, content-related activities may support teacher-centered approach.

Design-related

Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2007) consider design-related approaches as those that focus on design issues and learners' needs. Studies in this area are related to developing learning materials and activities for mobile devices as well as text-based content. Design-related approaches tend to refer to the informal nature of m-learning. Kukulska-Hulme and Shield also added that design-related differ from content-related approaches in that their emphasis is less on a traditional educational paradigm, in which the teacher provides materials to learners (2007). Hence, design-related activities can support learners' autonomy.

Behaviorist Theory

Applying behavioral theory to educational technology, namely m-learning, the latter provides the ideal opportunity to present learning content (stimulus), gather learners' responses (response), and provide appropriate feedback (reinforcement) (Naismith et al., 2004). To illustrate, text messaging is one of the learning applications that relies on behaviorist theory. Many researchers (Alemi, Sarab & Lari, 2012; Derakhshan & Kaivanpanah, 2011; Kim, 2011; Stockwell, 2010) conducted their studies relying on behaviorist theory through content delivery by text messaging to mobile phones (Houser & Thornton, 2004). Other examples of behaviorist learning with mobile technologies are MMS, Voice recorder soft wares, drill and feedback, Mobile Response System such as clickers, and so many other materials used to facilitate learning through mobile devices (Keskin & Metcalf, 2011).

Constructivist Theory

In the constructivist theory, learners create inner mental models to acquire knowledge about the world. In other words, constructivism views learning as an active process in which learners build new ideas upon both their current and past knowledge. It is worth noting that there are two branches of constructivism; social constructivism and cognitive constructivism (Zhang, 2010). In order to transform learners from passive recipients of information to active constructors of knowledge, both appropriate learning environment and tools should be provided. Mobile devices offer a unique opportunity for learners to be active constructors of knowledge by embedding them in a realistic context and offering access to supporting tools (Naismith et al., 2004). Handheld games, interactive podcasting, emails, and

multimedia are among many examples of constructivist activities using mobile technologies (Keskin & Metcalf, 2011).

Collaborative Learning

According to Naismith et al. (2004), collaborative activities are those that promote learning through social interaction. Collaborative learning is an extraordinary help, assert Tomei (2004), especially for the online learning as it improves interaction and peer-communication where the biggest voice will be from the learners. Applying to mobile learning, learners are enabled to learn a language in collaboration with others by sharing files, data, and providing means of coordination without attempting to replace human-to-human interactions. Mobile devices can be used collaboratively in real time through different MALL applications. For instance, EFL learners can exploit their digital devices to learn in a collaborative way through sending SMSs, sharing songs, data, and videos via Bluetooth, and speaking in group through Facebook.

Situated Learning

The situated learning theory is the combination between constructivist and social learning theories, claimed Tomei (2008). Mobile devices are well suited to context-aware activities because of their availability allowing the learner to extent the learning process beyond the formal environment into authentic and appropriate contexts of use (Naismith et al., 2004). Beatty (2013) illustrated by imagining the situation; language learners, standing in a city street and looking for a good restaurant, may download a map and a short restaurant-related vocabulary lesson in order to engage in a conversation with native speakers asking for directions. Thus, situated learning requires knowledge to be presented in authentic contexts in order to be practiced within. Activities such as taking observational notes, taking pictures, recording students own reflections, listening to expert commentary, and many other situated learning activities can be facilitated through different mobile devices (Naismith et al., 2004). Indeed, the digital devices help language learners to grasp the information from the time and place surrounding them.

Informal and Lifelong Learning

Learning occurs not only inside the classroom, but also outside the classroom. According to Naismith et al. (2004), informal and lifelong activities support learning outside a dedicated learning environment and formal curriculum. It is learning all the time, influenced by one's environment and particular situations. Informal and lifelong learning intersects with "Just-In-Time-and-Place (JITP) Learning" (p. 274) in which learners acquire, conceptualize, and understand information while facing particular situations (Tomei, 2008). Informal and lifelong learning may be intentional, through deliberate learning activities, or it may be accidental, stated Naismith et al., (2004), by acquiring information through reading newspapers, watching television, or even observing the world, or even experiencing an accident. Social networks, such as Wikipedia, Facebook, Twitter, You tube, and so on and so forth, illustrated Keskin and Metcalf (2011) are some of various types of informal and lifelong activities that can be with mobile technologies due to their reduced size and ease of use.

Communicative Approach

Mobile language learning applications may provide the potential to support the communicative approach. The latter is one the current popular approaches to EFL as it encourages learners to interact with others, communicate, and negotiate language tasks, claimed Beatty (2013). Accordingly, Zhang (2010) asserts that the communicative approach concentrates on autonomy of learners and authenticity of materials. Pictures and videos, namely the ones shared in social media, become stimuli for conversations and negotiations of meaning.

II. METHODOLOGY

The researcher adopted the experimental approach. The researcher chose two groups of the upper intermediate learners: one group consisting of (10) students was used as an experimental group and the other also consisting of (10) students was used as the control group. The two main variables of the study were online watching and learning and grammatical accuracy. The dependent variable was grammatical accuracy and independent variable was online watching and learning.

Participants

A number of 20 upper-intermediate male and female EFL learners selected as the population. The population selected from *Pishtazan English Institute* of *Janah* a city in *Hormozgan* Province of Iran. The participants' ages were between 15 to 20 years old. However, the 20 participants randomly divided into two experimental and control groups. Both control group and experimental group had equal number of 10 learners. All the learners selected from the same native language that is Persian.

Instruments

In order to obtain measureable data with which the results of the current study could be statically analyzed, the following instruments were utilized:

The first instrument was the achievement test prepared by (Samar, 2016) to measure the participants' achievement was used as a pre-test applied before the experiment and as a post-test applied after the experiment, a test which adopted to normalize the participants.

The test aimed at measuring the effect of using online classroom on learning English grammar among English learners. The second instrument was learning motivation scale was prepared by (Samar, 2016).

Procedure and Data Collection

In order to conduct the study, the researcher administered the achievement test to measure the participants' achievement was used as a pre-test applied before the experiment and as a post-test applied after the experiment, a test which adopted to normalize the participants. Then, preparing the pre-posttest, worksheets and quizzes and also designing a motivation scale taking into account English teachers' opinions to measure the effect of online classroom on students' learning motivation among learners. This scale was used before and after the experiment with the control and experimental group.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Some statistical analyses were done for answering the research question and hypothesis designed for this study.

The null hypothesis says that: There are no important differences between scores in the posttest which is based on grammar through online class and the pretest students who learn it through taught traditional method. To understand the result means and standard deviations for pre-test and post-test were computed.

TABLE1.
T.TEST INDEPENDENT SAMPLE RESULTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUP IN THE GRAMMAR POSTTEST

Domain	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. value	sig. level
Knowledge	Exper.	10	5.874	1.461	5.143	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	4.026	1.763			
Comprehension	Exper.	10	4.312	2.028	3.440	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	2.402	2.006			
Application	Exper.	10	4.211	2.435	5.504	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	1.608	1.512			
Analysis	Exper.	10	6.033	1.559	4.774	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	4.005	1.842			
SUM	Exper.	10	20.043	5.027	6.741	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	12.041	5.381			

Table (1) showed that the T. computed value (6.741) is larger than T. table value (2.66) in the post test, that showed some significant differences at ($\alpha = 0.01$) in the total for the post-test. The mean of the post-test for both groups was different and for the experimental group was (20.043), while the mean for the control group was (12.041). The findings showed that the students' achievement in English grammar through online classroom was more effective than the students who learnt it through traditional method.

TABLE (2):
T.TEST INDEPENDENT SAMPLE RESULTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL AND THE CONTROL GROUP IN THE POST LEARNING MOTIVATION SCALE

Domain	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Sig. value	sig. level
Self -efficacy	Exper.	10	28.437	3.397	4.711	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	23.642	4.347			
Task value	Exper.	10	35.248	5.138	4.312	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	31.335	6.176			
Control beliefs about learning	Exper.	10	24.263	2.413	3.974	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	20.974	3.490			
Achievement goal	Exper.	10	22.053	2.837	4.002	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	18.816	4.039			
SUM	Exper.	10	110.001	5.027	5.606	0.000	sig. at 0.01
	Contr.	10	94.767	5.381			

Table (2) showed that the T. computed value (5.606) is larger than T. table value (2.66) in the post test that shows that there are important differences at ($\alpha = 0.01$) Learning Motivation Scale between two groups and the results are different in experimental and control group. The mean for the post-test in the experimental group was (110.001), while the mean of the control group was (94.767). These findings showed that developing students' motivation for English learning is more effective in experimental group as an online classroom than the control group as a traditional method.

IV. CONCLUSION

The findings of the study indicated online model of instruction had a significant positive effect on EFL students' English development. As it claimed in the result the students in experimental group had a better performance on the

grammar achievement posttest and they showed positive change on the post- test of the learning motivation scale after the implementation of online classroom. This showed that developing students' motivation for English learning is more effective in experimental group as an online classroom than the control group as a traditional method.

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Exploration of the Reform and Innovation of College English Teaching under Humanistic Literacy Education[*]

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Abstract—**Humanistic quality education forms a systematic ultimate thinking of human beings and a comprehensive and profound understanding of culture by digging out the contents related to humanity. It is to link life closely with the culture on which individuals depend for survival, and it serves the growth of individuals, the development of professional students and the expansion and deepening of the connotation of life. At present, in College English teaching, teachers' awareness of humanistic education and humanistic quality are low in many aspects, such as teaching objectives, teaching contents, teaching organization and teaching evaluation. And students' learning methods and strategies are also lack of the inhalation of humanistic quality. To carry out humanistic quality education, we should pay attention to the cultivation of teachers' humanistic awareness and quality, and further enhance the ideological and depth of curriculum content. Meanwhile, we should also pay more attention to students' self-cultivation from learning attitude, learning methods and learning strategies, with the purpose of guiding students to self discovery, self-understanding and self-monitoring in the learning process.**

Index Terms—**College English teaching, reform, humanistic quality education**

I. INTRODUCTION

Guidelines on College English Teaching issued by The National Advisory Committee on Teaching English Language to Majors in Higher Education under the Ministry of Education is an important guidance for colleges and universities to formulate syllabus, build courses and carry out evaluation, as well as a normative document that can not be ignored in college English teaching. *Guidelines on College English Teaching* (2017) clearly points out that the orientation of College English courses is to help students develop a global perspective, cultivate international awareness, improve humanistic literacy, provide a basic tool for knowledge innovation, potential inspiration and all-round development, and prepare for the challenges and opportunities in the era of globalization. In the description of the nature of the course, the guideline further clarifies that there are two ways to cultivate humanistic literacy: First, let students get in touch with foreign societies and cultures, as well as cultural similarities and differences, and then improve their ability of cross-cultural communication. Second, take people as the foremost and carry forward the morally sound values, focus on the cultivation and development of people's comprehensive quality, and integrate socialist core values into college English teaching activities.

II. THE CONNOTATION OF HUMANISTIC LITERACY EDUCATION

Humanistic literacy education is mainly to exploit contents related to people and culture, and then to closely link people and culture, form a systematic and ultimate thinking of people, have a profound understanding of culture in all-round aspects, thus making people's life more meaningful and valuable. In a sense, humanistic literacy education is to bond together the individual life, group life and the culture that individuals rely on, so as to serve the individual growth, career development, and the extension of the meaning of life. It eliminates the utilitarian nature of education and highlights the need for individual development. The essence of humanistic literacy education is the education of ideals, beliefs and values, and the cultivation of people with sound personality and comprehensive development. Through humanistic literacy education, we should foster in the student the morally sound values and the outlook on the world and life, and in the meanwhile let students understand, identify with and practice socialist core values.

The original intention of college English teaching is to improve students' English level, so as to promote their professional or academic communication ability in reality, and thus to improve students' intercultural communication ability. (Wang, 2016). However, the result shows that our students' English level is not high enough, cross-cultural communication often cannot be realized, and the ability and effectiveness of English service majors are far from satisfied. At present, college English teaching mainly focuses on the training of basic skills such as listening, speaking,

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reading, writing and translating, and the learning time, especially the classroom teaching time, is mostly spent on the training of these skills. However, the result has been that college students are still unable to communicate in English. The root cause lies in the lack of humanistic literacy of college students and the weakness of their intercultural awareness and intercultural communication ability. Ge Chunping and Wang Shouren state that "the cultivation of intercultural communication competence demonstrates the humanism of college English." (Ge & Wang, 2016,p.82)Therefore, it is particularly important to integrate humanistic literacy education into college English teaching and to carry on comprehensive reform of college English teaching. The essence of humanistic literacy education is opposite to utilitarian education.

The humanistic literacy education in college English teaching mainly includes the cultivation of students' ability of English application, cross-cultural communication and critical thinking and the establishment of morally sound values by nurturing their outlook on the world and life. In the face of cultural conflicts and different cultural groups, we can seek common ground while reserving differences, and then promote the all-round development of students through college English teaching. College English teaching can realize the all-round development of students, which is also in line with the ultimate goal of education for cultivating all-round human beings. Therefore, in the process of college English teaching, we should not only pay attention to the improvement of language ability, but also emphasize the improvement of humanistic literacy, especially humanistic literacy education.

III. MAJOR PROBLEMS FACING COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

At present, the overall situation of college English teaching is that too much emphasis is placed on instrumentality, and insufficient attention is paid to humanistic literacy. As a result, it is impossible to realize cross-cultural communication and cultivate people that can think in big picture terms. The major problems in college English teaching are reflected in three aspects:

The major problem of teachers is that they who are supposed to cultivate students' humanistic literacy are lack of this quality, which is mainly caused by their unawareness of humanistic literacy and their own dissatisfied humanistic literacy possession. Another problem is that teachers are under pressures of various systems and evaluations during their college teaching, and there is no time and energy for them to fully excavate elements about humanistic literary in college English textbooks. It is nearly impossible to realize the cultivation of humanistic literacy in well-round person through English teaching. Thus the cultivation of humanistic literacy in college English teaching is systematically deficient.

In addition, under the pressure of teaching evaluation and the current situation that exam-oriented teaching prevails and humanistic literacy is less sought after, the evaluation of the teacher also demonstrate the phenomenon of being eager for quick success and instant benefits. At the same time, teaching evaluation as a whole presents the problems of excessive quantization, insufficient quality and very unscientific evaluation. At present, quantitative and qualitative assessment indicators cannot comprehensively measure and examine students' humanistic literacy level, which is featured by the emphasizing of surface data such as pass rate, average score and excellence rate of the examination, while neglecting the content, goal and approach of students' humanistic literacy education.

The main problems of college English teaching lie in teaching objectives, teaching content and teaching evaluation, etc. In terms of teaching objectives, college English teaching lacks reasonable consideration of the objectives and related strategies of cultivating humanistic literacy, which involves the problems of college English teachers and the design of school system. In terms of the present situation of college English teaching, many college teachers focus on imparting knowledge and skills to students, recognize the teaching of English textbooks as the core of the class teaching, and emphasize the importance of English skills, especially skills about reading and writing. However, the cultivation of students' listening and speaking skills, cultural awareness and morally sound values is insufficient. As a result, college English has not fully played its role in cultural inheritance, let alone strengthening students' understanding of different countries and cultures, so that the cultivation of humanistic literacy in college English education cannot be effectively played.

Another problem is that the content and method of teaching are relatively outdated. In colleges and universities, the English teaching focuses on the instillation of English vocabularies and grammars aiming to develop the students' ability to use English, but the cultivation of students' cognitive and thinking ability is relatively little, especially the humanistic literacy education in English teaching which is rarely seen in college. In addition, many colleges and universities still adopt traditional teaching methods in carrying out college English teaching, taking teachers as the main body of the class, and students only need to accept the knowledge taught by teachers and complete the assignments with few of them questioning their teachers. This kind of teaching approaches to a large extent has hindered the students' personal development and is not conducive to the students' growth and the building of their innovation ability.

As far as knowledge transfer is concerned, college English teachers focus on the delivery of result-based knowledge during the teaching process, ignoring process-based knowledge. Many people think that learning is to accept the previously created knowledge and regard the existing knowledge as insurmountable or even unchangeable. This makes the learners have no clear understanding of the source of knowledge and the future development of knowledge, and a sense of awe is generated in the learner's mind. For example, many college students think that vocabulary is really difficult to learn in English for the learning process is not only boring but also of little effectiveness. The main reason

for this thinking is that the teachers only teach the result-based knowledge like phonetic symbols and words' meaning in the class and don't teach the process-based knowledge, such as the evolution, background and origin of the word, so that the students can only memorize the word by rote. In addition, the neglect of the extension, guidance and refinement of cultural background in teaching leads to the students' lack of cross-cultural awareness and critical thinking.

In terms of teaching organization, college English teaching reform in the context of class-based teaching system has not been achieved much. The root cause is the lack of time and training frequency of each student as well as the lack of self-organization ability of students, which is not conducive to oral English training. Humanistic teaching theory highlights the educational nature and the positive roles played by people in the educational process. However, the class design of teachers often focuses on the completion of teaching tasks, and due to the limitation of teaching time, considerable oral training cannot be organized fully.

With the development of the times, there are many ways for students to acquire knowledge, which are also very convenient. Some students know more knowledge than teachers, and the level of students' learning depends more than the depth and breadth of knowledge possessed by teachers. It can be seen that the ultimate goal of teaching is not to acquire knowledge, but to teach students how to learn. Therefore, colleges and universities need to pay attention to the cultivation of students' learning ability in college English teaching, which includes the cultivation of learning methods, learning strategies, learning habits, etc.

Besides, many college English teachers focus on the teaching of knowledge and fail to pay attention to the importance of education, resulting in a serious separation between teaching and education. During the COVID-19 pandemic, online teaching Apps such as Super Star Learning and Rain Classroom can improve students' self-study ability, but also greatly reduce the psychological and emotional communication between teachers and students. This has a large negative effect on students' learning and on the establishment of a good teacher-student relationship.

More seriously, due to the lack of listening and speaking training and the inappropriate learning method, the students have great problems in speaking and listening and the phenomenon of mute and deaf English has emerged. The psychological barrier of students is that they are afraid of being laughed at, dare not speak English, and don't have enough environment for them to speak English. Oral English training also needs the change of students' consciousness, that is, how to start the self-study monitoring strategy, follow the teacher and master self-study skills. Besides, listening training has two limitations: one is about the language knowledge such as vocabulary and grammar, and the other is about the cultural background. Insufficient training of basic knowledge and basic skills and the exclusion of English culture lead to students' insufficient understanding of relevant cultural background.

The learning method is not scientific and there are little specific learning strategies for adults to learn English. Some students at the lower grades still adopt the exam-oriented learning method in junior and senior high schools, such as the exercises-stuffed learning method, and seldom use the cooperative learning method. The evaluation system of college English teaching aggravates this situation. For example, CET 4 and CET 6 become the main way and even the only way of college English teaching evaluation. Thus the teachers will focus on the training of these tests, especially the training of fast reading and writing, and the training about English speaking and listening will be neglected, which lead to the students' lack of confidence in face-to-face communications.(Liu &Dai, 2003)

IV. THE BASIC POLICY OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING REFORM

In college English teaching, humanistic literacy education can be implemented from three aspects: teachers' teaching, students' learning and teaching management system. Teachers' teaching focuses on teachers' awareness and quality, as well as the content of the courses. Students' learning mainly focuses on learning attitude, method, ability, strategy, etc., which emphasize the students' self-discovery, self-understanding and self-monitoring of their learning demands.

Teachers should think highly of humanistic literacy education. They should take people as the foremost, attach importance to the values of the people, and take core morally sound values as the principle to formulate teaching goals that meet the requirements of social development. Under existing conditions, we should improve teachers' awareness of humanistic literacy education and advance their own humanistic literacy, exploit the educational factors in the textbooks, let the students find their own needs and the needs of others and society, and promote the students' ability of critical thinking and innovation by discovering problems, putting forward problems, analyzing problems and solving problems.(Yuan, 2010)In addition, through combining humanistic literacy education with ideological and political courses and practices, we should fully explore the educational factors in college English teaching, and let students understand that the essence of learning is to deal with the relationship, that is, to deal with the relationship between human and nature, human and society, and human and self, and the essence of humanistic literacy is to understand and know the nature human, so as to better survive and develop in human society.

We should attach great importance to the students' learning experience, pay attention to the accumulation, refining and summarizing of the students' life experience. The humanistic literacy education is closely related to the present popular ideological and political courses. In a sense, the humanistic literacy education is to explore the educational content in the teaching materials, realize the reshaping of the outlook on the world and life and morally sound values, and cultivate the students' humanistic literacy by the influence of the environment. Thus the students could internalize their own ways of thinking and their own values in college English learning.

Teaching evaluation is related to teaching management and system design. Main evaluation index of the current college English teaching is the passing rate of CET 4 and CET 6. There is little evaluation concerning humanistic literacy which is hard to be examined duo to its nature. Besides, the delay of humanistic literacy education leads to the fact that its educational effect can not be fully displayed in a short time. Therefore, changing the exam-oriented evaluation system and locating the difficulties in college English teaching management are institutional guarantees.

The management of cultural community should be considered as an aspect of teaching management. The sound participating, sound communicating, sound improving and sound achieving in the classroom community and teacher-student cultural community mentioned above take love, or universal love, as its core, which requires the establishment of a management cultural community for students and teachers on the basis of love. The establishment of management culture community should be based on teaching management and humanistic care and love. The core element of the management culture community is the management, which is organized on the premise of accepting and recognizing individual differences between teachers and students. It involves the participation of the country, colleges and universities, and teachers. At the national level, guidance should be provided for college English teaching; colleges and universities should formulate corresponding teaching objectives and requirements according to talent cultivation needs and social and economical demands; teachers, as the implementers and objects of teaching management, should ensure the evaluation is scientific, reasonable, fair and just.

The current management culture in the colleges and universities needs to be optimized. The college should formulate the college English teaching syllabus based on its own characteristics, and construct a dynamic, open, scientific and reasonable college English course system that reflects its characteristics. The management culture among teachers needs to be updated. Teacher management is of great significance because teachers are the executors of teaching and the persons directly responsible for the building of teaching culture. Therefore, in addition to the need to improve their basic quality, the traditional teaching mode needs to be changed. The teacher should set up the teaching philosophy that advances with the time, build an "output-oriented" teaching system, establish the teaching ideas of imparting knowledge and educating people, take the student as the foremost, improve the teaching management in the class, extend the class learning out of the classroom, let the students have access to the language practicing and have the ability to study independently, and ensure the universal love of humanistic literacy in teaching management.

Liu Runqing (2002) states that "Without listening and speaking ability, College English is called "dumb English" and "deaf English" by the society." (Liu, 2002, p.404) This stresses great importance of Listening and speaking in English learning.

Listening and speaking is the first skill and strategy in language learning. With listening skills, speaking turns to be possible, and without it, nothing could be achieved. Listening is both a way and a goal of English learning. The purpose of listening and speaking is to communicate, and the communication is not only about the exchanges of information and emotion, but also about the cultural values behind it.

Reading is a particular way for Chinese students to learn English that doesn't depend on others. The students don't need to care about other people's opinions for a quiet place is what all they need to do the practice of reading. Reading is not the ultimate objective of learning, but a kind of way of learning. Intonating is not the ultimate goal of English learning, but a standard and the final checking of the effect of reading. Through reading and intonating, the students can feel the beauty of English and the power of foreign cultures. Intonation could be achieved through repetitive reading which requires the students to be familiar with the learning materials.

V. CONCLUSION

It is of great significance for colleges and universities to improve the efficiency of college English teaching and to carry out college English teaching reform with humanistic literacy as the core. During the reform of college English teaching, it is necessary to take quality-oriented education as the basis, improve the quality of college English teaching as the main line, cultivate college students' ability of theoretical thinking and critical thinking, and focus on the improvement of innovation ability. In college English teaching, besides listening, speaking, reading and intonating, we should pay close attention to the cultivation of college students' ability of communication and expression. At the same time, we should follow the principles of English teaching, change the traditional English teaching mode and content, and explore and apply English knowledge that meets the needs of contemporary development.

The essence of college English reform from the perspective of humanistic literacy education is to build a class cultural community with the harmonious coexistence of traditional and new teaching modes, humanistic and instrumental attributes as the main content. This cultural community can meet students' learning needs and realize the combination of teaching, managing and humanistic literacy.

The ultimate goal of college English teaching reform is to teach students English knowledge, improve students' English application ability and comprehensive cultural literacy, that is, humanistic literacy, and then the students can form their own ways of thinking and their own values through the internalization in English learning. This teaching goal is basically consistent with the needs of students, fully considering their career orientation. With this, the focus of college English teaching has changed from the teaching purpose to students' learning needs, and the cultivation of ability and literacy has been attached great importance, so that society's demand for English-speaking students could be met and the improvement of English knowledge and humanistic literacy of the students could be achieved.

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Research into the Usage of the Word "Otherwise" for Chinese College Students

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Abstract—**The word "otherwise" has long been viewed as a challenge to most Chinese college students, for it often changes in the way that it is used and understood. By taking a careful study of the word itself and the context where the word is used, this paper tries to explore the possible uses and interpretations of the word "otherwise" to help Chinese students better understand it in different contexts, and then to offer the suggested solutions to the improvement in the proper understanding and use of the word.**

Index Terms—**otherwise, analysis, usage**

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading, like the other basic language skills in English learning, plays an important role in daily communication in social life. It is usually considered to be a sign of one's language competence and comprehensive power (Zeng, 2018). But for most Chinese learners, English reading is still a great challenge. Students at university level still suffer from a limited lexicon and weak language foundation though they work hard enough and do well in reading exams (Zeng, 2018).

For majority of Chinese students, they begin to learn English in high school, taking it as a compulsory course in university. In spite of the fact that much time and efforts have been devoted to English learning in their secondary school(Zeng, 2018) , they still cannot make a good sense of some difficult words, less to say to make proper use of them to express themselves in communication.

The word "otherwise" is one of such difficult words for most Chinese students in their daily reading. "Otherwise" is a common word in English vocabulary, but it is also the word that can easily confuse and overwhelm Chinese students in their reading comprehension. In most cases, it is an ordinary conjunction, adjective or adverb and is interpreted as "if not, or else", but in different contexts, it can be changed or extended much in its basic sense and function, it changes so much as to puzzle or hinder students, or as to disable them to go on with reading with interest.

II. ANALYSIS OF THE USAGE OF THE WORD "OTHERWISE"

For the above-mentioned reasons, I will first go back to its origin, then move into its makeup, and last offer possible solutions to go further into its usage. "Otherwise" dates from old English "on othre wisan"(David, 1980) (used in the 14th or 15th century), today it means "in another manner"(David, 1980) in a modern sense. In its word composition, "other-" has a sense of being "different", different from what has been talked about, "-wise" is a suffix of a word, referring to "manner or aspect", for example, "likewise", "clockwise", or "dropwise", etc. On the basis of its composition and contexts, this paper will aim to explore its expanded senses, and will guide Chinese students how to understand and use it properly.

A. "Otherwise" Is Used in Different Ways

"Otherwise" can be used in different ways in different contexts, it can be a conjunction, adjective and adverb in different patterns of sentences, semantically taken as" or, else , if not". In different circumstances, it can be interpreted and used in the following ways:

1. "Otherwise" is a conjunction, interpreted to be " or, else , if not"

We will hurry up, otherwise we may be late for school.

我们得抓紧时间，要不上学迟到了。

Save some money for future, otherwise you will regret it.

为将来存点钱，要不然你会后悔的。

I felt ill the other day, otherwise I would have gone to the meeting.

前几天我生病了，否则我会去参会的。

Drivers have to follow traffic regulations, otherwise they will be punished.

司机必须遵守交通规则，否则将受到惩罚。

2. "Otherwise" is an adjective, read as "not as supposed or in a different state"

The story sounds reasonable, but the truth is quite otherwise.

故事听着有道理，但事实真相与此大相径庭。

She is quite well in health though she looks much otherwise.

她身体其实很好，尽管看上去欠佳。

Some are wise，some are otherwise.

有些人聪明，有些人则愚蠢。

We welcome any comments from viewers, favorable or otherwise.

我们欢迎观众提出意见，赞成的或批评的都行。

I fear she will be superstitious. Indeed, how could she be otherwise?

我担心她会相信迷信。确实，她怎么可能不信呢？

3. "Otherwise" is an adverb

a. It can be interpreted to be "differently , in another way"

We believe he is selfish , but he evidently thinks otherwise.

我们认为他很自私，但他显然不这样认为。

There is no dream you cannot achieve. Never let anyone tell you otherwise.

没有你不能实现的梦想。决不让别人告诉你，你的梦想无法实现。

If it ends well, it means both of you want more. If it ends otherwise, the next thing to do is to wave goodbye to each other.

如果结局好，说明你们两人都想进一步发展.如果结局不好，接下来就会分手。

Only by saving will you have money in the bank or otherwise invested.

只有节省你才会有钱存在银行里或以其他方式投资。

We will get there somehow, by boat or otherwise.

坐船或以其他交通工具，我们将会想办法到达那儿，

The government claims that the economy is improving, but this survey suggests otherwise.

政府宣传经济形势在好转，但这项调查却有不同的结果。

Here are two difficult paragraphs with "otherwise" in them

First, the Handlins cannot adequately demonstrate that the White servant's position was improving during and after the 1660's; several acts of the Maryland and Virginia legislatures indicate otherwise (2015, GRE).

首先，汉德林夫妇无法充分证明白人佣人的地位在十七世纪六十年代期间得到了提升；马里兰州和弗吉尼亚州的立法机构颁布的几项法案表明情况恰恰相反 (2015, GRE）。

In physics, subject and object were supposed to be entirely distinct, so that a description of any part of the universe would be independent of the observer. The quantum theory, however, suggests otherwise, for every observation involves the passage of a complete quantum from the object to the subject, and it now appears that this passage constitutes an important coupling between observer and the observed (2015, GRE).

在物理学中，主体和客体被假定为绝然互不相关的，因此，对宇宙的任何一个部分进行描述，终将独立于观察者。然则，量子理论暗示情形恰恰相反，因为每一项观察都涉及一个完整的量子从客体到主体的过渡，而现在看来，这一过渡构成了观察者与被观察物之间的一种重要的结合 (2015, GRE）。

b. It may be interpreted to be "in the other aspects", often preceded by "but"

Dad still has a bit cold, but otherwise all are well.

爸爸还有点感冒，但其他方面都好。

The food ran out early, but otherwise the party was a success.

食物很快被吃光了，但聚会在其他方面办得很成功。

He is noisy，but otherwise a nice boy.

他爱吵闹，除此之外，倒是个好孩子。

The girl is a little dirty，but not otherwise contemptible.

这孩子就是有点脏，其他倒没什么不好。

The cousins are alike in age, but otherwise as different as day and night.

堂兄弟年龄相近，其他方面相差甚远。

B. "Otherwise" Can Help to Build English Subjunctive Mood

"Otherwise", to most Chinese students, poses much more challenge when it appears in the English subjunctive mood. It usually refers to something that did not happen, or suggests a different case or situation. In this sense, "otherwise" helps to build a special kind of subjunctive mood. The following sentences will be the illustrations of the usage of "otherwise" in a different sentence pattern.

1. "Otherwise" is involved in short phrases

The much admired writer enjoyed a successful career, but later caught a serious disease and lived an otherwise happy life.

这位令人钦佩的作家事业有成，但后来患上严重疾病，要不然，可以过着幸福的生活。

The coloured lights in the trees have lent bright colors to an otherwise dull city.

树上的彩灯为这个(要不然)乏味的城市增添了明亮色彩。

Hemingway welcomed his discovery of a worthwhile cause because it could give significance to an otherwise meaningless death.

海明威很高兴发现了一项有价值的事业（写作），因为它可能赋予了死亡意义，否则，他的去世则可能没有启示或警世意义。

The ability to conceal themselves by camouflage enables some otherwise defenseless animals to survive.

通过伪装而隐藏自己的能力帮助一些（如果无法伪装隐藏）则毫无自卫能力的动物生存。

His refusal to help his brother could well result in the failure of business that will otherwise be very successful.

他拒绝帮助他弟弟，很可能导致生意失败，否则，他弟弟的生意可能会很好的。

Appointing one woman to the otherwise all-male staff could look like tokenism.

给原本清一色的男职员队伍增派一位女性会显得是装点门面。

2. "Otherwise" is included in the subjunctive mood sentences

Well-educated people make more money than they would otherwise do.

接受过良好教育的人比他们（没接受教育时），有更高工作收入。

In a crisis people are more on edge and agitated than they would otherwise be.

在面对危机之时，人们比平时（没有危机的时候）更加焦虑不安

Trade makes it possible for surplus manufactured goods to be traded abroad for the agriculture products that would otherwise be lacking.

贸易有可能将国内剩余产品销售到海外以换取农产品，否则，国内会缺乏农产品。This activity can help you release thoughts that might otherwise prevent you from getting needed sleep.

这项活动有助于你放弃一些意念，要不然，这些意念可能会妨碍你获得必要睡眠。Their suggestion has made the design better than it would otherwise have been.

他们的建议使这项设计比原本（如果未采纳他们的建议）更好。

The student went through the paper, finding some mistakes that might otherwise have been ignored.

学生检查了试卷，发现了一些否则可能被忽略的错误。

He warned me of the danger that I would otherwise have neglected.

他提醒了我，要不然，我会忽视危险。

Quality education also free communities and countries, allowing them to leap forward into periods of wealth and social unity that otherwise would not be possible (2015, GRE).

素质教育同样解放了社会和国家，使其跨越进入富裕和社会统一期，否则，这一切就不可能实现。

Because of the differences in the manner of expression between Chinese and English, the way that "otherwise" is used in the English subjunctive mood often puzzles students so much that they either misunderstand it or fail to get it at all. The proper solution to it is to explore its possible extended meanings on the basis of the very context and its core sense.

C. The Common Set Phrases with "Otherwise"

"Otherwise" itself is a difficult word, when it is used together with another word, it poses more challenge to Chinese students, for the phrase can not be interpreted word by word. Further, there are no Chinese words that are combined or built in the similar way.

1. "Otherwise than" is decoded to be "different from"

Our life cannot be otherwise than happy.

我们的生活一定会幸福的。

How could it be otherwise than frightful?

这怎么会不吓人呢？

No person shall be tried or punished otherwise than by a law court in accordance with the procedure prescribed by law (2015,GRE).

对人进行审判和惩处只能由法院依照法律规定的程序来进行。

2. "And otherwise" is interpreted to be " other activities"

During break in classroom，the children are singing，dancing，drawing and otherwise.

课间，孩子们在唱歌、跳舞、画画及开展其他活动。

You can take it, leave it and otherwise.

你可以取走它，留下它以及用其他方式处理。

3. "Or otherwise" is interpreted to be "completely different or opposite"

In holiday, we can choose to be busy or otherwise.

假期我们可以找事做或闲着。

Married mothers or otherwise are welcome to our meeting.

妈妈们无论婚否，都欢迎参会。

He does not mind whether it is moral or otherwise.

道德与否他不在乎。
I must emphasize that I am not making a plea, disguised or otherwise.
我必须澄清我不是在作辩护，无论伪装还是真实的
He didn't want company, talkative or otherwise.
他不愿有人陪伴，无论同伴是否健谈。

III. SUGGESTED ACCESSES TO THE MEANING AND USES OF "OTHERWISE"

In terms of linguistic competence, poor command of vocabulary and inability to understand it properly may be one of the major obstacles in the way to improve English for Chinese college students (Zeng, 2018). It is important to recognize that students do not learn from the first presentation of the new language items alone. They need to be introduced or even reintroduced to the new items, that is, more often a new word is included in the reading or daily communication, more likely the reader will be familiar with it and understand it better, until they can have a full command of what they have learnt, until they can produce them readily when required (Zeng, 2018).

To reach this goal, students might be often asked to practise a certain number of language models, such as word substitution, sentence patterns, structure of paragraphs, etc. In many English textbooks, ,for example, New College English, there are always such items of exercise as " replace A with B", "reorganize the following sentences after the models" or "compose a paragraph on the provided structure" (Yang, 2002), etc. The repeated phrases and structures with the new learned words in them are usually the most often used ones. To be familiar with them is really a great advantage for students to be fluent users of English (2018, Zeng).

It is no exception with the learning and practice of "otherwise", that is to say, the above-suggested steps can be applied to the mastery of the word "otherwise", but it will be done under the condition that the other means of word study may be included and tried, for example,

A. Word Analysis

It is known that many words in English have been formed by constantly combining parts of old English, Greek, and Latin words. One can break down a word by looking for prefixes, suffixes, and root words. If you know what these word parts mean, then you can often figure out what a newly-combined word mean, especially with the help of the context. By teaching Chinese students the skills to break up different parts of a word, we may provide them with a useful tool so they won't necessarily have to run to a dictionary to consult it. They can also get a hint about what these words possibly mean at the time they first meet them.

For example, subscribe, subscribe = (prefix) sub + (stem) scribe
sub- = under; -scrib- = write.   It can be interpreted to be: write under
scientist,   sci-(en) = know (Latin),   -ist=one who
It can be interpreted to be : a man who knows (much)
otherwise,   other-=different,   -wise=way
It can be interpreted to be: (in) different way

B. Context Clues and Mental Association

Using context clues is one of the proper ways to discover what an unfamiliar or difficult word means. Before you can understand what you read, you have to understand the most words you are reading. By looking carefully at the other words in the sentence or by focusing on the sentences around it, and seeing how the new word fits in, you can work better at determining what the new word possibly means. Often an author includes hints, or clues to help the reader expand vocabulary from its core meaning and help them grasp what the specific words or sentences mean, take the following sentences for example:

The story sounds reasonable, but the truth is quite otherwise. (1.2)
I fear she will be superstitious. Indeed, how could she be otherwise? (1.2)

Here, "reasonable" and " superstitious" are the useful clues for the reader to figure out the meaning of the two "otherwise" in the above sentences, the first means " not reasonable" and the second suggests "not superstitious".

More examples:
Dad still has a bit cold, but otherwise all are well. (1.3.2)
The food ran out early, but otherwise the party was a success. (1.3.2)

Here, "otherwise" in the first sentence refers to " in the other aspects except the fact that Dad still has a bit cold".

Likewise, in the second sentence, "otherwise" refers to "in the other aspects except the fact that the food ran out early".

Without the clear statement of the fact in the other part of the sentence, then it will be quite hard for Chinese students to follow the word "otherwise" and even the whole sentences.

In addition, mental association is much required in the grasp of the meaning of "otherwise", for the way it changes in its usage often goes a little beyond the comprehension of Chinese students, who are unable to find the similar sentence structure in the learning of their own language, for example,

The much admired writer enjoyed a successful career, but later caught a serious disease and lived an otherwise happy life. (2.1)

Here, the phrase "lived an otherwise happy life" means that "the writer would live a happy life in a different case (he did not catch a serious disease).

The ability to conceal themselves by camouflage enables some otherwise defenseless animals to survive. (2.1)

Here, the phrase "some otherwise defenseless animals" means that "some animals would be defenseless if they were unable to conceal themselves by camouflage"

Therefore, no matter in what way "otherwise" appears in a sentence or in what collocation it is used with other words, the right way to understand it is to expand it from its core sense "in a different way", "different from what has been said or stated", in this way, the words before it or after it are of great help so that the context can not be neglected or missed.

IV. CONCLUSION

To sum up, learning to read and interpret words is a long, complex and creative process in which a series of language practices and the related activities are involved and interrelated (Zeng, 2018). On the one hand, well-targeted and extended reading practice helps Chinese students make proper and frequent improvements in reading abilities, on the other hand, constant exposure to different sources of texts through different designs works to improve the mind of students (Zeng, 2018). As we know, for most Chinese college students, vocabulary is often more important and challenging than grammar, as D. A. Wilkins (1972) said "Without grammar very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed."

Vocabulary is very infinite and words are often more complex than they appear to be, for words are not isolated from but associated with a certain type of context or situation, thus they behave differently in different contexts (Zeng, 2018). Therefore, special attention has to be directed to the expanded meaning, to the usage of words and to their collocation in text reading.

Further, it is important to recognize that students have to be exposed to the difficult or strange words in different contexts as much as possible, in this way they may be well impressed with its central meaning and with the established ways that it is used. If English teachers have a deep understanding of the interrelation between word reading and the contributing factors (Zeng, 2018), if English teachers place equal stresses on the words themselves, on the contexts and on the practice of their uses, if English teachers integrate word reading into the whole process of teaching, then all the efforts made by teachers and students will be much rewarded (Zeng, 2018).

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Componential Analysis of 'Gbá' Verbal Complex and Its Relevance in Second Language Teaching

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Abstract—This work examines the componential analysis of the *gbá* verbal complex in Igbo. It investigates the complex verb *gbá* in order to find out the basic components of the verb in Igbo thereby arriving at its lexical meaning. The paper adopts the theory of componential analysis for the analysis of data. The data used for the study were elicited through informal interview and the researchers' intuitive knowledge as native speakers. The study found out that '*gbá*' is a verb of movement or motion which results into change of position. This is applicable to all the words that bear the verb root. The distinguishing features that exist among them are equally observed. It is found out that different meanings associated with the word bearing the verb root '*gbá*' is based on the verb that selects the complement thus the word *gbá-égwú* means 'dance', *gbá mgbá* 'wrestle' and *gbá oso* 'run'. It will bring clarity among the meanings of lexemes in the same semantic domain. These findings will be beneficial to curriculum designers by giving them the insight on areas to stress more in teaching second language learners and for documentation.

Index Terms—componential analysis, *gbá* verb, second language teaching, lexeme, meaning

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is one of the important aspects of human attributes used purposely as an instrument of expression. It has to do with any means of communication in which thoughts and feelings are symbolized in order to convey meaning. It involves writing, speaking and even gestures, including all types of para-linguistic devices. Crystal (2008) sees language as the concrete act of speaking, writing or signing. He points out that there are varied views of the term language, one of which is in relation to Chomsky's competence and performance. The former focuses attention on the intuitive speakers' ability to utter and comprehend grammatical constructions which are appropriate to the context in which they occur. This is as opposed to performance which is the actual use of language in specific utterances.

There are different aspects of language study which are phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Nwaozuzu (2013) holds that even though certain aspects of language studies have attracted expansion in terms of analysis and discoveries, there are others that are yet to lend themselves to concrete definitions, answers and explanations such as semantics. Anagbogu, Mbah and Eme (2010) see semantics as the last level of grammatical analysis that is concerned with the meaning of words, phrases, clauses in language.

Therefore, semantic investigation of language operates at two levels: word level and sentence level (Odo, Nwaozuzu and Mbah, 2015). At word level, semantics explores the relationship between words within a language as a whole. This constitutes the meaning which a word has by virtue of its place in the linguistic system. Such meaning of words that exists at the level of word is studied in lexical semantics which is concerned with word meanings and how these meanings inter-relate with one another. Saeed (2002) believes that meaning is the overall result of all linguistic levels right from the sound level through form and structure level. Changing one phoneme for another, one verb ending for another or one word other for another will produce differences in meaning.

Three types of meaning as distinguished by Finnegan, (2004), are linguistic, social and affective. Linguistic meaning encompasses sense and reference. It refers to a lexeme or larger construction such as sentence to the actual person, object, abstract notion or state to which the lexeme (word) or sentence makes reference. Social meaning is the identification of certain social features of speakers and context from the character of the language employed while affective meaning is the affective connotation that is given to words or utterances (Finnegan, 2004).

A word could represent a complex semantic structure. It comprises smaller units of meaning which are attached differently to derive a different lexeme. The meaning of a word is a complicated structure where different units of meaning have a definite inter-relation (Crystal, 2008). Each semantic unit in a word is not equally important. One or some of them is the dominant semantic element which organizes around itself the remaining ones, these may be more or less important for the meaning of a lexeme (Leech 1983; Lyons, 1995). Corroborating this view, Kahdija (2015) notes

that componential analysis functions by establishing components to words as lexemes are complexes to be grouped into more simple elements; which can be major or minor elements to the main word. He further observes that in Componential Analysis (CA), meaning usually resides in the interaction between major components; lexical words with high attribution have meaning more than function words. Put differently, meaning is horizontal while in the formal usages meaning is vertical. Words or lexical items with one meaning do hardly undergo componential analysis but can direct the analysis and taken as attribute of meaning.

A word can be analyzed and explained in terms of its ultimate semantic components which help to describe difficult lexical relations, grammatical and syntactical processes. The semantic component of a word is seen as a system of meanings. To some extent, one can define a word by giving to which set it belongs and how it differs considerably from other members of the same set by classifying it into shared and differentiating features. The ultimate semantic features throw more light on how the members of a given set features are related to one another and can be taken to distinguish them from one another. The integration of such features has been called componential analysis (Wardhaugh, 1977; Kreidler 2002).

CA is one of the three specific frameworks for semantic analysis. The other two are formal semantics and cognitive semantics (Ifeagwazi, 2016). CA is a method adopted in structural semantics to explain the components of a word's meaning. It therefore reveals the essential features by which native speakers of the language distinguish different lexical items in a semantic field or domain (Ottenhelmer, 2006). Language embodies meaning for effective communication, but this intent has been fraught with problems like the use of complex verb in a language without knowledge results in the meaninglessness of the word or grammar to both the native speakers and second language learners. This is applicable to Igbo which is described as a verb language by the early scholars in Igbo grammar like Emenanjo (1975), Ubahakwe (1976), Nwachukwu (1983) and Uwalaka (1984).

The centrality of its function in Igbo language is incontestable and it is a kernel part of speech in Igbo (Igbeaku, Mbah and Nwaozuzu, 2016). Emenanjo (1978) observes that Igbo verb is made up of three mutually obligatory and complementary elements. These obligatory elements are the verb itself, the complement and the bound cognate nouns (BCN). He further observes that in the surface structure, the verb co-occurs with the complement and the BCN or either of them. This implies that every Igbo verb must exist with a nominal element which complements it. In the classification of Igbo verb, Emenanjo (2005), notes that the co-occurring nominal elements is subdivided into five major classes; General Complement Verbs (GCV), Inherent Complement Verbs (ICV), Bound Complement verbs (BCV), prepositional Phrase Complement Verbs (PPCV) and Ergative Complement Verbs (ECV). He goes ahead to say that all Igbo verbs have the BCNs which in a given construction, always occur closely linked to the verb and immediately behind it.

Uwalaka (1984) terms the co-occurrence of the verbs and their bound cognate nouns as verb plus noun complexes. She opines that the verb plus noun complexes be entered in the dictionary. Emenanjo (1978) in his own view maintains that every verb should be entered with its complements or bound cognate nouns in order to bring distinction among the head words. An interesting thing in the views of the above scholars is that they believe that Igbo verbs co-occur with nominal elements which extend the meaning of the verbs. This is what Weinreich (1959) refers to transfer features. Weinreich holds that the features of verbs are transferred to the nouns that follow it. So, the nominal complements are used to derive the meaning of the verb home. This co-occurrence of the Igbo verbs with their nominal elements are not done without selective restrictions. It is the restriction on the combination of senses of words indicated by certain semantic features which they possess, and since in the normal use of language, linguistic forms do not freely co-occur with other linguistics forms (cf. Katz, 1966).

Needs analysis in language teaching and language programme design can be defined as a systematic process which help teachers to collect information and get an accurate and complete picture of their students' needs and preferences. Then they interpret the information collected and make decisions about what to include in their programme based on the interpretations in order to meet the students' needs. This process can be used in response to their academic needs of all the students, for improving their achievements and meeting challenged academic standard. However, this process sometimes does not involve looking at the learners' individual needs but may involve looking at the requirements and expectations of other members involved such as employees, parents, teachers and financial supporters (UKEssays, 2018). It is all about attaining competency and efficiency in communication. Needs analysis is a tool for teaching second language learners. Anyone who learns Igbo and wants to be competent in speaking it must be conversant with Igbo verbs because Igbo language is made up of complex verbs (Igbeaku, Mbah and Nwaozuzu, 2016).

The communicative need of language learners is therefore a major preoccupation of needs analysis. It is a process of finding out the needs for which a learner or group of learners require in a language and arranging the needs according to priorities. Oputa (2011) holds that needs analysis is the most important step in any training process. Thus, needs analysis aids curriculum designers and language teachers to take specific actions on what to do and how to do it in the context of learner-centered instruction. Hence the communicative goals of language learning are to a great extent enshrined in the aims of needs analysis.

This study employs the theory of componential analysis to examine the different meanings of the verbal complex '*gbá*' in Igbo with a view to seeing how its application to lexemes helps in solving meaning problems for the second language learners. According to Uchechukwu (2004), the only verb root in Igbo that is devoid of meaning is '*gbá*' and

still the most productive. The question remains what is the meaning of the '*gbá*' verb root? Is it actually meaningless as propagated by some scholars? Prezi (2015) identifies the meaning of '*gbá*' to be 'run', then if the meaning of the verb '*gbá*' is taken to be 'run', how then do we explain the meaning of the following: '*gbá-ọsọ, gbá-mgbá, gbá-ǹdụ, gbá-ụta, gbá-egbe, gbá-aja, gbá-obara*' etc? It is based on this non encompassing notion that this research stands to ascertain the meanings of the verb root '*gbá*' through structural analysis and also consider the implication for the Igbo language teaching. The componential analysis theory will be employed for the analysis of the data. The choice of this theory for the study is due to the fact that it is used to determine the semantic relationship that exists among lexicons of motion verbs and their complements in the same semantic domain. This is a very effective theory for the analysis of the inherent verbs.

II. THEORETICAL STUDIES

Since the concept of meaning is very illusive, many analysts in various fields of study have made efforts to see to what extent they could, through some known characteristics of language, grasp the meaning of meaning. In this regard, theories that may help in unraveling the mystery behind the problem posed by defining meaning have been propounded.

A. Theory of Componential Analysis

The founders of CA are Katz (1972) in the areas of generative grammar and anthropology respectively. Some linguists hold that it appears first in Katz and Fodor (1963) and has been refined in Katz and Postal, (1964) and Ifeagwazi, (2016). This theory tries to give an account of word meaning. The theory of CA is dependent on the principle that the meaning of a lexical item is composed of indivisible semantic components. So, the essential component that form the meaning are elementary units on semantic level. Aitchison (2003) notes that by CA, it is possible to state the smallest indivisible units of lexis or minimal components. The theory holds that the total meaning of a word can be decomposed into its basic components. According to Widyastuti, (2010), 'Components have a distinguishing function and distinguish the meaning of a lexeme from that of semantically related lexemes or accurately they serve to distinguish among the meanings of lexemes in the same semantic domain.'

'It is often seen as a process of breaking down the sense of a word into its minimal distinctive features; that is into components which contrast with other components. It refers to the description of the meaning of words through structured sets of semantic features which are given as 'present, absence or indifferent with reference to feature'. To describe the presence of or absence of a feature, binary rules are used. The symbol [+] means the feature is present while [−] means the feature is absent' (Widyastuti, 2010).

Also, Jackson (1996) and Nida (1975) categorize semantic components into two types. These are: Common component and diagnostic or distinctive component.

A. Common component- This is the primary feature which is commonly shared by every word in the same semantic domain.

B. Diagnostic/distinctive components- These serve to differentiate between the meaning of one word from others in the same domain. Words such as, man, woman, boy, girl and other related words in English could throw light on this illustration. These words belong to the semantic field of 'human' and the relation between them may be presented by the following matrix:

TABLE 1
COMMON AND DIAGNOSTIC COMPONENTS OF THE WORD *MAN, WOMAN, BOY AND GIRL*

Components	man	woman	boy	girl
Human	+	+	+	+
Adult	+	+	_	_
Male	+	_	+	_

In the semantic domain of *man, woman, boy* and *girl*, [human] is the common component and they are distinguished by [adult], [male], [female] as the distinctive components. The meanings of the individual items can then be expressed by combinations of these features:

Man   + [human] + [Adult] + [Male]
Woman   + [Human] + [Adult] - [Male]
Boy   + [Human] − [Adult] + [Male]
Girl   + [Human] − [Adult] - [Male]

CA is a semantic method often used in structural semantics to analyse the structure of the meanings of lexical items. Thus, it shows the significant features by which native speakers of the language distinguish different lexical items in the domain. This is a useful approach to learning another language and understanding a specific semantic domain of ethnography (Leech, 1976). Furthermore, Leech states that CA first evolved in anthropological linguistics as a way of understanding relations between kingship terms. Even though CA was used formerly for kinship terms but it is not

restricted to the analysis of kinship terms only. It could be applied in many areas of the vocabulary (Kempson, 1977). For instance, the difference between *murder* and *kill* can be stated clearly and economically if *murder* is analysed as having a meaning which is a complex of components *representing intention, causation, death,* and *kill* as having the complex of only the components representing causation and death.

Murder [INTENTION], [CAUSATION], [DEATH]

Kill [INTENTION] [CAUSATION], [DEATH].

It could also be used to analyse certain animals. For example:

Sheep	ram	ewe	lamb
Horse	stallion	mare	colt
Chicken	rooster	hen	chick

The item in each column except the first column share features: [Male] for column two [FEMALE] for column three and [YOUNG] for column four. The component common to each row is the general name they are called as the first word. Lehrer (1974) asserts that componential analysis is an aspect of semantic field theory. He corroborates this by explaining that the necessity of looking at a set of words in a carefully delimited area which has basic semantic features in common but whose meanings contrast with each other by virtue of one or more differences in respect to several other features.

Leech (1976) proposes some important principle in componential analysis.

1. The method of componential analysis can be extended to the semantic description of vocabulary as a whole.
2. Semantic statement should be preferable to the empirical evidence of important testing procedures.
3. Semantic comparisons between languages can be made on the basis of common features of meaning (p.56).

Modifications of componential analysis

Componential analysis was modified into Katz's theory by (Katz, 1972). According to Saeed (2003) the two central ideas of the theory are:

1. ''Semantic rules have to be recursive for the same reasons as syntactic rules: that the number
   of possible sentences in a language is very large.
2. The relationship between a sentence and its meaning is not arbitrary and unitary, that is
   syntactic structure and lexical content interact so that '*John kill Fred*' and *'Fred killed John'*
   do not have the same meaning despite containing the same lexical elements'' (p. 74).

For Katz and Fodor (1963), semantic theory has two components: dictionary and projection rules. In dictionary entries each sense of a lexical item has sense feature. That definition is expressed as a set of components. Katz and Fodor (1963) postulate two kinds of components which are semantic markers and distinguishers.

Another modification of componential analysis is done by Talmy, (1985). Talmy distinguishes group of languages with regard to how they express motion events in sentences. He does this by comparing the components of the motion event that each language puts into the verb versus satellite expressions (noun phrases, preposition phrases and adverbial phrases). He used five meaning components to describe lexicalization patterns. The components are: figure, ground, motion, path and manner.

Also, in the presentation of componential analysis meaning components are divided into semantic markers and distinguishers (Fall, 2007). For instance, the word *punch* is presented as (action) (momentaneous) (make physical contact) [using fist].

Slap. (Action), (Momentaneous) (make physical contact) [using open hand].

Bite. (Action), (Momentaneous) (make physical contact) [holding fold of tissue] [with jaws].

Pinch. (Action), (Momentaneous) (make physical contact) [holding fold of tissue] [With fingers].

According to Nida (1975: 36-38), the meanings of word within a single domain may be related to one another in four ways: contiguous, overlapping, included and complementary. In the analysis of meanings, the contiguous set are important since the meanings in sets are significantly similar, while at the same time they differ considerably in at least one important component. The series of the related meanings of *chair, bench, stool* and *hassock* constitute such a set. They belong to the class of pieces of furniture on which people sit but there are certain precise distinctions between them. The meaning of *chair* contrasts with the meaning of *bench*. A *chair* is for one person while a *bench* is for several persons. *Chair* also contrasts with *stool*; a *chair* has a back and a *stool* does not. A *hassock* which is meant for one person has no back nor legs. The componential analysis of the meaning of this series indicated that they are closely related in that they share common components. For instance, they are all objects, countable, artifacts furniture made for sitting. They are also different from one another in at least one ultimate contrastive component.

Nida (1975: 64) states that 'the actual linguistic procedures employed in CA consist of four types: naming, paraphrasing, defining and classifying.' The process of naming in certain respect is similar to reference, though the perspective is somehow different. Reference is described as the relation established between a linguistic form and a referent while naming is the specific act of designating such as referent. The distinctive feature of any semantic unit can be described by employing certain types of paraphrase. For instances, *uncle* may be paraphrased as my *mother's brother* or *my father's brother*. The ultimate contrastive feature of *repentance* could be *he felt sorry for what he had done and determined to change his way of life*. Defining is a highly specialized form of paraphrase and it is rarely used in actual language situation. It is an integration of all the various specific paraphrases into one statement based on the distinctive

components of the particular meaning in question. Classification involves: lumping together those units which have certain unifying feature in common, separating out the units which are distinct from one another and determining the basis for such grouping.

Weinreich (1959) asserts that sets of semantic features for a word may be unordered (clustered) or ordered (configured).

''Cluster: (a,b) = (b, a) while configuration is (a,b) (b,a). Some lexical items may have clusters and configuration in their semantic structural. Ex. (a, b)------(c, d)'' (p. 102).

Linking constructions are those which form clusters. *Black+ dog* is a linking construction and forms a cluster (Black, Dog). Non-linking forms are those that yield configurations. In place of projection rule, Weinreich proposes two separate components for the semantic process: the semantic calculator and semantic evaluator. Semantic calculator comprises semantic rules that compute the meaning of a sentence from the meanings of the individual lexical items and the syntactic structures. Semantic evaluator quantitatively measures and computes the deviance of sentences according to the number and kinds of rule violations. A sophisticated evaluator would be sensitive to the stylistic variations, and the measurement of device would vary according to the discourse and the text (cf. Weinreich, 1959).

The areas of strength of CA are: It reveals cultural features which the native speakers of a language distinguish different words in the domain of semantics; it is a good approach to language learning and understanding a specific semantic domain of ethnography; Through componential analysis, we can describe meanings, meaning relationships like entailment, hyponymy, contradiction and the grammatical behaviour of word classes; it is useful for the description of grammatical morphemes and words. This paper, therefore, examines complex verb *gbá* in Igbo with a view to bringing out both common and distinctive features it has in relation to the complements that attaches to the verb.

B. Needs Analysis

A needs analysis represents a form of assessing particular linguistic needs of the trainee or group of them. It has not been considered as a research area until the early 1970's, as its importance grew gradually along with expansion of the communicative approach. Shortly, needs analysis experienced a series of continuous development mainly due to the work performed by Richterich (1983) and Mumby (1978). Supporters of the communicative approach quarreled over the choice of the didactical evidence, as it should have been dependent on systematic investigation of the trainees' demand from the target language (as cited in Jeczelewski, 2016).

Linguists acknowledge that it is fundamental to determine wants, needs and lacks of the learner. Needs are those skills which a learner perceives as being relevant to him; wants are a subset of needs, those which a learner put at a high priority given the time available; and the lack is the difference a learner perceives between his present competence in a particular skill and the competence he wishes to achieve (Dickinson, 1991). Some researchers saw a demand to create a clear distinction between the concepts of needs analysis and needs assessment- which are regularly used stating that assessment involves obtaining data, whereas analysis assigning value to that data (Grave,1996). A needs analysis requires compiling information both on the individual or groups of individuals who are to learn a language and on the use to which they are expected to make of it when they have learned it (as cited in Jeczelewski, 2016).

Teachers have intended to meet the needs of their students during their learning, hence the reason for different approaches and their replacement. So, needs analysis is specifically designed for teaching English for specific purposes (ESP) to those who learn English as their second language even though it could be used to teach other languages. Though needs analysis, as we know it today, has gone through many stages, with the publication of Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design* in 1978, situations and functions were set within the frame of needs analysis. In his book, Munby introduced 'communication needs processor' (CNP) which is the bases of Munby's approach to needs analysis (cf. UKEssays, 2018). His approach has been used as machinery for identifying learner's needs.

C. Error Analysis

An error is a learner's language usage that deviates from or violates the linguistic rules of a target language. Accuracy in addition to complexity and fluency, according to Corder (1981) is identified as one of the three ways of describing learner. Accuracy occurs when the learner's language usage conforms with the linguistic rules of the target language while error occurs when he does not conform to the rules. Those rules may be at different levels: sound, form and structure, meaning, and discourse or sociolinguistics. Error analysis is a technique used to document the systematic errors that appear in learner's language usage. Language teachers who listen to the speeches of their students identify the error first. While native speakers make unsystematic 'performance' errors like slips of the tongue from time to time or shift from formal to informal grammatical patterns in informal contexts, second language learners make errors that native speaker hardly makes. Teachers should ignore mistakes and focus on errors which are the systematic violations of the linguistic rules to which the learner is exposed (cf. Corder, 1981).

III. EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Omego, Anyanwu and Onyegbuchulam (2012) conducted a study on Verb-Noun (object) Restriction in Egbughu dialect using the binary features of componential analyses. The verbs *break, buy, cut, carry, harvest, put on, open* and *hold* were studied. The componential analysis of the eight verb clusters was given using contrastive, diagnostic and

supplementary semantic features according to Ndimele, (1999). From their analysis of 'break cluster', five non-nuclear verbs were identified. These are *wìàk*, 'tear to break', *tùàk* 'hit to break', *núák* 'dislocate to break', and *núán* 'smash to break'. The semantic features; [+/- breakable], [+/- snappable], [+/- breakable into parts/pieces], [+/- thin object noun], [+/- breakable with hand/leg as instrument], [+/- can be hit against object], [+/- can be hit with finger/toe], have been used to discuss the semantic compatibility relationship between a verb and its accompanying noun object in this cluster.

Two verbs clusters 'buy and cut' were found to have nuclear verb clusters. The two nuclear verb clusters have the capacity to co-occur with a variety of noun objects which have the inherent compatible semantic features of being bought and being cut respectively. So, the research found that verb plays an important role in determining the kind of subject and object that it co-occurs.

Fenglei (2002) studied the componential analysis method. He used this theory to analyse some verbs and nouns in the English language. The aim was to make clear lexical contrasts and similarities. In his analyses, he differentiated between the two verbs 'kill and die'. He concludes that 'kill is not synonymous or the hyponym to 'die'. He equally found out that componential analysis explains words that are more closely related with their meanings with those of others. It is easy to characterize the sense of additional words by adding features.

Koulikova (2006) studied the comparative componential analysis of English and Swedish motion verbs. He used his analysis to explore the relation between motion verbs like come, go, walk, move, proceed and others in English and Swedish. His objective was to establish the common characteristics of the semantic field of motion verbs and also to describe the lexical semantic variants of motion verbs in English and their comparison in Swedish. In this study, Koulikova ascertained that there is something common among these verbs of motion which he called semantic component. He concludes that the semantic component of the verb is that of movement which involves displacement from the person's positions. He identified three types of movement in Swedish. These are: (1) movement as a consequent change of position [ga:rora si]. (2) Movement away from the observer which is interpreted in English by means of the verb *go* which Jackendoff (1990:89) called verb of external motion. This verb in Swedish is [korsa] meaning 'Cross'- to go over to the other side. (3) Movement towards an observer [komma] which is interpreted in English as 'come'- to move towards someone.

A much more explicit, clear and economical way of characterizing the lexical meaning relations is to use the method of componential analysis which assumes that words do not have unitary meanings but a complex of components. Componential analysis aims at discovering and organizing the semantic components of words. Based on this view, *woman* would be analysed as having for its meaning a complex of components of [FEMALE], [ADULT], [HUMAN] while spinster as having for its meaning these components, [FEMALE], [ADULT], [HUMAN], [NEVER MARRIED]' (see,   Hadi   Banoori https://www.academia.edu/36574694/CHAPTER_IV_METHODS_OF_SEMANTIC_ANALYSIS_4_1_Componential_ Analysis).

'Kempson (1977) using componential analysis method holds that ''a lexical item P can be defined as hyponym of Q if all the features of Q are contained in the feature specification of P; and incompatibility can be defined as a relation between a set of items P, Q, R, if they share a set of features but differ from each other by one or more contrasting features. For instance, Spinster is a hyponym of woman while it is incompatible with bachelor'' (p. 86). Componential Analysis gives the description of words and phrases of a language. The sense of every lexeme can be analysed in terms of a set of more general semantic features, some or all of which will be common to several different lexemes in the vocabulary. Each lexical item is defined in terms of the components' (Lyons, 1977 as cited in (see, Hadi Banoori https://www.academia.edu/36574694/CHAPTER_IV_METHODS_OF_SEMANTIC_ANALYSIS_4_1_Componential_ Analysis).

IV. *GBÁ* VERB IN IGBO

'*Gbá*' verb root is regarded as a complex verb. It attaches itself to many complements to give rise to different meanings. These complements that can follow the '*gbá*' verb root to derive its meaning are known as the clusters of the verb '*gbá*'. It is these verb clusters that Uwalaka (1983) and Nwachukwu (1983) call inherent complement verb (ICV). They classified Igbo verbs into inherent complement verbs and non-inherent complement verbs. An inherent complement verb is defined as a morphological subset of verbs which in its citation form consists of a consonant-vowel (CV) root followed by a free noun (or in very few cases a prepositional phrase). The root and its nominal complement form a semantic unit and any dictionary entry which excludes the complement lacks meaning because the complement is the meaning specifying constituent of its verb (Nwachukwu, (1983). For instance, in this verb cluster: '*bú*', we have '*bu-onu* which means literally carry [bu] and mouth [ọnụ]. That is carry mouth which means 'fast'. Another complement for the verb cluster *'bu'* is '*bu-ibu'* to get fat. Also in the verb cluster '*gbá*', we have these inherent complements: *gbá-egbe* 'shoot with gun', *gbá-ụkwụ* 'kick', *gbá-moto* 'travel in a car', *gbá-ndu* 'take an oath' and *gbá-egwu* 'dance'.

Igbo verbs are classified into the following; simple verb root; compound verb root; complex verb root and lastly a combination of a simple verb root with a noun or prepositional phrase schematically summarized as [VERB + NP/PP]. It is this last group that is called *Inherent Complement Verb* structure. Inherent complement forms a single lexeme with its verb root. Also, the inherent complement and its inherent complement verb constitute a single semantic unit and not

a syntactic unit. To support this assertion, Anyanwu, (2011), holds that the inherent complement in Igbo dialect together with its root constitutes a single semantic unit in the lexicon. It is important to point out that the functional semantic load of an inherent complement verb rests solely on its inherent complement. This is evident from the fact that the verb root which co-occurs with the inherent complement assumes a different meaning if dissociated from its inherent complement (Anyanwu, 2012).

Igbo verbs can also be classified into motion verbs and non- motion verbs. According to Scharlley (2002) for a verb to be a motion verb, there has to be a movement of the whole body involved. The author further adds that the movement can be along a path (run) or at a location (jump). Similarly, Harley (2002) describes motion verbs as those verbs that involve motion or change of position of the body as a whole. In addition to describing motion verbs as those verbs that involve motion or change of position as a whole, Harley (2002) also concludes that English verbs like *sit* and *stand* in the active sense are movement verbs while verbs describing facial movements and placing things with the hands (without moving the whole body) are not movement verbs. It is on this note that '*gbá*' verb root is classified under this motion verb (Prezi, 2015).

The essence of analyzing the *gbá* complex verb is to derive its different underlying meanings and to apply it in communication. The different shades of meaning derived from this complex verb '*gbá*' will help in proper understanding of the word, especially, for clarity, documentation and designing syllabus for teaching those who acquire the Igbo language as their second language.

A. Data Presentation and Analysis

1. ị + gbá + égwú = ịgbá-égwú 'to dance'
2. ị + gbá + ọsọ́ = ịgbá-ọsọ́   'to run'
3. ị + gbá + ḿgbá = ịgbá ḿgbá   'to wrestle'
4. ị + gbá + ḿbọ́ = ịgbá mbọ́   'to struggle'
5. ị + gbá + árá = ịgbá-árá   'to run madness
6. ị + gbá + égbè = ịgbá-égbè   'to shoot
7. ị + gbá + áfá = ịgbá-áfá   'divination'
8. ị + gbá + gbu = ịgbá-gbu   'to kill with gun'

Phrasal verbs

9. ị + gbá + pú = ịgbápú   'to run away'
10. ị + gbá + ghárí = ịgbághárị   'to run around'
11. ị + gbá + tá = ịgbátá   'to run towards something or someone'
12. ị + gbá + kwú = ịgbá-kwu   'to run towards someone or something'
13. ị + gbá + pútá = ịgbá-pútá   'to rescue'

Gbá is a motion verb. In the linguistic literature motion verbs are defined in various ways. There is neither a simple characteristic, common terminology for this group nor general agreement on how to classify and delimit the verb groups.

The meaning of the verb '*gbá*' can be derived by decomposing the word. '*Gbá* is an action word or verb of motion which involves physical action. There is movement of the whole body, displacement or shift from the standing point, while the leg makes contact with the ground, and there is target. So, from the above semantic features one can give the verb root "*gbá*" the semantic components of: (action), (Physical), (displacement), (body movement), (contact), (place of contact), (target), (path). Any other meaning derived from this verb *gbá* depends on the noun or prepositions that are coming after it which gives it new shades of meaning but still retain these underlying meaning of the verb root.

B. The Verb Root Gbá + the Nouns ọsọ́, Égwú and Ḿgbá

Illustration 1

In the phrase '*ịgbá ọsọ́, gbá égwú,* and *gbá ḿgbá*' have some relationship because of the verb root '*gbá*' that is common to the three phrases and equally have a distinguishing features because of the nouns '*ọsọ́, égwú*' and '*ḿgbá*' that are attached to it.

Gbá ọsọ́ = (Physical action), (displacement), (target), (contact), (body movement), (the foot makes contact with the ground),(path taken) [the raising of foot up and down in a systematic manner],[fast pace movement], [standing erect], [raising of head].

Gbá égwú = (physical action), (target), (contact),(body movement) (the foot makes contact with the ground),(path taken),[systematic raising of foot up and down], [slow movement], [shaking of the body], [undulating manner]

Gba mgba = (physical action), (contact), (target), (body movement), (the foot makes contact with the ground), (path taken), [two opposite force coming in contact], [clinching of fists], [forceful push], [throwing down of the opponent]

In the analysis of the data presented above using Fall (2007) theory which holds that meanings of components are divided into semantic markers represented by the marker *bracket* (…) and distinguishers represented by the marker *square block* […]. The elements within parentheses are called semantic markers while the distinguishers are shown within square brackets. The common sense idea in the theory is that part of a word's meaning is shared with other words but part is unique to that word. Therefore, one will conclude that the distinguishers among *gbá ọsọ́, gbá égwú* and *gbá ḿgbá are:*

Gbá ọ́sọ́ has [the raising of foot up and down in a systematic manner], [fast pace movement], [standing erect], [raising of head].

gbá égwú has: [shaking of the body], [systematic raising of foot up and down] [slow movement], [undulating manner].

*Gba mgb*a on its own has: [two opposite force coming in contact], [clinching of fists], [forceful push], [throwing down of the opponent].

Illustration 2

There are different types of movement one can deduce from the verb '*gba'* as a motion verb. There is movement as a consequent change of position. This common feature is found in all the phrases bearing '*gba'* as their verb root. The movement can either be away from an observer or towards the observer as seen in these phrasal verbs '*gbapụ'* and '*gbata'*.

Gbátá =(Physical action), (displacement), (target), (contact),(body movement), (the foot makes contact with the ground),(path taken) (the raising of foot up and down in a systematic manner),(fast pace movement), (standing erect), (raising of head), [towards an observer].

Gbápụ́ = (Physical action), (displacement), (target), (contact),(body movement), (the foot makes contact with the ground),(path taken) (the raising of foot up and down in a systematic manner),(fast pace movement), (standing erect), (raising of head), [away from an observer].

Gbághárïã = (Physical action), (displacement), (target), (contact), (body movement), (the foot makes contact with the ground),(path taken) (the raising of foot up and down in a systematic manner),(fast pace movement), (standing erect), (raising of head), [in an unorganized manner].

Illustration 3

Gba + ara = gba-ara   'to be mad'

(Physical action), (displacement), (target), (contact), (body movement), (the foot makes contact with the ground),(path taken) (the raising of foot up and down in a systematic manner),(fast pace movement), [walking in an awkward manner], [no destination/ target]

Gbagbuo 'make a movement and kill (shoot)'

(Physical action), (displacement), (target), (makes contact with the animal), (body movement), [path taken is straight to the target], [fast movement], [hitting the death], [causing death of the target]

Gbámbò   'struggling to get one's need'

(Physical action), (displacement), (target), (contact), (body movement), (the foot makes contact with the ground), (path taken not straight) (the raising of foot up and down in a systematic manner), (fast pace movement), (standing erect), (raising of head), [towards an observer].

In all these three words, they have semantic relationship because of the verb root '*gba'*. They involve movement of the physical body from place to place. *Gba+ara* 'movement of someone from place to place while being unfocused'. The person equally talks to herself as she moves. The same thing goes with *gbagbuo* which literally means 'something or someone making a movement before killing anything'. In that case, if one analyzes what makes movement before it kills something or someone is nothing but bullet. Therefore, the bullet comes out of the gun and makes a fast move to hit the target which causes the death of that object. This is called '*gbagbuo* in Igbo unlike when someone kills something by hitting it with a stick or anything else and it is known as '*kugbuo'*. *Gbá mbò* equally means 'movement from place to place trying to engage in something to earn ones living.'

From the above analysis the actual linguistic procedures employed in analyzing the data are: naming, paraphrasing, defining and classifying.

C. The Metaphorical Meaning of the Verb Gbá

In the first illustration, the verb *gbá* can be translated to mean 'movement which could be fast or slow, round or straight' but that is not the case when attached with the nouns, *ọ́sọ́* (run), *éqwú* (dance) and *ḿgbá* (wrestle)' respectively. This shows that different meanings can be associated with the verb root '*gbá* 'based on the complement that follows it. It is also observed that apart from the concrete meanings of the three examples, the phrases can have metaphorical extensions of their concrete meanings. In which case, *Eze n'agba oso ahia* means that 'Eze is looking out for customers that will buy his commodities.' *Ngozi n'agba ekwu ukwu* literally means 'Ngozi dances with her waist' but means, 'She is wayward' in Owerri dialect, while Nnamdi *na-agba m mgba* literally means that 'Nnamdi is wrestling with me' but the underlying meaning is that 'Nnamdi is attacking me.' Also, when someone says that *'O tinyerem na gbagharia'* literally means, 'he made me move in an unorganized manner' while the underlying meaning is that 'He put me into confusion.'

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The problems of meaning could be approached through different ways. Meaning is related to diverse functions of language and it is chameleonic in nature. The semantic imports of words in a given system are interrelated, overlap. These different meanings are defined (in part) by their relations with other lexemes in the language. When viewed or explained in the same semantic domain or context; words could be grouped based on the shared (positive) and

differentiating (negative) features. By analysing the semantic sense of a lexeme into its ultimate contrastive features, according to Ndimele (1999), componential analysis of meaning is a useful approach to the study of meaning, especially in explaining the meaning of a word notwithstanding its useful application in linguistics.

With this approach, language users are able to distinguish as appropriate among the meanings of semantically related words in the same semantic domain or context. Though the analysis of a word in terms of its irreducible semantic components that is based on a number of non-shared or contrastive elements may not be sufficient, according to Widyastuti (2010), they define the meaning of a lexical item formed by a number of semantic signs. Through six procedural steps of analysis which are reduced into four basic processes of naming, paraphrasing, defining and classifying, componential analysis has been a useful approach to determine the meaning of a word through its ultimate contrastive elements.

When the meanings of this verb root '*gbá'* are derived, the knowledge of these derivations will help the language teachers to apply and explain it sufficiently in language teaching especially for the benefit of the second language learners L2 for comprehension, competency and communication sake. The lexicographers will equally benefit from the problem-solving efficiency of componential analysis through the development of lexicons and their conceptual meanings.

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Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - o   Submission of extended version
  - o   Notification of acceptance
  - o   Final submission due
  - o   Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublication.com/jltr/

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