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A Corpus-based Study of Gender Representation in ELE Textbooks — Language, Illustrations and Topic Areas

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Abstract—In the following article, gender-related aspects in ELE textbooks will be examined from a broader thematic point of view, as well as detailed linguistic perspective. As a starting point, the state of research on gender-related studies in foreign language teaching pedagogy and research in Germany will be outlined, followed by a discussion on the importance of gender awareness promoting textbooks. After a general introduction and a rationale for the relevance of the study, central findings of studies examining gender representation in ELE textbooks will be discussed. This is followed by an analysis, in which specifics of textbook analysis and sampling criteria are explained. Furthermore, an analysis model is developed, based on the latest findings of gender-related textbook research. After an excursion on language-specific possibilities of gender sensitivity in Spanish, the results of the analysis are presented and discussed. Finally, implications of the findings for teachers will be deduced and recommendations regarding what can be done to promote and deepen gender awareness of learners will be given.

Index Terms—ELE textbook, gender, language, illustrations, topic areas, Germany

I. INTRODUCTION AND RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

Although gender theoretical approaches play an ever increasing role in almost all scientific disciplines and research areas (e.g. humanities, social and cultural sciences, law, economics, medicine), they are not the focus of the foreign language teaching pedagogy and research in Germany (Babka/Posselt 2016; Elsner/Lohe 2016, 9; Gutenberg 2013).

Nevertheless, the increased attention to the topic gender in the foreign language teaching research can be seen in several publications in the shape of anthologies (Decke-Cornill/Volkmann 2007; Elsner/Lohe 2016), handbook entries (Schmenk 2016/2019), articles (Elsen 2018; Gutenberg 2013; König 2015; Linke 2012; Mittag 2015: articles of the aboved-mentioned anthologies), special issues in journals (Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht Englisch 2015: Praxis Fremdsprachenunterricht 2009), monographs (König 2018; Schmenk 2002) or conferences (Free University of Berlin 2020; Friedrich-Schiller University of Jena 2006; Goethe University of Frankfurt 2018). Even if only a few publications related to gender are counted in the field of research into Spanish as a foreign language (ELE) an intensified interest in the topic can be observed (Grein 2012; Grünewald/Küster 2017; Koch 2020; Lüning/Vences 2007).

In general, it has become accepted that gender can be seen as a fundamental factor in how societies organise the social life of people, how one experiences, describes and evaluates the social world, and how individuals perceive themselves in their relationship to others. Despite their diversity, their different methods and cognitive interests, the different approaches largely agree that the category gender cannot be seen as given, but rather represents a complex construction that influences our self-image and our ideas of gender and gender relations as well as our sexuality (Babka/Posselt 2016).

Since the 1990s, gender issues are no longer just a component of other research disciplines, but have become one of its own. The Gender-Studies “deal with the analysis and criticism of asymmetrical gender relations” (Schöbler, 2008, 9), which “differentiate between gender as a social construct that is formed by discursive practices and negotiations; and the biological sex” (Elsner/Lohe, 2016, p. 9). Gender includes “a person’s gender identity (defining oneself as man, woman, genderqueer), gender expression (expressing masculinity and/or femininity), attraction (sexual/romantic/sexual) and the biological sex” (König/Surkamp/Decke-Cornill, 2015, p. 6).

In both the public and private sector, society is confronted with gender issues and social concepts (König/Lewin/Surkamp 2016). Particularly the school is an institution, in which socially shared cultural knowledge is conveyed, such as social norms and values or stereotypes about different social groups (Moser/Hannover/Becker 2013). Nevertheless, school lessons also “offer the chance to make limiting concepts of gender and sexuality a topic, to encourage a critical discussion of gender-related norms and exclusions, and to open new perspectives” (König/Lewin/Surkamp, 2016, p. 21).

Foreign language teaching is particularly suitable for gender thematization and reflection, since it is intended to encourage pupils to engage with ‘foreign’ cultures, identities and perspectives and to open up new perspectives on their own world. This makes it an excellent opportunity for critical reflection on gender as a dominant category, structuring society to a high degree and creating identity (Lewin 2015).
In addition to this, the curricula of most of Germany’s federal states include gender-related topics (equality, equal rights, sexual education, sexual self-determination). For modern foreign language teaching, the ability to communicate about sexuality is specifically mentioned. It is precisely the highlighting of linguistic aspects that allows cross-connections to foreign language teaching (e.g. Berliner Rahmenlehrplan).

Considering the structure and content of foreign language lessons in the language acquisition phase, materials in general and textbooks in particular are of certain importance, because they do not only serve to instruct learners in their subject matter (Moser/Hannover/Becker 2013), they “contribute to constructing new knowledge and behavioural modes” (Benitt/Kurtz, 2016, p. 171), which leads to the assumption that materials and media can have an impact on the learners’ perspective, expectations and patterns of behaviour and interpretation related to gender (ibid.).

In this respect, access via the foreign language has an advantage. Although the foreign language slows down negotiations on gender and reduces their complexity, it also offers a certain “space of protection and distance” (Decke-Cornill, 2009, p. 14). Especially topics and terms that are emotionally charged, tabooed or otherwise particularly normatively charged are easier to negotiate in a language in which the linguistic form of expression is not yet so closely linked to the cultural meaning (König 2015).

Furthermore the inclusion of learners from many nationalities, socio-economic backgrounds and genders has become a core topic of pedagogical and didactic theory, research and practice (Elsner/Lohe 2016), the institutional strengthening of ELE, especially as the second foreign language at German secondary schools (Bär 2012; Statistisches Bundesamt 2018) and the lack of publications relating the topic gender to the field of teaching and learning ELE (Grein 2012; Sunderland 2010) lead to this particular relevance and interest to investigate how gender is represented in ELE textbooks.

II. GENDER AS AN OBJECT OF INVESTIGATION IN ELE TEXTBOOK RESEARCH IN NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL CONTEXTS

As stated above, gender topics cannot be characterised as a central topic of foreign language and (ELE) textbook research in Germany, which is why a brief reference to general textbook research related to gender issues for contextualization purposes precedes the further explanations.

The study of gender in textbooks begins in the late 1970s, based on the women’s studies that have emerged from the second West German women’s movement and leads to a phase of politically motivated textbook research. With the further development of women’s studies, the categories of analysis used in textbook studies are changing. In the 1970/80s the focus tends to be on sexism and gender, whereas more recent studies refer primarily to sexual identity, heteronormativity or social inequalities. There is still little research on the representation of Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual and Transgender (LBGT) in textbooks (Bittner 2015).

Subsequently, different lines of research that deal with gender issues in teaching and learning foreign languages will be presented (Benitt/Kurtz, 2016, p. 170; Sunderland, 2010, p. 4):

- “Gender differences in language learning and gender-specific approaches to teaching foreign languages” (Klieme 2006)
- “Reasons for gender differences in the overall performance of language learners” (Schmenk 2002)
- “Teaching gender explicitly […] in the foreign language classroom” (König/Surkamp/Decke-Cornill 2015)
- “The role of gender in instructional materials” (Benitt/Kurtz 2016; Bittner 2011; Elsen 2018; Ott 2017)

The latter area particularly addresses the question of how gender is represented in materials, for instance the equal and realistic representation of men and women (Sunderland 2010).

Gender-related issues have not played a major role in (ELE) textbook research both in national and international contexts (Bengoechea/Simón 2010; Benitt/Kurtz 2016; Sunderland 2010). Sunderland (2010) even explicitly emphasises that there is a particular lack of gender research in foreign language contexts in which English is not the target language (p. 5).

Since no ELE textbook analysis of gender-related aspects can be found in the German research context, only analyses of the international research context are presented.

It should be noted that these results are only partially relevant for the present analysis, as they are embedded in different national and educational contexts. The following ELE textbook analyses, which examine gender-related aspects, can therefore be presented in chronological order:

- sexist representation in ELE textbooks (Galiano Sierra 1993)
- verbal and graphic representation of men and women in ELE textbooks (2003-2004) for beginners (Barceló Morte 2006)
- representation of women in Spanish Second Language textbooks (Robles Fernández 2007)
- language, job titles, professional identity in 60 ELE textbooks published after 1999 (Bengoechea/Simón 2010)
After reviewing the preceding analyses, one will see that the object of investigation is often considered from a binary gender perspective and language itself is less frequently examined. The results of the above analyses show that there is a stereotypical approach to the issue of gender. Men and women are not portrayed equally and with different characteristics. Almost all textbooks use the generic masculine without exception and do not differentiate. It is noticeable that hardly any gender-sensitive language is used. Furthermore, male occupations are not only presented more often, but also have priority over female occupations.

At this point it is important to include the analyses of foreign-language textbooks (e.g. English) in the German research context, which already contain further differentiated focal points (e.g. language, homosexuality, LSBTI) (Benitt/Kurtz 2016; Bittner 2011; Elsen 2018). In this respect, the present analysis will now take a closer quantitative and qualitative look at language, illustrations, topic areas and the representation of (non-)binary gender constructions in ELE textbooks.

III. GENDER-RELATED ASPECTS IN ELE TEXTBOOKS

A. Introductory Notes and Specifics of Textbook Analyses

Before sampling and analysis criteria as well as central findings are presented, the characteristics of textbook analyses in general should precede for the purpose of contextualising the present results. Textbooks as materials specially produced for educational contexts are subject to regulatory framework, such as school laws, guidelines on sex education, educational standards, curricula, and admission requirements. Furthermore, economic conditions within the German textbook market (16 regional markets), need to be pointed out, which are fundamentally shaped by the structures of education systems, curricular developments, demographic trends and the country-specific systems of financing learning materials (Bittner 2015). Notwithstanding the content, the material-inherent limitations should be considered, as “classroom materials alone are always mediated by what is done with them, how they are consumed by the teacher and learners” (Sunderland, 2010, p. 4). The quotation shows the significance of the interaction between teacher/learner and material to realise the full potential by using them critically, creatively and flexibly. Therefore, the results of any textbook analysis should be considered against this background.

B. Sampling Criteria

The selection of ELE textbooks is based on the following dimensions of corpus compilation:

In total, five textbooks for Spanish as the second foreign language at secondary schools (secondary level I) in Germany were analysed. For this purpose, ELE textbooks were selected that can be assigned to the modern generation of textbooks and were published for a period from 2012 to 2019.

For each of the class levels examined (first/second and fourth year of learning), several textbooks were selected, which are frequently used.

As a result, a panoramic view over different class levels at secondary level I can be shown on the one hand, and a certain depth in one class level on the other hand can be seen.

This will give an impression of whether and how ELE textbooks change with the increasing class level respective to gender-related aspects.

In addition, textbooks from various publishing houses were selected, which do not only refer to the leading publishing houses in Germany. Overall, textbooks from the following publishers were analysed: C.C. Buchner, Cornelsen, Klett (Difusión), Schöningh.

Furthermore, each of the textbooks is approved in several German states and was published after the adoption of the Federal Equality Act (BGleiG 2001).

Based on the preceding explanations, the following ELE textbooks were chosen:

Finally, it should be noted that the data presented are neither complete nor representative of all modern ELE textbooks for lower and upper secondary education published in Germany.

C. Analysis Criteria

The criteria on which the present analysis is based tie in with already existing analysis models and evaluation instruments (Moser/Hannover/Becker 2013; Nova Scotia Department of Education 2001; Ott 2017). In view of the primary interest of the study, analysis levels and dimensions were adapted to the object of investigation and priorities were set (e.g. consideration of non-binary gender identities).

With the present analysis grid, a comprehensive view of dealing with gender-related aspects in tasks, texts, illustrations and vocabulary can be realised, since both the level of language and the presentation of gender-related topics themselves are at the centre of the investigation and can be networked with each other.

Thus, the ELE textbooks were examined according to the following levels and dimensions:

- **Language (tasks, texts, vocabulary)**
  - **Word level**
    - Number/order of female/male personal reference forms
    - Composition of the substantivist personal reference forms (appellatives: job titles, family relations, names)
    - Means of gender specification (grammatical, flexivistic, lexical; means of word formation (derivation, composition)
    - Means of gender abstraction (collectives, epiokina, abbreviations, unsex names, conversions in the plural, impersonal expressions, direct way of addressing)
    - Occurrence of pair forms
    - Integrated personal reference forms

- **Presentation of gender-related topic areas (texts, illustrations)**
  - Subject area
  - Number
  - Way of presenting
  - Gender constructions and constellations
  - Semantic roles
  - Predications
  - Attribution of properties

The dimensions mentioned above are subjected to a quantitative and qualitative examination. By analysing the object of investigation from these two perspectives, more extensive results can be derived.

For example, it can be investigated whether and how the generic masculine or other possibilities (methods of gender specification/abstraction) are used. There are various possibilities, e.g. using the generic masculine to designate male persons, persons of unknown or unspecific gender, mixed-gender groups and generally human beings, which can lead to the fact that recipients cannot tell from a text whether it is a gender-specific masculine or a generic use (Moser/Hannover/Becker 2013).

A further linguistic mechanism for establishing gender (in)justice is systematic differences in the first and subsequent naming of male and female persons. Hegarty et al. (2011) have shown that male first names are mentioned significantly more often before female first names than vice versa. Several studies have shown that girls and/or women are more likely to be (mentally) associated with the given subject when gender-equitable language is used in the corresponding texts compared to those texts without gender-equitable language (e.g. Garnham et al. 2012).

This scientific finding has led to the introduction of guidelines for gender-appropriate language use in various countries and universities (Moser/Hannover/Becker 2013). However, there are no guidelines for textbook publishers (cf. Linke 2012, 162), but there are a lot of instructions in Spanish for the use of neutral language (Guías Para El Uso No Sexista Del Lenguaje (Spain), Guía de Lenguaje Inclusivo de Género (2016, Chile), Lenguaje Inclusivo En Cualquier Lenguaje Inclusivo (United Nations)).

The use of masculine forms such as 'he' in a generic sense and the problem of pronouns in general, titles and salutations, order, parallel or neutral job titles and much more emerged as critical issues.

Therefore, a selection of possibilities of a gender-neutral Spanish language will be briefly illustrated in the form of an excursion to be able to contextualise the findings presented later:
A further focus of the analysis grid is the presentation of potentially gender-related subject areas, such as family, hobbies/leisure time, profession, household and visual appearance. For instance, the frequency and way of presenting male and female characters in texts and illustrations and the extent to which patterns of behaviour, characteristics, actions etc. are gender-typed can be analysed. Furthermore, the question in which constellations the characters appear (e.g. same-sex or mixed-gender dyad, in a group) can be addressed. In addition, the location and positioning in which the characters appear may be of interest for the analysis.

To go beyond binary gender constructions, the analysis grid indicates the possibility of appointing male or female persons who cannot be clearly allocated (Bittner 2011).

In a further step, the results of both areas of analysis can then be compared with each other and similarities and differences can be pointed out. This will make it possible to find out how gender is represented from both linguistic and thematic perspectives and what attempts are made to question and break down stereotypes.

D. Central Findings

ELE textbooks for first/second-year pupils

Language

With a view to determine whether and how gender-sensitive language is used in textbooks, the analysis is based on the above-mentioned levels and dimensions.

Written language in textbooks is mainly evident in tasks and texts, therefore these aspects are considered to be a priority.

In the three analysed textbooks for the first and second year of learning there are different formulations of tasks, which are presented below in an exemplary manner:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>¡Arriba! 1</th>
<th>¡Vamos! ¡Adelante! 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>¿Pregunta a tu compañero/a?</strong> (1)</td>
<td><strong>¿Preguntad a cinco compañeros (18)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pregunta de Lehrer/deleinen Lehrer</strong> (2)</td>
<td><strong>Tus amigos de Madrid te visitan.</strong> (19)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En la calle Daniel habla con dos chicos (only male persons in pictures) / Cómo se salúdan los chicos y cómo se despiden? (male and female persons in pictures) (3)</td>
<td><strong>Un alumno pregunta a dos compañeros.</strong> (20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>En grupo de tres alumnos, escribiendo (4)</td>
<td><strong>Compara tus preguntas con las de tu compañero.</strong> (21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formad grupos de cuatro personas. (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
consequently and coherently for this purpose in the textbook Vamos! ¡Adelante! 2, which is why there is no form of
gender specification or abstraction in the tasks.

Although it is common in Spanish to use the masculine third person plural for a group of male and female persons, a
generic use is also found in the singular (6, 8, 12, 20, 21).

As a counterexample to the generic masculine, the nouns in sentences 10 and 16 are feminised.

With the exception of the collective term personas, all other methods of gender specification and abstraction are
binary and do not include any other/all genders.

Furthermore, pupils are often addressed directly by using concrete questions (13) or the imperative form (you, 2. pers.
sg./pl.). Nevertheless, in this gender-neutral way of addressing the issue, there are formulations that are used
generically (6, 12, 21) and sometimes even arbitrarily (15, 16).

Another method of gender abstraction is the usage of profe as a short form of the noun profesor/a (17).

Both in tasks, but also in texts, the frequency and order in which male and female names are mentioned are relatively
balanced (e.g. “Daniel y Sofía”; “María y Daniel”).

The chosen names are names that can usually be clearly related to male or female persons (e.g. Lisa, Manfred, Tanja,
Raúl, Paco, Isabel). Although this contributes to a lexical binary gender specification, unisex names (e.g. Andrea) to
include all genders are only used one time in Rutas para ti.

If one looks at the composition of substantivistic personal reference forms, it is noticeable that in the area of family
relations the collective terms familia and relaciones familiares are chosen as superordinate terms, but as is usual in
Spanish language, the masculine form is used in the plural for (grand-)parents and uncle/aunt (los abuelos, los papás,
los tíos).

Only the textbook Rutas para ti refrains from using generic plural forms and consistently differentiates between male
and female gender in the singular forms (e.g. mi madre y mi padre; Teresa es la abuela y Ramón el abuelo… instead of
Los abuelos Teresa y Ramón…).

Job titles are introduced in the lesson according to the respective gender presented and are not further specified.

In the vocabulary section, kinship relations and job titles are presented in the singular form and specified according to
a binary gender understanding using integrated pair reference forms (el/la abuelo/a; el/la pilota) and separate words (el
alumno/la alumna).

The preceding analysis results can also be transferred to the texts of the textbook and here once more it becomes
evident, how differently the gender-sensitive language is dealt with.

Before analysing the individual gender-related topic areas, the following section provides an analysis of illustrations
which helps to contextualise the following results.

Short analysis of illustrations

In general, it can be said that the number of male and female persons is well-balanced in all the three analysed
textbooks. Most of the illustrations show groups of the same or mixed sex.

Looking more closely at the positioning of the persons in the pictures, it is noticeable that male persons are more
often shown first (from left to right). It is also noticeable that in two of three textbooks persons are often positioned
according to their male or female appearance (male persons on the left and female persons on the right). Moreover,
male persons are more often positioned above women than vice versa.

With regard to the depicted places in the pictures, a less stereotypical attribution to gender can be seen. For example,
both male and female persons are shown in the laboratory, library, kitchen, supermarket, at the airport or on the football
field. Furthermore, only female persons are shown in the computer room or clothing shop, whereas only male persons
are illustrated on the basketball court, in the stadium or handball arena.

Topic area “family/relationships”

Both in the illustrations and in the texts only traditional family structures are represented, which generally consist of
four-person or multi-generational households. There is no evidence of patchwork families, single parents or same-sex
partnerships. One of three textbooks introduces the topic area family about the kinship relations of Pablo Picasso.
However, no reference is made to the fact that Pablo Picasso, for example, had children with different women. Having
children with different men or women corresponds to current trends in family life and provides a way of referring to
topics like divorced parents and patchwork families. In all textbooks analysed, relationships are exclusively related to
heterosexual ones (¿Cómo se llama el novio de tu amiga?).

Topic area “(leisure) activities/sports/interests”

In this topic area, attempts are often made to avoid stereotypical attribution to gender. Male and female persons are
shown together chatting, reading, learning, watching TV, doing sports (dancing, swimming, surfing, hiking), partying,
buying food and cooking. Nevertheless, activities such as, playing/watching football and videogames or driving a car
are attributed primarily to male persons, whereas activities such as, shopping and having dinner with the family are
characterised as female.

In one of the analysed textbooks leisure activities are presented in the shape of a bar chart without any reference
made to gender-related differences.

Topic area “visual appearance/clothes/colours”
All persons are illustrated in a way that they can be related to masculinity or femininity, e.g. all female persons have long hair. Only one male person is shown with longer hair. This is further substantiated by the attribution of clothing and colours. In one of the three textbooks the differences between male and female persons are represented by a kind of comparison of clothing (trouser – dress/skirt) and colours (black/blue – pink/purple).

In the other two textbooks, the attribution of clothing and colours is less gender-stereotyped, e.g. male persons wear the colours red and rose. It is also striking that in one textbook, when describing the daily routine, a female person is shown alternately wearing a pink and blue blouse.

In some cases, articles of clothing are shown separated and not related to a particular person.

Nevertheless, female persons are mentioned significantly more often than male persons in the area of clothing. This can also be seen, for example, in the introduction to a woman's fashion blog gathering feedback on her outfit.

**Topic area “world of work/profession”**

Since this topic area is not dealt explicitly in the first volumes, only two examples can be referred to. In one of three analysed textbooks the mother works in the IT industry from home and the father is a pilot and rarely at home. In each lesson, letters are sent from the father to the family. To be considered stereotypical is the attribution of mobility to male persons. Another profession which is still explicitly mentioned is a saleswoman in a clothing store.

**Topic area “household/kitchen”**

In one of the analysed textbooks, two adolescents (male/female) are shown with their grandmother preparing a typical Spanish dish in the kitchen. In the other analysed textbooks only female persons are cooking or hoovering, which leads to the impression that a stereotypical classification tends to be made and primarily women are placed in this topic area.

**Topic area “celebrities”**

Famous people are depicted in all analysed textbooks. In some of them only a small selection of persons is present, in others there are up to 7 celebrities. In two of three analysed textbooks a balance between male and female persons can predominantly be observed. In one textbook not a single female celebrity is mentioned. As a rule, the persons shown are writers, actors, sportsperson or singers.

**Topic area “characteristics”**

The attribution of characteristics to male and female persons can be described as gender-neutral; both female and male persons are described as quiet, active, funny, kind, likeable, clever and pretty.

**ELE textbooks for fourth-year pupils**

**Language**

In accordance to the findings above, the analysed textbooks for the fourth year of learning also contain various methods for specifying and abstracting gender (integrated pair reference forms, collective names etc.) and ways of using the generic masculine. There is also the use of questions and imperative forms addressing directly the pupils. A new type of wording is using the personal pronoun „we“ (En esta tarea vamos a hablar del teatro...).

In each task of the textbook Apúntate 4 there is differentiated consequently and coherently between both forms in the singular (integrated pair reference form). The generic masculine is only used in the plural. In contrast, all tasks of the other textbook are continuously formulated in the generic masculine in the singular and do not differentiate gender.

In the texts of both textbooks, there are various methods for differentiating gender, which are used inconsistently. In Gente Joven 4 for instance mentioning names in tasks is largely omitted. In texts, names often appear individually. In the other textbook almost exclusively, female names are mentioned before male names.

The chosen names are names that can usually be attributed clearly to a male or female person (e.g. Nuria, Hugo, Eva, Violeta, Pedro, Ana). Although, this contributes to a lexical binary gender specification, unisex names to include all genders are only mentioned two times in Apúntate 4 (Cris, Luca).

If one looks at the composition of substantivist personal reference forms, it is noticeable that in the area of family relations the collective term familia is chosen as the superordinate term, but as is usual in Spanish language, the masculine form is used in the plural for (grand-)parents and uncle/aunt (los padres, los tíos). In this area no evidence of differentiation by gender can be identified.

All tasks of the other textbook are continuously formulated in the generic masculine in the singular and do not differentiate gender.

Job titles are specified by using integrated pair reference forms (un/a científico/a, un/a deportista).

In the vocabulary section, nouns and adjectives are presented in the singular form and specified according to a binary gender understanding using integrated pair reference forms (el/la creador/a; vago/a).

In line with the analysis of first/second-year textbooks, a brief analysis of illustrations precedes the main analysis.

**Short analysis of illustrations**

In general, it can be said that the number of male and female persons is well-balanced in both analysed textbooks. Most of the illustrations show groups of the same or mixed sex.

Looking more closely at the positioning of the persons in the pictures, it is noticeable that male persons are more often shown first (from left to right), but in contrast to the results from above, it is striking that in both textbooks persons are neither positioned according to their gender nor are male persons placed above female ones.
With regard to the depicted places in the pictures, a less stereotypical attribution is found out. For instance, both men and women are shown at the market, on the football pitch, theatre, music and circus stage as well as on the skatepark, parkour park and at a demonstration for human rights. Only female persons are depicted in the laboratory and polling station, whereas only male persons are shown in the office and art studio.

**Topic area “family/relationships”**

Both in illustrations and in the texts only typical family structures are presented, which generally consist of four-person households. As mentioned above, there is no evidence of patchwork families, single parents or same-sex partnerships in the textbooks. In one of the textbooks analysed, one person talks about having two mothers and thanks them on the occasion of Mother's Day. The reason for this remains unclear, for example, whether it is due to the person living in a patchwork family or being adopted into a foster family. The depiction of love relationships is limited exclusively to heterosexual partnerships.

**Topic area “(leisure) activities/sports/interests”**

In this topic area, attempts are often made to avoid gender-stereotypical attributions. Male and female persons are shown together playing theatre, instruments and football, doing sports (parkour, hiking), playing computer games, learning, singing, demonstrating, shopping and baking. Exclusively male persons are depicted in activities such as painting, caring for animals and cooking. Only female persons are shown when working in the lab or voting during an election.

In *Gente Joven 4* male persons are interested in literature, photography, theatre, art and basketball, which corresponds to a broad and less stereotypical representation of potential fields of interest. In contrast, women's interests are limited to theatre, education science and social engagement in organisations.

In the other textbook, the areas of interest are presented in a more stereotypical way, especially for male persons. Their hobbies refer, for example, to sports such as parkour and football, computer games and computer science. Female persons are presented more neutrally related to their hobbies and interests, e.g. doing sports (parkour, football, skateboarding), as well as being a booktuber and creating music lists.

**Topic area “appearance/clothes/colours”**

All persons are depicted in such a way that they can be related to male or female stereotype, e.g. all female persons have long and male persons short hair. Only one male person has got longer hair and one female is wearing dreadlocks. Nevertheless, the selection of clothing and colours is less stereotypical. For example, women wear different colours (blue, white, green, rose), hoodies and jeans as well as skirts, dresses and high shoes, covering a variety of potential clothing styles. Both male and female persons are represented, for instance with caps, sportswear and rucksacks.

In *Gente Joven 4*, a dialogue between mother and daughter is used to discuss the daughter's dress style. The mother wishes her daughter to wear a skirt, like other girls at her age, which the daughter refuses to do. She insists on continuing to wear hoodies and jeans.

With reference to the above results, female persons are not mentioned significantly more often than male persons in the area of clothing.

**Topic area “world of work/profession”**

The world of work is dealt explicitly in both textbooks and numerous professions are mentioned. The following professions are assigned to gender in *Gente Joven 4*: singers, musicians, artists and designers. However, only male persons are depicted as actors, graffiti sprayers or office workers and only female persons are described as medical students, writers and laboratory assistants.

Furthermore, the situation of applying for a new job is presented exclusively in the context of a female person and her curriculum vitae.

This observation is confirmed by the representation of the professional world in the other textbook. Professions are described here with reference to a four-person family. The mother is a deputy director in a company, the father is a receptionist in a hotel, the son works in a bakery and the daughter is a pupil and works as a waitress in a restaurant during the holidays.

What is striking here is that a woman has achieved a higher academic degree and a higher professional position in direct comparison to her husband.

Furthermore, occupational mobility is attributed exclusively to female persons who return from a business trip, for example.

**Topic area “household/kitchen”**

In one of the analysed textbooks, two adolescents (male/female) are shown with their father cleaning the living room while he is cooking a meal. Adult women are not represented in both textbooks in this topic area. In contrast to the results from above, these examples show that male persons are increasingly placed in household or housework scenarios.

**Topic area “celebrities”**

Famous persons are depicted in both textbooks. In one of them only a small selection of persons is given (2), in the other one there are up to 21 celebrities. In both textbooks the representation of female and male celebrities is rather imbalanced.

In addition, female celebrities are presented exclusively in the context of the professions “author” and “singer”, while male celebrities are presented as athletes, writers and astronauts.
An exception is the representation of well-known female and male painters from Latin America in Apúntate 4, which goes beyond the typical professions of famous persons in textbooks. When comparing these results, a greater identification potential for pupils can be assumed, since not only singers and athletes are presented.

**Topic area “fundamental rights”**

In Gente Joven 4 the topic of fundamental rights is dealt explicitly. People are shown here at demonstrations as well as elections. It is noticeable here that significantly more female persons are depicted. Furthermore, in the area of elections only female persons are represented.

**Addressing the issue of gender**

Gender is not explicitly addressed in any of the analysed textbooks. When first names are introduced in most textbooks, names are assigned to the individual sexes in the form of a table or by ticking a box (male/female).

In most textbooks only one name is presented at a time. However, there is one case in which a group of two persons (Manfred y Tanja) should be assigned to one biological sex. It remains unclear here whether both boxes should/may be ticked or whether, from a linguistic perspective, it is a matter of the generic masculine in the plural.

For such tasks and exercises it would be useful to add a third gender as well as unisex names in order to explicitly address the issue and question a binary gender understanding.

Further concrete gender issues in many of the textbooks examined are found in job advertisements. Although there are attempts to create equality in language, they are all based on a binary understanding of gender. Although all job advertisements in daily newspapers, on homepages etc., which pupils may also read, have referred to three genders (m/f/d) for years, the advertisements in modern ELE textbooks contain only the reference (m/f).

**IV. DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS**

Referring to Bittner’s (2011) and Benitt/Kurtz’s (2016) analysis results (foreign language English textbooks) as well as Moser/Hannover/Becker’s (2013) and Ott’s (2017) gender-related textbook studies (German textbooks), the results of the present analysis show that ELE textbooks are gender-equitable on some dimensions, but they still contribute in a subtle way to the social construction of gender inequality.

Gender-sensitive language is used, but not consequently and coherently. There were often mixtures of gender-equitable forms and the generic masculine - which is likely to lead recipients to interpret the generic masculine forms as referring exclusively to male characters.

Nevertheless, there are good examples of gender-sensitive language in recent ELE textbooks.

It was also found that despite increasing age and language levels, the language is not becoming more gender-sensitive. The most differentiated and neutral linguistical approach to gender was shown in a textbook for the first year of learning.

With regard to the subject areas, however, it could be shown that these are presented less stereotypically in textbooks for higher learning years (e.g. activities/hobbies, professions, appearance), whereby role flexibility and balance are acknowledged.

Notwithstanding, the analysis clearly shows that the norm of binary genders in ELE textbooks is not questioned. A constructivist concept of gender encompasses much more than the representation of women and men or the power relations between women and men. An understanding of gender as a social construction implies that the binary division of people into female and male is socially produced by society (Bittner 2015).

In all ELE textbooks examined, gender is constructed as a binary category, mainly through the appearance of persons. The depictions leave little or no scope for gender attribution.

Attempts to break through stereotypes can be found in the depiction of profession, hobbies and interests and housework.

The assumption of natural bisexuality represented in the textbooks studied, and further the idea of a difference between women and men, is conceptually closely linked to the concept of heteronormativity (ibid.). In the ELE textbooks examined there are simply no gay, lesbian or bisexual people. All couples shown correspond to the heterosexual norm.

Even though textbooks are obliged to reflect diversity of social reality, the results show that gender studies and theories of gender as a social construction are largely ignored, so that the thematization of gender and LGBT in schools and the creation of a space for its reflection and negotiation depends strongly on the respective teachers, if gender is understood as a not always obvious but omnipresent phenomenon (Volkmann 2007).

Otherwise this simplification shows only a part of society, causes a lack of support and identification potential for each pupil and prevents the real learning of many pragmatic aspects of neutral and authentic interaction with people with an LGBT background.

This idea coincides with Cunningsworth (1995) when he emphasises that materials should pursue authenticity in order to question, stimulate and enrich the learner’s critical skills and curiosity (p. 88).

Finally, it should be pointed out that all the results presented should always be assessed with reference to a wide range of requirements that textbooks must meet, because according to Linke (2012), it is not so much important whether a text or language material contains gender-inequitable forms or representations, but how the potential for problematisation and awareness is used in the classroom by teachers (p. 163).
It is therefore important that teachers are able to assess textbooks from a gender perspective, identify weaknesses and use further materials to implement gender-reflective teaching and learning. Teachers can use various evaluation instruments to assess gender representations in textbooks, e.g. Bias Evaluation Instrument of the Nova Scotia Department of Education (2001).

Moreover, literature, film and image didactic approaches can be particularly suitable for promoting gender awareness. Literary texts, films and images act as cultural and audio-visual expressions that give learners new perspectives, which differ from their own experiences and ways of thinking.

The use of texts, films and pictures for the purpose of gender reflection also has the advantage that a (self-)reflective examination of the gender relations portrayed can take place on the basis of the depicted persons/figures and that personal references to the learners' lifeworld are made possible but not required (König 2015; Lewin 2015).

The success of such suggestions depends largely on the willingness of teachers to critically examine their own experiences and attitudes with respect to gender order. Only with the appropriate gender sensitivity are teachers able to think the subject through at the level of educational decisions, to open their eyes to the diversity of young people and to constantly reflect on their own teaching practice (Lewin 2015).

REFERENCES

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Teacher Educators’ Conceptions of Language Assessment Literacy in Norway

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Abstract—In order to gain a deeper understanding of what language assessment literacy (LAL) is and how it can be developed, it is relevant to investigate it from the point of view of different stakeholders (Harding & Kremmel, 2016). As for teacher LAL, this phenomenon has largely been studied from the teachers’ own perspectives, leaving other stakeholders’ understanding of the construct underresearched. The current study used an exploratory, qualitative research design to investigate teacher educators’ conceptions of teacher LAL in the Norwegian educational context. Teacher educators are an influential stakeholder group in education, whose knowledge of teaching and assessment can inform our understanding of teacher LAL in important ways. Taking Taylor’s (2013) LAL model as a starting point, this study explored five English teacher educators’ general understanding of teacher LAL, as well as the relevance of the components of Taylor’s model in particular. The study provides important empirical evidence of how teacher LAL may be understood and how Taylor’s model can be further developed.

Index Terms—assessment literacy, language assessment literacy, formative assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

Language assessment literacy (LAL) may be defined as the knowledge, skills and principles needed by stakeholders in order to carry out effective assessment practices (Inbar-Lourie, 2017). This concept has attracted increasing attention over the last few years. One important reason for this is the growing importance given to assessment as a contributing factor in student learning (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Another is the empirical evidence showing that many teachers’ LAL is insufficient (Jin, 2010; Lam, 2014; López Mendoza & Bernal Arandia, 2009; Vogt & Tsagari, 2014). Several descriptions and models of LAL exist (e.g., Brindley, 2001; Fulcher, 2012; Kremmel & Harding, 2019; Taylor, 2013). One description of the construct which deserves closer attention is Taylor’s (2013) LAL model. This model not only distinguishes between the LAL required by various stakeholder groups, it also scales the competences needed by each group along different dimensions (see Fig. 1, below). However, Taylor makes clear that these dimensions are hypothesized, thus making them a point of reference for further discussions on how the construct can be understood. Although attempts have been made to empirically validate the dimensions (Kremmel & Harding, 2019), there are still unresolved questions relating to, for example, how they apply in specific, localized contexts, such as the one explored in the current study.

The current study takes as a starting point the teacher representation of Taylor’s model. This representation puts “language pedagogy” at the heart of teacher LAL. However, the model leaves some questions unanswered, particularly regarding what some of the dimensions actually entail, and how they interrelate. Moreover, one may speculate how aspects such as disciplinary knowledge (Xu & Brown, 2016), e.g. curriculum knowledge, relate to the model. In addition, there is the question of whether the hypothesized levels of the different dimensions hold true across different contexts (Inbar-Lourie, 2013).

The present paper seeks to explore these questions, by providing empirical evidence from a Norwegian educational context. As calls have been made for the inclusion of perspectives from different stakeholders (Harding & Kremmel, 2016), the focus here will be on the views of English language teacher trainers in Norway. These are stakeholders who know the field of language teaching and assessment well, who are influential in shaping the views and practices of language teachers, and whose views on the matter have been less systematically investigated (Coombs, 2017; Villa Larenas, 2017). Their perceptions may therefore help inform our understanding of the matter in important ways.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The concept of LAL emerged from the more general notion of assessment literacy (AL), first introduced by Stiggins (1991), who related the term to “a basic understanding of the meaning of high- and low-quality assessment and [the

1 Taylor herself did not call it a “model”. However, here we will use the term in the sense of a “conceptual or mental representation of something” (OED, 2002), in line with e.g., Kremmel and Harding (2019).
ability] to apply that knowledge to various measures of student achievement” (p. 545). Descriptions and models of AL typically include both a knowledge component and a skills component (e.g., Abell & Siegel, 2011; JSCEE, 2015; Popham, 2011; Xu & Brown, 2016). The former typically relates to an understanding of assessment purposes, content and methods, whereas the latter commonly describes how to put this knowledge into practice. Some of the models also include a principles component, such as awareness of the use and impact of language tests, including issues related to ethics, fairness and professionalism (Xu & Brown, 2016; see also Davies, 2008).

Language assessment literacy (LAL) has traditionally taken as a starting point knowledge and skills related to traditional language testing, making traditional psychometric content the main focus of attention (Inbar-Lourie, 2008). In later years, however, conceptualizations of LAL have also started to include classroom-based perspectives, opening up for the possibility of including issues related to, for example, formative assessment (e.g., Brindley, 2001; Fulcher, 2012). Formative assessment can be defined as the “evaluation by brief tests used by teachers and students as aids in the learning process” (Bloom, 1969, p. 48). This may include self- and peer assessment, as well as the use of assessment by teachers to “make decisions about the next steps [to take] in instruction” (Wiliam, 2018, p. 48).

Taylor’s (2013) LAL model is an example of a conceptualization which includes both knowledge, skills and principles components, and which entails both traditional testing elements and classroom-based aspects. This model is widely referred to in the language assessment literature (Baker, 2016; Deygers & Malone, 2019; Giraldo, 2018; Harding & Kremmel, 2016; Hildén & Fröjdendahl, 2018) and has been explored and applied in various contexts (Baker & Riches, 2018; Kremmel & Harding, 2019; Yan, Zhang, & Fan, 2018). It is meaningful in the way it distinguishes different skills and knowledge components along different dimensions of proficiency. Furthermore, as can be seen in Fig. 1, it distinguishes the degree of skills and knowledge needed by different stakeholders. The model is based on discussions of AL/LAL in five separate papers in a special issue of Language Testing, in which it appeared (Jeong, 2013; Malone, 2013; O’Loughlin, 2013; Pill & Harding, 2013; Scarino, 2013).

As can be seen from profile (b) in Fig. 1, Language pedagogy is the component that is most significant for teachers. Conversely, Scores and decision making, Knowledge of theory, and Principles and concepts are the aspects that are least important. This may be a realization that teacher LAL is considered to be more strongly connected to learning than to testing.

From our point of view, the strength of Taylor’s model lies in its emphasis on the differential levels of assessment literacy for different stakeholders. A potential challenge, however, is that it does not specify the components, or dimensions, in any great detail. Consequently, one is left to search in the other papers in the special issue of Language Testing, upon which the model is built, in order to understand their specific meanings. In the following, we will present

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**Figure 1.** Taylor’s (2013) LAL profiles for four different types of stakeholders

(a) Profile for test writers.
(b) Profile for classroom teachers.
(c) Profile for university administrators.
(d) Profile for professional language testers
possible operationalizations of the components based on a review of the five mentioned papers in *Language Testing* and other sources directly or indirectly referred to.²

Starting with the component *Language pedagogy*, one may assume that this dimension is derived from Scarino’s (2013) discussions on teacher LAL, which concern a number of issues related to LAL and the interrelationship between assessment, teaching and learning. However, the term “language pedagogy” is not used by Scarino. Drawing on (Shulman, 1987), Scarino points out that “pedagogical content knowledge” is central to teacher LAL. This type of competence may be defined as “knowledge that renders discipline knowledge teachable and learnable” (Scarino, 2013, p. 316). Emphasizing the relevance of formative assessment in language education, Scarino also maintains that in school contexts, “assessment cannot be separated from its relationship with the curriculum, and processes of teaching and learning” (Scarino, 2013, p. 314). What this leads us to conclude is that the component “Language pedagogy” used by Taylor (2013) includes assessment used to promote learning, as well as to the teaching of content in such a way that students will learn. The former logically concerns formative assessment, as defined by Bloom (1969) and Wiliam (2018) above, whereas the latter cogently links to disciplinary knowledge, such as language and culture (Scarino, 2013).

Moving on to *Sociocultural values*, this term is neither explained by Taylor, nor by any of the other authors of the papers in the special issue of *Language Testing*. However, Fulcher (2012), whom Taylor commends for providing a useful definition of teacher LAL, touches upon the need for teachers to have socio-cultural understanding in order to develop their assessment literacy. He includes a reference to McNamara and Roever (2006), who point to the impact that social and cultural values may have on the development and use of tests and assessments in a given context. Thus, awareness of such values can be important for teachers in order to be able to use assessments critically and appropriately.

Regarding the component *Local practices* in Taylor’s model, Scarino (2013) relates this aspect to “school and classroom contexts in which [the knowledge base for teacher LAL] is practiced” (p. 315). Moreover, she seems to associate such practices with “institutional dimensions of the assessment act” (p. 322). As far as we understand, such dimensions could be curricula, laws and regulations, and locally developed assessment criteria.

The component labelled *Personal beliefs/attitudes* may logically be understood as knowledge of how one’s own preconceptions, understandings and opinions may “inform [one’s] conceptualizations, interpretations, judgments and decisions in assessment” (Scarino 2013, p. 109).

The component *Scores and decision making* is neither clearly defined in Taylor (2013), nor in any of the primary source papers. However, we understand “scores” as relating to teachers’ knowledge of how to award grades. As for “decision making”, Bachman and Palmer (2010) explain this as, for example, making decisions about whether students should be classified as “pass/fail”, “certified/not certified”, “beginning/intermediate/advanced” (p. 87). Additionally, it may refer to “formative decisions, which are intended to help students guide their own subsequent learning, or for helping teachers modify their teaching methods and materials so as to make them more appropriate for their students’ needs, interests, and capabilities” (Bachman & Palmer, 2010, p. 197, italics added). Consequently, as such practices have clear affinities with Bloom’s (1969) and Wiliam’s (2018) notions of formative assessment, discussed above, “decisions” seem to belong logically to the *Language pedagogy* dimension in Taylor’s model. In our operationalization of this dimension, we have therefore reserved *Scores and decision making* for knowledge and skills relating to how to award grades, leaving formative decisions to the *Language pedagogy* component (see Appendix B).

Furthermore, the dimension called *Knowledge of theory* could arguably refer to both assessment and test theory, such as validity theory, and to theories of language, language learning, and communicative competence (Fulcher & Davidson, 2007). There is no direct mention of theory in Taylor’s paper, but Jeong (2013), upon which Taylor partly draws, points to test theory related to “validity” and “reliability” (p. 359). However, as such theoretical knowledge could also be linked to the *Principles and concepts* dimension, as discussed below, there appears to be an overlap between these two dimensions.

Nevertheless, in our study we chose to include both general test theory and theories of language, language learning, and communicative competence in the *Knowledge of theory* dimension (see Appendix B). We return to ways of resolving this issue in the discussion section, below.

The component *Technical skills* appears to involve skills relating to the use of appropriate methodology in test construction and use, such as “item-writing, statistics, [and] test analysis” (Davies, 2008; cited in Taylor, 2009, p. 26).

Finally, the component *Principles and concepts* seems to be taken directly from Fulcher (2012), who uses this term in his own model of teacher LAL. Fulcher points to “ethics of testing” and “test fairness” (p. 115) as examples of principles. As for “concepts”, he relates this to “theory […] especially where statistics are introduced” (p. 124, italics added). However, as mentioned above, this causes an overlap in Taylor’s model, as there is already a dimension focusing on theory. Therefore, there may be good reasons for reserving “Principles and concepts” for knowledge of ethical issues, such as test fairness, and move concepts to *Knowledge of theory* (see Appendix B).

In conclusion, Taylor’s model comprises a number of interesting concepts relating to the knowledge, skills and principles needed by teachers in order to carry out good assessment practices. The lack of clear definitions admittedly complicates the operationalization of the components, particularly regarding the relationship between *Language pedagogy* and *Scores and decision making*, and between *Knowledge of theory* and *Principles and concepts*. However,

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² The operationalizations (see section IV. B. below and Appendix B) will be used to investigate the extent to which the Norwegian teacher educators’ find Taylor’s (2013) dimensions relevant in the Norwegian context.
the above explication presents some reasonable interpretations, which may serve as a starting point for empirical exploration (see Appendix B). Against this background, the present study investigated how English teacher educators in Norway perceive teacher LAL and to what extent they find the dimensions of Taylor’s (2013) model relevant. The following two research questions (RQs) were therefore developed:

RQ1. What kind of LAL do Norwegian teacher educators believe that EFL teachers in Norway need in order to carry out sound assessment practices?

RQ2. How relevant do Norwegian teacher educators consider the eight dimensions in Taylor’s (2013) LAL model in the Norwegian EFL context?

III. THE NORWEGIAN CONTEXT

In Norway, English is a compulsory subject taught from grade one (age six). Teaching, learning and assessment are based on a national curriculum and regulations to the Education Act. These regulations specify, among other things, that assessment should be both summative and formative. For example, the sections on formative assessment include formulations such as:

The purpose of assessment in the school subjects is to promote learning and to contribute to the joy of learning in the learning process, as well as to provide information about students’ competences during the learning process and at the end of instruction […]. Continuous assessment means that students […] are to: (a) participate in the assessment of their own work and reflect on their own learning and academic development; (b) understand what they are to learn and what will be expected of them; (c) be informed of what they master; (d) receive guidance concerning how to continue improving their competence.

(Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research, 2006/2019, §3-3, 3-10, our translation)

As can be seen from this quote, teachers are required to clarify learning goals, promote feedback which is conducive to learning, and involve students in the assessment of their own knowledge and skills. These are issues which fundamentally agree with important ideas of formative assessment (Black & Wiliam, 2009; Bloom, 1969; Wiliam, 2018). By making such assessment statutory, the Norwegian educational authorities have strongly underscored that formative assessment is a fundamental principle in the Norwegian educational context. Moreover, in 2010, the government made Assessment for Learning (AfL) a prioritized area in Norwegian classrooms. To that end, a host of different seminars, conferences and online in-service courses were arranged, and the Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training developed a number of web-based resources for schools to use in their local development work in the area of AfL. The government specifically stressed that this prioritization was to be implemented on a longitudinal scale, and the programme went on from 2010 to 2018. The explicit goal of the programme was “to make school owners (i.e., local governments) [and] schools […] create an assessment culture and assessment practices where learning is the goal” (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2015, our translation).

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

Five teacher trainers, representing five different universities and university colleges in Norway, were recruited for the study. They were selected by means of purposive sampling (Creswell, 2013), in order to obtain variation in the sample with regard to geographical spread and types of institution (universities and university colleges). The age of the informants ranged from 48 to 64, and they all had previous experience as English teachers from the secondary school level. Four of them were holding, or about to complete, PhDs in English language education, the fifth was a trained teacher with two subsequent master’s degrees in English and pedagogy. Two were trained language assessment specialists, the other three had their specializations in other fields, such as literature didactics and general English education, but they had taught language assessment modules at the tertiary level. Their teaching experience in tertiary language education ranged from eight to 23 years. The participants’ identities have been anonymized in this paper, and they will be referred to as “TE1”, “TE2”, etc. (which are acronyms for “Teacher Educator 1”, “Teacher Educator 2”, and so on).

B. Data Collection

In order to elicit the teacher educators’ conceptions of the LAL construct and their views on the relevance of Taylor’s dimensions, an interview guide was developed (see Appendix A). The interview guide included both open-ended questions and closed-response items, starting with the former. The purpose of the open-ended questions at the outset was to obtain the informants’ unguided reflections on what teacher LAL entails in the Norwegian context (cf. RQ1). Such a procedure could also potentially mitigate the problem of conformity in answers to closed-response items, as respondents tend to report that everything is important (Fulcher, 2012). The defining question in the opening sequence therefore read: “What kinds of skills and knowledge does an English teacher in secondary school need in order to carry out good assessments?” (cf. Appendix A).

As the study also aimed to investigate the relevance of Taylor’s (2013) model in the Norwegian context, closed-response items relating to these dimensions were also included. The items, serving as operationalizations of the eight
components of the model, were formulated in line with our discussion in the literature review section above (see also Appendix B). A six-point Likert scale, going from “Not at all” to “Completely” in agreement with the statements presented, was included to measure the responses to the items.

In addition to the initial open-ended question and the subsequent closed-response items, the interview guide also comprised follow-up questions to the closed-response statements. The reason for including such questions was to give the informants the opportunity to elaborate on their answers, in case they found items to be vague or inaccurate, or wished to qualify their responses.

The interviews were carried out via telephone \( (n = 4) \) and Skype \( (n = 1) \) and lasted between 35 minutes and one and a half hour. Four out of five interviews were conducted in Norwegian, and one was carried out in English, as this was the first language of the informant. The participants were informed of the aims of the project and signed a consent form to permit us to use their data anonymously.

C. Analysis

All the interviews were transcribed by one of the authors and subsequently sent back to the teacher trainers for respondent validation (Bryman, 2016). This prompted responses from two informants concerning a couple of minor issues, such as the correct names of references given in one of the interviews. Beyond that, the informants reported being satisfied with the accuracy of the accounts.

The transcripts were analysed using the computer software QSR NVivo 12. The analysis was carried out in four cycles. In the first cycle, the transcripts were read through to get an overall impression of the material. In the second cycle, preliminary categories were created using In Vivo coding (Miles, Huberman, & Saldana, 2014). In the third cycle, the In Vivo codes were compared internally to establish a logically consistent relationship between the categories. For example, one of the informant’s reference to “disciplinary competence” was coded as a category on the superordinate level and then linked to the statement “language competence” on the subordinate level (cf. Appendix C, Informant TE1). The development of hierarchical relationships in this cycle also involved the creation of ‘new’, superordinate categories by the researchers, in cases where no overall description was made by the informants. One such category was “Assessment-specific competence”, which was created to describe various statements, such as “be able to assess […] what should be assessed”. Finally, in the fourth cycle comparisons were made across informants to arrive at an overall description of the construct of LAL. In this phase, some of the In Vivo codes were replaced by researcher-generated codes in order to achieve a more coherent description of the LAL components. An example of a researcher-generated code is the replacement of “didactic competence” by “pedagogical competence” (cf. Appendix C).

V. Results

A. Results for RQ1

The results for RQ1 are based on the responses to the open-ended question “What kinds of skills and knowledge does an English teacher in secondary school need in order to carry out good assessments?”. The investigation of the responses in the fourth cycle of analysis yielded the following four overall teacher LAL dimensions:

- **Disciplinary competence**
- **Assessment-specific competence**
- **Pedagogical competence**
- **Collaboration competence**

The first dimension, **Disciplinary competence**, comprises aspects such as knowledge of language theory and second language acquisition, text competence, and curriculum-related know-how, including culture and literature in the English-speaking world. The teachers’ own language skills may also be incorporated here, since teachers are role models to their students. Informant TE1 put it in the following way:

> Assessment competence involves, firstly, a high level of disciplinary competence... And that involves linguistic and textual competence [...]. I think being a good language model is also very important, even if you can’t explain [all language features]... It’s very complicated. So linguistic competence also involves both knowledge and skills, right?

As can be seen from this quote, “disciplinary competence” is the component that informant TE1 first points to when explaining teacher LAL, emphasizing that a “high level” of such competence is needed. She refers to this type of proficiency as relating to language and the knowledge of texts. Similar aspects referred to by the other informants were “applied linguistics theory”, “grammatical content knowledge”, “knowledge about the English subject”, “knowledge of theories of second language acquisition” and “knowledge of theories of communicative competence” (informants TE2, TE3, TE4 and TE5).

The second dimension, **Assessment-specific competence**, concerns aspects such as understanding the purpose of assessment, knowing what should be assessed, being able to create appropriate tasks, grading, and recognizing institutional limitations. As informant TE2 reported,
you need to understand what different types of assessment are there… er… how different types of assessment have different aims or goals … er… what types of assessment do I want to use in the classroom? What type of implementational space, or what, sort of, institutional limitations are upon me? When I want to do that, what are the rules and regulations? […] And also, most importantly, I think, and it’s something teachers sometimes struggle with… er… and that is… what am I doing when I’m doing this type of assessment? What is my role? And actually, what’s happening?

The final remark in this quote concerning the teacher’s “role” indicates that TE2 sees LAL as having a distinct metacognitive dimension. The fact that she uses the phrase “most importantly” to describe it, suggests that she finds such self-awareness to be highly significant.

The third dimension, Pedagogical competence, can be explained as knowledge and skills relating to how learning can be promoted, including the ability to create a good learning atmosphere, knowing how to adapt to individual students’ needs, and conveying content knowledge. Communicating learning goals, assessment criteria, and the ability to give good feedback are also part of this. Informant TE5 described this dimension as:

the ability to explain, and make concrete, the assessment criteria vis-à-vis the students; to be able to show… to be able to exemplify what these… rating scales mean… at the different levels… what is needed to achieve [the mark] five, and so on.

Finally, the fourth LAL dimension, Collaboration competence, entails the ability of teachers to work collaboratively with colleagues in order to create a fruitful assessment culture. The ability to interact appropriately with management, parents and other stakeholders also belongs here. Informant TE1 described it as “the ability to sit down with colleagues and discuss tasks and discuss… teaching and feedback [which you receive] from them… [This involves] interaction… cooperation and … creating a common understanding”.

B. Results for RQ2

RQ2, which concerned to what extent the teacher educators found the different dimensions of Taylor’s (2013) model relevant for Norwegian teachers, was answered with data from the closed questions in the second phase of the interview. The overall analysis of these data showed that the teacher educators generally gave many of the items high scores. Out of a total of 125 responses 84 were scored five or six on the six-point Likert scale, indicating that the informants deemed most of the aspects mentioned important or highly important for teacher LAL. The items which received the highest scores are listed in Table 1.

<table>
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<th>Dimension</th>
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<th>TE2</th>
<th>TE3</th>
<th>TE4</th>
<th>TE5</th>
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<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principles and concepts</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language pedagogy</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Table 1, items 12, 16a, and 30 tap into the same dimension, i.e. the Language pedagogy component in Taylor’s model (cf. Appendix B). Thus, the informants seem to agree with Taylor that this component is essential for teacher LAL. Moreover, the high score given to item 28, knowledge of ethics, implies that they also found the Principles and concepts dimension to be very important. This is contrary to Taylor’s model, which suggested that this component is of less importance to teachers. As for item 24, knowledge of the national curriculum, it is worth noting that although the informants scored this item very high, the dimension to which it belongs, i.e. Local practices, also contains items 25 and 26 (see Appendix B), which were scored somewhat lower. Hence, this dimension was found to be slightly less important (see Fig. 2, below), and more in line with Taylor’s suggestion.

As already mentioned, most items in the closed-response section received scores of 5 or 6. Very few items were given a score lower than 4. In fact, only two 2’s and five 3’s were awarded out of the 125 responses. The items receiving the lowest scores are shown in Table 2:
Table 2 shows that issues related to Taylor’s component Technical skills (items 15a, b, c) were found to be less important, relatively speaking, by the informants overall. This is not to say that they were found to be unimportant. In fact, there was quite a lot of variation regarding this component, as can be seen in the table. Nevertheless, the items relating to traditional testing were, on average, scored lower than the items related to the other dimensions. As for item 29 (Scores and decision making) and item 31 (Sociocultural values), they also received somewhat lower average scores. Yet, as can be seen in Table 2, this is largely due to two informants giving these items low scores. The majority of the respondents actually found these features to be important or very important.

The overall results for RQ2, which were computed by aggregating the responses to all the items for each dimension, can be seen in Fig. 2. As the teacher educators’ answers were reported on a six-point Likert scale, and Taylor’s original values were plotted along a five-point scale, we used a conversion table to equalize the results, using the formula 0.8x – 0.8 (IBM Support, no date). The computations were made on the basis of median scores in our findings, as they may be more relevant with ordinal data (Jamieson, 2004). The conversion table can be found in Appendix D. The results can be visualized as follows:

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>TE1</th>
<th>TE2</th>
<th>TE3</th>
<th>TE4</th>
<th>TE5</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Median</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical skills</td>
<td>15c It is important to have knowledge of statistical measures in order to interpret results...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical skills</td>
<td>15a It is important to have knowledge of how language testing can be used appropriately...</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical skills</td>
<td>15b It is important to have knowledge of how good items are created.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scoring and</td>
<td>29 It is important to have knowledge of how to use rating scales / scoring rubrics.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decision making</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principles and</td>
<td>31 It is important to have knowledge of how values in society may affect assessment.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concepts</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in Fig. 2, the most conspicuous differences between the teacher educators’ answers and Taylor’s hypothesized levels are that the teacher educators found three of the dimensions considerably more important than what was predicted. This concerns:

- *Principles and concepts* – with the value 4.00 in our findings and 2.00 in Taylor’s model
- *Scores and decision making* – with the value 3.40 in our findings and 2.00 in Taylor’s model
- *Knowledge of theory* – with the value 3.32 in our findings and 2.00 in Taylor’s model

In addition, the teacher educators found the dimension Technical skills to be less important than what Taylor assumed (value 2.40 in our findings and 3.00 in Taylor). For the other dimensions, the differences were only marginal, although it is interesting to observe that parts of the Local practices dimension, i.e. knowledge of the curriculum, were found to be particularly important (cf. Table 1).

### C. Follow-up Answers to the Closed-response Items
In order to explain the results arrived at above, an analysis of the follow-up answers to the closed-response items was made. Concerning the finding that the informants found Technical skills (e.g., knowledge of statistics) to be less important, the responses from TE1 and TE3 may shed some light on this issue. These were the two informants that scored this aspect the lowest. TE1 explained:

TE1: [I gave item 15c a 2.] not because I don’t think it’s important, but... well... it’s just what you said about time being so scarce [in class]. (TE1).

Interviewer: Yes. Right. Er... my impression is that in Norway, there’s a lot of scepticism towards testing... language testing. Do you share that impression?

TE1: Yes... hmm... It’s used very little, and there’s very little knowledge of it, but whether there’s scepticism towards it, I don’t know.... It’s like there’s no tradition for it.

In this exchange informant TE1 clearly states that she does not find knowledge of statistics unimportant. However, as there are so many topics to cover in the course of a teacher education programme, she thinks that this aspect could be downplayed. In addition, she thinks that there has been a Norwegian tradition for de-emphasizing language testing. This is a tradition she seems to endorse, for example by the low score she gave to item 15c (i.e., It is important to have knowledge of statistical measures...).

TE3 takes a somewhat different perspective, pointing to the relevance of other instruments as a means of identifying students’ strengths and weaknesses in diagnostic assessment:

Well [you can use multiple-choice as a diagnostic tool]. But then there is the question of how you use it. Is it in order to know how many are struggling with [a grammatical problem] in the classroom? In such a case it may make sense... if the majority is struggling with ‘it versus there’. But the question is: Do you need a multiple-choice test to find that out?

In addition, TE3 reports having had more positive experiences with other forms of assessment than multiple-choice, as a young learner himself:

I remember I had a lot of multiple choice in school, and I often scored very poorly. But when I didn’t have multiple choice, it went a lot better. Peculiar.

Thus seen, TE3 may be sceptical for personal reasons, but also because he thinks that there are other means of eliciting responses from students, particularly in formative assessment situations, where the main purpose is to improve students’ learning.

VI. DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was two-fold: Firstly, we wanted to explore Norwegian teacher educators’ conceptions of the LAL construct generally (RQ1). Secondly, we were interested in knowing to what extent they found the dimensions in Taylor’s (2013) model relevant in the Norwegian context (RQ2). However, as the components of the model are not described in detail in Taylor’s (2013) paper, the validity of the operationalization of the dimensions therefore rests on our interpretation of the sources upon which the model is built (see section II and Appendix B).

As for RQ1, i.e. what constitutes teacher LAL, the findings yielded four dimensions: Disciplinary competence, Assessment-specific competence, Pedagogical competence, and Collaboration competence. This is a much broader conceptualization than Taylor’s model, which comprises eight dimensions (cf., Fig. 1, above). Several aspects of the dimensions in Taylor’s model and our conceptualization intertwine, but there is an even stronger focus in our data on teaching-related aspects, including formative assessment and disciplinary knowledge. The finer-grained nature of Taylor’s model means that a higher number of skills and knowledge are highlighted, compared to our conceptualization. Interestingly, as the results for RQ2 shows, the teacher educators actually found some of these dimensions, such as Principles and concepts, Local practices, and Scores and decision making, very relevant. One may therefore infer that a more detailed model, like Taylor’s, can be quite helpful in specifying the knowledge and skills required for LAL. Kremmel and Harding’s (2019) study supports this view. However, in order for the model to be applicable in educational contexts, it is essential that the dimensions are sufficiently well described and that their interrelationships are adequately clarified. Our data suggest that some components in Taylor’s model need to be refined, and that the model should be supplemented with additional LAL features.

One such feature concerns the issue of disciplinary knowledge. In our analysis of RQ1, Disciplinary competence turned out to be an essential component of teacher LAL. This is supported by Xu & Brown (2016) and Scarino (2013). According to the teacher informants, this component involves knowledge of language and language learning, as well as curriculum-related knowledge, including culture and literature. In Taylor’s model, as we interpret it, knowledge of language and language learning theories is part of the component Knowledge of theory. Yet, curriculum-related knowledge is not part of this dimension. This type of knowledge is included in Local practices. Our data suggest, however, that discipline knowledge is an important component in its own right and should therefore be singled out and highlighted as such (Xu & Brown, 2016). In order to distinguish this dimension from Taylor’s Knowledge of theory component, we also propose that assessment-related theoretical knowledge, like for example validity theory, is put in a separate dimension labelled Knowledge of assessment theory. This may be seen as a modified version of Taylor’s Knowledge of theory. Moreover, the inclusion of Disciplinary knowledge as a separate dimension, involving curriculum
knowledge, implies that curriculum know-how would have to be moved from Taylor’s Local practices, where it is now included.

Another dimension which could be added to Taylor’s model is Collaboration competence. In our analysis this component relates to the teacher’s ability to contribute to the development of a shared assessment culture in his or her educational context. The idea of a shared assessment culture is supported by the Norwegian educational authorities, in the sense that teachers are encouraged to collaborate to develop a common understanding of the curriculum, the laws and regulations, and the assessment of student competence (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2016). As far as we are concerned, this aspect of a teacher’s assessment competence is well worth emphasizing as a separate LAL component.

When it comes to the interrelationship between Taylor’s dimensions, it was mentioned in the literature review above that Principles and concepts overlaps with the Knowledge of theory component. The reason for this is that concepts per se may be considered inherently theoretical (see e.g., Fulcher 2012). Thus, we suggest that “concepts” are removed from Principles and concepts. Instead, conceptual issues, such as validity and reliability, may be subsumed under Knowledge of assessment theory, as suggested above. Taylor’s Principles and concepts dimension may then be relabelled Principles and reserved for knowledge of ethical issues and test fairness.

Furthermore, we find that Scores and decision making in Taylor’s model also needs to be modified, as it partly overlaps with the Language pedagogy component. In the Literature review above, we pointed out that decision making not only relates to testing or summative decisions, but also to formative ones (see e.g., Bachman & Palmer, 2010, p. 197). Hence, it seems more pertinent to subsume “decision making” under Language pedagogy, as this component logically includes formative assessment. Scores and decision making can then be renamed Scoring and reserved for the awarding of grades, including the use of rating scales. Kremmel and Harding (2019) partly support this conclusion. They suggest that Scores and decision making should be renamed “Scoring and rating” and reserved for skills relating to scoring processes. They also propose that Language pedagogy be divided into two dimensions, “Assessment in language pedagogy” and “Washback and preparation”. The former refers to feedback, diagnostic assessment, peer and self-assessment, as well as “how to use assessments to inform learning or teaching goals” (pp. 10, 16). The latter includes, for example, knowledge of “how assessments can influence teaching and learning in the classroom” (pp. 10, 17). This division seems pertinent, although it may not be quite clear what distinguishes feedback, peer and self-assessment, on the one hand, and how to use assessment to inform learning goals, on the other. When teachers use assessment information to adjust their teaching, cf. William’s (2018) definition of formative assessment, above, that is something else than feedback, peer and self-assessment. We therefore believe that Language pedagogy may still be used as an overall category, as long as its content is sufficiently clarified. Table 3 gives an overview of what our suggested revision of Taylor’s model implies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3</th>
<th>OVERVIEW OF TAYLOR’S MODEL AND A SUGGESTED REVISION OF IT.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taylor’s original dimensions</td>
<td>Suggestions for revised and new dimensions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language pedagogy</td>
<td>[No revision of title]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociocultural values</td>
<td>[No revision of title]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local practices</td>
<td>[No revision of title]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal beliefs/attitudes</td>
<td>[No revision of title]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scores and decision making</td>
<td>Scoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of theory</td>
<td>Knowledge of assessment theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical skills</td>
<td>[No revision of title]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principles and concepts</td>
<td>Principles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disciplinary competence</td>
<td>Knowledge of language and language acquisition, curriculum knowledge and language skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration competence</td>
<td>Ability to contribute to creating a shared assessment culture with colleagues</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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As for the informants’ answers to RQ2, the analysis shows that the teacher educators gave most of the items relating to Taylor’s model high scores. This may be attributed to the propensity of respondents to deem everything important when presented with close-response items of this kind (Fulcher, 2012). However, the comparison of these responses with the answers to the open-ended questions revealed some general tendencies. Overall, the teacher educators agreed with Taylor that Language pedagogy (e.g., formative assessment) is an essential LAL component. Interestingly, this finding is not supported by Kremmel and Harding (2019), who did not find that “language pedagogy would be more important for this group than all other aspects of LAL” (p. 14). We speculate that this may be due to the high proportion of respondents from other contexts than the Norwegian one, where assessment for learning has had such influence in the past decade (Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2015).

The teacher educators in the present study also agreed with Taylor that Sociocultural values (i.e. values in society), Local practices (e.g. curriculum), and Personal beliefs/attitudes (e.g. preconceptions), are important (cf., Fig. 1 and Fig. 2, above). However, contrary to Taylor, who judged Scores and decision making (e.g. grading), Knowledge of theory (e.g. language theory) and Principles and concepts (e.g. ethics) to be less important, our informants found these dimensions to be significant or very significant for teacher LAL (cf. Fig. 1 and Fig. 2). Finally, regarding Technical skills (e.g. statistics), the teacher educators on average thought that this dimension was less important than what Taylor hypothesized, although not trivial. This is supported by the findings in Kremmel and Harding (2019).

Combining our suggestion for a revised model with the responses the teachers gave to the questions in RQ1 and the items in RQ2, we end up with the following visualization of teacher LAL:

![Figure 3: Revised version of Taylor’s description including score results from the analysis](image)

The values of the revised model are based on the responses to the items in RQ2, apart from Collaboration competence, which was not operationalized in the questionnaire, as it developed from the analysis of the open-ended responses to RQ1 post hoc. As only one informant mentioned this dimension, we have tentatively given it the value 2 in the description, i.e. fairly important. The explanations for each of the dimensions are given in Table 3, above.

A limitation of this study relates to the use of only one coder to analyse the informants’ responses to the open-ended questions. The use of two or more coders would probably have increased the validity of the results. Another limitation involves the qualitative nature of the study, including its small number of informants, which obviously means that the results cannot be statistically generalized. However, the study’s empirical findings have been supported elsewhere (e.g., Norwegian Directorate for Education and Training, 2019; Scarino, 2013; Xu & Brown, 2016). Also, the discussion of the theoretical characteristics of teacher LAL means that analytical generalizations from smaller samples may be warranted (Yin, 2016).

VII. CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this study have various implications for the development of teacher LAL. They point to the importance of strengthening teachers’ disciplinary competence, especially regarding curriculum knowledge, as well as their ability to carry out good formative assessment practices. They also indicate that issues such as ethics in assessment and test fairness may need to be emphasized in teacher education and in-service programmes. In addition, they suggest that it is important that teachers develop skills in communicating and interacting with fellow colleagues in order to create a collaborative, professional community in which the focus is on establishing a shared assessment culture.

As for further avenues for research, we suggest that the perspectives of teacher educators and other stakeholders in other educational contexts are also studied. As the findings in this investigation have supported Xu and Brown’s (2016) claim that LAL is contextual rather than universal, it would be interesting to get to know what language teaching experts in other countries have to say about the relevance of Taylor’s, or Kremmel and Harding’s (2019), models. Similarly, it would be intriguing to bring in the perspectives of teachers, both in Norway and elsewhere, to see whether their views align with the viewpoints of the teacher educators in this study.

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Professional Capacity Building of Multicultural Teaching Assistants in Hong Kong Kindergartens with Ethnic Minority Children

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Abstract—A professional teaching development programme was established to equip multicultural teaching assistants (MTA) with skills and knowledge to teach non-Chinese speaking (NCS) preschoolers in Hong Kong. To evaluate if MTAs are perceived to be able to perform their intended roles (support Chinese and overall learning, provide pastoral support, bridge the communication between NCS parents and kindergartens, and promote social integration), questionnaires were collected from 18 principals and 74 teachers. To assess if the programme can equip MTAs with necessary skills for the planned roles, questionnaires were collected from 39 MTAs, and a focus group interview with 8 MTAs was also conducted. Results showed that principals and teachers were satisfied with MTAs’ performances in supporting NCS students’ learning. Moreover, the majority of MTAs agreed that the training programme helped them to perform their intended roles in preschools. Most modules taught in the training programme, apart from one exception, were well received by MTAs. The focus group interview revealed that MTAs were satisfied with the programme, though they preferred more training on Chinese writing skills and knowledge in dealing behavioral issues of children. The study shows the possibility of integrating MTAs into multicultural classrooms in Hong Kong to facilitate NCS children’s learning.

Index Terms—multicultural teaching assistants, second language learning, learning Chinese as a second language

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, teaching assistants (TAs) were introduced into educational settings to perform administrative, clerical and routine tasks, with the aim of reducing the workload of teachers (Butt & Lance, 2009; Groom, 2006; Kerry, 2005; Moran & Abbott, 2002). However, research has demonstrated an evolution of roles played by TAs in recent years: increasingly they have been taking on paraprofessional work and teaching duties (Butt & Lowe, 2012; Butt & Lance, 2009). In a systematic analysis conducted by Sharma and Salend (2016), TAs are shown to perform “pedagogical, assessment, socialization and behavioral roles”, as well as “facilitating information sharing among educators and with families, preparing and adapting materials” and fostering “student learning, teaching and inclusion” (p. 121-123). In a similar study, Kerry (2005) conceptualized 11 roles of teaching assistants based on past literature. These include caring for the welfare of students; managing behavior of students both individually and in groups; supporting curriculum planning in tasks, such as lesson-planning and preparation of teaching materials; and specialist roles, such as being interpreters to facilitate the teaching and learning of students speaking in another language. With respect to supporting teaching and learning of students, Radford et al. (2015) suggested that TAs play three scaffolding roles for preschoolers, namely (i) a support role that maintains learner engagement, on-task behavior and motivation; (ii) a repair function that focuses on learning and fostered independence when children were in difficulty; and (iii) a heuristic role that encourages students to use their own learning strategies.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW
A. Factors Contributing to the Effectiveness of Teaching Assistants

When utilized effectively, TAs have a positive impact on student learning, as well as job satisfaction, stress levels and workloads of teachers (Sharma & Salend, 2016). With the roles of TAs evolving, together with the increasing number of duties taken up by TAs, role confusion is cited by a few studies as a barrier towards effective utilization of TAs (Butt & Lowe, 2012; Butt & Lance, 2009). In addition, the increasingly specialized role demands of TAs mean that they may not be adequately equipped with the required knowledge and skills (Radford et al., 2015), with Butt and Lance (2009) noting that more than half of the teachers in their study perceived that TAs needed more training.

Unsurprisingly, the clear definition of roles is listed as a factor contributing to the effectiveness of TAs (Sharma & Salend, 2016; Moran & Abbott, 2002), as well as professional training and development (Butt & Lance, 2009; Bourke & Carrington, 2007), in the form of targeted skills-based training (Butt & Lowe, 2012) and professional supervision and feedback (Sharma & Salend, 2016). Other successful factors include the personal qualities of TAs, their willingness to develop new skills, flexibility, and effective cooperation and support in planning between teachers and TAs. These studies, however, also caution against the risk of students becoming overly dependent on TAs, therefore minimizing the challenges in students’ learning, as well as reducing opportunities for students to interact with their classmates (Sharma & Salend, 2016; Moran & Abbott, 2002).

B. Teaching Assistants in Inclusive, Multicultural Settings

Both mainstream and inclusive classrooms have seen an increased use of teaching assistants, with those in inclusive settings requiring more specialized knowledge and skills (Takala, 2007). Groom and Rose (2005) also state that there has been a considerable increase in TAs in the UK appointed to support pupils with special education needs, including those with social, emotional and behavioral difficulties. The role of TAs is perceived as crucial to the effective inclusion of pupils with difficulties in mainstream classrooms.

In Hong Kong, in order to promote the integration of ethnic minority (EM) students into Hong Kong’s education system and society, government initiatives have been put in place to encourage them to study in mainstream schools. In an exploratory study by Gao and Shum (2010), mainstream schools sometimes provide additional support, including the provision of bilingual teaching assistants to address the specific needs of those students who face the challenge of learning Chinese as an additional language within the context of central curriculum. The findings indicate that these assistants not only took on the role of helping the EM students in Chinese language acquisition, but also acted as mediators between mainstream school culture and their own cultures. It suggests the importance of the specific roles of bilingual teaching assistants in promoting inclusive education for EM students.

C. Challenges Faced by Non-Chinese-speaking Students in Learning Chinese in Hong Kong

Despite the introduction of bilingual teaching assistants in Hong Kong, as with previous studies, training of these teaching assistants was not standardized and did not require formal qualifications (Butt & Lowe, 2012). Studies highlight a number of challenges that still remain for non-Chinese-speaking (NCS) students in learning Chinese in Hong Kong (Tsung & Gao, 2012). To list a few prominent ones, these include inadequacy of trained educators in teaching NCS students, cultural and language differences of NCS students and Chinese-speaking (CS) students, and lack of parental support.

Regarding the inadequacy of trained educators, the abolishment of the designated school system has led to more NCS children being admitted into local mainstream kindergartens. This means that educators in the local mainstream system, including teachers and TAs, have encountered difficulties in teaching NCS students. Without extra professional training, most kindergarten teachers would not be able to implement effective instruction in the same classroom that benefits both the local CS students and NCS students.

Cultural differences exist between NCS and CS students. Some EM families have a strong attachment to their own culture. Also, the isolation of these ethnic minorities from the mainstream Chinese culture has limited NCS children’s opportunities for developing their Chinese language ability. For instance, NCS children may find it very difficult to catch the content and language used in a lesson – e.g. talking about Chinese festivals and calendars. This undermines children’s motivation to learn Chinese, hindering their Chinese language development.

Language differences between NCS and CS students also mean that learning Chinese can be more challenging for NCS students. Chinese uses a logographic writing system without the grapheme-phoneme correspondence, unlike alphabetical systems used in languages of NCS students. Also, unlike English words having a correspondence of sound to their spelling, Chinese characters have no such association.

Parents of NCS students, whose first languages are neither English nor Chinese, often experience difficulties in following their school’s instructions and academic requirements. They may feel that local teachers have neglected the specific needs and the cultural and linguistic background of their children. As a consequence of the language barrier, NCS students may not receive the support they could be getting from their parents.

D. The Need for Structured Professional Capacity Building of Multicultural Teaching Assistants

Given the above challenges faced by NCS students in learning Chinese in Hong Kong, and the demonstrated potential of teaching assistants in addressing these challenges, there is a need for structured professional capacity building of multicultural teaching assistants (MTAs). Similar to existing TAs, they are required to take on the roles of...
supporting teaching and learning, together with behavioral management, but have an additional role of being specialists (Kerry, 2005) in the areas of bridging the language barrier between schools and NCS students’ parents, and facilitating inclusion of NCS students in local schools. The additional cultural role requires MTAs to be familiar with culturally responsive teaching practices, defined as the use of cultural characteristics, experiences and perspective of ethnically diverse students to facilitate effective teaching (Gay, 2002), which serves to increase learning motivation and ease, bridging cultures, and minimizing alienation in the classroom (Chou, Su & Wang, 2018; Richards, Brown & Forde, 2007; Gay, 2002).

With the above requirements in mind, MTAs should be trained with a structured programme to perform the various required roles, utilizing relevant knowledge and skills to a standard. Professional development of TAs is considered important (Butt & Lowe, 2012; Cobb, 2007), and training before commencing work, and career pathways, such as university courses, is recommended. “C-for-Chinese@JC” Project is an EM support programme initiated by The Hong Kong Jockey Club Charities Trust, in which the MTA post is a novel initiative launched to help NCS students during class. To train MTAs, a one-year, theory-practice integrated programme was established in 2016, equipping MTAs with knowledge and relevant skills in the areas of Chinese language, pedagogy, early childhood development, culturally responsive teaching, and promoting social inclusion. As part of their training, MTAs are required to participate in a 6-week practicum in local kindergartens with NCS students. Four intended roles are expected to be performed by MTAs after their training:

1. Support learning of Chinese as a second language
2. Foster overall learning and provide pastoral support
3. Take part in engaging parents in kindergartens, facilitating communication between teachers and parents
4. Promote social inclusion of culturally diverse groups and promote racial harmony

III. THE CURRENT STUDY

The current study adopts a mixed-methods design, incorporating both quantitative and qualitative data, to address the following questions:

1. Do principals and teachers perceive that MTAs can fulfil their planned roles?
2. What are the expectations of principals and teachers about the MTA post, and/or their training?
3. Do MTAs perceive that the training programme provided equips them to perform their planned roles?
4. What are the expectations of MTAs on their post, and/or their training?

The following is divided into two sections, with the first section concerning the perspective of principals and teachers, addressing study questions 1 and 2, while the second concerns the perspective of MTAs, addressing questions 3 and 4. Uncovering the perceptions of principals, teachers and MTAs will help to paint a picture of how the MTA post can potentially be integrated into kindergartens in the future, such that MTAs can perform their planned roles, and that the expectations of the MTA post from principals, teachers as users, and the MTAs as service providers, can be aligned in a realistic and achievable manner. This provides directions for improvements in the future professional development of the MTAs.

IV. METHODOLOGY (I)

This section focuses on the perspective of principals and teachers.

A. Participants

In total, 18 principals and 74 teachers from 20 kindergartens were included in this study; all of them had worked with MTAs in the 2017-18 school year.

B. Instruments and Procedures

A semi-structured questionnaire, consisting of seven questions on a four-item Likert scale (4 = very satisfied, 3 = satisfied, 2 = unsatisfied, 1 = very unsatisfied), was used to assess whether principals and teachers perceived MTAs to fulfill their planned roles. These questions are grouped according to the four planned roles listed above. To uncover expectations specific to principals and teachers on the MTA post, open-ended questions were included at the end of the questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed to principals and teachers at the end of the 2017-18 school year. Consent was obtained from them beforehand.

C. Data Analysis

Considering that principals and teachers may differ in their perceptions and expectations of MTAs, questionnaire results were analyzed separately. A mean score was calculated for each of the four planned roles. The score was then compared to a reference of 2.5, which is the hypothetical score for an average performance from MTAs. This is done as the study is novel, without previous data for reference. A control group of MTAs was also not practically feasible in schools. Four one-sample t-tests are conducted, with a Bonferroni correction applied to reduce type I error rate (i.e. the criterion value set at 0.0125).

The percentage distribution of ratings by principals and teachers were also presented to further uncover any potential
aspects of the roles that MTAs did well in.

Expectations of principals and teachers were extracted by analyzing the qualitative answers from the open-ended question and identifying common recurring themes mentioned by at least 3 principals or teachers.

V. RESULTS (I)

A. Principals’ Perception Ratings on MTAs’ Performances in the Four Planned Roles

Cases with missing data were removed, leaving 17 responses from principals. Principals’ perceptions on MTAs performance in all the four intended roles were statistically higher than the hypothetical average of 2.5: (i) supporting learning of Chinese as a second language (M= 3.24, SD= 0.44, t(16)= 6.934, p< 0.001), (ii) fostering overall learning and providing pastoral support (M= 3.10, SD= 0.35, t(16)= 7.067, p< 0.001), (iii) taking part in engaging parents in kindergartens, facilitating communication between teachers and parents (M= 3.35, SD= 0.70, t(16)= 5.010, p< 0.001), and (iv) promoting social inclusion of culturally diverse groups, and promoting racial harmony (M= 3.00, SD= 0.53, t(16)= 7.034, p= 0.001). In other words, statistically, principals perceived MTAs to be able to fulfil their four planned roles, with all four performing at level higher than a hypothetically average performance.

Table 1 shows the percentage distribution of principals’ ratings on MTA’s performance. Across the four intended roles, over 80% of principals were satisfied with MTA’s performance. All the principals agreed that MTAs were able to support the learning Chinese of NCS students.

| Table 1 | PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS’ PERCEPTION RATINGS ON MTAS’ PERFORMANCES IN THE FOUR PLANNED ROLES |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| (n = 17) | Very unsatisfied (%) | Unsatisfied (%) | Satisfied (%) | Very satisfied (%) |
| 1. Support learning of Chinese as a second language Assist NCS students in learning Chinese in class | 0 | 0 | 76.5 | 23.5 |
| 2. Foster overall learning and provide pastoral support Assist teaching in class | 0 | 0 | 76.5 | 23.5 |
| | Assist in managing classroom discipline | 0 | 5.9 | 88.2 | 5.9 |
| | Take care of learning differences | 0 | 11.8 | 70.6 | 17.6 |
| | Average | 0 | 5.9 | 78.4 | 15.7 |
| 3. Take part in engaging parents in kindergartens, facilitating communication between teachers and parents Assist teachers in communicating with NCS parents | 0 | 11.8 | 41.2 | 47.1 |
| 4. Promote social inclusion of culturally diverse groups, and promote racial harmony Apply cultural responsiveness in lesson planning | 0 | 29.4 | 58.8 | 11.8 |
| | Apply cultural responsiveness in teaching in class | 0 | 5.9 | 70.6 | 23.5 |
| | Average | 0 | 17.7 | 64.7 | 17.7 |

All principals (100%) perceived that MTAs performed particularly well in the aspects of assisting NCS students in learning Chinese in class, and assisting teaching in class; and the majority of principals (88%) agreed that MTAs performed best in the aspect of assisting teachers in communicating with NCS parents. Although most respondents (82%) were satisfied with MTAs’ performance in promoting social inclusion of culturally diverse groups, they thought it would be better if MTAs could better apply cultural responsiveness in their lesson planning.

B. Other Comments from Principals on the MTA Post

Analysis of answers from the open-ended question revealed that principals expected MTAs to be more proactive in assisting teachers in teaching and in lesson planning, with comments such as “MTAs appear to be passive” and “hoped to see MTAs leading more activities” noted. Moreover, principals would like MTAs to be well-equipped with knowledge, skills and attitudes in early childhood education. Three principals expressed that MTAs should not have their practicum too early, and instead needed “better preparatory work before their practicum at school”. Another added that MTAs should be familiar with the curriculum content.

C. Teachers’ Perception Ratings on MTAs’ Performances in the Four Planned Roles

Cases with missing data were removed, leaving 59 responses from teachers. Teachers’ perception on MTAs performance in all the four intended roles were statistically higher than the hypothetical average of 2.5: (i) supporting learning of Chinese as a second language (M= 3.17, SD= 0.56, t(16)= 9.154, p< 0.001), (ii) fostering overall learning and providing pastoral support (M= 3.12, SD= 0.55, t(16)= 8.722, p< 0.001), (iii) taking part in engaging parents in kindergartens, facilitating communication between teachers and parents (M= 3.24, SD= 0.65, t(16)= 8.682, p< 0.001) and (iv) promoting social inclusion of culturally diverse groups, and promoting racial harmony (M= 3.02, SD= 0.56, t(16)= 7.034, p< 0.001). In other words, statistically, teachers perceived MTAs to be able to fulfil their four planned roles, with all four performing at a level higher than a hypothetically average performance.

Table 2 presents the percentage distribution of teachers’ ratings on MTA’s performance. Similar to principals’ rating, the majority of teachers (over 85%) were satisfied with MTA’s performance across the four intended roles.

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Most teachers agreed that MTAs performed particularly well in the aspects of assisting NCS students in learning Chinese in class (95%), and applying cultural responsiveness in their teaching in class (93%). They were also very satisfied with MTAs in assisting teachers in communicating with NCS parents. However, some teachers perceived MTAs as not fully functioning in the role of promoting social inclusion of culturally diverse groups, they hoped MTAs could better apply cultural responsiveness in their lesson planning.

D. Other Comments from Teachers on the MTA Post

**MTAs should have a Proactive Attitude.** Six teachers expressed their wish for MTAs to be “more involved and proactive”, with two stating that apart from assisting in teaching in class, perhaps MTAs could also “increase the number of times” that they “lead activities themselves”.

**MTAs should be Well-equipped with Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes in Early Childhood Education.** Six teachers hoped that MTAs would be better equipped in terms of early childhood education knowledge, child-care skills, course content knowledge, and practical aspects of working in a kindergarten environment. For example, one teacher mentioned that their MTA “did not teach children to pick up toys on the floor”, with another commenting that MTAs needed to “improve their qualities and sense of responsibility… otherwise it will be a burden to teachers”.

**MTAs should use Chinese More Frequently when Communicating with NCS Students.** Three teachers wished that MTAs would communicate with NCS students in Chinese more frequently, with two explaining that “speaking in their native languages too often will lead to NCS students being dependent on MTAs”, instead of learning to speak Chinese.

**Clear understanding on roles and performance standards of the MTA post.** Four teachers wanted a better understanding of the roles and performance standards to be expected from MTAs. One teacher in particular realized that “although there are guidelines, seminars, workshops or professional teacher development courses to support teachers, MTAs role is different in nature compared to students from other early childhood education programmes”, and therefore required clarification of the roles of MTAs. Another teacher mentioned that the programme trainers could “tell the school in advance on expectations towards MTAs (e.g. in teaching plans, teaching)”.

### VI. METHODOLOGY (II)

This section focuses on the perspective of MTAs.

**A. Participants**

In total, 39 MTAs were involved in the study. These included 24 MTAs from the 2017-18 school year, who were invited to fill in a questionnaire. An additional 8 MTAs were invited to participate in a group interview.

**B. Instruments and Procedures**

A semi-structured questionnaire, consisting of statements with a five-item Likert scale (4= very high, 3= high, 2= low, 1= very low, n/a), was used to measure MTAs’ self-perception on whether they can apply the relevant knowledge and skills learnt after studying in each specific module under the MTA training programme. The statements on each module were grouped according to the four planned roles of MTAs. Taken together, it is used to assess whether MTAs perceive that the training programme provided equips them in performing their planned roles. The MTA self-evaluation questionnaires were distributed to MTAs around the end of the 2017-18 school year in April 2018. Consent was obtained prior to collection of data.

A semi-structured group interview was conducted to complement the questionnaire in providing qualitative information on MTAs’ self-perception on whether they fulfilled the planned roles and also on their expectations of the MTA post. The group interview was conducted in April 2020 online using the application Zoom. Consent was obtained prior to collection of data.

**C. Data Analysis**

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Similar to Section I, a mean score was calculated for each of the four intended roles. They were then compared to a reference score of 2.5, which is the hypothetical score of self-perception towards an average training programme. Four one-sample t-tests were conducted, with a Bonferroni correction applied to reduce type I error rate, and the criterion value set at 0.0125. Percentage distributions of the five items (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree, n/a) for each question were also calculated to provide further insight into modules that were considered by MTAs to be particularly useful for them in carrying out their intended roles.

For the group interview, the content was transcribed to solicit MTAs’ self-evaluation on the four intended roles. Furthermore, MTAs’ expectations on their post and/or their training were extracted based on common recurring themes mentioned by at least 3 MTAs.

VII. RESULTS (II)

A. MTAs’ Ratings on Performance on Planned Roles after the Training Programme

Cases with missing data and with the “n/a” option selected were removed from the analysis, leaving 20 responses from MTAs. MTAs’ perception of their ability to perform the role of supporting learning of Chinese as a second language (M= 3.39, SD= 0.36) was statistically higher than the hypothetical average of 2.5, t(19)= 10.946, p< 0.001. Their perception of their own performance on the role of fostering overall learning and providing pastoral support (M= 3.47, SD= 0.38), was also statistically higher than the hypothetical average of 2.5, t(19)= 11.431, p< 0.001. Their perception of their own performance on the role of taking part in engaging parents in kindergartens, facilitating communication between teachers and parents (M= 3.52, SD= 0.46), was also statistically higher than the hypothetical average of 2.5, t(19)= 9.781, p< 0.001. Lastly, their perception of their own performance on the role of promoting social inclusion of culturally diverse groups, and promoting racial harmony (M= 3.28, SD= 0.44), was also statistically higher than the hypothetical average of 2.5, t(19)= 8.026, p< 0.001. In other words, statistically, MTAs perceived that the training programme was able to equip them in performing their four intended roles, at a level that is higher than the hypothetical average.

### Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modules taught</th>
<th>N/A</th>
<th>Very low</th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>High</th>
<th>Very high</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Supporting learning of Chinese as a second language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese for early childhood education 1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>42.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese for early childhood education 2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>65.3</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting language development of NCS children</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>61.5</td>
<td>35.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Foster overall learning and provide pastoral support</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Understanding child development from an ecological perspective</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>59.4</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Embracing play-based learning and teaching</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English communication skills in Early Childhood Education</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applying technology into learning and teaching resources</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>54.2</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Take part in engaging parents in kindergartens, facilitating communication between teachers and parents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting social and emotional development of NCS children in home and schools</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>48.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Promote social inclusion of culturally diverse groups, and promote racial harmony</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Building culturally responsive classrooms in the local context</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>64.6</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promoting equality and social inclusion in home-school-community collaboration</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Percentage distributions on ratings showed that almost all MTAs agreed that the training programme provided helped them in performing their intended roles. For the role of supporting learning of Chinese as a second language, all three modules listed received high or very high ratings, meaning that MTAs perceived that they were able to apply the relevant knowledge and skills taught in this area. The same could be said of the four modules under the role of fostering overall learning and providing overall support, as well as the module under the role of engaging parents in kindergartens.

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and facilitating communication between teachers and principals. Under the role of promoting social inclusion of culturally diverse groups and racial harmony, the same could also be said for the module “Promoting equality and social inclusion in home-school-community collaboration”. For the module “Building culturally responsive classrooms in the local context”, however, only 89% instead of 100% MTAs gave high or very high ratings. This might suggest that MTAs were expecting more in the course in equipping them with relevant knowledge and skills for building culturally responsive classrooms in the local context.

B. MTAs’ Self-evaluation on Performance on Planned Roles through Focus Group Interview

Support Learning of Chinese as a Second Language. Four MTAs did not report difficulty in performing the role of supporting Chinese learning in NCS students. They made use of their native language to facilitate better understanding of NCS students in learning Chinese, and were able to translate for NCS students and communicate the students’ difficulties in learning Chinese to the teachers. To illustrate, one MTA mentioned:

If NCS students don’t know how to do their homework, we can use our own language to teach them and let them understand how to do it. The effect seems to be good, they will tell me about their difficulties then I will translate for them to the teachers… I did not experience any problems, as the Chinese used for young children is easy, so I can listen to it and understand.

Foster Overall Learning and Provide Overall pastoral support. Four MTAs perceived themselves to be able to foster overall learning and provide overall pastoral support, especially in the area of managing classroom discipline. They found this role particularly helpful when teachers are busy or may not have the capacity to look after all the children all at once. One MTA even mentioned that she helps observe the needs of students, which the teachers may miss out during class:

In the classroom there are always two teachers, one is the substitute class teacher, and the third one will be the MTA, but sometimes the teachers are very busy handling many things, especially when it’s classwork time checking their homework and being in one of the groups. It’s not a must that they can look after 32 children at once even if there are two teachers there. So I think we as MTAs play a crucial role, we are there to observe every little thing that the class teacher and the substitute class teacher can miss out on, so we are there to play that role.

When MTAs are not sure how they can assist teachers, they also demonstrated proactiveness in inquiring the needs of teachers:

Most of the time we follow the teachers’ directions but sometimes we take the initiative and ask what we can help with.

Take Part in Engaging Parents in Kindergartens, Facilitating Communication between Teachers and Parents. MTAs did not experience issues for the role of engaging parents in kindergartens and facilitating communication between teachers and parents, and did not give many comments. One MTA mentioned that they mainly communicate with teachers using Chinese, using English when necessary. Communication with parents generally involved explanation of school notices and important issues and was usually done in their native languages:

For example in my practicum school, even though we have a permanent NCS student teacher, if she is busy sometimes the teachers ask us to help translate to the parents on some notices or anything important. For the teachers we usually use Cantonese... if we don’t know how to say something we will just use English. For the parents we try using English, but first we use our own language.

Promote Social Inclusion of Culturally Diverse Groups and Promote Racial Harmony. Similar to the above point, for the role of promoting social inclusion of culturally diverse groups and promoting racial harmony, not much feedback was given as MTAs did not experience many issues. MTAs showed awareness towards the importance of providing culturally-responsive teaching:

I think it’s really important for the class teacher, if there are one to two of them (EM students), at least know what background they are from, because when they are introducing Chinese New Year for example, they (EM students) will have no clue why everything is red. The teachers have to give them more understanding.

MTAs perceived themselves to be able to promote social inclusion of culturally diverse groups, and to promote racial harmony. One illustrated this using differences in religion as an example, reminding teachers of Christian practices that Muslims cannot do, so that teachers will also become more aware of activities to avoid when teaching NCS students with a Muslim background:

If there’s something that the teacher doesn’t know about us, then we can tell them, for example, like we are Muslim and there’s something regarding the Christian religion they’re asking us to do, then we can explain to them ‘oh we cannot do this because that is not allowed in our religion’, so they can also try to avoid other Muslim students doing it, and they can have some knowledge about the religion difference.

C. Expectations of MTAs on Their Post and/or Their Training

The MTA Post as a Step Towards Becoming a Kindergarten Teacher. MTAs saw their post as a step towards becoming a kindergarten teacher, with four MTAs stating that they would like to become, or were considering
becoming a kindergarten teacher sometime in the future, and that the MTA post would provide them with relevant knowledge, skills and practical experience as a stepping stone.

More Realistic and Considered Demands from Teachers and Schools. The second expectation concerned more realistic and considered demands placed on their post from teachers and schools. Two MTAs in particular mentioned that teachers who worked with them expected them to know how to make teaching materials and know all teaching strategies from the beginning of their practicum, only to find out that the materials did not meet the teachers’ expectations during class:

Some of the teachers expect us to know most of the things, like how to make teaching materials and how we have the strategies, but that time we’re new to the kindergartens and we went there to learn things. Some of the teachers think that we know the things and they will give us the teaching materials and sometimes they will just teach us once only how to make the teaching materials. When we do not get it and do something wrong, and some of the teachers are busy, you know, and they need the teaching material right away, it feels like sometimes they’re annoyed.

This can be understood as the need for a greater understanding of MTA’s abilities, and more guidance and communication on expectations from teachers to MTAs. Two other MTAs mentioned their schedules were really packed from the beginning of the practicum, with many subjects to teach in class, and lots of teaching materials to prepare and display boards to decorate after class, which took time to get used to:

The first day was very tiring… I thought they were just going to teach ABCs or something very simple for the first day, but turns out there was a lot to do, they have to make a lot of teaching materials and work on many things. The full day schedule was also very busy, running from this place to that. The subjects are so packed, like Putonghua, Chinese and English.

This reflects the need for more progressive increases in workload for MTAs in their practicum, which would allow for MTAs to slowly adapt to working in the kindergarten environment.

More Support in Chinese Writing Skills in Training, Especially in Lesson Planning. Apart from expectations for their own post, MTAs’ comments also revealed one main expectation for their training. Four MTAs mentioned that they would like more support in writing up lesson plans in Chinese, as currently many rely on online translation tools to translate their lesson plans from English to Chinese. Three MTAs found that practicum teachers of their training program, along with teachers of the kindergartens, could be a helpful resource:

In my practicum school, the teacher can actually be quite helpful, the day before I have to do the activities she would help me check it again and help me correct the part… make adjustments or even add in one or two sentences… written she might not understand clearly… after explaining verbally she gets a clear image on how to correct the lesson plan.

They (the practicum teacher) teach us to write the small details you need in a lesson plan, what is the structure of it and how you can write it… I just asked the kindergarten teacher and the practicum teacher for help.

When questioned further, it was found that the current training programme is mainly conducted in English and there is not much emphasis on lesson plan writing in the course content. This suggests that more training in the area of Chinese lesson plan writing is needed.

More Knowledge in Dealing with Behavioral Issues and Special Education Needs in Training. A second minor expectation on the training programme, although only mentioned by one MTA, is also worth pointing out as it concerned the need for more knowledge in dealing with behavioral issues and special education needs in preschoolers. The MTA mentioned that if other MTAs also looked to become a kindergarten teacher in the future, and that the MTA post would provide them with relevant knowledge, skills and practical experience as a stepping stone:

I would also like to have a part where the university is teaching us how to find ways to help children having behavioral issues because sometimes children will throw tantrums, or sometimes children are very hyperactive, so you don’t know how to deal with them… We should have a syllabus teaching on Special Education Needs… maybe not covering the whole thing, but part of it. In my kindergarten there are a number of students with special educational needs. A majority of them are hyperactive or dyslexic so it’s hard for them to learn. As an MTA let’s say after this course I go to a school where a majority of them have special education needs. I know how to teach a regular student but for them you have different ways, different skills to help them learn.

VIII. DISCUSSION

Results from the t-tests conducted on the principal, teacher and MTA questionnaires, together with comments from the MTA semi-structured group interview, suggest that MTAs were able to perform the four intended roles at a level higher than a hypothesized average performance after going through the training programme. Distributions in ratings show that both principals and teachers thought MTAs performed well in all the four intended roles: supporting learning of Chinese as a second language, fostering overall learning and providing pastoral support, and taking part in engaging parents in kindergartens, facilitating communication between teachers and parents, promoting social inclusion of culturally diverse groups and racial harmony also received good ratings; but slight improvements could be made in the
specific area of applying cultural responsiveness in lesson planning. A similar picture is obtained from the MTA questionnaires on their training programme, with modules under the first three roles all receiving positive ratings, with the module “building culturally responsive classrooms in the local context” under the fourth role being the only module with lower ratings.

Butt and Lowe (2012) noted that TAs are increasingly taking on paraprofessional work without professional training to equip them with relevant knowledge and skills, which led to a majority of teachers perceiving that TAs needed more training. The present study demonstrates that it is possible, with the inclusion of a dedicated, structured and professional training programme, for MTAs not only to fulfil roles in supporting teaching and learning, but also to take on specialist roles (Kerry, 2005), such as facilitating communication between students, teachers and parents. In particular, MTAs performed well in the novel specialist role of facilitating social inclusion using culturally responsive teaching practices.

These four intended roles are created specifically to target the more prominent challenges NCS students face in learning Chinese in Hong Kong: inadequacy of trained educators in teaching NCS students, cultural and language differences of NCS students and Chinese-speaking (CS) students, and lack of parental support (Tsung & Gao, 2012). In light of the above results, the use of MTAs to support NCS students in the school environment can be considered a viable option to address these challenges. It addresses the issue of inadequate trained educators by providing an additional post at schools, without placing too much demand on teachers, who likely already have hefty workloads and may not have the capacity to receive professional training in teaching NCS students. Instead, MTAs play their part in reducing the workload of teachers (Sharma & Salend, 2016) by supporting them in teaching, not only by preparing teaching materials, but also in translating for them and the NCS students to facilitate better learning.

Crucially, in regards to cultural and language differences between NCS and CS students, MTAs are able to inform teachers about these differences both in lesson planning and in classes, for teachers to then adapt their teaching content, materials and approach in providing a more culturally-relevant and appropriate learning experience for NCS students. For example, when introducing Chinese New Year as a topic, teachers could go into more detail and explanation on the related customs and traditions to compensate for the lack of life experiences of NCS students in this area, and perhaps compare and contrast them to the Islamic New Year celebrations to make the topic more relatable. In supporting actual classroom teaching, MTAs are helpful in translating instructions or new Chinese words for NCS students for them to have better understanding, potentially facilitating quicker learning. Conversely, MTAs also help translate difficulties encountered by NCS students back to the teachers for a better understanding of students’ needs.

Parents of NCS students are not able to provide as much support as they can often due to language barriers between them and their schools. MTAs play a mediating role in linking up the two, by providing translations to foster clear communication. For example, they assist in translating notices on school events, or they can help explain the importance of their children in learning Chinese. When incidents occur at school that need parents’ attention, such as the students being ill, MTAs can also help explain the situation to parents. Also, MTAs can potentially help link parents to learning or supportive resources in the local community. This increase in communication serves to make parents more aware of their children’s learning situation at school, and consequently, they may be more willing to be involved in supporting their learning.

Moving on to the expectations of principals and teachers on MTAs, both were similar in that they hoped for MTAs to possess the qualities of being more proactive and be well-equipped with early childhood-relevant knowledge and skills. As Moran and Abbott (2002) suggested, the success of TAs depends on personal qualities in addition to knowledge and skills, which is an area for further improvements in future MTA training programmes.

Teachers had two additional expectations, the first of which is having a clearer understanding of MTAs’ duties and performance standards. This expectation, in particular, aligned with MTAs’ expectations of more realistic and considered demands from teachers and schools. This suggests that perhaps teachers were not informed well enough on the abilities and duties of MTAs, and inadvertently placed expectations, in areas such as teaching material preparation and assigned workload at the beginning of the practicum, that were out of reach for MTAs. This led to MTAs perceiving the need for more realistic and considered demands. In other words, consistent with previous literature (Sharma & Salend, 2016; Butt & Lowe, 2012), there seems to be some role confusion outside the four intended roles. The MTA training programme perhaps offered greater visibility of training opportunities, which, as Butt and Lance (2009) mentioned, altered the perceptions of teachers and raised their expectations. As Moran and Abbott (2002) suggest, for better utilization of MTAs, better teamwork is needed to clarify additional roles and responsibilities of MTAs outside that of the four intended roles, that while meeting the needs of teachers, should be within their competencies.

Teachers also expected MTAs to use Chinese more frequently in communication with NCS students. This concern is not unfounded as Sharma and Salend (2016) also cautioned that TA effectiveness may be compounded by students’ over-dependence on them, lowering the challenges of learning tasks and potentially isolating these students from the rest of the class, giving them fewer opportunities to interact with their peers. This could be clarified during the MTA training programme, and also between teachers and MTAs should this issue arise.

From the interview, it is clear that most MTAs saw their post as a stepping stone towards becoming a kindergarten teacher. They also expressed the expectations of better training in Chinese writing skills in lesson planning, and knowledge in dealing with behavioral issues and special education needs, both of which are important if they are to
become teachers. Continuous professional development is considered important for TAs (Butt & Lowe, 2012; Bourke & Carrington, 2007; Cobb, 2007). With the expectations of MTAs in mind, the construction of a career ladder could be considered, helping MTAs transition into teachers. Given their existing training in teaching NCS students, they would also be better equipped and ready to teach classes with NCS students.

The current study demonstrates the feasibility of using novel MTAs in addressing the challenges faced by NCS students in learning Chinese in Hong Kong. MTAs not only perform existing roles such as supporting NCS students’ learning of Chinese and providing pastoral support at schools, but more importantly, also acting as mediators and interpreters between schools and parents, and serving to promote social inclusion of students from diverse cultural backgrounds at school. This is one of the first studies of TAs taking on these cultural roles in the local school setting, made possible through a dedicated, structured and professional training programme. Further improvements can be made in the areas of developing personal qualities of MTAs and clarifying additional roles and responsibilities between teachers and MTAs. Career progression for MTAs to become teachers is also worth exploring.

DISCLOSURE STATEMENT

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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REFERENCES


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An Intersemiotic Translation of Nkape Anya Ukwu

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Abstract—Translation is involved with the information exchange from a language to the other. This study sets out to work on the intersemiotic form of translation by focusing on ‘An intersemiotic translation of Nkape Anya Ukwu’ produced by Chianakwalam, S. W. in 1950 with the purpose of transferring the message of the source text from African orthography to the standard Igbo. In carrying out this exercise, the researcher adopted the phonetic and phonemic orthography as well as the 1984 descriptive translation theory of Toury as the frameworks of the study in order to properly render the ST into a standardized orthography. The study adopted the description in its analysis due to its nature, as it involves a literary text that embodies story telling. So, in order to retell or re-express the ST information in the standard Igbo, the researcher then explicates the same meaning by using standard Igbo orthography, and still maintains the original message without meaning loss. This study equally dwells on a chapter of Nkape Anya Ukwu in its analysis as it is enough to provide all the information that is needed in the study. The study discovered changes in the increase in number and rearrangements in the orthographies. In the course of this study, it is discovered that there is no much problem during the process of this qualitative research work because, the source text and the target text shares the same cultural background; in other words, they share all most everything in common.

Index Terms—Semiotic/script, Orthography and Translation

I. INTRODUCTION

A textual translation is involved with the transfer of a particular message from one text to another. It involves the transfer of information from language A to language B, and this is to say that language A is the source language with the information while language B that is used for the translation is the language used to receive the original information of the language A. Again, the language A’s culture is the source culture while that of language B is the target culture. As Robinson (2007) and Schaffner (2007) say, the act of translating is what revolves around two languages thus, a shift or rendering from the language of the original information to a recipient language – target language. However, let’s say that translation which is textually based is transposed into another language with the supposed equivalence while respecting the cultural ambiances of the target language as well as full understanding of the grammar and pragmatisms of the source language into the target language in order to enable the target audience to accept the information as original. Nida and Taber (1982) believe that a good translation should be very close to the original information in different degrees hence, in meaning and style. Based on the forgoing, it can then be categorically stated that the term translation is involved with two languages, where the language that have the original information is the source language and the one that is used to receive the message of the original information is the target language. For Catford (1965), a good translation is the use of another language to represent the message of the original information without meaning loses through text. Nwike (2015) believes translation to be the use of word or phrases of another language to replace the original message, while maintaining semantics and its structures. During translation, it is important to lay much emphasis on the meaning of the original information than the form or structure into the target language; because of the discrepancies between languages. However, this will enable the translator to have a quality translation as the supposed desired outcome of the translation will be appreciated by the target audience.

Based on the above, in translating literary works into another language, it is more like creating a new literary work in another language and so, there is always a movement from one position to another once translation is involved. The language of information with which the source text (ST) is written is known as the source language (SL) while the language with which the text target (TT) is written is known as the target language (TL), that is, the receiving language with which the translation is done. So, in an era where the interdependence and interactions among disciplines are the rule, translation acquires an increasingly important role for proper cross fertilization of ideas. However, translators translate so that those who are not able to understand a text written in a language different from their own may have access to it, and this is applicable to all kinds of texts and documents.

In connection with the above information, the history of translation can be attributed to date back to the beginning of the history of man, hence, it evolves for several reasons out of the communication needs of people using different languages. However, for Ezema (2011), the importance of translation as a way of passing information from one person to the other makes the practice of translation very necessary. Upon this, Ezema (2011) says that the origin of translation cannot be accurately ascertained, but based on the Bible scholars, translation originated during the Babel theory of translation in Genesis 11:9. More so, it is worthy to note that when the missionaries came to Nigeria for evangelization,
they discovered that the availability of the Bible in various local languages will facilitate their mission and so, they saw the need for a written tradition in the indigenous languages. So, when the missionaries came, there was no translated Bible in any of the Nigerian languages but by the middle of the last century; the Bible had been translated into some of the indigenous languages in Nigeria.

In concomitant with the above information, Edebiri (1982) asserts that by the middle of the last century, the missionaries had already translated the Bible (English Version) into Efik, Hausa, Igbo, Ijaw, Kanuri and Yoruba languages. During the missionary era, the white men who came to convert Nigerians at the eastern part tried to document sounds of the words they hear with their own orthography. During the process of documenting the speech sounds of the Igbo language, the missionaries encountered lots of difficulties in transcribing them. The difficulty according to Edebiri (1982) touches the areas of syllabic nasals, implosives, non-expanded labialized and velars vowels. In line with this, the work of Ezem (2011) revealed that the personalities that helped in the translation during the missionary era are Bishop Ajayi Crowther, Rev. J.C. Taylor, S.W.K Delle, and Archdeacon Thomas. In trying to work on the orthography of a people, language is set to be the focus; in the sense that orthography formulation is language based. Language involves a mode of interaction that is used by humans to communicate ideas, feelings or emotions. Based on the makeup of any language, one can say that it involves sounds and words as well as the grammar of a particular speech community. However, different speech communities have their own languages and culture and as such, that very language is native to that populace and it is used by the indigenous people of that community. However, any indigenous language is unique to the community that owns it since the language has settled with them for generations. Due to the nature of the world nowadays, it can be discovered that many indigenous languages are phasing off due to the fact that there is much reduction in the number of the people who speak that language while the ones with the knowledge of the language who are assumed to be the elderly ones are dying off with the communal language. In this 21st century, some people from different areas of the world have actually stopped transferring their native languages to their young ones but gromm them with the majority languages and culture. However, this according to Edebiri (1982) is seen called linguicide hence, the language killing.

For Zuckermann, Ghilad, Shakuto-Neoh, Shiori, Quer, and Giovanni (2014), there are good number of languages around the world. These languages are assumed to be taught by the traditional means. In this means, the readings, grammar, recordings and vocabulary are said to be taught in the process. However, Zuckermann et al (2014) believe that a 6,000 indigenous language can be studied and learned through listening to a made recorder of the language. So, the knowledge of these languages in different speech communities will help aid the exchange of information from one lanugae to the other. Upon this, Nwike (2019) is of the view that translation helps for the cross fertilization of ideas, information or discourse from one language to the other. In line with the above, this study sets to look at ‘An intersemiotic translation of Nkape Anya Ukwu’ with the purpose of transferring the message of the source text from Africa orthography to standard Igbo. Upon the different kinds of translation, there are three major kinds; and they are interlingual, intralingual and intersemiotic translation. However, this study is an intersemiotic translation because it dwells on alphabets or script of a particular language – Igbo, in order to pass across the information from one orthography to orthography of the same language. The text Nkape Anya Ukwu was written by Evelyn Powell in 1950 and it was translated to Igbo language by Sunday W. Chianakalam. According to Oraka (1983), in the year 1854, Richard Lepsius came up with a Standard Alphabet. This alphabet is said to be general to all other language of the world. However, at this point, one can call it the first orthography of the Igbo language. For Oraka (1983), Richard Lepsius orthography has 34 alphabets. These 34 alphabets contain both the diagraphs and diacritical marks in order to transcribe the speech sounds that are unique in the African languages. Oraka (1983) added that the Lepsius Standard Alphabets are:

a b d e f g h i k l m n ñ nw ny o o p r s sh t u v w y z

In connection with the above orthography of Igbo language, based on the different studies going on in the area of orthography, the mentioned orthography was replaced with the Practical Orthography of African languages in 1929. Although, in the 1927, the study of Oraka (1983) revealed that Westermann supported the use of the 1927 orthography of Igbo. So, Oraka (1983) pointed out that the Africa orthography is made up of 36 letters and they are:

a b c d e f g h i j k l m n ñ nw ny o o p r s sh t u v w y z

Those days, due to the trends in Igbo orthography, Obalufun F. C. came up with his own orthography which for some people, it is a compromised orthography. Many people equally came up with their own orthographies at different times till 1961 when the government of Nigeria set a committee that will see for the formulation of the orthography that will have an embodiment of all the speech sounds. Upon this came the emergence of Ònwụ committee. Ònwụ is a name given after the chairman of the committee. After the several settings of this group, Oraka (1983) revealed that the committee came up with an orthography that has an encapsulation of diacritical marks in order to show the discrepancies between the heavy and light vowels which is made up of 8 vowels and 28 consonants. So, the Ònwụ orthography according to Oraka (1983) is as follows:

Aa, Bb, CHch, Dd, Ee, Ft, Gg, Gb, GHWw, GHgh, Hh, Ii, Ji, Jj, Kk, KPkp, KWin, Ll, Mm, Nn, Nŋ, NWnw, NYny, Oo, Oq, Pp, Rr, Ss, SHsh, Tt, Uu, Ûu, Vv, Ww, Yy Zz.

So, it is on the above historical process that communication between communities gradually increased and translation process improved to be a science in Igbo premise, hence, it embodies a broad historical process. It is on this basis that
several orthographical theories were developed. On the contrast, there is a problem that prompted up the essence of this research. However, there are so many literary texts used by students of Igbo language which are written in the standard Igbo, but Nkape Anya Ukwu is written in African orthography and it is still used for study in schools. This Nkape Anya Ukwu is a prose fiction written with a set of script or alphabet that is not a standard Igbo orthography. So, it is discovered that some students of Igbo find it difficult in reading and understanding the text used for the study due to the kind of alphabets used for writing it, thus African orthography. Due to this, this study then aims at having an intersemiotic translation of Nkape Anya Ukwu into standard Igbo by discussing the changes encountered in the course of transferring the prose fiction from one script to another script. Based on this, it is pertinent to point out that studies are on in this area of translation which in support of this, Mark and John (2008) worked on ‘A revised standard phonemic orthography for Australian English vowel while the study of Carmen (2010) focuses on ‘Orthography design for Chunaban Mixe and the study of Valerie (2008) was on ‘Writing an endangered language.’ From all these mention studies, it can be said that an intersemiotic translation of Nkape Anya Ukwu into standard Igbo has not been done and so, the study hinges on that to carry out this exercise. On the benefits that come with the study, more insights will be provided on the intersemiotic translation of literary texts that are in different orthographies especially from African orthography to standard Igbo, and equally reveal the changes encountered in the translation of the literary text from one script to another script in order to bring possible solutions to them.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study is a descriptive research study and as such, it aligns with the emergent design approach that adapts to new ideas or concepts that arise in the course of carrying out a qualitative research as the research paradigm for the study, since the main instrument used to obtain data for the research work is the literary document – Nkape Anya Ukwu.

III. THEORETICAL STUDIES

Translational exercise is a creative process and cultural transfer. Many views and approaches have been put forward in order to have a good translation. For instance, the thoughts of House in 1977 on what translation is basically hinges on having an inter language transfer as well as the cultural implications of the source text, while replacing it with its equivalence in the target language. This definition implies that translation is a practice in which words in the target language are used to replace the text in the source language, thereby breaking the linguistic and sociocultural barriers across certain environments. For Darbelnet (1977), the idea of translation is on having a transposition of source language information into another language all the meaning of a text while maintaining its meaning and culture in the target language. So, the emphasis in the above assertion about translation is the retention of the relative semantic values and the cultural elements of the original text which is the source language in the translated text that is the target language.

In connection with the above, it can be said that Jakobson’s intersemiotic translations in asterix comics was one of the greatest linguistics theories of all times, and his contributions ranged from the inauguration and participation into the circle of Russian formalists in the early twentieth century, which contributed considerably to the creation of a poetic and literary language theory, through the reformulation of the foundations of phonetics and phonology, to the presentation of his Theory of communication, with the idea of the functions of language in the late 1950s and early 1960s. Amongst his theoretical formulations, Jakobson thought of translation in a linguistic view. Through his famous text titled Linguistic aspects of translation, he sought to explain how the translation mechanisms would function. In line with the following, Jakobson (1959) classified translation into three categories thus:

a. Intralingual translation
b. Interlingual translation
c. Intersemiotic translation.

According to Jakobson (1959), the intralingual translation means retelling of particular information of a language into another variety of that same language. For instance, it can be from the Onitsha Igbo to Nsukka variety of Igbo language. This type of translation encompasses dictionaries, reformulations of sentences, paraphrases etc. Then the interlingual translation involves the type of translation that works with two different languages, where the message of language A will be transferred entirely into another language B and still maintains the message of the language A by using different words and phrases in language B and respecting the culture as well. Herein, translation of this type falls within the type of translation that is most usually thought of and that is the translation between languages which bilingual and trilingual dictionaries can also be included. More so, the third kind is the intersemiotic translation (IT) or transmutation. This involves interpreting and rendering of the meaning gotten from the signs and symbols into another form of language hence, written language.

A. Descriptive Translation Studies

The study of Toury (1984) approaches the study of translation from the perspective of systematic descriptive analysis. This is to say that the proponent of this theory believes that translation is practically based and as such, in order to have what one can call translation, there is need to explicate clearly the message of the original in the target language while
maintaining its semantic essence. Due to this, Toury’s idea of what translation should be is not prescriptively based but descriptive assessment of the original information into another language – target language which is believed to have much in common in skopos theory of translation study.

B. Phonetic and Phonemic Orthography

A phonetic orthography targets to have an accurate sound production of the spoken form of the language in writing form (Mark and John, 2008). In other words, a phonemic orthography is made in a way that a grapheme is pronounced the same way as its phoneme. Upon this, Sgall (1987) aligned to the view that orthography should be such that its phonemes enables the production of its graphemes. A phonemic orthography produces phonemes of a given language in the orthography. In lieu of this, Sgall (1987) asserts that for any orthography, the grapheme should be pronounced like the phoneme. Sgall aligns with the following by saying that the phoneme should be written as the grapheme. However, the phoneme and grapheme should have a consistent correspondence in sound. Sequel from the discussion Jones (1967) and Sgall (1987) stated that the phonemic orthography is the model orthography and should be used as the standard. In line with the proposition of the model raised by Jones and Sgall, one can claim that the Igbo standard orthography is a phonemic orthography and this feature makes it close to other standard orthographies. For instance:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>Igbo-Standard</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ọbọtsi/</td>
<td>Ọbọchị</td>
<td>day</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ogwwe/</td>
<td>Ogwụ</td>
<td>medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/akwwe/</td>
<td>Akwụ</td>
<td>palmfruit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/aawu/</td>
<td>Àwọ</td>
<td>frog</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. The Spelling and Alternate Spelling Theory

Based on the proponents of the spelling theory according to Emenanjo (1990), it postulates that each word should be written the way it is pronounced in isolation. However, the tenet of alternate spelling theory shows that when two spellings have equal claims to representation in the orthography, it is advisable to admit the two spelling forms. So, Emenanjo (1990) was on the contrast by pointing at the criticism of the standard orthography for not representing the spellings have equal claims to representation in the orthography, it is advisable to admit the two spelling forms. So, Emenanjo (1990) was on the contrast by pointing at the criticism of the standard orthography for not representing the sounds of some dialects. Upon this statement according to the proposition of Emenanjo (1990), example can be deduced from some dialects spoken in Central ‘v where others use b, such as in Mbaise dialect of Igbo. For instance,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mbaise</th>
<th>Standard Igbo</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/[lɔ]/</td>
<td>/lọ/</td>
<td>dissect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/[mː]/</td>
<td>/Mbọ/</td>
<td>finger</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. Theoretical Frameworks

The study adopts the phonetic and phonemic orthography, as well as the 1984 Toury’s descriptive translation theory in the translation of only chapter one of the Nkafe Anya Ukwu used for the study, as the frame work of the study.

E. Translation of Nkafe Anya Ukwu

Isi nke mbụ

Otu mgbe, nkpi ọrụtọ ọta ada nke mara mma nke ukwu. O ọrụta ya n’anya nke ukwu, na-eche si n na wu ya kacha nkpi dị n’ụwa ima ihe. O ụkwara onwe ya n’anya na-achọ ime onwe ya ka ya ụrụ onye ukwu. Ya asị na ihe nke kacha ihe nile ukwu n’ụwa ga-ala da ya.

Ya agakwuru Anwu si ya, Anwu ukwu, bịa lọọ nwa m n’ihi na ọ maka mma karịkwa anụa ọzọ nọ n’ụwa n’ima ihe. Anwu ele ya anya kwa n’ihi ya si, m. keleri gi eti isi si ka m lọọ ada gi mara ihe. Ma ọgbụghị n’ihi ihe atọ nke ga-egebọcha ya, m gaara ala ada gi. ihe atọ a bu 1. Nwa gi agaghi enwe iche ile m anya n’ihi na m na-ekpọ ọkụ nke ukwu. 2. Enweghị m ụọ, n’ihi ya, o ịghị ebe m nwere ọ ga-ebi. 3. Orụ m bu ija ụwa gburugburu. E nweghị m oge nke m ga-eji ruputa ihe ọ ga-eri na uwe nke ọ ga-eyi. O kwesị ya i gaa hụ nwanne m bu Onwa lere ma ọ ga-adabara gi na ya.

Mgbeye nkpi ọrụtọ nke a, obi joro ya njọ nke ukwu, ya agakwuru Onwa ka ọ lọọ nwa ya. Onwa lere ya anya nke ọma wee si ya, enweghị m ike ịlu na n’ihi na azu m na-eji ọjọ nke mere na anaghị ahụ m anya n’ehihe. ọzọkwa, Eluigwe ka m. O nwere ike kpuchie m mgbe obụla ka a gbara ịhu m anya. M ụrụ gi, m ga-ewegara nwa gi Eluigwe ka ọ lọọ n’ihi na ọ ka m n’ụzo niile.

Nkpi agakwuru Eluigwe si ya, biko ụlọro m ada m, ọ maka mma marakwa ihe nke ukwu. I ụlụ di ga-adabara gi na ya. M ga-abụrụ gi ezigbo ogo. Eluigwe asị ya, m gagi alunụwụ nwa gi n’ihi na o ụgbụghị m na-echе onwe m. Oke ifu mbe m ebe aha ebe o ọgbụghị ọ choro. Biko ụwa Oke ifu mbe ka ọ lọọ nwa gi.

gwarara ya na ya agakwuru Anwu, Onwa, na Eluigwe na Oke ifuife na Nkume, na ọwa ma oghighi onye kwere ịlu nwa ya. Osisi asị ya, enyi m nkpi, dikà jmaura, a bụ m onye ukwu nwere ihe ime ihe ike niile. M nwere ike gbochie ugwu na-adà ada ka ọ ghara iđa na iche niile ọzo. Nke a bụ eziokwu ma gi onwe gi ka nike. I nwere ike ribisie mkporogwu nke ji m, m daa. Lee nkpi, ọzo gbara okorobia mma mma ile anya ka ọ ụọ ọwa gi. Ọ bụ ya ga-elezi ụ ọwa gi anya.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

The presentation of the intersemiotic or script translation is done by following the objective of the study and it is presented below. Firstly, the vowels of the Igbo alphabets that undergo changes are presented in table 1 below followed by the example of the intersemiotic or script translation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source language</th>
<th>Target language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>O</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u</td>
<td>U</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Nw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. Vowels of the Standard Orthography

A vowel is a syllabic sound produced without any stricture in the vocal cord. However, vowel is one of the two principal classes of speech sounds. It can be a speech sound made by humans through change of the form and shape of the area in the mouth above the tongue. Again, this is seen as a speech sound produced by humans when the breath flows out through the mouth without being obstructed. In Igbo language there are 8 vowel sounds that exist in the standard orthography of Onwu that embodies 36 alphabets. In alignment with the following definitions raised already, vowels in Igbo allow free flow of air at the oral cavity or vocal cord. However, there is no obstruction of air at the vocal cord. The vowels of Igbo language are Aa, Ee, Ii, Ọo, Ọọ, Uo, and Uu. In Igbo orthography, vowels are divided into two, hence, light and heavy vowels. Light vowels are Aa, Ọo, and Uu while heavy vowels are Ee, Ii, Oo, and Uu. Again the central orthography has front and back vowel. In lieu of this, the front vowels are Aa, Ee, Ii, and Ọọ while the back vowels are Oo, Ọọ, Uo and Uu.

Based on the above, the Africa orthography is as follows a, e, i, o, ñ, u and as well as some discrepancies between African and Standard orthography. The differences show that ‘ɛ’ is replaced with ‘E’, ‘ɔ’ for Ọ, E for ‘ị’ and ɵ for ù. These changes can be explicitly be exemplified below. For instance,

Based on the above information, there are replacements between the two orthographies. For instance, in

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source language</th>
<th>Page No. in ST</th>
<th>Target language</th>
<th>Procedure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Otu mgbe nkpe moro otu ada nke mara mma nke ukwu…</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Otu mgbe Nkpi nuru otu ada nke mara mma nke ukwu…</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nwa ga agaghie enwe nke lesie m anya n’ihu na m na-ekpo oko…</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Nwa gi agaghie enwe ike lesie m anya n’ihu na m na-ekpo oku…</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nkpe agakwuru elu igwe se ya, biko lọsọ m ada m…</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Nkpi agakwuru elu igwe si ya, ụọró m ada m…</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Consonants

A consonant can be seen as a speech sound that is articulated with complete or partial closure of the vocal tract. However, it can be said that it is a speech sound in which the air is at least partly blocked. In other words, it can be called the speech sounds that are not vowels, thus, non-vowel sounds. In consonant production, the air flow is interrupted and it is equally limited by the position of the tongue, teeth and lips. In Igbo standard orthography, there are 36 alphabets representing the words of Igbo language. Upon this, the consonant of Igbo is twenty eight (28) in number. Out of the twenty eight consonants, some are nasals while some are semi-vowels, hence, ‘myriudame’ in Igbo language. On the other hand, the Africa writing alphabets are 36 in number. However, the consonant of the standard orthography are b ch d f g gb gh h j k kp kw l m n nw ny pr rs sh t v w y z while the one of African orthography are b c d f g gb gh h j k kp kw l m n nw ọ nw ny pr rs sh t v w y z.

Based on the above information, there are replacements between the two orthographies. For instance, in

**Standard orthography**  
ch  
ñ

**Africa orthography**  
c  
fj

C. Arrangements of the Standard and African Orthography

In the arrangement of the two orthographies, the speech sound ‘c’ of the African orthography is replaced with the speech sound ‘ch’ of the standard orthography. However, it is to be ascertained that the speech sound of standard orthography ‘gw’ is followed by ‘gh’ while in Africa orthography, ‘gh’ is followed by the speech sound ‘gw’. Again in
standard orthography, ‘]’ is followed by ‘nw’ while in African orthography, ‘nw’ sound is followed by ‘ŋ’. However, ‘ŋ’ is replaced with ‘]’ in the standard orthography.

D. Nasals Sounds

The consonants of standard and African orthographies contain 5 nasal speech sounds in each, although with little replacement from the African to standard orthography, hence, ‘]’ is replaced with ‘ŋ’. Furthermore, the arrangement of the both orthographies are not the same and so, the standard orthography is arranged as thus, ‘m, n, ], nw, ny’ while the African orthography is outlined as follows ‘m n nw ny’.

On the arrangement of the double speech sounds of African orthography and standard orthography, it is discovered that their positions are not actually the same. For instance, in African orthography according to Oraka (1983), they are b c d f g gb gh gh h j k kp kw l m n nw ny nr rs sh t v w y z while Oraka (1983) states that in standard orthography, we have b ch d f g gb gh gh h j k kp kw l m n nw ny nr rs sh t v w y z. In line with the following, ‘gb’ of standard orthography is followed by ‘gw’ while ‘gh’ of African orthography is followed by ‘gh’. Again, ‘gh’ of standard orthography is followed by ‘h’ while in African orthography gh sound is followed by ‘gw’. ‘Nw’ of standard Igbo is followed by ‘ny’ while in African orthography, it is followed by ‘ŋ’. In standard script, ‘nw’ is followed by ‘ŋ’ as well as ‘ny’ while in standard script, ‘n’ is followed by ‘nw’ as well as ‘ny’.

Based on the above, intersemiotic translation from African orthography to the standard Igbo, the translator adapted the phonetic and phonemic orthography as well as the 1984 Toury’s descriptive translation theory in order to properly render the ST into a standardized orthography as used by the Igbos. – Önwu orthography. However, the essence of using the descriptive translation theory by Toury and the phonetic and phonemic orthography is based on the nature of the text. The text is a literary text and it all embodies story telling. So, in order to retell or re-express the ST information in the standard Igbo, the researcher then explicates the same meaning by using standard Igbo orthography and still maintains the original message without meaning loss. Again, description of the ST follows the orthography used for the work. This is because, the phonetic orthography targets to have an accurate sound production of the spoken form of the language in written form and this is exactly what the researcher did in this work.

This study then discovers that the chapter used for the study is from a literary text, hence, a prose fiction of Nkape Anya Ukwu. Also, in order to have a proper rendition of the ST into the TL, a suitable orthography theory should be used for proper account of the rendition. Furthermore, in carrying out this study, the researcher discovered that there is no much problem that accrued up in the course of carrying out this qualitative research work. This is because, the source text and the target text shares the same cultural background; in other words, they share all most everything in common.

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Mr. Nwike belongs to the Association of Translation Studies in Nigeria. He also obtained an academic merit award in Honour of Aknu-ibiam As the Best Graduating Student Who Produced the Best Long Easy in Igbo Language in the 2014/2015 Academic Session.
Factors Affecting the English Language Preparedness of College Freshman Students

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Office of Foreign Languages, Guilin Medical University, China

Abstract—This study determined the factor that affects the level of preparedness in the English language of the College of Education (COED) freshman students majoring in Elementary Education. Eighty (80) students were chosen as the participants of this study. A survey questionnaire was used to explore the students' opinions by considering six factors that may have affected their preparedness in English: Prior knowledge of the second language of learners, students' motivation, learning styles of students, instructional methods of teachers, classroom setting, and school amenities. The findings revealed that the classroom environment and the classroom and school facilities affected their preparedness. Moreover, the teacher's availability of learning materials, teaching method, and student's motivation were also additional factors that affected them. The results imply that the government should do its best to provide these students with facilities and more learning materials. As a result, the English I course teachers should consider all these when teaching English to enhance their preparedness.

Index Terms—level of preparedness, English Language, Second Language

I. INTRODUCTION

English is considered the universal language. It functions as an instrument for international reach and local identities. In meeting the demands of time and thoroughly preparing them for globalization, learners need to obtain greater linguistic competence levels. According to Mijares (2009), the English language is a compulsory subject beginning in second grade, continuing through postsecondary education as students must become proficient at using the language. The English language class is the central location where students learn the English language; it is seldom incorporated into other courses or within their homes. That is why the education system promotes enhancing the learners’ English language proficiency.

The results of the National Achievement Test given by the Department of Education (DepEd) in the Philippines showed low English language performance among high school students. The English proficiency level of students is deteriorating. Andrew King of IDP (International Development Program), the Education and country director for the Philippines, was disappointed in the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) of 2009 when the Philippines came second with a score of 6.69. Furthermore, the deputy presidential spokesperson, Lorelie Fajardo, acknowledged that there was an issue. Most elementary and secondary education teachers have average English proficiency ratings of 50 percent for elementary teachers and 67 percent for secondary teachers. A current literacy test results reported that the Philippines is no longer Asia’s top English-speaking nation. This has had a disturbing effect on the job-providing sectors in and out of the state and is starting to push the Department of Education to step up the initiative to provide a school system that will enhance the knowledge of the English language for learners. Nevertheless, school programs and initiatives are not sufficient to encourage English proficiency among Filipino students.

Increasing accessibility to students who are not prepared for college courses, several academic institutions offer higher education opportunities. Bailey (2009) advocated for evaluations to address educational readiness to effectively recognize underequipped university students’ concerns. Preparedness should also involve the ability to adapt to environmental changes successfully. He explained how students compensate for their weaknesses and adapt to their environmental challenges.

One of the essential times for developing language ability and fundamental skills would be during early school. Speaking abilities gained and learned throughout early schools are essential in both development and continuity. Hence to develop language ability throughout early schools, it is necessary to use efficient and reliable teaching methods.

In this context, the researcher had to examine the factors affecting the College of Teacher Education freshman students’ readiness to use the English language. Lately, several studies have been conducted to determine the relevance of these factors in education. Boylan (2009) claimed that non-cognitive (i.e., affective & personal elements with cognitive factors) are coupled to create personalized approaches for unprepared students. Also, Boylan (2009) indicated that individual factors could affect school efficiencies, such as childcare obligations and language barriers.

This study gathered data and knowledge on what steps could be taken by English teachers and curriculum designers to help students develop their English acquisition and help them improve their speaking ability. Also, students, English teachers, and curriculum designers are expected to benefit from this study since it will offer insights about how teachers could further develop English language literacy and university students' necessary linguistic skills.
II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The qualitative research methodology was used to determine how many variables have affected the degree or readiness of college students in English. The data in this study were collected from 80 freshman students majoring in Elementary Education at Tarlac State University, Tarlac City, Philippines. All participants were enrolled at the University at the time of the study. Students also provided information about their previous high school education. Thirty-eight students reported that they came from public high schools, while the remaining 42 participants stated that they graduated from private high schools. To use the students’ recorded responses for data analysis and to conduct a set of questionnaires, informed written consent was obtained. For the research completion, participants allowed the researcher to use their responses.

Moreover, the questionnaire developed by Bennui (2009) entitled “Study on First-Year Students Perceptions Concerning Causes of Their Poor Performance in the English II Course” was used in this study.

This study’s data emerged from an analysis of questionnaires that were individually conducted with 80 freshman students in two sessions under two different instructors. It lasted for about 15 minutes, and the results were transcribed into tables. Participants were asked about their stand on the given factors such as their language prior knowledge (English background, previous grade); students’ motivation (self-motivation, motivation given by parents and teachers, opportunities for practicing speaking and writing); students’ learning strategies (taking notes, talking to native speakers, listening to songs, reading books); teacher’s teaching method (unclear pronunciation, too fast in speaking); classroom environment (too noisy, unapproachable classmates); and, classroom facilities (lack of materials) if these are significantly affecting their performance inside the classroom. The study aimed to answer the central research question, which is the factors affecting the level of preparedness of COEd freshman students majoring in the English language.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As reported, 52.5% of the students were from private schools, while 47.5% were from public schools. Most of the students were, therefore, enrolled in a private institution. According to Piras (1998), Growing interest in high-cost private colleges has led to public education's falling standard. Parents who are willing to assume the expense of a private school tend to transfer their kids from the public to private institutions, thinking they can probably get a better education in this manner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students' Second Language Prior Knowledge</th>
<th>Level of Agreement</th>
<th>Level of Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My previous grades in my English subjects were poor, so I don’t think I can now improve on it.</td>
<td>Pub 8 Priv 3</td>
<td>Pub 30 Priv 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My English background on vocabulary, grammar, and spelling is quite poor.</td>
<td>Pub 10 Priv 2</td>
<td>Pub 28 Priv 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I had previously learnt reading-writing rather than listening-speaking skills.</td>
<td>Pub 18 Priv 1</td>
<td>Pub 20 Priv 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 indicated that both students from private and public high schools agreed that they had learned reading-writing first rather than listening-speaking skills. Writing and reading have long been known as practices that are interconnected. In addition to listening and speaking, teachers have viewed them as essential English elements (Petty, 1983). Students from public and private disagreed that their previous grades in English were low, so they don’t think they can improve it; indicating that how well a student performs in the English language will depend on his or her perceptions to that particular language. Misati (2009) believes that English is the most difficult language to learn; students may be discouraged from working hard, thus ending up with low grades. However, their positive perception of English as one of the most important languages will motivate them to work hard and improve their achievement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students' Motivation</th>
<th>Level of Agreement</th>
<th>Level of Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1 I do not have opportunity to practice speaking and writing in English.</td>
<td>Pub 9 Priv 4</td>
<td>Pub 29 Priv 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 I am not interested in learning English.</td>
<td>Pub 5 Priv 6</td>
<td>Pub 33 Priv 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 I think learning English is not important, so I am not self-motivated.</td>
<td>Pub 3 Priv 6</td>
<td>Pub 35 Priv 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 My classmates rarely motivate me to practice my English speaking skill.</td>
<td>Pub 15 Priv 3</td>
<td>Pub 23 Priv 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 My parents never encourage me to speak English at home.</td>
<td>Pub 17 Priv 8</td>
<td>Pub 21 Priv 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 My close friends tease me whenever I speak English to them.</td>
<td>Pub 18 Priv 1</td>
<td>Pub 20 Priv 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 Present the students' motivation as a factor affecting the level of preparedness of COEd freshman students.
In every classroom, some students have problems when it comes to speaking in front of the class. Table 2 portrayed that the public schools’ students indicated that ‘teasing’ affects their low motivation. Students report that their peers make fun of how they speak English. The discomfort experienced by these students often has to do with bad experiences, which include ‘teasing’.

Students from private schools have the highest effect on the factor “My classmates rarely motivate me to practice my English-speaking skill.” Motivation and attitude are a critical key to the successful acquisition of a second language and are connected to second language acquisition. Students were found to have a conviction from this research about the essence of motivation affecting their accomplishment. The motivation was a significant factor in the acquisition of second language performance and an individual who has higher motivation would like to learn a language, enjoy language-learning, and attempt to learn the target language. (Budden, 2003).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Level of Agreement</th>
<th>Level of Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.1 I never listen to songs, read books and watch movies in English.</td>
<td>Pub</td>
<td>R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 I always get headaches in learning English.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 I never talk to native speakers of English or foreigners.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 I have never attended activities or seminars in English.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.5 I have a short concentration in my English classes.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.6 I rarely take notes while listening to my English teacher’s discussion.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7 I cannot perform exercises in English without discussing in pair or group of the same majored classmates.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.8 I have never consulted with the teachers on my problems regarding my English subject inside or outside the classroom.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 3, students from public schools stated that they never consulted with their teachers regarding their English subjects. This instance shows no communication between the students and the teacher, affecting students’ motivation to learn. Communication inside the classroom includes many things, such as sharing information, feelings, thoughts, influences, and problems students encounter. It is essential because it functions as a tool for contact, transfer of ideas, influences, and development. Every opportunity to communicate offers a chance for personal development.

Both students from private and public high schools disagreed that they never listened to English songs, books, and movies. This means that materials like these had greatly affected their learning strategies in learning the Language. Because music and songs are essential tools for facilitating language learners’ motivations and influencing their motivation, using music and songs could change a mood or create an atmosphere conducive to learning (Murphey, 2002). Abbott, Lauter, & Dalton (2007) also affirmed that using songs or music in English fields may contribute to language acquisition in several dimensions. Also, many researchers have found that films draw students’ attention and can have a positive effect on their motivation to learn. Films offer students a great opportunity to acquire context knowledge to incorporate their knowledge of a story or concept. Film features could help students relate to new data and make fun of how they speak English. The discomfort experienced by these students often has to do with bad experiences, which include ‘teasing’.

Students from private schools have the highest effect on the factor “My classmates rarely motivate me to practice my English-speaking skill.” Motivation and attitude are a critical key to the successful acquisition of a second language and are connected to second language acquisition. Students were found to have a conviction from this research about the essence of motivation affecting their accomplishment. The motivation was a significant factor in the acquisition of second language performance and an individual who has higher motivation would like to learn a language, enjoy language-learning, and attempt to learn the target language. (Budden, 2003).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Level of Agreement</th>
<th>Level of Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1 The teachers speak English too fast.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 The teachers’ pronunciation is not clear and accurate.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3 The teachers never teach listening strategies in learning proper pronunciation of English words.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4 The teachers use more Filipino than English in explaining the lesson in an English class.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5 The teachers seldom give the non-performing students to practice his/her English skills as self-study.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6 The teachers have never helped me with my English proficiency problem inside and outside the classroom.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7 The teachers enjoy speaking English without caring about the students’ interest and understanding.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8 The teachers do not repeat his/her topic in English and move on to other activities very fast.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.9 The teachers never use English songs and games to motivate the students.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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The result from Table 4 presents that students from public schools showed that the teachers never use English songs and games to motivate students as their number one factor in the Teachers' Teaching Methods.

On the other side, all students disagreed that the teacher's use of the Filipino language in explaining the lesson affects their learning and understanding of the lesson. While it may seem detrimental to make English language learners depend on their mother tongue when they have trouble voicing and recognizing a concept in English, this could help increase English literacy by using their first language awareness. Students unable to speak English or struggling with a particular element of literacy have the option to use strategies they have studied in their mother tongue (Haneda, 2006). When writing or speaking in their mother tongue, English language learners have skills and talents, and teachers may then recognize these attributes and then incorporate them into the program for English education. To recognize individual skills and educate learners on how and when to use them while interacting in English, teachers also suggest that teachers collaborate with English language learners.

Hanushek (1999) recommends that in teaching, the teacher must have views about the students' desires, learning methods, and the best method of motivating them. The teacher will determine how to offer lessons and exercises in a meaningful manner in light of his experience and how to plan and conduct an exciting and well-organized course development.

### Table 5

**Present the Classroom Environment As A Factor Affecting the Level of Preparedness of COED Freshman Students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Level of Agreement</th>
<th>Level of Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. Classroom Environment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 I am too shy, worried, and unprepared to answer the teachers' questions after his/her discussion of the topic in English among other classmates with different majors.</td>
<td>Pub 11 R 4 Priv 27 R 1</td>
<td>Pub 27 R 1 Priv 15 R 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2 Other students laugh at me if I pronounce a word incorrectly.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2 22 3 22 3 20 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3 Some students talk or make noises while the teachers are explaining his/her lesson.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1 23 2 16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4 My classmates create a threatening atmosphere during class recitation using the English language.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3 13 4 26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students from public schools considered “Some students talk or make noises while the teachers are explaining his/her lesson.” as the highest factor in the classroom environment in contrast with the students from a private school who considered, “I am too shy, worried, and unprepared to answer the teachers’ as the factor that has the highest effect questions after his/her discussion of the topic in English among other classmates with different majors.” It is common to find learners not so confident in all countries where English is the second or third language. The fundamental explanation for the shyness is the immense distance they experience when talking to students who have a very strong command of the English language or listening to their social circle talking proficiently. This gap between what could be achieved by the student may cause one to do badly in classes. This bad performance then reinforces the perception that English learners are not quite as intelligent as their classmates who speak English.

### Table 6

**Present the Classroom and School Facilities As A Factor Affecting the Level of Preparedness of COED Freshman Students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Level of Agreement</th>
<th>Level of Disagreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6. Classroom and School Facilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1 The classroom is very noisy.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3 18 3 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2 The classroom size is too large and crowded.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4 14 4 31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.3 Our school library is not updated with new materials in learning the English language.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2 19 1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.4 No available reading materials in English inside the classroom.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1 19 1.5 16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Found in Table 6 is the agreement of students from private and public high schools in the non-availability of materials as the first factor in their preparedness level. Both of them also disagreed that a large classroom has something to do with their performance.

Many educators believe that smaller classes allow more time and attention to each student in terms of class size. Class size is an important factor in school-related issues. Smaller classes allow more time for instruction and require less time for discipline while extremely large classes are also inappropriate (more than 60 students per teacher), as they are counterproductive to learning. Howley, Strange, and Bickel (2000) also researched school size and school performance in impoverished communities where they gathered evidence that smaller schools enhance achievement. In contrast, the evidence from their study affirms that small is generally better.

The analysis indicated that three main factors are significant in the students' level of preparedness.

The first factor that the students consider was the non-availability of materials and facilities in English inside the classroom coming from the respondents from the public school.

Some studies conclude that this factor impacts performance when students lack materials and proper facilities needed for learning. Harbison and Hanushek's (1992) detailed case studies give specific evidence that educational facilities' minimum basic standard is critical for achievement performance. Similarly, Husen (2001) says that access to
educational material has a positive effect on performance. These arguments reinforce the current study findings that textbooks and availability of teaching and learning resources influence students’ achievement. These researches highlight the significance of teaching materials and libraries as important components that improve elementary and high school performance. Classroom materials should be designed to provide numerous forms of representation, participation, and communication for students. Selecting resources which will enable learners to study and develop their language skills is equally critical.

The second factor was language anxiety under the classroom environment was chosen by 27 respondents from the private group. They indicated that they are too shy to speak and worried that they might commit mistakes while reciting or speaking during classroom discussions. As learners with less language ability join English learning classes, they have much more to be worried about; raising the probability that insecurity will impact the learning experience. As Horwitz (2001) stated, anxiety is a complex issue and might make the usual performance of people particularly challenging, especially in a multicultural classroom. Anxiety in the English language is a dynamic problem that may contribute to several factors involved in learning environments.

In the lighter shade, the students disagreed that English is not important. Knowing that they are majoring in Elementary Education, they all believe that learning the language is significant and, therefore, they can improve their performance and continue building their knowledge. Since English has been the most popular language used anywhere, English’s value could not be overlooked and avoided. The results also stated that learners were more inspired to learn English.

The third factor that the respondents consider is the contact of songs, books, and movies in the English language that the teacher seldom or never at all present inside the classroom to motivate learning. The benefit of incorporating songs and books in the classrooms would be that singing and reading literature is probably one of the activities that produce the highest motivation and is a fun and enjoyable method to learning languages. Komenský (2008) also requested that the environment of endless fun and imagination be maintained. He claimed that to prevent boredom, which is considered the teaching poison, "cheerful atmosphere is required." Music and beautiful forms of literature certainly can sustain an easy educational environment. In school, songs will provide a fun break from routine, and they serve a helpful role in language instruction. Books, on the other hand, are a good source of information that has infinite advantages. It takes us through various worlds and cultures. Also, it helps us to learn about new technologies and literature. It allows speaking languages fluently and to communicate spontaneously. The role of radio and television are also very important in learning the English language because by listening and watching television, students will be used to hearing pronunciation and speaking from a foreign language. In listening or watching, we learn to understand what the people said and increase vocabulary. Exposure to mainstream media often affects the attitude towards the English language. Many who watch English Television shows get a language mindset that is more beneficial than those that do not.

As a research survey, this research assessed the students' views about the variables that could influence their level of English language readiness to provide effective suggestions to other potential solutions to their learning challenges.

IV. CONCLUSION

Research shows the three main factors that affect the preparedness of the students. These factors need to be supported and given action to prepare students and succeed in their college education. Schools should address these needs by providing educational materials to help build and support students’ abilities and ensure their capacity to meet the University’s expectations. The findings indicate the difference in the factor affecting the students coming from private and public high schools. Public high school students revealed that the non-availability of materials is an essential factor for language proficiency. The main philosophy behind this is that students from private schools have more access to the facilities that can help them improve their knowledge of the language. The results imply that the government should do its best to provide these students with facilities and more materials.

The third factor that both students from private and public schools have agreed upon is the effect of reading books, listening to music, and watching movies in English in their language enhancement. The primary reason for this is that these materials are important sources for developing the students’ proficiency and exposing them to a foreign language, which is sometimes missing in society.

Also, providing necessary assistance to help all students meet college readiness standards providing them support and information are needed. Awareness of these factors may help educators reduce obstacles in learning and preparing their students in the English language and creating more positive experiences and better outcomes.

The research into how these factors affect the preparedness of COED freshman students majoring in Elementary Education could benefit future research. It may help understand the different needs of students and how the government, schools, and teachers help the academic underprepared college students compensate for low performance.

This study reported findings on the preparedness of 80 COED freshman students majoring in Elementary Education. Their perceptions and opinions were willingly expressed and resulted in three major factors. Therefore, this study may serve as a pilot study and be expanded to multiple locations with larger students. Additionally, consideration should be given to how teachers transmit their knowledge to their students. Further research may explore the other factors that were not considered.
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Fengyi Ma was born in Guangxi, China in 1970. She received her Ed.D degree in education from Tarlac State University, Philippines in 2020. She is currently an associate professor in the Office of Foreign Languages, Guilin Medical University, Guilin, China. Her research interests include education and English.
James Phelan’s Three Judgments in George Eliot’s *Middlemarch*

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Abstract—George Eliot, well-known as one of greatest realists in the 19th century, weaves multiple narratives in her representative work *Middlemarch*, presenting vividly the realistic picture of society between 1829 and 1832. The narrative clue of love affair between Dorothea, Casaubon and Will Ladislaw permeates the whole story, which attracts the attention of numerous scholars with fruitful, inspirational studies. However, few numbers of scholars delve into the controversial issue of Casaubon’s “will” in the story to analyze the moral values and thoughts expressed by the implied author. Thus, the paper attempts to analyze the issue of “will” by borrowing the concept of three judgments proposed by James Phelan to figure out how the implied author expresses her interpretative, ethical and aesthetical judgements by means of her distinct narrative.

Index Terms—James Phelan, interpretative judgment, ethical judgment, aesthetic judgment

I. INTRODUCTION

The story of *Middlemarch* consists of three or four unequal subplots: the life of Dorothea Brooke’s marriage with Mr. Casaubon; the career of Tertius Lydgate’s medical reform; the courtship of Mary Garth by Fred Vincy; and the disgrace of Bulstrode’s rising history. However, the triangle love affair between Dorothea, Casaubon and Will Ladislaw is the most conspicuous and provoking. The issue of last will of Mr. Casaubon is unforgettable, attracting scholar’s attention. Elizabeth Stone (2008) observes that “the will is not only a legal document but a microcosm of family life: a coded and non-negotiable message from the will’s writer to its intended readers” (Elizabeth Stone, 2008, p. 425). George Eliot, born Marian Evans, knows about the wills and disinheritance at the first hand, having been disowned by his brother when choosing to live unmarried with George Henry Lewes. The last will of Casaubon requires that Dorothea should not marry Will otherwise she will not obtain any money from him is the most inviting and controversial. The issue of last will is, as a matter of fact, a commonplace in British literature. For instance, Shakespeare’s *King Lear* is also centered around the will, though hardly the last will. Some other great writers such as Henry James, Charles Dickens all mention the issue of the last will in their novels. Elizabeth Stone (2008) avers that “family stories about wills are common because wills draw our attention to three of the most charged elements in our lives: love, death and money” (Elizabeth Stone, 2008, p. 426). The issue of will reflects the value of ethics and aesthetics of implied author. The omniscient narrator, shifting from one character to another character, discloses the inner thoughts of characters in the narrative discourse. Every narrative possesses a purpose, conveying a sort of intended meaning. James Phelan’s definition of narrative is that “somebody telling somebody else on some occasion a story for some purpose that something happened” (Phelan, 1996, p. 218). Rabinowitz also puts forward a similar definition of narrative that “stories are accounts of what happened to particular people” (Rabinowitz, 2007, p. 17). Both definitions emphasize the particular purpose of the implied author and the function of the reader in the process of reading. Every story possesses its own purpose and the real matter depends on the technique of telling. The story of *Middlemarch* is a typical instance that the author takes advantage of distinct method of narration to demonstrate her moral judgment. Just as Booth proposes the concept of implied author in *The Rhetoric of Fiction* (1983), the implied mores can also be seen in the story by showing not telling. With the development of narrative, the role of the reader in the process of constructing textual meaning increases greatly. According to Peter J. Rabinowitz, the reader can be concretely divided into implied reader, authorial reader, ideal reader and flesh-blood-reader, which also intimates the increasing role of the reader’s response in the process of reading. According to James Phelan, the judgment of characters and actions in the novel can be divided into two parts: the first is from the author’s perspective and the second is from the reader’s point of view. Rhetoric narrative emphasizes reader’s response and hence the reader’s experience of reading the novel is quite crucial. In *Experiencing Fiction* (2007) James Phelan states three kinds of judgments: interpretative, ethical and aesthetic, which further signals the inter-relation between the author and the reader. Thus, I will attempt, by means of Phelan’s three judgments, to analyze the inter-relation between the implied author and the reader in George Eliot’s *Middlemarch* in order to manifest the art of narration and discuss the issue of judgement.

II. INTERPRETATIVE JUDGMENT

According to Phelan, interpretative judgment is “about the nature of actions or other elements of the narrative” (Phelan, 2007, p. 9). The narration itself evinces the author’s interpretative judgment. The arrangement of plot...
development of the story provokes implied judgment of the author and the reader. The focalization of the narrator in the novel implicates the concern and intentions of the narrator. Robyn Warhol (2013) reckons that “nowhere in nineteenth-century British fiction is this more jarringly displayed than in the famous moment in Middlemarch when George Eliot’s narrator almost violently shifts her narrative focalization from her heroine’s perspective to that of the heroine’s husband” (Robyn Warhol, 2013, p. 54). The typical pattern of narration in the novel is focusing on a single focal character for three or more chapters before switching to another character’s point of view. Narrator finishes a sequence on Lydgate and Vincys, then follows Dorothea’s impressions through the twenty-eighth chapter of the third volume “Waiting for Death” and begins the twenty-ninth chapter with the expected continuation. Robyn Warhol also deems that there is a typical feature in the novel in the nineteenth century. He asserts that “narrators of realist novels from Henry Fielding to George Eliot” display a heightened consciousness of the “anti-romantic, anti-sensationalist context of the story world they create, defending their narratorial practices against supposed impatience on the part of actual readers who are expecting romance and thrills” (Robyn Warhol, 2013, p. 47). We can find that Eliot’s narrative is always fraught with surprises and suspense.

Firstly, the expected match by the reader between Sir James and Dorothea does not take place, thus breaking reader’s expectation. At the very outset, the narrator portrays Dorothea as a “beautiful, open and ardent young lady” (p. 10), with a special habit of riding a horse, attracting the attention of Sir James Chettam who actually later gets married with Dorothea’s sister Celia. Compared with Dorothea, Celia “has more common sense” (p. 7). Dorothea’s mind is “theoretical”, knowing “many passages of Pascal’s Penses” (p. 8) without any interest in Sir James who has a crush on her. The reader may expect the romance between prince and princess. Unfortunately, the plot doesn’t develop as one expected. Instead the match between Dorothea and Mr. Casaubon breaks the expectation of readers, and thus the readers may feel disappointed and frustrated. At this moment, the reader begins to participate in constructing the meaning of the story world. The result is reasonable in a way as narrator has expressed that in the eye of Dorothea, the delightful marriage should be with someone who “can be a sort of father, and could teach you even Hebrew” (p. 10), which indicates that Sir James Chettam is conspicuously not qualified for the position. James Phelan (2007) claims that “effective surprises are ones in which the audience begins by being taken aback and ends by nodding their heads in recognition that the surprise has been prepared for (Phelan, 2007, p. 128). The narrator doesn’t demonstrate elaborate detail of the story for it is unnecessary and impossible. David Herman (2007) comments on sub-narration:

No one building a fictional world can hope to specify every facet of the world, to characterize every element of it exhaustively and from the ground up. Rather, creators of fictional worlds must rely on readers, listeners, or viewers to draw a vast number of inferences about the world under construction-inferences that enable recipients to supply crucial information not explicitly available in the text (Herman, 2007, p. 67-68).

Herman attaches the importance to the role of the reader in the process of constructing textual meaning. The whole process has to hinge on narrator and reader to construct the meaning. Therefore, when the narrator depicts Dorothea’s interest and preference for reading and knowledge, displaying detailed description of Mr. Casaubon’s learning, their marriage for readers turns out to be natural and acceptable.

Secondly, another surprise is that the ideal match between Dorothea and Casaubon also fails to work. Casaubon, in the eye of Dorothea, is the most interesting man she has ever seen. His manners are “dignified” and “the set of his iron-hair and his deep eye-sockets” makes him “resemble the portrait of Locke” (p. 15). Even before the marriage, Dorothea starts to imagine what she should perform to fulfill the obligation as his wife. And she confesses:

I should learn everything then. It would be my duty to study that I might help him the better in his great work. There would be nothing trivial about our lives. Everyday things with us would mean the greatest things. It would be like marrying Pascal. I should learn to see the truth by the same light as great men have seen it by. And then I should know what to do, when I got older (p. 27).

The imagination always appears to be perfect and her inner imagination enables their marriage to be smoother. In the meantime, Mr. Casaubon regards Dorothea as “suitable wife for him” (p. 22) as well. The evidence here demonstrates clearly that Mr. Casaubon satisfies her taste. Naturally, their marriage goes on smoothly. They quickly get married, leaving for Rome for their honeymoon. It seems that everything goes well, which satisfies readers’ expectation. Just at this moment, surprise comes, breaking the romance pattern. Unfortunately, few weeks later, their marriage encounters problems, their honeymoon ending up with frustration instead of real “honey” strengthening their marriage. After five weeks of marriage, Dorothea begins to feel bored with Mr. Casaubon. She herself doesn’t know the reason why she feels unhappy with all the comfortable living environment and a learned husband. Now she loses the interest of her husband’s talking about those books. She has been tired of all those boring stuffs. As the narrator says:

“All those rows of volumes-will you not now do what you used to speak of? -will you not make up your mind what part of them you will use, and begin to write the book which will make your vast knowledge useful to the world? I will write to your diction, or I will copy and extract what you tell me: I can be no other use” (p. 183).

It seems that Dorothea has changed a lot, their marriage turning into a tragedy. The reader may make an interpretative judgment that Dorothea has changed because it is not Mr. Casaubon who doesn’t love her. Instead he tries all his utmost to please her but it doesn’t work at all. She accuses herself that “her feeling of desolation was the fault of her own spiritual poverty” (p. 180). The question also disturbs the reader because on the one hand, they have the common interest in reading, whilst on the other hand, her admiration for him can strengthen their relationship. It is
reasonable for readers to believe that they will end up living together happily. However, it is not the case as expected by the reader. The narrator says that “I am sorry to add that she was sobbing bitterly”, “nor can I suppose that when Mrs. Casaubon is discovered in a fit of weeping six weeks after her wedding, the situation will be regarded as tragic” (p. 180).

The voice of narrator is clear that their marriage is not perfect. She feels “depressed”, and “the large vistas and wide fresh air which she had dreamed of finding in her husband’s mind were replaced by anterooms and winding passages which seemed to lead no whither” (p. 183). The illusion before the marriage is broken. The narrator goes on saying that Mr. Casaubon is “as genuine a character as any ruminant animal”, and he does not “assist in creating any illusions about himself” (p. 183). The narrator’s judgment is:

“I suppose it was that in courtship everything is regarded as provisional and preliminary, and the smallest sample of virtue or accomplishment is taken to guarantee delightful stores which the broad leisure of marriage will reveal. But the door-sill of marriage once crossed, expectation is concentrated on the present. Having once embarked on your marital voyage, it is impossible not to be aware that you make no way and that the sea is not within sight—that, in fact, you are exploring an enclosed basin” (p. 183).

This is the narrator’s judgment on Dorothea’s marriage and readers also have their own judgments. Readers may make the interpretative judgment that the huge gap between them is masked by Dorothea’s ignorance and innocence. Dorothea is so ardent, thus desiring to assist her husband to carry out his ambition, which enables, in a way, them to go through the first crisis of happiness. However, what Dorothea requires is the warm tenderness that Casaubon cannot give. Dorothea’s unhappiness during the honeymoon is not based on the fault of Casaubon but for the sake her inner desires and emotional needs. In the narrator’s eye, Dorothea’s reaction is understandable as she is just one representative of married women. Before the marriage, the expectation is promising, while within the marriage it turns out into something that is not the same as expected. The reader can also make a judgment that she has made a wrong decision. Furthermore, the reader will guess that their marriage will encounter trouble. Monika (2013) observes that “though George Eliot’s novelistic oeuvre is generally credited with the authoritative tone and rational tidiness of the omniscient narrative judgment, each of which has the potential to overlap with each other. The narrator doesn’t disclose all the reasons why Dorothea feels depressed and hence readers have to imagine other possibilities, which presumably is the magic power of literature. According Robyn Warhol, not all facts need to be told and can be told. Based on Gerald Prince’s definition of the narratable, Robyn Warhol(2013) provides his definition of un-narratability, dividing it into four types: “Sub-narratable” (what need not to be told because it is too obvious or boring), “Super-narratable” (what cannot be told because it is ineffable or inexpressible), “Anti-narratable” (what should not be told because of trauma or taboo), “Para-narratable” (what would not [yet] be told because of literary conventions) (Warhol, 2013, p. 49). He further provides evidences that plenty of actions that are supposed to have happened in her story world are anti-narratable: “Eliot never dramatizes sex scenes so that Arthur Donnithorne’s seduction of Hetty or Lydgate and Rosamond’s wedding night are left entirely to the imagination of those among her readers who want to think about it” (Warhol, 2013, p. 50). The narrator almost jumps to their marriage and hardly any bodily scene or sexual description can be read in the story world. It is a commonplace for Victorian novelist, which seems to be a literary taboo. The reason is that “for Victorian novelists the anti-narratable shades over into the para-narratable, which is a taboo in the nineteenth-century fiction such as sex or the physical effects of overindulgence in drinks” (Robyn Warhol, 2013, p. 52). Like her contemporaries, George Eliot employs both “un-narration” and “dis-narration” to indicate elements of her story world that her narrator can’t or won’t narrate, but “the implied author is not willing to leave entirely unremarked” (Ibid: 53). The narrator authoritatively arranges the plot, which influences readers’ judgment. Phelan mentions three main types of narrative judgment, each of which has the potential to overlap with each other. The suspense the narrator makes is the source of surprises. Question like how could Dorothea with good-looking appearance and virtuous qualities not marry sets suspense for the reader. Bearing the suspense in mind, the reader will also naturally predict what kind of man will be suitable for her. However, with the development of the plot, the reader will make a judgment that she has her own particularity and even though Sir James is fantastic and promising, she does not like him at all. The narrator gives the complimentary reason:

How should Dorothea not marry? – a girl so handsome and with such prospects? Nothing could hinder it but her love of extremes, and her insistence on regulating life according to notions which might cause a wary man to hesitate before he made her an offer, or even might lead her at last to refuse all offers (p. 9).

The judgment of narrator wields great influence on readers’ judgment. Even though Mr. Casaubon is old and ugly according to Celia’s view, Dorothea still likes her. Despite the difference of appearance and age between Sir James and Casaubon, Dorothea’s preference is self-evident. As a result, when she is aware of that Mr. Casaubon desires to make her wife for him, she accepts the offer without much hesitation. The opposed suggestion of Dorothea’s family members and relatives also makes suspense that whether the imprudent decision of marriage will end up with expected results. The reader again needs to join the process of active reading, making a guess.

Thirdly, the spiteful will of Casaubon invokes controversial comments. The marriage between Dorothea and Casaubon encounters numerous obstacles. The first obstacle is Dorothea’s broken illusion about ideal marriage with a well-learned scholar; The second barrier is Casaubon’s worsening health with a heart problem; The third fence is Dorothea’s repressed affection towards Will Ladislaw. All these factors contribute to Casaubon’s spiteful will. It is
reasonably for readers to make interpretative judgment that Mr. Casaubon is very jealous of Will because of his youth and vigor. Therefore, firstly he forbids Will's appearance in his house. Then after the death, he leaves a spiteful will demanding Dorothea's loyalty to him, especially not marrying Will for the rest of her life. However, the surprise is that Dorothea renounces all the wealth, determined to get married with Will even though again all her family members are against her decision for she is so insane to abandon the huge amount of wealth. The narrator's apparent judgment can be seen from the title of "The Dead Hand" demonstrating clearly that the implied author's critical attitude towards Casaubon's disgusting behavior. Readers can also make the interpretative judgment that Dorothea will abandon the wealth, running to the arms of Will Ladislaw. Therefore, it is not surprising that Will Ladislaw and Dorothea will finally live together happily with a decent life albeit waiving the money left by her husband. The dynamic between the narrator and the implied reader of Middlemarch is more complicated than the un-narration implies. The judgment of the narrator and the implied author exerts fundamental influence on readers' interpretative judgment. The surprises arranged by the narrator's narrative enable the reader to better appreciate the high skill of narration. The construction of meaning involves the participation of the narrator, characters and every individual reader.

III. ETHICAL JUDGMENT

According to Phelan, ethical judgment is about the moral value of characters and actions (Phelan, 2007, p. 9). A simple version of ethical judgment can be “good guy” or “bad guy” of certain individual character in the literary works. More complicated version of ethical judgment may involve more emotions and feelings such as sympathy, anger, resentment, to name just a few. In Middlemarch the issue of will is a central topic that arouses the judgement of moral values. In this part, I will attempt to focus on the issue of Casaubon’s will, delving into how the narrator attracts readers’ attention and make ethical judgment.

To begin with, from the very beginning, readers make the interpretative judgment that their marriage is bound to be a failure and the matter is just the time. The appearance of Will Ladislaw is bound to destroy their marriage life. The triangle love affair, however, does not conform to the convention in Victorian Era and thus the death of Casaubon is therefore bound to happen. In this way, two young people can come together naturally and legitimately. George Eliot herself also has similar experience of living unmarried with a German with gossip and wicked comments from the society. The version of story in the novel is indebted to the author’s own experience in some senses. Besides, the issue of Casaubon's last will turns into the main controversial topic in the whole story, invoking a sense of fury and disappointment. Readers feel surprised that such a reverent scholar as Casaubon could make such indecent will. The last will like death hands from the grave grab the legs of living creature. Elizabeth (2013) comments on this that “the codicil to his will disinherits Dorothea if ever she marries Will, but he seems to have persuaded himself that this codicil is a sign of protectiveness rather than vindictiveness” (Elizabeth, 2013, p. 431). Both the narrator and the reader will make their own ethical judgments and presumably they may overlap at times as the former’s narration may influence the latter’s judgment. When Dorothea learns of the truth of her husband’s last will, the narrator comments that “she might have compared her experience at that moment to the vague, alarmed consciousness that her life was taking on a new form, that she was undergoing a metamorphosis in which memory would not adjust itself to the stirring of new organs” (p. 461). The feeling of frustration and disappointment is natural for Dorothea as she never expects her husband to perform in such disgusting manner. Borrowing Sir James's words, Casaubon's behavior is “abominable”, and “not like a gentleman” (p. 460). Upon hearing the news, “the blood rushed to Dorothea's face and neck painfully” (p. 460), which signals characters' ethical judgment. Caroline Levine (2013) observes that “Dorothea’s moment of surprise therefore delivers a dose of selfishness with its flash of insight- a self-protective withdrawal from Casaubon as well as a newly pleasurable kind of attachment to Will” (Levine, 2013, p. 70). Readers also make the ethical judgment that Mr. Casaubon’s will is completely out of jealousy and detrimental to Dorothea’s integrity and self-esteem. Furthermore, the moral judgment of wrong or right seems to be too simple and absolute because the issue is much more complicated than one thought. Instead, a tinge of sympathy might arise in our inner heart when reading the narrative of the inner struggle of Casaubon. When Casaubon has a mini-stroke, he asks his doctor about his lifespan. His doctor tells him that he has a heart problem, and he might live for years or not. He begins to worry about his project, being jealous of the youth of Dorothea and Will. He knows that they will outlive him and thus he feels raged and out of control. It is the aging that he cannot conquer, which seems to be tragic. He holds the belief that “if I die … he will persuade her marry him … she cannot conquer, which seems to be tragical. He holds the belief that “if I die … he will persuade her marry him … she has a tendency to immediate attachment which she inwardly reproaches me for not responding to, and already her mind is occupied with his fortunes” (p. 395). Such inner struggle is reasonable and we probably even feel sympathetic with him. Finally, the narrator’s ethical judgment about Mr. Casaubon’s behavior is clear. In narrator’s view, Mr. Casaubon is jealous and cruel without any right to implant his moral obligation into Dorothea’s following life because she is not his property. Instead, she has her own freedom of choice to carry on her later life. The reader will also have the feeling of resentment, getting furious about his behavior. Therefore, the reader will expect Dorothea to break the bondage of her dead husband. It turns out that Dorothea gives up the wealth, choosing the love despite numerous oppositions from her family members. Dorothea’s choice has a sense of feminism and this ending can showcase that woman is not the property of man and their choice should be respected by man. According to James Phelan (2007), individual narratives explicitly or more often implicitly establish their own ethical standards in order to guide their audiences to particular ethical judgments. (Phelan, 2007, p. 10). Readers make ethical judgment that he is self-centered
and selfish based on Mr. Casaubon’s behavior of leaving a patriarchal will. Besides, he is a typical representative who disrespects woman’s freedom. This judgment of readers is, in a way, influenced by the narrator’s individual narrative. It reminds me of Ambrose Bierce’s short story “The Crimson Candle” that a dying man asks his wife to prove her affection and fidelity by preserving the crimson candle in his house. He says that as long as the candle exists in the world, her affection and fidelity to him will be everlasting. Surprisingly, his wife burns the candle at his deathbed. The story has certain similar implication with Mr. Casaubon’s last will. Both of men stretch their male-dominated hands to their wives, which is unjust and abnormal. The reader usually possesses negative impressions on this sort of character in the story, making negative ethical judgments on their behaviors.

IV. AESTHETIC JUDGMENT

The aesthetic judgment is “about the artistic quality of the narrative and of its parts” (Phelan, 2007, p. 9). The interpretative judgment and ethical judgment are closely linked to aesthetic judgment. The individual narrative or progression implicates the aesthetic value of the work. In Phelan’s view, “doing aesthetics from the inside out means identifying the nature of the work’s narrative project and analyzing the skill with which it executes that project” (Phelan, 2007, p. 3). In other words, the progression of the story is manipulated by the narrator and this technique management can fulfill the aesthetic ambition. In this part, I attempt to analyze how the author manipulates the narrative focalization and progression to achieve aesthetic level of judgment in *Middlemarch*. In the first place, the beginning part makes suspense about the relationship between Dorothea, James and Celia. The narrator creates an ideal match Sir James Chettam for Dorothea but she doesn’t like him at all. Instead, she chooses to get married with an old man Mr. Casaubon. The wrong interpretative judgment from Celia that her sister Dodo may compete with her to win the heart of James is the consequence of narrator’s misleading narrative. Celia says that “I am quite sure that Sir James means to make you an offer; and he believes that you will accept him, especially since you have been so pleased with about her plans”, and every one can see that “Sir James is very much in love with you” (p. 33). The narrative paves the way for the plot that Dorothea and Casaubon will become the following central topic. The narrative concept of “local instability” (Phelan 2007) between Celia and Dorothea is solved by the marriage of Casaubon and Dorothea. In the second place, narrator always depicts that Dorothea tends to repress her inner desire. Firstly, she represses her desire for the jewels. Secondly, she represses her desire for riding a horse catering to Casaubon’s taste. Thirdly, she represses her inner affection toward Will Ladislaw. She is always struggling for her personal desires. Before the day of Casaubon’s death, he asks Dorothea to carry out his wishes and avoid doing something that deprecates his reputation. She lays awake for the whole night to consider if she should promise to her husband, which evidences her inner self-repression and self-consciousness. Once again when Will Ladislaw comes to say goodbye, she does not confess her feeling. Instead, she encourages Will to go out, making himself the mark of world. She not only tortures herself for repressing inner affection but also irritates her lover for being rejected with hurt self-esteem. In the third place, the turning image of Casaubon is skillfully manipulated by the narrator. The initial part portrays the image of Casaubon who seems at the first glance to be incapable of writing a spiteful will. The image of Casaubon is positive at the first glimpse, being a single well-learned, middle-aged scholar. He reflects on himself “my mind is something like the ghost of an ancient, wandering about the world, trying mentally to construct it as it used to be, in spite of ruin and confusing changes” (p. 16-17). He is not only indifferent to money but as a matter fact generous to his poor relatives. Thus, it is unlikely that he can leave such spiteful Will. Casaubon is aware of the fact that their marriage is threatened by the friendship of Will Ladislaw and thus he brusquely corrects several people who assume Will to be his “nephew” and rejects Dorothea’s suggestion that Will come for a visit, giving the pretext that he is quite busy. Narrator observes “Mr. Casaubon, indeed, had not thoroughly represented his jealousy to himself; irritated feeling with him as with all of us, seeking rather justification than self-knowledge” (p. 309). The enviousness and irritation, step by step, strengthen Casaubon’s determination that he has to make a will that disinherits Dorothea if she gets married with Will Ladislaw. His tragedy mainly lies in that he cannot control his aging process and the maturity of Dorothea. On the one hand, his health is worsening, devouring his dignity. On the other hand, Dorothea comes to realize that her inner desire and the spiteful will can just worsen the situation.

Finally, the duration of progression demonstrates narrator’s high level of narrative. Firstly, in the book I, it is surprising that the protagonist Will Ladislaw is just mentioned once so that the reader will never think about any relation between this young man and Dorothea. The focus is on Miss Dorothea and the narrator just tells other plots in the novel, seemingly ignoring the relationship between Dorothea and Will Ladislaw. The reader desires to know the following story but narrator instead concentrates on other subplots. Secondly, before the truth of Casaubon’s will really unfolds to Dorothea, the narrator arranges Celia as the passenger-carrier, slowly unfolding the whole truth. Sir James’s comments on Casaubon lead to Dorothea’s own interpretative and ethical judgment on her husband’s behavior. Thirdly, the relationship between Will Ladislaw and Dorothea is skillfully manipulated by the narrator. Their first meeting happens in Rome where Dorothea spends her honeymoon with her husband. Since the encounter, Dorothea feels the relationship between Will Ladislaw and Dorothea is skillfully manipulated by the narrator. Laying a foundation for the break of the marriage but it takes a lot of time to
arrive at that point. Before Dorothea decides to get married with Will Ladislaw, breaking the yoke of wrong marriage, a mistaken affair is arranged again. Dorothea assumes that Will Ladislaw has an affair with Mrs. Ladygate, getting offended, whilst Will cannot ascertain her real affection to him, thus hesitating to make forward movement. Before they really come together, the narrator arranges a series of events that suspend the final result. After the death of Mr. Casaubon, Will and Dorothea do not perform in any disrespectful manner. Thus, it takes great patience for the reader to find out the result. These arrangements are trivial but necessary because their relation needs time to justify moral conventions. In this case, the reader participates in constructing the story. After a series of interventions, they finally get married. The reader can predict the result that Dorothea and Will will sooner or later marry. The happy ending satisfies readers’ expectation and the aesthetic judgement is achieved by the intended narrative progression. Dorothea and Will Ladislaw are similar to Elizabeth and Mr. Darcy in Jane Austin’s *Pride and Prejudice* as their narrative progression is quite similar. The suspense made by the narrator in the story helps accomplish the aesthetical value of fiction and the reader can make final aesthetical judgment.

V. CONCLUSION

The analysis of interpretative, ethical and aesthetic judgment in *Middlemarch* can enable us to obtain a better understanding of George Eliot’s work and her implied judgments. These three judgments are not isolated and instead they overlap and inter-influence each other. If the narrative in the story is static, then the reader’s judgment is dynamic as every individual is not fixed with distinct background. The individual character, narrator and the reader all make interpretative, ethical judgments about the events in the story world and this kind of collaborative effect between the implied author and the reader can help achieve the accomplishment of aesthetic judgment. Just as Phelan (1996) observes that “somebody telling somebody else on some occasion and for some purpose that something happened” (Phelan, 1996, p. 218), “somebody”, “somebody else”, “some purpose” are essential parts of story world. The readerly response plays a significant part in constructing the meaning and understanding the literary works. Bringing individual reader’s background information from real life into constructing the meaning in the fictional world is natural. In a nutshell, the rhetoric narrative is one of crucial tools to understand the structure of the fiction. James Phelan’s theory pays heed to the reader’s response and by means of analyzing author’s narrative progression, the value of the fiction can be better explored and the role of the reader is more constructive in understanding the fiction itself.

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The Roles of Communicative Language Mechanisms in Occupational Health and Safety Milieu in Reducing Workplace Hazards

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Abstract—Workplace safety communication plays an integral role in the day to day running of any organisation. The policies and procedures tend to provide a worker with the highest level of performance that is expected in terms of the output. Effective communication mechanisms are highly critical to ascertain the level of safety measures in order to achieve support and cooperation in maintaining an injury-free working milieu. Hence, communicative language mechanisms are needed to complement the technical and practical safety of all the workers. Unambiguous constructive safety communication mechanisms will lead to an improvement towards knowledge and fathoming of preventative measures that would enhance workplace safety practices. Thus, this study sought to highlight the occupational health and safety communicative language mechanisms, whereby the examples to illustrate the variety of safety communication has been analysed from a case study. The output of the research states that communicative language mechanisms in occupational health and safety (OHS), health and safety environment (HSE) tend to provide a better working environment, which can be considered as a conducive tool to avoid unwanted injuries and also to comprehend complicated occupational health and safety technical jargons.

Index Terms—language mechanisms, occupational health and safety (OHS), health and safety environment (HSE), communication strategies, communication barriers, hazards

I. INTRODUCTION

Communication tends to allow people to interact with each other purposively and cooperate as one so that a consensus is reached to avoid any sort of unwanted workplace injuries. The paramount reason for health, safety and environment’s (HSE) objectives are to make the workers aware of the hazardous encounters that may arise from a misconception of occupational health and safety protocols. While communicating about the facets of safety communication whether it will have any influence on the workers or not, the language mechanism will determine the acceptance or rejection of the protocols. However, those who are infants and working as trainees may be having a lot of problems in comprehending the safety measures of an organisation. Hence, an atmosphere of safe behaviours through simple communicative instructions will oversee that fewer workers are involved in unprecedented injuries and a conducive working environment is created.

In the day to day interactions between the workers of an organisation, the occupational health and safety sentient people play an integral role in overseeing the probable hazards. According to Lavy et al., (2010), language difficulties mainly create a barrier towards effective communication, which in most instances leads to misunderstanding, confusion and other ineffective communication-related issues. This is mainly experienced through mediated communications via emails, text messages, telephones, written instructions and so forth. The technical and non-technical aspects of problems and issues experienced by workers, including the OHS/HSE personnel foreshadows a challenging task of dealing with workplace safety cultures. It is believed that the process of safety communication involves sound language mechanisms, as it involves higher management authorities and individuals at a lower level of the workplace. This becomes more challenging when multiple groups of people are involved.

Many organisations employ workers to meet the production demands, however, they fail to realise the imperativeness of their part in informing the occupational health and safety guidelines to them. In many of the instances, communication barriers cause such problems of not imparting the occupational health and safety guidelines due to the level of education of the workers. As asserted by Booth (1993), the minimisation of workplace injuries can be achieved through having the right attitudes, competencies and patterned behaviour of the organisation and workers. Subsequently, this will also assist the organisation in committing towards workplace health and safety, which will create an ambiance of injury-free production for the organisation. Hence, this paper will delve into the communicative mechanisms of
occupational health and safety language and how it could contribute towards a reduction in hazards.

II. LITERATUR REVIEW

In any given organisation the optimistic culture of the communicative mechanism is sufficed by the founding of mutual trust and shared ideologies between the workers and organisation. It is further supplemented by efficacy and confidence towards all the preventative measures that could trigger any sort of workplace accidents. Engaging in effective communication and providing consultations at work is highly crucial towards achieving a safer working environment. This is imperative to reduce the hazards and control risks so that the attitudes and behaviour of the workers could be reconsidered for a safer working environment. According to table 1 given on the next page, the communication elements sought to provide strategies in achieving optimistic safety culture (Geller, 1998; Reason, 2002; Comcare, 2004; Hopkins, 2005).

An organisation that practices two-way communication should be providing its workers with pertinent information regarding risks and hazards, which should be in association with the organisation’s structural operation concerning workplace safety matters. More so, the organisation should also be giving attention to the grievances of its workers and provide authentic solutions to them. According to Wilkins (2011), it is strongly believed that workers are going to contribute towards greater productivity if there is going to be a proper framework for communications. The framework should be embedded with simple communicative measures that would allow the workers to comprehend the language of occupational health and safety, which could prepare them for possible hazards and near-miss mishaps. Engaging workers in an organisation’s decision-making processes regarding occupational health and safety culture would create mutual understanding.

To add on, communicative language mechanism is defined as the approach of using language that dwells upon the communicative competence of its users (Cannale, 1983; Cook, 2013; Littlewood and William, 1981 and Rivers, 1986). According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), the communicative learning mechanism emphasises the goal of language learning communicative competence. On the other hand, Littlewood (1981) explains that, “one of the most characteristics features of communicative language learning is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view”. In the occupational health and safety context, the language of instruction plays an integral role in conceptualising the contents of hazards and other related aspects of it. The communicative approach uniquely defines the individual needs of the workers.

Additionally, consultation and communication at the workplace are crucial towards achieving a safe working ambiance, which is only possible through giving and receiving information that includes risk controls and hazards that influences behaviour and attitudes in building ownership and commitment (Geller, 2001). In terms of two-way communication, the management tends to provide workers with pertinent information on risks and hazards that are associated with the company’s operations in building an understanding regarding how safety at the workplace should be practiced through effective communication. The organisations are expected to listen to the worker’s concern and act on it using the most effective way of communication (Sherry and Nancy, 2003). Workers are going to contribute effectively in a working environment that is going to provide a framework for correct means of consultation and communication.

Moreover, involving the workers during employer and employee discussions in regards to incidents of hazards and near misses would allow them to accomplish mutual goals. As claimed by Standards Australia (2001), this will lead to worker involvement in decision-making processes and responding to the concerns and demands of the organisation. This would further lead to sustainability and will minimise workplace hazards that will increase production without any workplace injuries. To date, scant literature has revealed not much investigation into communicative language mechanisms and its repercussions on workplace hazards and injuries (Kim et al., 2008; Lijie et al., 2012; and Kaskutas et al., 2013). It is further asserted that workplace safety communication is not about the processes of negotiating safety information, in fact, it is about influencing the behaviour of employees by changing their attitudes towards hazards.

As asserted by Alica (2009), an accident is defined as an unforeseen incident that is caused by an unconscious state. Organisations that are involved in highly hazardous activities such as in construction, aviation, medical, production plants to name a few are always leading compared to all other industries (Qureshi, 2007). However, it has been argued that it is almost impossible to avoid accidents from happening in high-risk industries (Lyneis and Madnick, 2008). The literature has revealed that every year around 2 million workers lose their lives in high-risk enduring jobs and around 270 million get involved in occupational accidents, while 160 million occupational diseases happen worldwide yearly (Hamid et al., 2008). As acclaimed by (Rahim et al., 2014), workplace accidents persistently tend to be quandary and is seen as a huge challenge for organisations to manage it. As such, to avoid accidents from happening at the workplace, managerial personnel are devoting an extra bit of effort to effectively improve workplace accidents each day every day (Wu et al., 2007).

According to Geller (2005), an organisation’s safety culture is determined by the frequent communication that takes place between the employer and workers. Effective safety communication is guaranteed to provide affection on worker’s behavior that would allow them to create an injury-free workplace, for example, practicing safety performance while operating heavy machines (Michael et al., 2006). However, when it comes to miscommunication, it usually takes place amongst the workers, particularly between upper-class management and employees. This arises due to the
negaclion of constructive safety communication during working hours, which could be implying the absence of good safety culture not being practiced in the organisation (Conchie et al., 2013). Hence, the table below depicts the safety culture communication mechanism that is required to reduce workplace injuries:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Safety Culture Mechanisms</th>
<th>Communication Elements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assigning methods to control hazards.</td>
<td>Everyone in the organisation is expected to show support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing commitment towards minimising risks and hazards during operations and practicing compliance of safety and legislation.</td>
<td>Displaying employer’s commitment, expectations and values; Monitoring and supervising the works that are performed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workers tend to contribute more effectively to an organisation that is practicing the culture of the corporation.</td>
<td>Assessing competency level and providing feedback based on HSE; Motivating, recognising and rewarding workers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workers must be given the required information including training to broaden existing knowledge of workers and gaining new skills for HSE.</td>
<td>Providing finer instructions on how to use safety equipment and materials at all levels of work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workers are most likely to contribute to an environment that promotes intercommunication and consultations.</td>
<td>Conducting meetings to address issues concerning hazards and risks during operational procedures of HSE.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

So much so, the safety culture related to communication mechanisms has become an imperative domain in safety management, particularly in high-risk areas such as maritime, aviation, medical field and others (Reiman and Rollenhagen, 2014). Presently, safety culture at the workplace is influenced by the lack of communication mechanisms, which contributes to some major hazardous activities. Therefore, managerial level post holders are expected to cultivate an optimistic safety cultural atmosphere to eradicate workplace injuries (Mullen et al., 2011).

As stated by Vecchino-Sadus and Griffiths (2004), there are a few examples of safety communication. In most instances, the common ways for internal communication include the presentation of information to senior management personnel of OHS/HSE through noticeboards, memorandums, team meetings, emails, reports and other mediated communications. It is highly crucial for the information that is to be presented must be simple and straightforward so that the end-users can fathom it properly and fully (Preece and Stockings, 1999). So much so, communication types in occupational health and safety including communication sources need to be precisely justified. This would assist the workers to comprehend the instructions well and avoid any hazardous injuries or near-miss tragedies. Below is the list of mediums, which concerns communication mechanisms in occupational health and safety context.

### III. COMMUNICATION MEDIANS IN OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH AND SAFETY

#### A. Policies, Strategic Plans and OHS Mission Statements

The occupational health and safety policies and mission statements are going to help define the safety procedures while justifying the instructions of workplace hazards in any given circumstances. These documents can spell out the priorities and objectives that could be used as a guiding tool in minimising injuries and accidents. All these documents should be given to workers on the first day of work so that thorough knowledge is given to all regarding OHS/HSE. In general, these documents are to be considered as a paramount document that should not be treated as subservient pages complied as a typical user manual.

#### B. Checklists, Manuals and Operating Procedures

Organisations’ safety guiding documents such as checklists, manuals and other operating procedures are seen as consolidated rules and requirements that would assist the workers in minimising injuries and hazards. Checklist tools could be used for inspecting machines and other operating devices that would assist the workers in preventing workplace accidents. If not checked well, it could lead to miscommunication and an increase in reported hazards. Placing of maintenance logbook beside the machines would provide regular reminders regarding servicing of the machines. The operational procedures would give kind advice on safe work practices. In brief, the lock-out of fault equipment and work in progress can communicate a greater deal of workplace injuries that can cause workers to put their lives at stake. Therefore, it is highly pivotal to take all the precautionary measures in ensuring that all the machines are in workable condition and it does not pose any risk to workers. More so, the workers should equally adhere to all the operating procedures so that the checklists, manuals and other operating procedures do not go futile.

#### C. Safety Inductions

Conducting safety inductions for all recruits through OHS/HSE supervisors on emergency procedures and other pertinent information would lead to a greater awareness of potential hazards that could be encountered if a worker is
oblivious of workplace safety issues. This will surely make the workers realise the detrimental effects of not following the OHS/HSE compliance and neglecting what is being given to them in black and white.

D. OHS/HSE Statistics

Organisations can communicate better with their workers through the performance of medical treatments, lost times, severity and incident rates, compensation rates and key performing indicators. These could be considered to be used to facilitate constant and consistent accountability in enhancing the line manager’s role to achieve the organisation’s OHS/HSE objectives, hence the workers would be well informed with the statistics and they can reflect on it.

E. Risk Assessments

Any worker who is working for an organisation is highly susceptible to risk factors without even realising it. Hazards such as chemical spillage, extreme temperatures and moving parts tend to communicate immediate threats to injuries. However, in many instances, the injuries that exist within a workplace cannot be perceived always, for example, gases that are highly toxic and has no odour. A risk assessment could assist in identifying potential hazards on people and the environment by assessing the magnitude of the potential hazards and controlling it through proper mitigations.

F. Pieces of Training

Training is considered to be a proactive approach in responding to loopholes, which requires to target highly vulnerable workers through a reactive approach and adjust the mindset of risks (Lages et al., 2008). This training will not only assist the workers in the workplace but at the same time away from the workplace as well. This includes workplace stress, personal fitness, proper hygiene and many others. To inculcate optimistic behaviour and attitude towards OHS/HSE, programs should be designed proactively with staff needs in mind. Workplace safety methods should engage workers in raising worker awareness to make them realise their true expectations towards OHS/HSE.

G. Near Misses, Hazards and Accidents

Communicating the results of hazards and accident investigation tends to demonstrate the commitment of the management in addressing and identifying underlying causes to prevent any future incidents from taking place. The involvement of workers in suggesting ways and strategies in reducing workplace injuries would encourage them to take ownership of minimising the injuries and suggest some highly effective strategies. As such, it is highly crucial to create awareness for an injury-free workplace so that the environment becomes conducive to work and production is achieved.

H. Safety Week Awareness

Workplace safety awareness week will promote a healthier and happier working ambiance by creating awareness within the workers regarding workplace communications about OHS. This kind of awareness could be considered as an excellent platform to showcase health and safety to its optimum. Activities such as video presentations, seminars, evacuation drills, medical health checkups, trade shows and promotional competitions would surely keep the workers on their toes to avoid any or all sorts of workplace injuries.

IV. THE COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Barriers to Effective Communication

In any walk of life, communication plays an integral role which is undoubtedly essential to be developed in all areas. No matter how good the communication system is or how well it is formed, barriers to effective communication will always be a major concern to address (Kapur, 2018). Hence, communication in occupational health and safety involves informing, advising, train, warn, direct, criticise, seek help, motivate, reassure, question, acknowledge and complain. Typically, communication that involves benefit or threat is generally absorbed better by the end-users. As stated by Cole (2000), barriers to effective communication could be due to many reasons, such as, not giving full attention to details, lack of knowledge on particular information, not elucidating goals and priorities precisely, selective listening, self-image, lack of empathy, prejudices, stereotypes, varied perception about risks, inability to explore alternative solutions, preconceived ideologies and weak judgments. Also, barriers could occur through mediated communication. For instance, extensive use of emails could desensitise many workers to safety messages, which will have a greater impact on the overall state of the workers.

V. TYPES OF BARRIERS IN OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH AND SAFETY COMMUNICATION

A. Environmental and Physical Barriers

In totality, there are four types of barriers that can be categorised under environmental and physical communication barriers. Firstly, the time which one would require to respond to hazards and injuries that could occur at the workplace. Secondly, the unwanted space which creates the rift between the workers and management needs to be eliminated, as it may lead to communication breakdown. The environment in which communication takes place between the workers and organisation need not have to be overcrowded. Only those who are supposed to be addressed should be called so that the message is imparted effectively and specifically to them. Finally, the medium that is going to be used to deliver
the intended information or message should be effective and appropriate. Whether it be through video, written, oral, informal, or formal, the medium that will be used for communication purposes should be precise, accurate and fathomable. In this manner, the target message that needs to be imparted to the workers will be delivered to them effectively and cautiously to minimise any workplace injuries or near misses.

B. Psychological/Emotional Barriers

In the process of communication, it is highly pivotal to understand all the worker’s emotional sentiments and mental capacity, as this would define their abilities and disabilities in performing a particular task. If a worker is communicating with another or a group of workers with an attitude of disinterest or in an ignorant manner, then the process of communication is surely going to be ineffective and meaningless. In this sense, it could be perceived that the attitude and manner of the workers engaged in communication are inappropriate for making the communication effective. Subsequently, the communication largely depends on the worker’s mental condition, therefore, if a worker is not mentally or emotionally sound, then he/she cannot be communicating effectively either a receiver or sender of the message. Further breaking down the psychological barrier, there are six different types of it:

C. Semantic Barrier

While communicating with other workers, no matter what kind of medium is utilised, whether informal or formal, it is imperative to use appropriate vocabulary, language and all other kinds of communication skills that should reflect the decency of the communicators. The language and vocabulary that is ought to be used for communication purposes should be fathomable to the communicators. For example, at a typical construction company, a worker only speaks his/her first language and a word is used in a second language, then he/she may or may not fathom that word. Where there is an engagement in communication by two or more groups of people, one common language should be used so that all can understand, as this could avoid misunderstanding during working hours at work. This will minimise the misunderstanding between workers, as they all will be using one common medium of instruction.

D. Perception of Reality

During engaged communication, it is crucial to fathom a repertoire of perceptions of situations or of issues and problems. At any given workplace milieu, there will be a varied level of perceptions that involves communication about a particular topic, issue, situation, dilemma, condition, concept or stress. Considering all these and more, lacking a thorough understanding of varied levels of perceptions could be proven to be a barrier. As such, to implement effective ways of communication, it is, therefore, crucial to gain the sense of perception of reality, which simply looks into the information about knowledge, ideologies, figures, facts and actuality. During an engaged communication, there should be openness, flexibility and transparency.

E. Cultural Barriers

At any workplace, communication does not take place between two or more similar races, religions and nationalities it takes place between people from different ethnic groups, cultures, religions and races, etc. In other words, when two workers will be communicating at a workplace, there will surely be cultural differences, therefore, it is paramount to overcome this cultural barrier that might ignite misconceptions at the workplace. More imperatively, it is equally pivotal to raise awareness about cultural integrity at workplaces and how it would benefit those, whom one is communicating to. At workplaces, workers need to appreciate each other’s culture so that it could not be seen as a detrimental factor in working with people from different cultural backgrounds.

Moreover, the imperativeness of communication mechanism in occupational health and safety could only be valued if the workers tend to perceive an open safety communication at their workplace (Neal et al., 2000). Lack of safety communication mechanisms would lead to inadvertent near misses and hazards in the organisation. According to Chen and Chen (2013), an upward safety communication mechanism is highly crucial to avoid adverse safety events being experienced in an organisation. The result of this would be that effective safety communication mechanisms between the organisation and workers would become an issue of importance, thus workplace injuries and near misses would be minimised (Clarke, 2006). Factually, frequently discussing workplace hazards to minimise injuries and near misses can be noted as an acknowledgment to workers in highlighting visible commitment towards OHS/HSE requirements.
Generally, safety communication mechanisms have not only shown a reduction in the possibility of workers to take apt actions during critical moments but it has also caused safety performance in the organisation to further deteriorate (Michael et al., 2006; Kines et al., 2010; Maxfield et al., 2011). As stated by Maxfield (2001), having a communication breakdown in an organisation could be taken as an honest mistake and not to be discussed. For example, illegible handwriting, label and hazard notices that are confusing, difficult accents of line supervisors and managers (particularly expatriates) and other language barriers. All these tend to result in continued unsafe work acts at the workplace (Alsamadani et al., 2012). Although research has shown that lack of communication mechanisms is directly related to the safety of worker’s health at the workplace (Lesch, 2005; Buckley, 2010; Donahue et al., 2012), there is still a lot of attention required to be given to worker’s through effective communication mechanisms (Laughry, 2006; Kines et al., 2010).

More so, the safety culture communication mechanisms have presently become the crucial domain in any workplace safety management system. This could be seen in the construction industry, aviation, maritime, medical sector and road transport to name a few (Reiman and Rollenhagen, 2014). Presently, safety culture at the workplace had been recognised as one of the foremost contributing factors to near misses, accidents and injuries (Amirah et al., 2013). Therefore, it is the sole responsibility of the organisation to foster positive workplace safety culture through a good communicative mechanism system so that there are minimal workplace injuries and other related mishaps. According to Wu et al., (2010), the common sets of OHS/HSE aims, objectives and values would define and guide workplace injuries and near misses by minimising it.

VI. LANGUAGE AND VOCABULARY OF OCCUPATIONAL HEALTH & SAFETY

What matters the most when it comes to language and vocabulary of occupational and safety is how the intended communication or message is supposed to be conveyed to the workers. The choosing of language and vocabulary could have an insightful influence on the overall outcome of safety communication mechanisms (Cole, 2000). How the organisation is going to communicate with their workers would be determined by the word choices and vocabulary. Though it could be agreed that in blue-collar professions many line managers, supervisor’s and sometimes workers tend to use “decent language”, despite this, communication should always be effective and authentic. Workers should be given all the privilege to express themselves openly so that no one is unheard or unseen from organisations perception.

**Table 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pessimistic Phrase</th>
<th>Optimistic Phrase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You are always having problems.</td>
<td>We need better solutions for you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You have to fulfill the requirements.</td>
<td>Work will be designed according to their needs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are creating a nuisance.</td>
<td>Reduce your noise level, please.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Representatives have demanded…</td>
<td>Management Representatives have made a decision.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensure workers are there during the meeting…</td>
<td>Ensure workers feel included during the meeting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worker can’t understand the OHS procedures written on the wall because he is uneducated.</td>
<td>Worker understands vernacular language only, therefore safety procedures should be explained to him accordingly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Workplace accidents are less now.</td>
<td>Workplace safety has improved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Too much information is being communicated all at once.</td>
<td>We have to work on communication barriers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your safety instructions are confusing.</td>
<td>Can you please rephrase your instructions?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are such a mess.</td>
<td>You require better housing keeping methods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I want an earmuff.</td>
<td>I’d like to have an earmuff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Send me the OHS audit report.</td>
<td>Could you send me the OHS report?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are wrong about the procedure for the fire drill.</td>
<td>You might be mistaken about the fire drill procedure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are bad at handling safety equipment.</td>
<td>You need to use your safety equipment carefully.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You are critising all the time.</td>
<td>You can express your views freely.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the examples given above, it could be stated that based on the commands from the top-level management, feedback to the responses from the workers is highly crucial as an optimistic and pessimistic response could have an influential behaviour at the workplace. Effective and straightforward feedback needs to be provided to the workers with objective words (Rivers, 2007). Using subjective language and ambiguous words could be counterproductive, which can live the workers in utter limbo and frustration. For instance, statements like this, “It implies to me that you are careless, unaware and lazy”. A Statement like this only adds resentment and low self-esteem to the behavioral message, which demoralises the workers in long run (Geller, 1996).

A. Criticisms and Complains

In any organisation, the OHS/HSE officers can face a great deal of resistance in enforcing and changing existing workplace rules and regulations. What matters the most is the outcome and reaction of the workers concerning the implementation of those rules and regulations. The examples given below demonstrate the lack of cooperation and frustration elicited by workers:
An organisation is a place where many people are more sensitive than others. As such, many do not like the negative criticisms being provided to them. When highlighting errors for unsafe work practices and other work-related matters, workers are indefinitely going to come up with excuses to defend themselves when interrogated. However, as stated by Geller (1998), communicating to the workers by showing some valid points for errors and suggesting solutions to prevent it in the future will surely have a long-lasting impact on taking all the criticisms healthily. Translating all the negative feedbacks and criticisms into specific requests will create a lesser misunderstanding between the workers and the organisation.

To gain effective cooperation from the workers, it is highly crucial to use communication that involves specification and optimistic language rather than generalisations. For example, “why”, “somebody should”, “it would assist me to”, “if you could/would”. Also, using non-inflammatory and non-judgmental phrases like, “I perceive…”, “it implies to me…”, etc. According to Rivers (2007), a reiteration of subject matters that communicates nothing but personal attacks between workers and supervisors will most likely create a rift between the two. Identification and rectification on common grounds of mutual understanding will solve the problem of miscommunication.

Subsequently, due to misunderstanding and rift being aroused between the workers and organisation, this leaves the workers to be more vulnerable to being rebellious, which would later lead to serious repercussions being conspired from their end towards the organisation. In many instances, workers start to be ignorant of their line managers and supervisors, thus favorable working milieu is rarely created at the workplace. Therefore, it is highly pivotal for the organisation to hear out to its workers and work out reasonable solutions to their problems.

**B. Questions and Interrogations**

In occupational health and safety, closed question tags (such as yes or no) tend to have an impediment on doubts, while probing questions would provide more justified and open responses from the workers pertaining to specified subject matters. In other words, we tend to ask questions of ‘how’ which addresses the prospective future actions and ‘why’ for retrospective actions. In the field of occupational health and safety, the ‘how’ interrogative word becomes useful in seeking elucidations of a particular work procedure, which is less confronting in asking ‘why’ questions. In an incidental investigation, ‘why’ questions assist in identifying causes rather than engaging workers in blaming each other. The workers also need to be mindful that their attitude towards the workplace would determine their long-term career prospects with the organisation. The better the attitude of the workers, the more chances for professional growth would be experienced by the workers.

Nonetheless, in many other circumstances, a repeated asking of ‘why’ tends to identify many other related chains of causes that would vary from one situation to another, which may contribute towards unsafe behaviour expositied from the workers (Geller, 2002). The table below shows the ‘why’ usage more than two times, which precisely indicates the fundamental issues for further interrogation of a particular problem. More imperatively, in many of the instances highly effective communication is vital towards the development of optimistic safety culture at the workplace. Developing and implementing communication mechanisms and informing the respective stakeholders regarding what needs to be known about workplace safety issues would create a clearer understanding between the organisation and workers (www.croneri.co.uk, 2020). There is a high probability that workers would be enjoying their work and minimal or no injuries would be recorded on a particular day. In this sense, the OHS/HSE rules and regulations could be considered as the apt communicative language mechanism for the workers to exhibit their admirable ability in working for an organisation, where zero accidents are being experienced by them.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>TABLE 3</strong> EXAMPLES OF CRITICISMS AND COMPLAINTS OF OHS COMMUNICATION MECHANISMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Changing safety procedures will be difficult…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am not comfortable wearing PPEs…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am just an OHS rep, who will listen to me…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your safety is not my concern…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having OHS related placards will be costly…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Since there’s no legal liability, I can miss the OHS committee meeting…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is not possible to go for training at my age…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We can compromise a bit on worker’s safety since our investment is big…</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>EXAMPLES OF QUESTIONS AND INTERROGATIONS</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 1.</strong> While working</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q: Why are you not wearing any safety shoes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: It doesn’t fit well. It’s loose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q: Why don’t you get it changed in the storeroom?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: All the safety shoes there are of the same size.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 2.</strong> Enquiring at the storeroom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q: Why all the safety shoes are of the same size?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: Because it’s cheaper for the company to buy one size in lots.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Step 3.</strong> At the OHS meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q: Why hasn’t anyone raised the issue of same sized safety shoes?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: Because no one from the management takes action on our suggestions.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VII. CASE STUDY ON COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE MECHANISMS AT DOMINION WIRE AND CABLES, BA

Dominion Wire and Cables PTE Limited is the manufacturer and provider of cables solutions for vitality, correspondences, information and mechanical segments in Fiji and the South Pacific including Australia and New Zealand. The organisation offers undeniably something beyond link generation by uniting related items and testing administrations; Dominion Wire and Cables PTE Limited can give a total link bundle. The organisation was set up in 1980 and is a noteworthy supporter of Fiji's foundation and monetary improvement. It pursues ISO 9001:2015 Quality Management System with TUV Rheinland Australia affirmations with best practices, shared learning and the best specialised assets accessible is a distinct to adjustment to different world-class norms.

At Dominion Wire and Cables PTE Limited, no structure is too large or small. The organization is developing firmly, especially in Fiji and the Pacific Island markets with new creation lines and a huge increment in staff alongside the development of another distribution center to cater for the expanding demand. Dominion Wire and Cables PTE Limited has a distribution network all through the Pacific Islands and a group of individuals resolved to meet the all-out requirements of their clients – from client details to giving upgraded coordination and an exceptional dimension of specialised help. The organisation becomes consistently dependent on sound business rationality of giving quality items utilising driving edge innovation, upheld by unfailing brilliance in client administration and quicker turnaround time to keep up client faithfulness. These are convictions and qualities that give them the quality and certainty to keep on developing, exceed expectations and succeed.

More imperatively, the management is firmly committed to a policy enabling all work activities to be carried out safely and with all possible measures taken to remove (or at least reduce) risks to the health, safety and welfare of employees, contractors, authorized visitors and anyone else who may be affected by their operations. “We are committed to ensuring we comply with the Health and Safety at Work Act 1996, along with relevant Regulations and applicable codes of practice”. Environmental sustainability is something that has now become of great importance due to the looming threat of climate change. Dominion Cables acknowledges this and has put in place policies to assure that our manufacturing processes do not violate or degrade the environment in any way, as the workers are equally concerned here. Enumerated below is the communication mechanisms for health and safety environment, which is disseminated by the organisation to their workers:

- Firstly, the higher management system of the organisation looks into occupational health and safety issues and concerns;
- Documents such as Health and Safety Work Act 1996, Health and Safety Work Act (Representatives and Committees) Regulations 2007, Health and Safety Work Act (General Workplace Conditions) Regulations 2003, Occupational Health and Safety policies, procedures, accident/incident register, training needs analysis, action plans, emergency evacuation plan, fire drill documentation and occupational health and safety meeting minutes;
- Any new policies, plans and procedures that are implemented are released to the workers with a communication plan that spells out the requirements of the organisation;
- All the line managers and supervisors including any other workers, who are leading the occupational health and safety department are obliged to attend compulsory OHS training that is organised by the company or external organisations. This would assist them to better equip themselves in terms of their roles and responsibilities concerning health and safety environment. The training would mainly comprise of risk assessments, HSE procedures and incident reporting;
- An organisation that has an active webpage and has policy forms, such as, risk assessment, incident report, policy information and general awareness topics on it would assist the workers in having proper and immediate access to online OHS needs and requirements;
- Occupational Health and Safety performance measurements;
- Frequent inspection of the workstations/workshops and reminding the workers about workplace safety communication would see a reduction in near misses and other injuries.

Dominion Wire and Cables PTE Limited seeks the cooperation and mutual understanding of not their workers only but the visitors as well in terms of minimising workplace injuries through effective communication mechanisms. The health and safety environment requires all the workers to adhere to occupational health and safety protocols and abide by it strongly. Decisions on communication mechanisms that include “what, when, where, whom and how” is considered to be the overall safety strategical means in interrogating workplace injuries and near misses. The organisation also practices stringent adherence to all occupational health and safety policies.

In addition, the organisation also initiated a workplace safety communication operation that was particularly designed to implement an injury-free working environment. The organisation campaigned about intervention strategies that comprised of communication mechanisms in improving injury statistics that contributed towards near misses and severe bodily injuries. The staff appeared to value the reporting of all the workplace injuries and any other serious mishaps at the workplace. The organisation also highlighted the importance of communicating with each other during the workplace should they encounter any severities while working. In addition, a few questions were also disseminated to the workers to provide their feedback in regards to how communication mechanisms worked from the organisation’s end to them. A small portion of the research questionnaire was given to the workers for which the outcome of the
feedback is stipulated below.

### Table 5
Communicative Mechanism Feedback by Workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Responses in Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. All the corrective actions and precautions were taken when hazards and near misses were identified.</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Generally, the physical working milieu is conducive to suit my needs.</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. All the safety procedures at my work area was well observed, even if the work was carried out slowly.</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Those workers who were working under my supervision were consulted well, when resolving workplace issues.</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. All the safety training information and communication received assisted me to perform my duties well.</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The organisation as a whole demonstrates stronger commitment towards addressing OHS issues through effective communication mechanisms.</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From responses of the feedback received in regards to how communication mechanisms are assisting the workers to curb near misses and injuries at the workplace, it could be stated that the responses were quite appealing and mainly were in the favour of the workers. The identification of corrective actions and precautions to avoid near misses and injuries was 90%, while the overall working milieu conducive to the workers stood at 85%. Having a thorough observation of the working area was 95%, with having a clear engagement of workers during resolving workplace issues with their immediate supervisors was 88%. According to the safety and information communication training, 90% of the workers stated that they received assistance to perform their duties well, while 95% claimed that the organisation is committed to addressing OHS issues.

### VIII. Conclusion

The communicative language mechanism tends to provide a supportive and cohesive framework, which allows workers of an organisation and the organisation itself to interact co-operatively and purposefully to minimise workplace injuries. A precise and constructive safety communication system would provide the best mechanism through knowledge and understanding, which can improve and prevent at-risk behaviors by enhancing the safety culture at work. This has been illustrated through the case study that has shown how the organisation responds to decreasing workplace injuries through a repertoire of safety communication mechanisms. So much so, engaging and enhancing effective communication mechanisms is critical to workers since workplace safety is paramount to be addressed by maintaining an optimistic safety culture trend. The organisation needs to be stringent in terms of imparting the effectiveness of communicative language mechanisms concerning occupational health and safety or health and safety environment. It is prudent for the workers of an organisation to strictly adhere to the rules and regulations so that an injury-free working milieu for all the workers is created. In most instances, workers are expected to listen to their line managers for clearer instructions and advice.

More so, the mechanisms need to complement most of the practical and more imperatively the technical safety strategy. Workers with good effective communication skills will be in a better position to be able to provide corrective feedback for all the risky behaviours that are encountered during working hours. Undoubtedly, this will reduce the probability of near misses and other injuries allowing the workers to be extra cautious as much as conscious. In most circumstances, ensuring that workers and organisations adhere to all the protocols of occupational health and safety (OHS) health and safety environment (HSE), it is pivotal to spell all the necessary rules and regulations of occupational health and safety requirements. The study has confirmed that it is not only significant that interaction between workers and organisation is crucial but at the same time, communicative language mechanism also needs to be considered for effective reduction in near misses and injuries. Equally imperative is the fathoming of laws and regulations of occupational health and safety or health and safety environment so that comprehension of these could be seen as a reduction in workplace injuries. Saying that an accident or injury was “bad luck” defines an implication that it cannot be prevented. This is contrary to the expectation and belief that all workplace near misses, accidents and injuries are preventable by identifying risky hazards.

### References


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Transcendentalism in Herman Melville’s

*Moby-Dick*

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Abstract—Ralph Waldo Emerson’s Transcendentalist beliefs had dominated American literature in the Romantic period. It has remained an appealing interest in exploring whether Herman Melville had been influenced by Transcendentalism and in what ways it is embodied in his work. Therefore, this study carries out a detailed analysis of Melville’s Transcendentalist tendency in his masterpiece of *Moby-Dick*. It is found that the characterization of Ahab as a Transcendentalist hero and Ishmael as an Emersonian Individualist are two cases in the point. Furthermore, it also reveals the embodiment of Oversoul in the narration. Altogether, they testify the sign of Transcendental influence over Melville in this novel.

Index Terms—transcendentalism, Herman Melville, Moby-Dick, Emerson

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays *Moby-Dick* is universally regarded as the summit of both Melville's art and American nineteenth-century fiction. In his Studies in Classic American Literature, D. H. Lawrence (1923) exclaimed simply: “It is a great book”. Moreover, its author, Herman Melville, is regarded primarily as an inventor of adventure yarns at home and abroad nowadays. Over the years, both the writer and his great works, particularly his masterpiece, have received increasing attention and interest among literary critics and academics. Various interpretations of the main characters in this novel have exhibited mainstream ideology during each specific era in the human history.

Ralph Waldo Emerson is acknowledged as a great thinker and an essayist in American literary history. He is a representative of the American Romanticism in the mid-19th century as well as a distinguishing leader of the Transcendentalist movement. As the leading New England Transcendentalist, Emerson has effected a most articulate synthesis of the Transcendentalist views. His ideas in his great works had liberated men from traditional restricted thinking and profoundly prompted the progress of American literature.

Herman Melville and Ralph Emerson are two significant historical figures who happened to exist around the same period of American history. More or less, there seemed to exist certain link between these two great minds. Therefore, it has been an unfailing interest for researchers to study the connections and similarities between the two great thinkers and their thoughts conveyed in the masterpiece.

*Moby-Dick* is a story about the conflict between Ahab, the captain of the Pequod, and the white whale or whales at large. Ahab is the most controversial figure in the novel, even in the American literary world. Questions arise concerning what transcendental qualities Ishmael possesses; what kind of a hero Ahab is portrayed to be and what kind of attitudes Melville holds towards the relationship between Man and Nature and Man and God. The key answers to those questions could be found through the analyses of the relationship between Melville's thoughts and the American Transcendentalist beliefs, and such demonstration can also unveil the influence of Transcendentalism on Melville and his great work.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Almost every year saw academic publications on Herman Melville and his work of *Moby-Dick*. In overall terms, the study of *Moby-Dick* is on the dramatic rise. The center locates in its seemingly uncoordinated form like the prose poetry, the rhythmic lines, the mixture of genres and multiplicity of voices, the whaling saga with highly spiritual suggestions, a symbolic allegory of man's challenge to nature, a paradoxical presentation of man's inner contest between the good and the evil, Melville's romantic pessimism about doubt and faith, the theme of death and baptismal rebirth, to name a few.

Various interpretations have been invoked among critics. They are: “an adventure sage; an adventure with a vague spiritual tone; an emblem-story of man and nature; a burning symbolic representation of ‘a profound conflict in the soul of man’; an allegory of man's attack upon nature; and last, a study of a man in revolt against evil and chaos in the universe” (Parke, 1981, p.309). Among them, one of the most heated topics falls on the discussion about Transcendentalist thoughts conveyed from this literary work and Melville’s understanding of and attitude towards it.

Ralph Emerson proposes Transcendentalism and Transcendental movement in the historic period of American romaticism. He defines *Oversoul* as the supernatural level of reality. It is the creator of all and the source of the extraordinary, proceeds, in turn, the soul and the world of nature, circulates in all the space, embodies and demonstrates itself in the observable nature. Spirit or Mind creates all, and at the same time, it is the object to be approved: its
Translation into things is the evidence of God's existence which is generally regarded as the visible objects (Cavell, 2003, p.56). In Emerson's Transcendentalist eyes, people's thoughts could be delivered through nature and particular spiritual facts could be symbolized by particular natural facts.

Moreover, considering the Nature as the most sanctifying moral influence on man, Emerson advocates a direct intuition of a spiritual and immanent God in nature (Chang Yaoxin, 2007, p.60). It is an important moment of "conversion" when one has completely sunk into nature and become one with it; the soul has completely transcended the limits of individuality and becomes part of the Oversoul. He should be able to see into the deeps of infinite time, comprehend the path of things and the divine unity of the Universe by intuition, and communicate the feelings of contact with nature to his fellowmen. It holds the belief that people get to know the outside world through their five senses and the inner world through their intuition. Furthermore, according to the explanation of "the infinitude of man" by Emerson, if a man could rely on himself to cultivate and bring out the divine within himself, he can hope to become better or even perfect (Chang Yaoxin, 2007, p. 61).

It is not hard to notice that the research focus has been shifting to the examination of key characters in this novel and the representation of their personality and fate in the story. Based on Freudian psychological doctrines, the emphasis of critical reading of Moby-Dick averted to human modern psychic puzzlement with the typical example of the character Ahab and his monomaniac syndrome. In the article "In Nomine Diaboli" written by Henry A. Murray, Ahab is seen as the insurgent Id, who is deeply involved in a moral conflict against the white whale known as the cultural Superego; whereas the first mate, Starbuck represents the reasonably realistic Ego struggling unsuccessfully to control Ahab's retaliatory instincts. In 1949 appeared Richard Chase's Herman Melville: A Critical Study. Chase felt that the most important theme of Melville's works before Moby-Dick was that of "the young man's awakening, or introduction to experience" (Parker & Hershel, 1988, p.510). Leon Howard disagrees with the critical concept in his Herman Melville: A Biography that the subconscious mind is of primary importance in writing. He says: "In dealing with Melville's books, I have concerned myself primarily with the observable evidence of their growth" (Howard, 1951, p.206). Nonetheless, Newton Arvin shifts to a different point of view of the stylistic features of Herman Melville and he analyses the basic structure, typical symbolism, and unique language of this novel efficiently.

Despite this, more and more researchers in China show their interest in other themes. In his article “The Narrative Art of Moby-Dick”, Wang (2006) carries out a systematic analysis of Moby-Dick in the perspectives of narrative structure, time, narrator and focalization. Additionally, eco-criticism has been gaining more and more popularity in literary and cultural studies. It offers an ecocritical study of Moby-Dick with an intention of unfolding the ultimate fight between human beings and nature and the necessity of establishing a harmonious relationship between people and nature in the way of ecologically sustainable development. In brief, it could be concluded that Moby-Dick, in narrative art, is an encyclopedia-formed novel rich in characteristics of modern novels, therefore, has far exceeded his own time.

III. THE TRANSCENDENTAL IDEAS EMBEDDED IN MOBY-DICK

A. Ahab as a Transcendentalist Hero

In Emerson's most famous essay “Self-reliance”, he wrote, “Nothing is at last sacred but the integrity of the mind”. Man's quest for his self-reliance was indeed a search for communion with the wholeness of God, the unity of the universe and the great spiritual force of Oversoul (Emerson, 1841, p.133). By establishing such a relationship with the world, Emerson makes it certain that it is a human being who takes control over fate. And it is suggested that self-reliance is a good virtue of man.

It is pretty obvious to insist that Ahab resembles the “hero” that Emerson seemed to have in mind in his essays. In Self-Reliance, Emerson described the self-helping man in high praise that all praise and welcome should be given to the self-helping man together with honors and respect (Emerson, 1841). Ahab certainly fits that description as a Transcendentalist hero.

It is typical of westerners to pursue truth with an inextinguishable enthusiasm. Even though Ahab has nobody else to blame for his destruction, Melville never intends to criticize him in the novel. The truth is, he speaks highly of Ahab's admiring courage and unique personality. Without any doubt, Ahab is portrayed as a great hero. After all, the development of a society does need people like Ahab who are “true braves”.

In this story, Ahab persists in his pursuit for revenge despite all kinds of difficulties and obstacles from both the spiritual and material senses. He relies on his own in this crazy yet alone fight, even though he has his crewmen at his order. For when the situation gets worse and all the crew members become desperate, Ahab is the only one who still holds his maddening belief and is ready to throw himself at the sea for the final killing of the white whale. Ahab has spent years of his life on the sea in search of Moby Dick and he has isolated himself for the ultimate goal at the price of his normal life with his family on earth and even his own life. The meaning of his life depends on the outcome of the revenge, meanwhile, other worldly matters seem pointless and bleak in his eye.

As a human being, Ahab transcends the blind submission to the authority of the universe. Through defying all superior powers, he is determined to break the unfathomable form of the universe and locate the meaning of life. Ahab achieves self-realization in his chasing after Moby Dick. In his opinion, it is not some meaninglessly absurd action but reborn of his spirit. In a word, Ahab's physical anguish as well as his spiritual unrest and the strong desire for terminal truth accompanies his vindictive chase for the White Whale. From this perspective, Ahab could be labeled as a typical
transcendentalist hero.

B. Ishmael as an Emersonian Individualist

For Ishmael, voyaging on the sea has become a journey in search of knowledge and values. Appropriately enough, Ishmael is the only survivor of the final confrontation with Moby Dick (Ousby, 1979, p.82). Like other people on land who are longing for the sea, the experiencing Ishmael is also the case. For him, the sea water is the image of “the ungraspable phantom of life”. It represents the hidden secret and unknown world where Ishmael struggles to find the full truth (Ousby, 1979, p.85). Frustrated and disappointed at life on earth, Ishmael turns his last hope to the life of a crewman on the sea. It is on the ship under the leadership of the captain Ahab that he begins to meditate on life and gradually comprehend the meaning of the universe. In other words, two elements of nature—the white whale and the mysterious sea invite and tempt Ishmael's questing and meditative soul, providing his soul with a new realm to expand and get rejuvenated. In this situation, running for the sea implies eager thirst for its curing effect and Ishmael's communion with nature in order to understand the meaning of the world.

According to Transcendentalism, all of the true Transcendentalists should be able to feel moments of communion with the Oversoul. In Chapter 35, “The Mast-Head”, readers are shown a glimpse of the Oversoul in “soul pervading mankind and nature” (Melville, 1994, p.257). Ishmael, as a version of Emersonian innocence, had gone through all kinds of experiences with the mystic ocean for his revelation (Emerson, 1841).

Ishmael has been seeking and thinking about the true principle between man and nature throughout the voyage with the identities of both a sailor and a thinker. Throughout his whaling voyage, he becomes mature with profound insight into and fear for the deep secrets of human life. Ishmael has found his answer to the puzzles of the symbolic white whale and the universe. He was lucky to find love and friendship on his ship, due to which he was given an opportunity to survive at last. To put it another way, Ishmael was the only survivor of the ship for he absorbed the ultimate truth from the experiences on the ship. That would be: to let it live as it is and fully respect it. Hence the mission falls on Ishmael's shoulders to get rid of Ahab's control successfully, and survive the catastrophe to tell the story. He even confesses that “the problem of the universe revolves in me” (Melville, 1994, p.170). Ishmael's attained his salvation due to his successful communion with the universe, the God, and the great spiritual force, which attribute to the “Oversoul”.

The first half of the nineteenth century witnessed prevailing slavery and racial discrimination in America. Deeply concerned about the society, Emerson advocated that people should be treated for who they are in no regard of their creed or color. Melville, like Emerson, was deeply concerned about the social problems in his time, such as freedom, democracy, religion, and races. Melville's depiction of friendship among the sailors is an indication of his humanitarian attitude towards all men of various backgrounds. We can also notice his firm appeals for true democracy and equality. In Moby-Dick, Melville creates a merry world on the strictly hierarchical Pequod—the world of sailors. Together they experienced hardships and happiness, and to some extent they were brothers in life and death. It is only them who are enjoining the sublime of human virtues—friendship or fraternity. In this adventurous craze, psychological influence and spiritual belief would affect people to a degree beyond imagination.

Moby-Dick is a novel calling for universal democracy, which shows Melville's enlightened views on humanity. The friendship between Ishmael and Queequeg is treated by Leslie A. Fiedler and other critics as the most celebrated homosexual bounds in American literature (Harris & Fitzgerald, 1983, p. 248). “Queequeg is for Ishmael,” as D.H. Lawrence long ago observed, “the embodiment of a mode of being—instinctive, sensuous, affectionate—that the self-estranged Westerner needs to recover to become whole” (Lawrence, 1923, p.137). To this point, Queequeg acts like a follower of Emerson. Transcendentalists advocate man's harmonious relationship with nature. Being a noble savage in the story, Queequeg lives his whole life based on harmony with nature. He teaches Ishmael life skills on the sea which represent his principles and attitude towards nature. It is from Queequeg that Ishmael achieves his personal growth and spiritual development to adopt a harmonious and respectful way in the world.

C. The Embodiment of Oversoul in Moby-Dick

Emerson is a representative of the American Romanticism in the mid-nineteenth century. His new voice leads American Romanticism to a new and mature period—New England Transcendentalism, which is, in essence, romantic idealism on Puritan soil. “The Universe is composed of Nature and the Soul. Spirit is present everywhere” (Emerson, 1990, p.835). Generally speaking, the Oversoul is seen to be the most important thing in the universe, for it represents the spirit of God. It permeates in the universe and exists in humanity and nature alike.

Literally speaking, this conversion —first from nature to spirit, and then from matter to mind, and finally transfers into “intelectual truth” is known as Symbolism in literature. Under this influence, many writers, such as Hawthorne and Melville, begin to apply Transcendentalist ideas in their literary creations in one way or another. “A preoccupation with the demonic and the mystery of evil marks the works of Poe, Hawthorne, Melville and so on” (Chang Yaoxin, 2007, p.163). All these items of the literature, such as mythology, symbol, imagination, mysterious nature, contribute to the mystery of Moby-Dick by and large. Hence, Melville has indeed the very Transcendentalist focus of nature in the composition of Moby-Dick. The mysticism and the symbolic meaning of these two things are given more weight. It corresponds to the characteristics of Transcendentalism. In this way, Moby-Dick is the product of literary tendency of the time.

The most evident symbol in this novel is the white whale. It represents evil and goodness simultaneously, as Chase
described “(it is) paradoxically benign and destructive, erotically beautiful yet brutal” (Chase, 1962, p.60). For instance, the whale is depicted as a sacred animal, like the cow or the bear, of a solemn cult (Melville, 1994, p.557). It is considered as the purest and the most valuable creature in the sea, and no other living animals could stand by its company. The white whale “seems more beautiful, even than Zeus himself swimming in the shape of a white bull (Melville, 1994, p.558). What’s more, even the whale’s tail is described as “no fairy's arm can transcend it” (Melville, 1994, p.348). The prestigious position of the Moby Dick equals that of the Oversoul in transcendentalist belief. Therefore, it is natural to conclude that the embodiment of Moby Dick echos with the transcendentalism.

The whiteness of the whale includes innumerable sweet and horrible associations. The extraordinary range of possibilities and concepts gives this work its great richness. Melville dedicates to glorify the whiteness, he even designs a whole chapter, especially to discuss the whiteness of the whale. Descriptions in over a hundred chapters develop an image of Moby Dick, representing beyond just a whale but a gigantic symbol. The whiteness symbolizes pureness in nature, where human being make a living and develop their civilization. The goodness in nature provides men with the opportunities to seek communions with the Oversoul and to transcend beyond earthly limitations.

At the same time, Melville regards the sea as the “foe” to man and demonstrates the nature of cruelty, uncertainty, relentlessness and terror. It is a place where the allegory of man's fighting against nature and their fate is conceived. If you cannot find the ultimate truth in the sea, you may get it from various activities on the sea. To put it more clearly, if the sea is not a place where you can find God, it may be the perfect ideal place to understand God. Because the sea stands for a pure world free from the pollution of human civilization and it is also a preserve for the primitive culture. Thus, it is every man's dream to be out sailing on the sea in desire for their return to pure nature. In summary, whether the white whale symbolizes evil or kindness is left for our reader to decide, just as Melville concluded that it is beyond the art of man (Melville, 1994, p.547).

IV. REASONS FOR MELVILLE’S TRANSCENDENTAL IDEAS

A. Influence of Transcendentalism on American Literature

The early and middle nineteenth century is widely known as the American Romantic period. Among the main currents of thought at that time, Transcendentalism marks the dominating culture of this special period in terms of influence. In this movement, the development of Transcendentalism had witnessed an unprecedented prosperity in American culture and history. The climax of Transcendentalism in literature contributes to the American romanticism. It is above all characterized by the enhancement in the sense of literary nationalism. It freed the American writers from the traditional constraints of European literature and provided them an opportunity to make their own Bible.

Melville’s era saw the acme of individualism, which has been holding a prominent position in American culture. In the process of its development, Emerson’s values of individualism have posed great influence upon American individualism. Ever since then, American writers set about focusing on their own literary themes and establishing their unique American style. It paved the path for the growth and flourish of American literature. Therefore, it is safe to say that the Transcendental literature movement is all the while influencing writers and poets in their thoughts and writing style. Likewise, Melville became dedicated to confront estrangement in his corrupt world to explore the possibilities of liberty and aspire towards spiritual freedom (Levine, 2013).

B. Melville’s Personal Preference

In 1849, Melville wrote Duyckinck a more detailed comment on Emerson: “Yet I think Emerson is more than a brilliant fellow... ... Swear he is a humbug — then is he no common humbug ... To my surprise, I found him quite intelligible” (McSweeney, 1986, p.8). The brief appreciation of Emerson gives way to a generalization pertinent to other great minds: “I love all men who dive. Any fish can swim near the surface, but it takes a great whale to go down stairs five miles or more; and if he doesn't attain the bottom, why, all the lead in Galena can't fashion the plummet that will. I'm not talking of Mr. Emerson now — but of the whole corps of thought-divers, that have been diving and coming up again with blood-shot eyes since the world began” (McSweeney, 1986, p.10).

Emerson exhorts his audience to be conscious of using one's will to judge and attack others, as those attacks will come back in a deadly recoil. Whether or not it was an original image, he may have set the course somewhere in Melville's mind for the unforgettable ending to Moby-Dick and Ahab, where Ahab's lasing out of unbalanced hatred toward the evil he sees as the white whale comes back to hit him directly and to sink the Pequod.

V. CONCLUSION

Melville embodied his ambivalent attitude toward the movement in the wide spectrum of his masterpiece Moby-Dick. In this book, the Pro-Transcendentalist beliefs have different perceptions and different concerns, sometimes even a various amount of conflicting ideas and beliefs, thus creating different focuses on the life and as a result, different conclusions.

Melville spoke ahead of his time. He knew that he was doomed to write a book like Moby-Dick in his day, but he just could not help himself because he was a dedicated literary artist. Thus born in the nineteenth century, Melville did not receive recognition until the twentieth. Lawrence says that Melville is a real American because he always felt his
audience in front of him, and for him, life must be a progression towards an ideal. On the one hand, even though living in a social milieu of aggressive optimism, Melville was addicted to revealing the evil side of human nature. Melville is a writer who has discovered modern problems way ahead of its due time.

So *Moby-Dick* can be regarded as such a classical representative of Melville's insightful pondering on man and their life. It tells a tragic story of the doomed failure of human civilization resulted in the process of desanctification of the human being. It is a novel that is “a challenge and affront to all the habits of mind that typically prevailed in the nineteenth-century” (Mumford, 1929, p.180) with an intention to shock us into an awareness of how catastrophic the result would be if we do not make a timely retrospection. Its reflection on life's true meaning is still of great benefits in a modern sense, and its ending in the form of a total ruin declares publicly the necessity of a spiritual remolding of the human mind.

For his tendency to metaphysical pondering and soul incultation, Melville's position in literature is secure yet unique and solitary, looking backwards to a suffocating year of religious belief and forward to an unbalanced age of scientific mania. Besides, the fact that Melville is generally regarded as a writer of American Romantic Period yet his works, especially *Moby-Dick*, lived beyond his time makes it clear that what Melville saw was far further into the future and what he conveyed was more true in the modern industrialised world. Therefore, *Moby-Dick* steps far beyond the scope of the Transcendentalism. Hence, it is widely acknowledged as a great literary classic in the world literature.

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Rereading and Studying on The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica)

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Abstract—The book The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica) is one of the important novels written by Serbian writer Ivo Andric who once lived through the world war and worked in significant department of the country. This novel is not only the product of that period of time but also his only long psychological one which represents his interest in describing the mental states of the main characters. It is a purely psychological study of greed from the point of the pathology and obsession. It also shows his greatness in writing which helps him win the Nobel Prize in literature for his epic force of tracing themes and depicting human destinies drawn from the history of his country. This novel describes the real experience of a single woman named Raica Radakovic from a unique perspective, unfolding the ordinary people's life and fate in historical tide. It depicts Raica's life experience objectively, showing the author's philosophical reflection on people's life and fate, which makes this novel demonstrate its objective and profound artistic style.

Index Terms—The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica), Raica, real life, philosophical reflection, profound style

I. INTRODUCTION

Serbian author Ivo Andric enjoys a high prestige in the world for his getting of the Nobel Prize in literature in 1961 and he is also the only one from Yugoslavia and even in the entire Balkan region to win this prize. In the middle of last century, the Chinese version of Ivo Andric’s works was published in China. Since then, Chinese people got familiar with Ivo Andric and his works gradually, and Chinese researchers took interest in studying the man and his works. In 2012, Anka Lazarevic did comparative study between Lao She and Ivo Andric in his doctoral dissertation, which was the first comparative study between Ivo Andric’s works and Chinese authors’ works. Li Shimin once studied and published several papers about Ivo Andric and his works in journals at an earlier time. According to Li Shimin, Ivo Andric always related his writing with his homeland, described people’s sufferings and their resistance to ethnic domination in blood and life, rightly criticized both the positive and the negative sides of people by revealing their temperament, their will, their flesh and their soul (1998). By reading his works, readers know that he strongly concerns the history and people’s position in history. As a novelist, Andric was most interested in how the characters in his novels reacted to historical events; how they climbed to the peak of their dreams and how they behaved when falling from the peak (Li Shimin, 1997).

Even though, Ivo Andric’s works were translated into Chinese and published in China early, they didn’t draw too much attention from Chinese readers. The relevant research achievements were few; what’s more, these findings were the rough introduction of Ivo Andric and his works, lacking systematic and in-depth research and evaluation on his literature works, which made it difficult to appreciate his achievement and charm in literature. For such a Serbian writer who won the Nobel Prize in literature in 1960s, his brilliance and permanent glamour are remained to be revealed and promoted. This paper is about to analyze and comment on his novel The Woman from Sarajevo(Gospodjica)in order that readers can appreciate Ivo Andric’s great achievement and ability in shaping ordinary characters.

II. THE ARTISTIC ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE NOVEL THE WOMAN FROM SARAJEVO (GOSPODJICA)

The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica), which is translated literally as Miss, is one of Ivo Andric’s “Bosnian Trilogy”—three novels written by him from 1942 to 1944: The Bridge on the Drina (Na Drini cuprja), Bosnian Story (Travnicka kronika) and The Woman from Sarajevo(Gospodjica). The first two works—both of them chronicles rather than novels in the strict sense, dealt with Bosnia and her story like most of his other works and were regarded as his masterpieces, which fully demonstrated his broad vision and prominent ability in managing complex themes; in the third one, Andric presented present-day people and problems. He dealt with the psychology of the wealthy, with the war and postwar periods, and with the formation of a new society. It was his most unusual and least studied and was always considered to fail to exert his outstanding ability in narration. The Permanent Secretary of Swedish Academy Anders Osterlin didn’t think highly of this novel, furthermore, he believed that Andric didn’t exert his true talent—the talent in narrating in it even though he did quite well in characterization(Zheng Enbo, 1997). Such conception and evaluation was closely related to Andric’s narrative perspective and obscure implied meaning. He preferred to evoke the overarching events of world history via the skewed perspective of the inhabitants of Western Balkans, a region marginalized throughout its history (Tihomir Brnjovic, 2018). Andric did well in describing this region whose population is composed of different nationalities and religions and how people behaved when their interests and
influences clashed.

In fact, Ivo Andric is not only a litterateur, a linguistics but also historian who concerns history and people’s fate in different period, underlies his concerning in his writing. His personal experience and his strong interest towards history made his works deeply immerse in the slow stream of history, which also became his unique artistic achievement different from other writers’. He’s good at making the artistic creation based on his study on large amount of historical materials. Even though the novel *The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica)* was not a documentary fiction, it objectively depicted the social conditions in Sarajevo and Belgrade in the first half of the 20th century and told the story of the assassination of the Austrian Prince, the story of the fragment of history that little Serbia’s fight against the mighty Austro-Hungarian empire and the history of the blood and tears of young Bosnians who were sent to serve (Li Shimin, 1998). Ivo Andric didn’t write a period of real history but common people’s life in general course of history. The war not only changed the fate of the whole nation, but also affected lots of ordinary people, changing the life trajectory and destiny of each person. In his novels, he displayed the history, the society and the people of different ages by describing their lives, their destinies, their sufferings and their wishes. Therefore, the experience and psychology of the characters in the novel are always arranged under such a big theme.

In the novel *The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica)*, Andric seemed to write about Raica’s economic activities outwardly; in fact, he depicted the real economy form in World War I. The common phenomena of usury and hoarding during the war filled with ordinary people’s lives. The good habits of diligence and frugality in traditional economy decayed while consumption was promoted in modern economy. On the face of it, Raica’s strange economic activities were influenced by her father’s last words to her though her father didn’t find out the real reason for his bankruptcy. Actually, they were the relics of history; they were products of that period. This kind of arrangement was also the difference distinguishing this novel from Andric’s other two famous ones which emphasized more on history and politics.

Indeed, *The Bridge on the Drina(Na Drini cuprija)* and *Bosnian Story(Travnika kronika)* embodied Andric’s perfect epic literary achievements, while *The Woman from Sarajevo(Gospodjica)* just showed ordinary people’s life and fate in major social changes, revealed people’s plight caused by history and times. As his only long psychological novel *The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica)*, the heroine Raica’s mental state is mostly caused by historical conditions without exception (Li Shimin, 1997).

If Andric emphasized the consciousness of a nation in the first two works, he stressed man’s own destiny and freedom in *The Woman from Sarajevo(Gospodjica)*. The two different narrative perspectives formed two completely different aesthetic styles: one had great epic soul, the other had profound philosophic contemplation; one seemed grand and magnificent, the other seemed deep and calm; one showed the history of the Serbian nation, and the other showed the destiny of ordinary people in the historical trends. To some extent, *The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica)* was not as great as the other two works, especially as for expressing the grand feeling, but it’s obviously more profound in exploring life and value. Andric exhibited the relationship among ordinary people, society and the times by describing a woman’s life and fate in the social unrest and changes. Its characteristic slant is underlined by the fact that the main character is a woman, cast by circumstances into the role of having to carry out what was traditionally regarded as men’s work in the midst of the tumultuous and revolutionary events of the first third of the last century (Tihomir Brajovic, 2018, P87). From this angle, the work became deeper and more delicate rather than turbulent; and it was deeper and heavier rather than majestic. It didn’t depend on magnificent historical events but the deep humanistic thinking towards struggles and fights to life yoke and freedom, the tangle between the darkness and brightness of human nature, the obsession between kindness and evil. From this perspective, no one would deny that the history of one country or one nation is as significant as one man’s life, destiny and value; the latter one is also worth thinking and writing.

III. RAICA’S LIFE AND FATE IN THE NOVEL *THE WOMAN FROM SARAJEVO (GOSPODIJICA)*

Andric’s quite objective narrative description in this novel made it fail to represent his common thinking towards life. The novel *The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica)* began with the death of the old maid Raica Radakovic. Even though all major newspapers carried the news of her death in prominent position, together with the title to attract people’s curiosity, they couldn’t provide photos and details to stimulate people’s imagination further, and then they didn’t mention the death of the old woman any more. Andric arranged a beginning which seemed to cause suspect and guess, but he ended readers’ imagination decisively, making this seemingly bizarre event return to its true nature: Raica’s death was due to a heart attack. What’s Raica like? Did she have an extraordinary life? Andric broke people’s imagination again, saying whether she’s alive or not, there’s nothing to draw the attention and stimulate curiosity from the public (Gao Ren, 2017). Raica was one of the large number of ordinary people, who hadn’t any great achievement when she was alive and was forgotten quickly after her death, unattractive. Andric told the readers that this was not a detective suspense novel full of bizarre stories and plots but a true experience of a common woman. Because of this, it didn’t have legendary adventures or glorious careers, but ordinary daily life. What’s worthy of the writer’s concern and description in term of ordinary people’s daily life and experience, especially about a strange and isolated old maid? For a woman, an old single woman, perhaps people were interested in her love stories. Andric disappointed readers once again because he didn’t write Raica’s colorful love stories and he even made Raica never fall in love with one man once,
let alone arranged a marriage for her. Raica never laughed after her father died because her laughter was buried with her father. It is where Andric’s ingeniousness and uniqueness lies. Adopting this tact made this novel escape from the routine of shaping the female as the theme, unique for its difference from the rest. Andric didn’t portray Raica to be a beautiful and tender woman, not a pure and kind girl, but an average-looking woman who didn’t focus too much on appearance or pay attention to the inner spiritual pursuit. What’s worse, she’s also an indifferent, eccentric and unsociable coward. Her monstrous behavior was not only for the sake of seeking money but for her mean manners to herself and her relatives in her life, for her meanness about money as well. For example, people believed that worn-out clothes and shoes should be thrown away, but for Raica, there’s nothing bad enough to use and everything was useful. Then, she made enormous and irrepressible effort to mend and reuse them. The repaired shoes were too small and pressed and hurt her feet often, but she didn’t mind it and called it the sweet pain and the delightful wound, letting the hurt feet hurt and itching wound itch (Gao Ren, 2017). She locked the cupboard and took the key with her after she found her mother and the acquaintance drank much coffee with sugar when the acquaintance came to see her mother. Raica and her mother lived simple and humble life like abstinent all the time: they had only one meal a day; they made a fire in one room; such examples were numerous to mention. She felt terribly ashamed to regard the moment of rest as wasting time pointlessly and to regard the swallow of bread as extravagance. In all, Raica lived an entire ascetic life filled with desolation and poverty. In order to accumulate money and wealth for ensuring that she would not fall into poor life, she forced herself not to spend any money, to mend everything, to economize and to endure instead of creating new wealth with her money. Can the phrases as “a slave to money” or “the miser” fully manifest the nature of her behavior and psychology?

IV. THE PHILOSOPHIC IMPLICATIONS IN THE NOVEL THE WOMAN FROM SARAJEVO (GOSPODJICA)

In this novel, Raica had neither outstanding wisdom and courage, nor superior strength of character; she had neither noble moral consciousness, nor lofty ambition and great life goals. Her only goal in life was to accumulate money and kept herself out of poverty. Ironically, she accumulated money not to consume, but to economize; not to be extravagant, but to be consumption-restrained; not to live a better life, but to make her life be poorer and poorer. Instead of giving her the security she wanted, the wealth she accumulated became a burden on her life and eventually led to her death. On the contrary, Raica’s uncle Vladimir Hagi-Wasich (“Uncle Frodo”) and the cheat in Belgrade Ratko Ratkovic lived a life of luxury and dissipation, even though they didn’t have any money. Isn’t it a thought-provoking phenomenon? Who can explain the value and destiny contained in it? Andric didn’t point it out, didn’t speak out but implied it between the lines. He didn’t announce the answer superiorly, nor did he impose his thinking on the reader; he just described the phenomena in life and life itself objectively, leaving readers to think and contemplate. Actually, Andric revealed his emotion and tendency obscurely and subtly. If he’s a doctor, he had no prescription for either Raica or his uncle. In fact, he had no prescription for the life itself. Even so, he managed to show some kind of sympathy and compassion for Raica’s way of life. He created two glimpses of light in Raica’s bleak and bitter life: one was her love for her father; the other was the smile and warmth in her childhood given by her extravagant Uncle Frodo who died young. It was the warmth in her memory that made her feel the mysterious love from that cheat in Belgrade Ratko Ratkovic who strongly resembled her uncle. These two glimpses, as faint as the glow of a firefly, shed light on the benign aspects of Raica’s cold life. She was not a totally cold-hearted woman. However, the light was so faint that it went out completely at last. So, where is the light of life? What can help people to overcome the darkness of life? This is a question left by Andric, an eternal topic for thinking.

The religious love, the love between men and women and the moral love all disappeared in Raica’s life and spirit, leaving only money, but money didn’t bring her happiness and joy, but hardship, coldness and loneliness. Is it Andric’s hint to people about the way of happiness? What can bring people the happiness in life and the peace in mind if material things can’t? Andric didn’t reveal the answer explicitly. Perhaps as there are a thousand Hamlets for a thousand readers, each people has a different answer to this question. Maybe that’s what Andric intends to do and that’s what makes him great. It is up to each individual to find the answer he or she needs. That’s probably Andric’s answer.

Of course, though this work The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica) has different narrative perspective and style and the issues explored from the other two works, it still takes their cue from Andric’s traditional literary technique and style: describing common people’s life and fate in major historical events with objective style of writing to show the cruel and dark side of history and life. Outwardly, the story is a common rather than a fantastic one; the plot is flat without twists and turns; the narration is clann and objective instead of being humorous and lively and the language is plain without too many gorgeous words. That’s why Andric’s unusual intention can be explored. He deliberately describes the real, objective life and shows the true face of life in order to trigger readers’ deep and constant thinking towards people’s fate and the value and meaning of life. It makes the novel The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica) become one of the great masterpieces and makes Andric be the writer as good as Tolstoy, Balzac, Dostoevsky and so on, deserving the fame of being one of the greatest writers undoubtedly.

V. CONCLUSION

All in all, Ivo Andric’s The Woman from Sarajevo (Gospodjica) is a novel which focuses on the heroine Raica’s daily
life in Belgrade and Sarajevo. It really is a novel with ordinary rather than extraordinary stories, gentle but not tortuous plots, plain but not gorgeous language, calm and objective but not humorous and lively narration. In short, for the reader who likes adventures and excitement, they can’t be attracted at the very beginning of reading this novel since they can’t feel the urgency as strong enough to make the blood spurt. However, if you continue to read it quietly, you will be attracted unconsciously; you will be moved by the simple words and the deep thinking between the lines. Like olives, you will know the endless taste only after chewing it carefully and thoroughly. The ups and downs of history, the upheavals of politics, the complexity of society, the noise and indifference of the world and the bitterness and sadness of life all rise and fall between writers’ words. Ivo Andric’s works are like the sea which seems calm and tranquil on the surface, however, there are the surging undercurrent hiding in the recesses of apparent calmness which can always pull readers’ thoughts, provoke their contemplation and stir the nerves of their heart and soul. It appears to be a babbling stream, but the sound of it is often loud enough to strike your ears and heart.

In this novel, there is no preach and comment based on moral high ground and it doesn’t reveal the writer’s conception of value and yardstick of judgment. This is almost impossible for many writers. Although the woman in the novel is dissocial, hardhearted, indifferent, selfish and inhuman, she’s not always criticized but sympathized by readers.

History is often created and changed by ordinary people, at the same time, it is also wrapped by the times and unable to be independent, unable to obtain complete freedom. Sarajevo Assassination was a political event caused by an unknown young man, but it eventually resulted in a social and political revolution around the world. It was the event that triggered a social shock, political and economic reform, and thus changed the lives and destinies of millions of people in the world. The novel shows the fate of an ordinary person in the tide of changing times and political events. Raica is only one of those, representing the fate of thousands of Serbs and changes in their lives.

Everyone wants to take control of his own life and overcome the fated hardships, dangers and failure in it. As a result of witnessing her father’s death, Raica stuck to controlling her own destiny and life alone and avoided being influenced by anyone or any event outside all the time. So she’s always alone and remained aloof, breaking off all social contact with other people and living like a rat. Eventually, she was torn apart by the outside events, forcing her to move from Sarajevo to Belgrade. Even worse, she lost the money which was regarded as a guarantee for her because she was deceived by a cheat who took after her uncle very much. At last, she died of terror because she firmly believed that a stranger broke into her room.

Whether it’s the pain or love, it will dissipate and be forgotten one day. Raica loved her father so much, but he was gone and left behind forever. Her mother who always accompanied with her was also forgotten. Her life and death would be forgotten soon too. Life is always relentless and it will bury everything gradually. The author believed that she had no future while her past has already been buried (Gao Ren, 2017). The “present” is what she only has, but she feels so lonely, so poor, so isolated and so scared. The anguish and struggle in Raica’s spirit makes readers feel a kind of deep sadness.

Ivo Andric once said that we should draw a foreshadowing of the present when describing the past. We would encounter similar phenomena and the same problems in the facts of the past and the present. (Zheng Enbo, 1997) That’s true! The destiny of history and individuals, the relationship between the individual and the group and the independence and freedom of the individual revealed in the novel The Woman from Sarajevo(Gospodjica) are the questions which people are still continuing to think about, aren’t they? In fact, these questions are the eternal themes for human being.

Ivo Andric’s greatness lies in this. He often uncovers the relationship among man’s destiny, history, society and human group by describing the ups and downs, joys and sorrows of lots of general characters. There is no such thing as being great or small; being noble or despicable; there’s no separation or integration; no fraud or sincerity; no passion or indifference; no loyalty or deception. The value and meaning of life, life and dreams, money and happiness as well as extravagance and poverty constitute the universal life of mankind. This is exactly the reality of life, the reality of human destiny. Is there any writer who can present the real life and destiny of human being in such a truthful, objective and unassuming way? Maybe Ivo Andric is surpassed by several writers in terms of literary skills and means, but Ivo Andric is unique in his calmness and objectivity, in his insight into human life, in his realistic representation of human destiny and his ability to judge no character from a moral high ground. It is in his plain and emotive language, in his cold and sympathetic tone that he expresses his thoughts, his concerns, his understanding and his sympathy for the common destiny of mankind.

Perhaps this is the value and significance of rereading and studying Ivo Andric and his works today.

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A Linguistic-stylistic Analysis of Selected Aspects of Minutes of Meeting

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Abstract—Linguistic-stylistics explores the use of language, and how it (language) affects the building of a text to create effective meaning. Language is about meaning, as such, speakers and writers are often conscious of their language choice to create meaning in every given social context. The present study is a linguistic stylistic analysis of parliamentary type of minutes of meetings selected from two Faculties in Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti. The study adopts the theory of Systemic Functional Linguistic [SFL] to analyze tense, mood and sentence types in the selected minutes of meetings. The study reports that a minute of meeting, being a report of speech activities is normally in the past tense, and the mood is predominantly declarative, and sentences are selected to reflect a narrative piece.

Index Terms—linguistic-stylistics, language choice, social-context, tense, mood, sentence types

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is crucial in human interactions because it is the means by which humans communicate ideas, feelings, observations and other experiences of life, (Yule 2004, Lyons 2004). As scholars have always maintained, language has the dual features of form and meaning; and whether in the written or spoken form, communication is believed not to have taken place when the hearer is unable to elicit meaning from the message passed across. To ensure that meaning is effectively elicited, a speaker or a writer is normally conscious of his/her language choice. In this respect linguistic elements are consciously selected to faithfully reflect the context and situation under which communication has occurred, (Owolabi 2014).

Meetings form a part of human activities where people gather to express ideas, and feelings, make observations and give reports through the use of language. It is a forum to discuss, review and take decisions or receive information, (Ariyo 1998). Invariably, the speech activities in a meeting are recorded for ease of reference; the written record, which is technically referred to as a minute of meeting constitute an official document or text that can always be referred to, or consulted as a reminder of what transpired in a meeting. Language choice is important in the composition of a text because it helps “to place a text where it rightly belongs in specialization and make text characteristic of its field” (Owolabi 2014, p. 36). To this end, a text is often analyzed to identify linguistic features and linguistic elements that are used in the composition of such a text, and in the process gain a good insight into the style of a writer or a speaker, or the general style of a given genre.

So much has been written on format, types and purpose/functions of minutes of meetings, (Ariyo 1998, Starton 2004, and Wolfe 2006). However not much has been said on the linguistic style that characterizes this type of genre. The present study is therefore a contribution to the available literature on the nature of minutes of meetings; and specifically, to the examination of the linguistic features that are used to reflect the special nature of this type of genre, and the characteristics of its field. The study looks specifically on parliamentary type of meeting as described in Wolfe (2006). The implication of this study is that minutes of meetings can be studied from a linguistic perspective just like other genres such as editorials, newspaper reports, sermons, advertisements and any other.

II. LINGUISTIC STYLISTICS

Style refers to how a writer or speaker makes his/her choice of language to express him/herself in a text to create intended meaning and effect. It is, according to Murtaza and Qasmi (2013, p. 2) “a writer’s individual mode of expression, way of putting his/her conceptions in words.” A writer or a speaker selects from an array of possible grammatical options to create a text to achieve a purpose. Ononye (2016) contends that “the choice perspective is anchored on the simple notion that a language user (consciously or unconsciously) chooses from the linguistic possibilities in his/her repertoire, the most appropriate items that will suit his/her message, medium, situation and purpose” (p. 349). Scholars are unanimous on the view that style is about how a speaker or a writer selects elements of language, such as words, clauses and sentence to construct a text [written or oral] so as to create effective meaning in a given social context or situation, (Fakuade 1998, Owolabi 2014, Orebe 2020).

Stylistics, a word derived from the word style is a field of study that systematically studies a text so as to explain the language of the text, and how a writer or speaker has made his/her language choices to create meaning, (Niazi and Gautan 2010). The importance of style and stylistics is underscored in Finch (2000) when he claims that “every time we
use language, we necessarily adopt a style of some sort: we make a selection from a range of syntactic and lexical possibilities according to purpose of the communication” (p. 189) The major task of stylistics is to study a text and bring out those linguistic features that mark out a writer or a speaker as unique in his/her own way, and also draws attention to those linguistic features that separate a genre as a unique discipline different from other disciplines. Stylistic analysis may be carried out at the literary level or at the linguistic level. Literary stylistics investigates literary/stylistic devices employed by a writer or speaker to create a text. Such literary stylistic devices include the use of figurative expressions that include repetition, simile, metaphor, parallelism, lexical matching, personification and many other literary stylistic devices, (Ogunjimi 1994, Balogun 2014). Linguistic-stylistics, which is the primary focus of this study is that “branch of linguistic that applies the methodologies of linguistic to analyze concept of style in texts”, (Finch 2000, p. 206). Its major focus is the examination of language structures and patterns in a text. In this respect, it is possible to look at different levels of grammar - phonology, morphology or syntax. In the present study, the focus is on some aspects of syntactic structures and patterns that include tense, mood, and sentence types.

III. MINUTES OF MEETING

Minute of meeting, as already mentioned above, is a “record of what is said and decided at meetings of organizations, committees, societies and clubs. They contain discussion, resolution passed and decision reached “. (Ariyo 1998, p. 98). Proceedings of meetings are invariably written down to serve as source of information or reminder about the speech activities of a group, that is, speech activities that relate strictly to issues raised at meetings. Starton (2014) states that “minutes provide useful references on the history of a committee’s businesses, reducing the possibility of disagreement over what exactly was discussed and decided, when and by whom” (p.128) Minutes are more or less pseudo-historical or pro-history documents, (Orebe 2020).

Wolfe (2006) identifies three types of minutes, they are “information dump” transcription minute which, he claims, is more or less a verbatim reproduction of the conversation that occurred at the meeting. The scholar hinted that the transcription minutes type “are organized chronologically with little formatting and have no clear rhetorical purpose”, (p. 335). The second type of minute of meeting identified by the scholar is the action oriented one, which he claims is common among “project teams in most workplace settings. The major feature of this type of minutes of meeting is that they are “organized around future task” and they normally contain “list of action items that can be used as a team checklist of tasks to be completed. The rhetorical focus is on regulating feature actions” Wolfe (2006, p.335). The third type identified by the scholar is the parliamentary style minute which, according to him, “is the norm in many governmental and academic settings.” According to this scholar, “these minutes follow Robert Rules of Order. They are organized chronologically and foreground motions, votes, and individual positions on issues. The rhetorical focus is on maintaining an accurate record of individual action during the meeting”, (p. 335).

The minutes of meetings selected for this study fall into the category of parliamentary style minutes. Universities are known for good organization and good record keeping. Different meetings come up regularly to discuss important issues that relate to the smooth running of the system, and equally document activities and decisions on important matters. Faculty Board meeting is held regularly in the Ekiti State University, and minutes at such meetings are normally detailed and well composed to serve as historical records of resolutions and decisions of the Faculty Board.

IV. METHODOLOGY

Eight minutes of meetings were selected for study, one from each of the eight faculties in the Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti. However two were eventually selected for presentation in this study. The two were selected included one from the Faculty of Agricultural Sciences (Text A), and one from the Faculty of Education (Text B).They were minutes of crucial meetings that were well attended in 2018. Minutes of meetings from the University system were selected because minutes of meeting that falls within what Wolfe (2001) described as parliamentary style of minutes are expected from Universities which is regarded as a center of academic excellence. Sentences in each text were identified and listed, and tense, mood and sentence types were analyzed.

V. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The study adopts the assumptions and orientation of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) which focuses on the relevance of social context and function of language in communication, (Halliday 1994, Halliday and Matthiessen 2014).The theory considers language as a resource of meaning, it assumes that language is basically a social activity which takes place within a social context to satisfy specific goals. The theory takes cognizance of both the context and functional aspects of language. The concept of meaning takes a foremost position in the theory, and therefore, the theory assumes that for meaning to be properly and adequately analyzed, the context and the desired goal of a text should be rigorously scrutinized, (Halliday and Hassan 1989, Armstrong and Ferguson 2011). This position is captured in O’Donnell (2011) when he claims that “systemic functional linguistics is more closely aligned with sociology: it explains how language is used in social contexts to achieve particular goal…it does not address how language is processed or represented within the human brain, but rather looks at the discourses we produce and the context of the production of the text” (p. 2). The theory affirms the position of Malinowsky as reported in Martin (1994) that “you
cannot understand the meaning of what someone says or writes unless you know something about the context in which it is said” (p.14). Context in this regard refers to the totality of the environment that surrounds the use of language in a text. Moley (1985) describes context as “all the sociological factors which constitute the background and circumstances of the text” (p. 8) The important point to note here is that context in relation to sociological factors may be linguistic, social or psychological.

SFL identifies three meta-functions: the ideational meta-function, the interpersonal meta-function, and the textual meta-function. Adeyanju and Olaniyan (2016) affirms that meta-function is that “part of the system of a language- the particular sentence and lexico-grammatical resources- that has developed to perform the function the function in question” (p. 184) By this, the authors mean that a writer or speaker sets out to perform specific activity with language, he/she has a set goal. The meta-function allows the writer or speaker to achieve the set goal. The interpersonal meta-function, which is directly related to this study, reflects how social relationship is expressed through grammatical choices made by a speaker or writer. Choice of grammatical element, according to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) “is also a proposition or proposal whereby we inform or question, give an order or make an offer, and express our appraisal of and attitudes towards whatever we are talking about” (p. 30). Interpersonal meta-function which is the focus of this study, is targeted at analyzing tense, mood and sentence types falls within the interpersonal meta-function.

VI. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

A. Tense

Tense is that term in grammar that indicates the time of an action in a sentence. Verb is the grammatical element that reflects tense, particularly the finite verb; the tense in English may be present or past, (Thorne 2008). In the texts under study, eighty-five (85) sentences were elicited in Text A, while one hundred and sixty seven (167) were found in Text B. Each sentence contained at least one finite verb; while a simple sentence manifests one finite verb, a compound sentence manifests more than one. In all, Text A contained one hundred and eight (108) finite verbs, Text B had two hundred and twenty-nine (229). Some of the verbs are illustrated below.

Text A: commenced, led, stated, welcomed, appreciated, informed, reported, thanked, enjoined, gave, condemned, advised, seconded, made resolved, held, briefed, added, was moved, conducted, directed.

Text B: welcomed, considered, seconded, ascribed, wished, prayed, was, introduced, requested, decided, pleaded, congratulated, used, rejoiced, expressed, announced, frowned, sought, objected, moved.

A general observation reveals that all the infinite verbs in the texts are in the past form, i.e. verb + ed for regular verbs, e.g. commenced, stated, added, and the appropriate forms for the irregular ones, e.g. took, gave, sought.

Consider the following sentences form the texts.

Text A
Sentence 5: He reported that the result of the accreditation was very successful.
Sentence 31: The Chairman reported that the university congregation was held last week and election also took place
Sentence 51: The request was considered and recommended for the approval of Senate.
Sentence 65: He suggested that a production calendar for the fish production should be worked out and submitted to the Dean’s office as soon as possible.

TEXT B
Sentence 8: He ascribed the success of his administration to the support and corporation he received from members.
Sentence 51: The Board considered the need to have a forum for interaction between the Faculty leadership and the leaders of the Faculty Student Union
Sentence 98: The Dean reminded all HODs that the first semester results were long overdue; he therefore directed that all results should be ready within two weeks.
Sentence 122: The Faculty Board requested for a confidential report on the student’s conduct from the Head of Department.

B. Mood

Mood is a proposition of systemic functional linguistics, and it mediates between grammar and semantics. It is the form of the verb that shows the mode or manner in which a thought is expressed. Skevis (2014) states that “mood is an indication of the speaker’s attitude to what he/she is talking about, whether the event is considered as a fact (indicative) or non-fact (subjunctive)”, (p. 46). Aljmer (2016) also affirms that, “mood has to do with the principles behind the choice of the indicative and the imperative, and between declarative and interrogative.” (p. 4). Rodney (1998) argues that the verb is the most important grammatical element in the analysis of mood because it is characteristically used in making factual assertions”; (p.80). Alo (1985), asserts that mood system in language “may be used to approve or disapprove, to express doubt, to ask questions or give answers, to greet, instruct, or to command others, to include others within a group or exclude others from it” (p.55) The scholar then concludes that “these various uses or functions of the sentence correspond to grammatical categories which we call declarative (statement), imperative (command and requests) and exclamatory (exclamation)” (p. 55)
It was reported earlier that there were eighty-five sentences in text A and one hundred and sixty seven in texts B, making a total of two hundred and fifty two sentences (252). Analysis of the sentences reveals that they are declarative sentences. The study shows that neither imperative nor interrogative sentence occurs in the two texts. The example, of sentences presented earlier under tense in section 4.1 reflects the declarative sentences found in the texts. Consider the following three examples taken from the ones earlier presented in section 5.1 under tense:

1. He reported that the result of the accreditation was successful
2. He suggested that a production calendar for the fish production should be worked out and submitted to the Dean’s office as soon as possible.
3. He ascribed the success of his administration to the support and cooperation he received from members.

The examples presented above are all in the declarative form. They are statements reporting speech activities, stating what was said at a meeting. All the sentences in the texts studied are all in the declarative form.

C. Sentence Types

Sentence reflects a complete thought; it gives a complete idea or statement the speaker wishes to pass across (Thorne 2008, Anderson 2014). A sentence, made up of one clause has the structure of: Subject+ Predicate+ Compliment+ Adjuncts (SPCA) in its full form; a reduced form may consist of Subject+ Predicate. While a sentence in its simple from may consist of one clause, more complex ones may consist of two or more clauses. Some others may consist of two or more clauses joined by conjunctions.

The study reveals that different sentences based on structure were used in writing the minutes of meetings under study. They are simple sentences (SimpS), complex sentences (ComplS), compound sentences (CompS) and compound-complex sentences (Comp-CmplS). While each of the sentence types mentioned above was found in the text studied, the regularity of their usage differ substantially as shown in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Simp S</th>
<th>Compl S</th>
<th>Comp S</th>
<th>Comp-compl S</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Text A</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text B</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26 = 10.3%</td>
<td>98 = 39.9%</td>
<td>76 = 30.2%</td>
<td>52 = 20.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In simple percentage according to the table, the texts consisted of 10.3% simple sentences, 38.9% of complex sentences, 30.2% of compound sentences and 20.6% of compound-complex sentences. Complex sentences and compound sentences make the highest percentage of the sentences. The two accounted for 69.1%. See below one example each of the sentence types found in the texts.

D. Simple Sentence

Text A
Sentence 19: The Chairman gave a summary of the resolution as the meeting progressed.

Text B
Sentence 47: The Editor presented a copy of the latest edition of the journal to the Board.

E. Complex Sentence

Text A
Sentence 34: A member suggested that honorarium for staff serving in the committee should be abolished.

Text B
Sentence 31: The Chairman reported that all the faculty’s recommendations to Senate were approved at the last Senate meeting.

F. Compound Sentence

Text A
Sentence 52: The requests were considered and recommended for the approval of Senate.

Text B
Sentence 3: The agenda was considered and adopted accordingly.

G. Compound-complex Sentence

Text A
Sentence 10: He reported that he conducted the team round, and what they saw on ground was very impressive to them.

Text B
Sentence 153: The Chairman said that the observation was right but wondered why academic culture would be so denigrated.

Each of the simple sentences represented by the two examples illustrated above contains only one clause. They have the usual clause structure of SPCA as shown below:
The Chairman gave a summary of the resolution as the meeting progressed.

The Editor presented a copy of the latest edition of the journal to the Board.

Each of the sentences consists of just a clause as it could be observed that there are no linking elements or introducers in their structures.

The other types of sentences — complex, compound and compound-complex — have more than a clause. Complex sentences were used extensively in the texts that were studied. Each of the complex sentences illustrated in the examples above, contains of a main clause and a subordinate clause that are linked by the use of the introducer that.

**Main Clause:** The Chairman reported.

**Subordinate Clause:** All the Faculty’s recommendations were approved...

By using the introducer that, the writer of the text was able to combine the two sentences, one as the major clause, and the other as the subordinate clause.

Complex sentences were equally extensively used in the texts. Sentences of this type contain more than one clause that carry equal weight, or that are independent of one another. The independent clauses are joined by co-ordinate conjunctions such as and, or, but, also and other conjunctions. Consider the first example under the examples of compound sentences illustrated above.

1: The requests were considered
2. The requests were recommended for the approval of senate.

The two independent sentences were joined using and as the co-ordinating conjunction. It is observed that in the derived compound form, the subject and the be-verb of the second sentences were elided through the principle of ellipsis.

Compound –complex sentences were also used fairly extensively in the texts. As could be seen in the examples presented above, there is more than a clause in compound-complex structures. The second example under the examples of compound-complex sentences contains two complex sentences joined by the conjunction but. The complex sentences are shown below.

1. The Chairman reported that the observation was right.
2. The Chairman wondered why academic culture would be so denigrated.

Just as it was observed when looking at the compound sentences, the subject of the second sentence was also elided.

Apart from the sentence types described above, the study revealed both active and passive voices. The active voice, according to Thorne (2008) “expresses the action of the verb, directly linking it to the person or things carrying out the action” (p. 11). The scholar further stated that the passive voice “changes the focus of the sentence by reordering the elements” (p. 11). The reordering brings the subject to the end of the sentence, and the object moved to the beginning of the sentence to give it to the prominence. Examples of both active voice and passive voice are presented below.

**H. Active Voice**

Text A
Sentence 38: A member requested the dean to make available to HODs the comprehensive report of the accreditation exercise.

Text B
Sentence 141: The Board agreed that a seminar could be organized for both the academic and non-academic staff of the faculty to address ethics of the job and schedule of duties.

**I. Passive Voice**

Text A
Sentence 39: It was also suggested that the faculty should make a move to acquire the large expanse of land at Ifaki for mechanized farming.

Text B
Sentence 121: The Dean was implored by the board to communicate its decision to the University Management.

Looking at the examples above, those sentences illustrated under active voice are made up of the usual pattern of a clause whereby a structure has the pattern earlier mentioned above:

**Subject + Verb + Compliment + Adjunct (SPCA)**

Take for instance the example from Text A which is analyzed below.

A member requested the Dean to make available to HODs...

There is no evidence of re-ordering as the sentence is structured in the usual pattern of a clause or sentence: SPCA. The subject of the clause comes first, and it is followed immediately by the verb. The verb is also followed by the complement, and then the adjunct.

The situation is different with those examples under passive voice. The examples show that a re-ordering occurred. The subject of the active voice is moved to occur after the verb (optionally) as the passive agent (by + agent). Take for instance the passive sentence taken from Text B:

The Board implored the Dean to communicate its decision to the University Management.
To derive a passive form, the compliment of the verb, Dean, is moved to the position of the subject, then followed by the introduction of the be-verb (was) and the passive agent (by the Board) to read:

The Dean was implored by the Board to communicate its decision to the University Management.

The writers of the minutes of meetings under review used both the active and passive voice in elaborate form, however, active voice appeared to have been used more than the passive voice.

VII. DISCUSSION

It was reported in section 5.1 that past tense was consistently used in the texts under study. We recall here that minutes of meetings are (official) records of speech activities that were already concluded, and, that being the case, the writers used past tense in writing the texts in order to be meaningful. The use of present tense or future tense would have affected the grammatical quality of the texts, and would have defeated the functional purpose of the texts as records of concluded activities. The use of the past tense satisfies the function of a minute of meeting as pro-historical document that could be relied upon to guide future activities.

In respect of the mood, declarative mood was used exclusively in the texts. The sentences in the texts make assertions about concluded activities, and being assertions, they are statements that report events. The writers had no opportunity of inserting his/her opinions and views that might have appeared in interrogative or imperative forms. Even in cases where participants at the meeting asked direct questions, they were reported in declarative forms. For instance, sentence 79 in the text B showed that an interrogative sentence was reported in the form of a declarative sentence. Consider sentence 79 in text B which is illustrated below.

Sentence 79: The HOD of the department of Islamic and Arabic studies asked the Dean when the language laboratory would be upgraded to accommodate Arabic language Studies.

The reported speech above implies that in its direct form a question was actually asked. However, it has to be transformed into an indirect speech to satisfy the choice of language in a minute of meeting.

The structures of the sentences as revealed in section 5.3 were of different grammatical types: simple, complex, compound and compound-complex. However, as revealed, both complex and compound sentences appeared to have been used more than the simple and compound-complex types. Anderson (2014) reports that complex and compound sentences function to combine similar ideas, compare and contrast ideas, and remove repetition. In the texts studied, the writers, in line with what Anderson (2014) reported chose the complex and compound to achieve a prose-like or narrative writing that would allow readers to easily follow the logical sequence of events at the meeting, the decisions reached and activities assigned to participants (present or absent).

It was also found in the analysis that active voice was used more than passive voice. It was observed that passive voice was used to make reference to items mentioned on the agenda, e.g.

1. The opening prayer was said by…
2. The motion for the adoption of the minutes was moved by…

It was also used to give attention or prominence to some important points in the texts. A writer invariably gives prominence to issues that are considered to be of importance in a text by employing foregrounding as a stylistic device. Dada and Bamgboye (2014) contend that “foregrounding is the deliberate construction in a writing that brings about specialty or prominence” (p. 192). The scholars go further to say that “it is the use of techniques or devices of language in a way to bring out some features and their significance so as to draw attention to them” (p. 192).

The two texts that were studied employ the use of both active and passive voice. It is expected that some issues or points would normally be regarded as important, and deserving attention. To achieve bringing such issues to prominence, the writer, as shown in these texts, would need to employ stylistic strategies. In the present study, the stylistic device employed to achieve foregrounding is the use of passive voice.

VIII. CONCLUSION

This paper reports some of the linguistic-stylistic devices used in the composition of a minute of meeting. The paper reflects that past tense and declarative sentences are prominent in a minute of meeting. It is also revealed that whereas all types of sentence structures are found in composing a minute of meeting, complex and compound sentences appear more than both the simple and compound-complex sentences. In the same vein, the rate of using simple sentence is equally lower than the compound complex. One very important point this work draws attention to is that like other genres that have the preoccupation of reporting events, such as newspaper reports and narrative text such as novels or fiction works, a minute of meeting shares some grammatical structures with these genres. For instance, the use of past tense and both complex and compound sentences is predominant in such genres. Since these genres draws from a common pool of linguistic reservoir, the emergence of similarities cannot be removed.

REFERENCES

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The Effectiveness of Total Physical Response (TPR) on Teaching English to Young Learners

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Abstract—This article through two teachers’ cases, namely, observation of two teachers’ classes and interview with them, interview with their students and their students’ parents, attempts to investigate the effectiveness of TPR as a classroom technique with young learners and to explore how teachers use TPR and to identify some of the challenges of using it in practice. All the findings are discussed referring back to the relevant literature review and context. The findings of observation indicate that the TPR technique is a good way on the basis of games, role-play, storytelling and pair works with the physical actions. It also finds some potential factors that contribute to TPR’s challenges in practice, such as the use of traditional method, training constraints, students’ low English proficiency, the lack of authentic environment and exam-oriented assessment. The findings from the various angles obtained seem to be very similar to those reported earlier by literature review. This study also makes a contribution to the existing literature in terms of the providing insights into the attitudes toward English education for parents or students, and the lack of parents’ supervision to some extent that they have influenced on the TPR. Importantly, through a systemic introduction of TPR in this study, it is useful to help future teachers to implement TPR methods into their young learner teaching. The results of this study can also help me to reflect on my own teaching approaches and support other teachers working in my college.

Index Terms—Total Physical Response (TPR), young learner, English

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Macro Context—TEYL in China

The leaders of the People’s Republic of China proposed that universal English proficiency is deemed a significant element of the development strategy during the country’s global competitiveness. The educational authorities have implemented a range of reforms (Ministry of Education, 2011, p. 1). The basic requirements of curriculum for primary school English are categorized in below:

a. To provoke pupils’ interests, build up self-confidence and positive attitude towards learning another language.

b. To develop the pupil’s initial ability to use English in daily communicating.

c. To lay a good basis for spoken English and further study.

d. To develop children’s potentials of language intelligence, cognition intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, musical and sports intelligence as much as possible.

e. To fulfil English teaching activities in accordance with the personal characteristics of children.

f. Young learners need to be provided with adequate opportunities to practice L2. The teacher should encourage them to communicate their ideas or thoughts in a positive learning environment. (Ministry of Education, 2011; Wang, 2002; cited in Xie, 2017, p. 3).

The specific teaching requirement is designed into nine proficiency-based levels. The primary period was designed into two levels. Namely, the pupils from Grade 3 to Grade 4 are required to master level 1 proficiency, while the pupils from Grade 5 to Grade 6 are required to master level 2 proficiency. The following provides the framework of the curriculum both level 1 and level 2:
From the fig 1 it can be seen that although the basic requirement does not enforce any methods to teach young learners, it clearly reflects an activities-based approach, via listening, speaking, singing, playing, acting, and doing to provide opportunities to experience the language. Children are required learning by doing. The learning procedure is expected to be a happy and enjoyable experience. The purpose of assessment is to enhance pupils’ overall development, formative assessment and portfolio are expected to be used as the method of evaluating their English achievement. Hence, under the context of advocating English instruction reforms, communicative language teaching (CLT) is currently considered as the most popular approach for teaching young learners. CLT in China as an imported approach was introduced in foreign language teaching since the late 1980s (cited in Hu, 2008, p. 93-105). Just as Asher (1972) mentioned, TPR is regarded as one of the most important techniques in CLT, it seems that the author has the same viewpoint with him, because many features in CLT also apply to the features of TPR, as a technique within a more general communicative approach. Despite the national curriculum is to support teaching in terms of the rationale of CLT/TPR. However, CLT/TPR are seriously influenced by a range of factors in her context, in some cases, it does not really reflect the goal of learning English as expressed in the curriculum documentation.

B. Micro Context-TEYL in Her College

1. The use of TPR

The teachers are required to use government-approved books named Primary English. The contents are based upon the TPR activities (e.g., pictures, flash cards, songs, storytelling, role-plays and rhymes). From the contents of government-approved books, we can see the extent to which it matches the framework of the curriculum both level 1 and level 2. According to the daily talking with her colleagues, they often adopt an activities-based to teach young learners, such as they conduct TPR songs as warming up at the beginning of the class. It can be found that TPR can effectively provide a positive learning environment for young learners. It can also cultivate children’s interests to learn English. Her colleagues share the same experience with them. But they are required to complete all the contents within 18 weeks which have two classes (40 minutes per class) a week. Most of the time the author is eager to implement TPR activities, while it is impeded owing to the constraint of time. Sometimes, they also implement Grammar-translation Methods and Audio-lingual methods to teach young learners due to students’ low English proficiency. Because TPR emphasizes on students’ communicative competence, it is required to have a good foundation in speaking aspect. Hence, for traditional approaches, it seems to be as a supplementary method. The paper-pencil tests are often adopted which is designed by a local administrator, on the basis of assessing the ability of students’ reading, listening and writing at the end of each semester.

2. The background of her College

Guizhou province is located in the Southwest of China, compared with the coastal areas, the aspects of economy and education still exist a big gap. Agriculture is regarded as the principal occupation of almost all inhabitants of this region. Farmers spend a great number of time or energy cultivating crops, but they obtain extremely low incomes. Therefore, many farmers are willing to work in coastal areas in order to earn higher incomes to support the expenditure of their families. Their children who have been left behind in rural areas lead to without the guidance, love and nurturing of parents. The College where she works is named Tongren Preschool Education College in Guizhou province. Additionally, she also undertake the task of teaching English to young learners in a private primary school, which belongs to a supporting programme of her institution owing to the serious shortage of teachers. Therefore, some teachers in her college are sent to teach in this private primary school. Some others are from college students who have just graduated. According to the requirement of this college, these novices are obliged to take part in pre-service training before he or she starts work. The content of the training is only referred to the knowledge of pedagogics and psychologies, it is not referred to teacher’s professional knowledge at all. Meanwhile, the two kinds of teachers have mentioned in above who have not received any training courses regarding TPR or teaching English to young learners.
Additionally, the students for this college, most of them are left-behind children, through her observation in the past, these pupils are always lonely and reticence because they are short of their parents’ love. The other teachers have also shared the same point of view. Hence, the implementation of TPR in the classroom may be influenced in the author’s context. The next section will be elaborately argued on how the curriculum fits into the CLT/TPR, and the factors that contribute to CLT/TPR difficulties.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Features of CLT

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is an approach to the goal of language teaching which is using language for social interaction with other people to develop as communicative language competence (Butler, 2011). Similarly, Littlewood (2007) states that the function of language is seen as one of the most important features of CLT (Wilkins, 1972; cited in Butler, 2011). Savignon (2003) concludes that five main features should be characterized in the CLT.

1. The target language is emphasized on learning to communicate.
2. Authentic texts are introduced into learning situations.
3. Focusing not only on language but also on the acquisition process itself.
4. Making good use of learner’s personal experiences.
5. Creating real communication scenario in the classroom (p. 223-249).

According to their point of view, it seems that the function of language means the use of target language in real communication scenario. This so-called learner’s personal experience means that it is related to learn by doing just like the curriculum mentioned. Consequently, learning activities are selected according to the use of authentic resource rather than the merely mechanical practice of language patterns. While over-learning and mechanical memorization are stressed in Grammar-translation Methods (GTM) and Audio-lingual methods (ALM) (Wedell and Malderez, 2013). Language instruction in GTM is generally regarded as the delivery of knowledge rather than the development of communicative ability (Hu, 2005, p. 597). On the contrary, language whole classroom activities in CLT are learner-centred, because the learners are actively involved in the learning process. The teacher is seen as a facilitator of students’ learning and a manager of classroom activities. The learner is regarded as a negotiator, communicator and imitator. Teacher-learner relationship is an interactive, harmonious relationship. The communicative language teaching stresses the learners’ cognitive abilities and operational capabilities, this viewpoint is in accordance with the requirement of the curriculum in China —learning by doing. In contrast, GTM & ALM emphasize on the teacher who used the L1 to manage learning in the classroom. Additionally, advantages of CLT are greatly to provoke the learner’s interest to learn English as a pleasure, the viewpoint of this is consistent with the goals of the curriculum to provoke pupils’ interests in context.

To sum up, the goals of CLT mainly stress the form of communicating in the conversation (Wedell and Malderez, 2013). In some sense, the curriculum of primary English in China has matched the features of CLT. Nonetheless, CLT is not really presented in practice due to various factors. For example, achievements of assessing young learners are mainly based on the examination-oriented assessment, this is seen as typical feature of GTM. While CLT suggests that the teachers are expected to change their way of assessing young learners’ achievement into use formative assessment, portfolio and alternative assessment. About the description of assessing young learners in curriculum is consistent with the feature of CLT. CLT is considered as an effective approach to meet the needs of young learners. But, CLT is very extensive, so I decide to concentrate on a specific kind of method, and I choose Total Physical Response (TPR) which is developed by James Asher to do the study. To some extent, he has clearly identified its effectiveness in teaching English to young learners.

B. The Features of TPR

TPR is proposed by American psychologist James Asher at the end of the 1960s which involves having learners listen to a command in a foreign language and immediately respond with the appropriate physical action (Asher, 1972). Richards and Rogers (2001) reveal the TPR is a language instruction method built around coordination of speech and action. From the description in above, it can be seen that TPR emphasizes on listening, speaking and doing, these are in accordance with the goals of both level 1 and level 2. The method is intended to simulate children to acquire a second language spontaneously. According to Asher’s thoughts, once a foundation in listening comprehension has been established, the development of speech would be naturally occurring without any efforts (cited in Ai Harrasi, 2014, p. 36). Asher confirms that L2/foreign language learning is parallel to L1 learning and reflects similar naturalistic processes (Asher, 1977).

1. Bilateral

   It is authenticated by many scientists that language activities are implemented in the left brain, and physical actions are coordinated by the right brain. Using TPR in language teaching can effectively assist children to work both parts of the brain (Asher, 1977). It seems to be a good way to build up physical and mental development of children. Curriculum for young learners also highlights the overall development of children.

2. Using interactive activities
Asher (1972) claims that TPR activities play an interactive effectiveness in the authentic classroom between teacher-student and student-student. Just as Savignon (2003) emphasizes that CLT is based on the social interaction with other people. Both Vygotsky (1962) and Bruner (1967) defend that the language and learning development can be possible thanks to the social interaction with other children or adults (Porta, 2013). Despite that the national curriculum does not enforce any specific method for teaching, they clearly reflect an activity based on interaction, for instance, group work, role-play and guessing games.

3. Lowering the affective filter
One of the significant features of TPR can effectively low the affective filter to promote the learning process. Learners’ anxiety may be lowered to that of a more natural setting so that they do not feel threatened in a language classroom (Asher, 1981; cited in Al Harrasi, 2014, p.37), while CLT also emphasizes on the experience of language in a stress-free environment.

4. Promoting the motivation
TPR constructed a motivating environment by encouraging learners to participate and involve him/herself in action, which increases their enthusiasm as they feel free to move around. TPR learners experience the language in a relaxed and comfortable atmosphere (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

5. Building self-esteem and confidence
Asher (1977) suggests that TPR builds learners’ self-esteem and confidence. When learners respond commands through the motor movement, students feel secure because actions are easy to follow and understand, they have enough confidence and ability to communicate with their peers out of any obstacles (Asher, 1972). To some extent that they are given more encouragement and confidence to participate freely out of feeling disappointed, even if they have low English proficiency (Celestino, 1993). In a word, it seems that TPR makes everyone feel positive and able to trust their ability. These viewpoints are consistent with the curriculum’s requirement, for example, to provoke pupils’ interests, to build up pupils’ self-confidence and a positive attitude towards learning English.

C. Comparison between TPR and GTM/ALM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1</th>
<th>THE FEATURES OF TPR</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>TPR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Features</td>
<td>Emphasis on interaction/function/communication/practice/application</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Emphasis on stress-free, learner-centred, authentic text/scenario, subconscious/implicit/informal process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lowering the affective filter, promoting the motivation, building self-esteem and confidence, learning is an internalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roles</td>
<td>Emphasis on teacher is facilitator/model, student is negotiator/communicator/imitator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Formative/portfolio assessment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 2</th>
<th>THE FEATURES OF GTM/ALM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>GTM/ALM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Features</td>
<td>Emphasis on overuse/memorization/translation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher-centred, conscious/explicit/formal process, memorization,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roles</td>
<td>Teacher is controller/translator, student is follower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Examination-oriented</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Compared to table 1 and table 2, it can be seen that the features of TPR are different from the features of GTM/ALM, because TPR emphasizes the process of subconscious/implicit/informal to acquire the language. It also stresses that the interaction/function/communication of language acquisition is under the stress-free environment via authentic text/scenario. The benefits of TPR can be identified to lower the affective filter, promote the motivation, and build self-esteem and confidence. The achievement of learners’ English proficiency is expected to apply to the formative/portfolio assessment. On the contrary, the overuse/memorization/translation and exam-oriented assessment system are highlighted in GTM/ALM. Hence, the requirement of the curriculum matches the features of TPR.

D. Theoretical Foundation of TPR

1. Second language acquisition
Piaget points out that children learn language through the muscle control or experience with objects in their environment (cited in Cameron, 2001, p. 4). TPR instruction is via the student’s verbal and non-verbal responses, such as physical movement to look, to eat, to run, to reach for something, to laugh or to cry are all medium through which young learner can decode the language. Nevertheless, Asher’s view acquisition language through experience is similar
to Piaget’s. Vygotsky (1978) claims that the child as social, there is a potential distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving, learning as internalization, child’s foreign language learning depends on what they experience (cited in Cameron, 2001, p. 5). Therefore, one of the major features in TPR activities is based on problem-solving via pair work, group work with peers or teachers’ help (Asher, 1972).

Krashen (1983) puts forward that acquisition input hypothesis is a subconscious, implicit, informal process, learners are not usually aware of the fact that they are learning language, but only aware of the fact that they are using the language for communication. Meanwhile, he also claims that language learning is a conscious, explicit, formal process. A comparable result with Ellis (1999) argues that SLA is mainly via implicit language learning. The author supports their viewpoints, it seems that GTM highlights a kind of consciousness, explicit, formal teaching process (Wedell and Malderez, 2013), such as students are required to sit in their fixed seats and keep a good discipline. As far as I am concerned, TPR belongs to the process of language acquisition due to its implicit teaching. Additionally, Krashen (1983, p.66) puts forward that another hypothesis is comprehensible input, mean is supplied the content/structure of input a bit beyond the students’ current level. Similarly, an interesting parallel hypothesis is Bruna argued that the children learn a foreign language through scaffolding and routines (cited in Cameron, 2001), CLT suggests that the teacher needs to support comprehensible input to learners (Butler, 2011, p.36-57). A student who does not understand a particular command can observe others for clues that will prepare to respond correctly the next time (Asher, 1972; Asher, 1977).

Krashen (1983) argues that comprehension input is a necessary condition for SLA, but it is not sufficient, if learners with high motivation, sufficient confidence, a good self-image and low anxiety tend to do better in SLA (p. 66). On the contrary, it is very difficult for learners to acquire L2/foreign language. In short, as mentioned above, it seems that TPR fits well within the principles of SLA. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) also argue that learners will soon realize that they understand a lot of things with adequate confidence in TPR’s classroom.

2. Psychological foundation

Asher (1981) further notes when a teacher acts a complex utterance as quickly as he/she can, children initially do not say any words, just imitate the teacher’ action. In this period, students are internalizing the language what the teacher said just now, which Asher calls this period as Silent Period, after silent period, and then begin to produce the language. TPR is linked with the silence period in psychology, which points out that children should not be forced to output the language immediately and oral practice should be delayed in language classrooms until the learners are ready (Krashen, 1983, p.72; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

E. The Features of Young Learners

The young learner was defined that the aged in the range from 5 to 12 years old. Young learners learn language is different from older learners (McKay, 2012, p.5). Gardner (1993) and Reid (1999, p. 301) confirm that young learners have seven types of intelligence regarding individual differences.

The seven multiple intelligences
1. Linguistic (ability with and sensitivity to words, orally and in writing)
2. Musical (sensitivity to rhythm, pitch and melody)
3. Visual (sensitivity to form, colour, line and shape)
4. Logical mathematical (ability to use numbers effectively and reason well)
5. Bodily/kinesthetic (ability to use the body to express ideas and feels)
6. Interpersonal (ability to understand another person’s moods and intentions)
7. Intrapersonal (ability to understand yourself, your strengths and weaknesses)

Perceptual learning styles
1. Visual (learns more effectively through the eye (seeing))
2. Auditory (learns more effectively through the ears (hearing))
3. Tactile (learns more effectively through touch (hand-on))
4. Group (learns more effectively through working with others)
5. Global (learns more effectively through concrete experience and interaction with other people)

(Cited in Wedell and Malderez, 2013, p. 163; Gardner, 1993; Reid, 1999; 301)

According to the description of the above, there is a strong relationship between the characteristics of young learners and perceptual learning styles. As far as I am concerned, TPR can facilitate young learners’ the development of seven types of intelligence. Additionally, one of the things is identified by McKay (2012) that children bring to their language learning their own personalities, likes and dislikes and interests, their own individual cognitive styles and capabilities and their own strengths and weaknesses (p.23). Importantly, the children are full of abundant energy, like skipping, running and stepping by moving their bodies. Applying for TPR with motor actions meets their nature. In a word, TPR does not put the learner under stress, the classroom is so full of activeness, movement, happiness and so on (Miricì, 1999, cited in Er, 2013).

F. TPR Classroom Activities for Young Learners

Asher (1981) has suggested that TPR activities are conducted mainly based on storytelling, song, games, chant, rhyme and rhythm and so on. He confirms that game is played when one or more players compete or cooperate for pay-offs according to a set of rules (e.g. guessing games or competitive games) (p. 325). Additionally, games provide
children with opportunities to experience language. TPR songs are implemented by teachers through singing with physical action (e.g. looking, touching, grasping, laughing etc.). Working in groups involves children to use the language in order to negotiate with other peers (Asher, 1981). The tutor takes on the role of the parent, giving prompts, setting patterns. The innovative curriculum clearly reflects an activity based on TPR to encourage teaching and learning through listening, speaking, playing, doing, acting, etc. The aims are to provide a good opportunity for pupils to experience the language and facilitate their own discovery of meaning.

In conclusion, TPR has won popularity since it was introduced to China since the late of 1980s. Gong (2011) makes a comprehensive introduction to refer TPR’s the theoretical foundation. Wang (2012) puts forward TPR combined with games, drawing and chants, which can cultivate young learners’ positive attitude to learning English (cited in Li, 2016, p.18). TPR emphasizes a positive, collaborative and supportive classroom atmosphere. Children can develop overall’s competence including mental and physical. Despite their popularity at home and abroad, but it is also affirmed that faces some of the challenges in practice.

G. The Limitation of TPR

However, nothing is perfect. TPR also has its drawbacks (AI Harrasi, 2014, p. 40), one drawback is that some teachers may be obliged to follow the curriculum and to finish the task of teaching on time, so the teachers face the challenges of covering all activities within the 40 minutes. Especially, if the course book is full of dense activities, this can make teachers feel rushed and cannot give more attention to children’s comprehension. Another drawback is that TPR may be the lack of creativity, because TPR activities are basically based on the imitation of teacher’s speech and actions. Thus the pupils are not really trained to produce the novel utterance. For instance, TPR activities are based on a kind of command or requirement refer to listen, sing, match and do, the pupils do not have the opportunity to express their personal viewpoints.

III. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this part is to present the qualitative research design for this study, such as the rationale for carrying out the research, participants, instruments as well as the description of the research procedures. In addition, this part will also describe the strategies to collect the data, analyses the data, help to enhance research quality, address some ethical issues and limitations of the present research.

A. Research Aims, Significances and Questions

The aims are to explore if TPR is regarded as an effective way of teaching children, how the teacher implements TPR in practice and what factors that contribute to the TPR difficulties. It also is to help future teachers to implement TPR technique into their young learner teaching. The results of this study can also help me to reflect on my own teaching approaches. The following three research questions will be addressed.

RQ 1: Is TPR useful in teaching English to young learners? If it is, in what ways will it be effective?
RQ 2: How is TPR used in the classroom?
RQ 3: What challenges are there in using TPR?

B. Qualitative Research

As Kvale (1996) states that the qualitative research is intended to provide a detailed and rich description and in-depth understanding of an individual’s experiences. Thus, the qualitative research interview, observation and document analysis seem to be particularly suitable to investigate teacher experiences curricular implementation and challenges. The integration of methods was conducted through in-depth classroom observation as well as multiple perspectives’ interview derived from teachers, parents and students, plus documentary analysis. Mason (2002, p.33-4) advocates the integration of methods for the following reasons:

To explore different elements or parts of a phenomenon, ensuring that the researcher knows how they interrelate.
To answer different research questions.
To answer the same research question, but in different ways and from different perspectives.
To give greater or lesser depth and breadth to analysis.
To triangulate-corroborate-by seeking different data about the same phenomenon. (Cited in Cohen et al., 2011, p. 248)

Therefore, the author believes qualitative approach is suitable for the purpose of her study to help her explore TPR’s effectiveness and challenges, enhance the quality of study via triangulate-corroborate from different perspectives. A wide range of research approaches has been created for qualitative approach, such as ethnography, phenomenology, case study, action research (Richards, 2003, p.7). In this study, case study was employed.

C. Case Study

A case study in TESOL might focus on a single teacher and perhaps a small group of students in order to provide a detailed description of the unit (Richards, 2003, p. 21). Richards has also mentioned that it would be necessary for the case study to link between an in-depth interviews and classroom observation. Hence, here referred to two teachers’ cases:
Ms Lei – her observation and interview and her student and parent interview
Mr Li – his observation and interview and his student and parent interview

D. Participants

This study followed the general process of purposeful sampling. Patton (1990) argues that purposeful sampling is effective when a researcher seeks for participants who are likely to give in-depth resources necessary for dealing with research questions. The author decided to select six participants who were involved in this study including two teachers, two students and two parents. Campbell, et al. (2004) argue that many researchers find the informality of unstructured interviewing very suitable to insider’ research context when working with colleagues or familiar pupils or clients (p. 101).

Therefore, two teachers who are the author’s colleagues, and two students and two parents who are her relatives were invited to take part in this study. One of the reasons is that it is very appropriate for them to be as representative sampling of this study, they’re just like what she described in her context (e.g. students belong to left-behind children). Secondly, they are as her most familiar relatives, their moral character and education background were basically mastered by author. The author believed that they can tell her the real answer via the consistency of their words and actions. Additionally, children could be not feeling timid and scared as the most familiar person around them; they can audaciously express their views without any scruple.

For teachers, through making a call in advance to get their verbal consents, she sent a written consent form to them to confirm their agreement by signature.

For pupils and parents, firstly, the author introduced the purpose of the interview, duration and confidential information to parents in advance. The informed consent was similar to the teachers’ interview. After getting their verbal consents, the further interview would be conducted. The interview with children has obtained their parents’ permission by orally. The implementation of the study occurred at a private primary school, Guizhou province in China. They are from the same Grade (Grade 5), but in different classes.

IV. FINDINGS

The author will illustrate the main findings involving her research questions in this part, namely, the effectiveness, application of TPR and the challenges of TPR. The presentation of findings is in accordance with her research instrument, namely, two teachers’ cases. Finally, a comparison of findings of two teachers’ cases is summarized at the end of this part.

A. Ms Lei’s Case

Ms Lei’s teaching procedures were divided into 7 steps. Step 1, she adopted a song as warming up. Learners imitated the teacher’ action as well as sang a song. Step 2, she presented some pictures on the blackboard. Firstly, she just demonstrated the motor action and facial expression but not speaking. Then she initially made a command, no physical action, to require students speak words with actions. Step 3, she divided them into 5 groups to have a drill. Step 4, she asked the students to have a role-play, such as I say you do or I do you say. Step 5, she guided students play a guessing-games. Step 6, activities–sing a song was taught with the physical movement. The findings from above have identified that TPR activities were applied the throughout the classroom by TPR songs, games and role-play etc.

In the process of teaching, most of the students were motivated and highly engaged in the classroom, it can be seen that most of students were active, happy and interesting. The combination of observing and doing is sufficient to arouse the enthusiasm of students. I can see the students are very keen on singing, dancing and playing games with the physical movement. It is a harmonious relationship between students and teachers because of all of them always with smiles on their faces. But some students who look less enthusiastic owing to shyness and reticence in role-play, it seems hard for them to open their mouth to speak English with moving their bodies. By observation, it seems to indicate TPR’s effectiveness because of arousing the enthusiasm of students, meanwhile, some challenges are clearly revealed in the classroom (e.g. shyness, reticence, students’ English proficiency).

Ms Lei is a female, 38 years old, she has received training for teaching English to young learners 3 years ago, with 13 years of teaching experience. She has got the degree of MA-TESOL. When I asked whether she learnt about the TPR, she explained that TPR means the teacher through the motor actions, gestures, etc. to conduct English teaching. She responded her students like TPR activities very much. From the interview I can see that TPR is regarded as an effective way to evoke children’s interests. This is consistent with her classroom observation. Probably these findings have indicated potential challenges what TPR faces, because a good opportunity to use English maybe be reduced by excessive mother tongue use. Indeed, noise or discipline problems are also considered as a factor to cause TPR difficulty. TPR were effectively applied to the classroom in primary school. It reflected the characteristics of the CLT/TPR and the requirement of the curriculum.

Child A is Ms Lei’s student who lives with her grandparents and sister. Her parents work in Guangzhou. She likes both English class and her English teacher very much, because she can play games in English class. She showed that she spends less time to study English unless the teacher gives a command. She also did not know the significance of learning English. Sometimes her sister helps her to learn English. When I asked whether she uses English outside...
school, she responded: “No, nobody speaks English, I don’t dare to speak in public, and I’m worried about making mistakes.” According to the interview of Ms. Lei’s students we can see, games are regarded as a good way to teach young learners. But she seldom touches any English outside of school, she also seems unaware of the significance of learning English and a sense of shyness, probably these factors that contribute to TPR’s difficulties.

Parent A is Child A’s mother, she said that her child has a strong interest in English, she often supervises her children to watch cartoons with English version on TV, and imitating the pronunciations and actions of actors. The expectations for Children’s English learning, she announced that there was not any expectation in the primary school stage. As long as she was interested in it and feel happy. The findings indicate the attitude/expectation/supervision for parents toward English education the extent to which have influenced English study of young learners.

B. Mr Li’s Case

Mr Li’s class was consisted of lengthy greetings and warming up lasted about 10 minutes, first, he wrote the new words on the blackboard, he taught new words and phrases again and again, then to explain the meaning of the words in Chinese. He stressed the pronunciation of each word. He asked students to remember the vocabulary. 5 minutes was used to introduce grammar structure in Chinese, 5 minutes were used to speak English in terms of mechanical drills. 10 minutes were used to make a dialogue, only 5 minutes were applied to conduct the activities of TPR. He had noticed that there is little time left, so he had to make a summary and arrange the task of after-class.

According to the field notes from Mr Li, obviously, his class is more used by traditional approaches, because he emphasized on the meaning, pronunciation and memorization of each word, to some extent that have matched the features of GTM/ALM in the previous literature review. Students were required to repeat or remember contents what the teacher commanded. For one-third of the time, Chinese were used. They are passively engaged in the classroom with a little interaction. Part of them feels shy in the process of TPR. From field notes in the above we can see, to some extent, traditional approaches, Children’s shyness and time constraint have influenced on the implementation of TPR activities. This shows that the students’ English proficiency level is considered as a key factor to impact on teachers’ teaching approaches. He stated he did not know about TPR, the reason is that he is a novice and has not engaged in any training regarding TPR. But he often utilizes wards cards to demonstrate by moving his body, eye contact and facial expression.

According to the findings above, we can conclude that the attitude toward English education for the administrator or parents, teacher and student’ English proficiency are regarded as a critical factors that cause TPR difficulties. Child B who is Mr Li’s student who lives with her grandmother, her parents work in Fujian, because she hated reciting English words, she also stated that she likes playing games. Nobody helps her to learn English, do not learn English after school, it is not aware of the importance of learning English, my grandmother doesn’t know English. The responses of the children are consistent with the description of teachers. According to these descriptions, students like doing games rather than remembering words tediously. Consequently, the attitude towards English or education background for parents has influence on children’s English learning.

Parent B who is Child B’s mother, nobody concerned about education of child’s English, because of with low education level, grandparents are illiteracy. “When we were children, our family was poor; we have just received a little knowledge under primary level. We have no competence to guide my children. Therefore, learning depends on herself.” The findings gained from above are in line with teachers’ and students’ interview, the background of family education and parental expectation and the attitude towards English have also influenced on English learning. While, the children in my context, the parents are kept away from home, the children are the lack of parental supervision and love.

The book used is primary English which concluding 12 lessons with different topics refer to the authentic life of young children, such as school life, sports and food, etc. Each lesson is designed for a variety of activities. Such as let’s play, let’s chant, let’s rhythm, point and say, point and draw, match and sing, etc. The whole learning process is required to learn by doing. Therefore, the textbook matches the features of TPR/young learners. On the contrary, the findings gained from the author assignment module 5994, I can see a set of test papers from the final exam including two major sections: Listening (40 points) and writing (60 points). The total score is 100 points. The result was disclosed that assessing speaking items were zero (Xie, 2017). Although part of them related to listen and draw/ listen and write, but most of them stress memorize things mechanically rather than communicative skill.

V. DISCUSSION

In this section, the findings derived from above will be discussed intensively in terms of three research questions, the literature review and the context which have been presented earlier in this study. Through observation, interview, it can be seen, such as different communicative activities designed by Lei and Li, especially in Lei’s class, TPR activities were designed to the range from step 1 to step 7, and presented a good effect on students. The findings of the effectiveness of TPR/CLT indicate that 2 teachers share the similar belief which is in line with the features of CLT/TPR. Such as cultivating students’ competence, promoting students’ interaction. Asher (1972) claimed that TPR activities play an interactive effect between teacher-student and student-student in the authentic classroom. Emphasis on language’s experience, this point is consistent with Piaget (1967) and Vygotsky’s (1978) views. Evoking students’ interests and creating real communication scenario. Child A shared the same notion that they enjoyed the games, songs,
acting in the classroom. Lei though that she is facilitator and negotiator while students are acted as the state of the imitator and communicator in her class, this viewpoint is in accordance with what I observed, it also fits with the features of TPR/CLT. Krashen (1983) and Ellis (1999) claim that SLA is a subconscious, implicit and informal process. TPR is contacted with the trace theory which implies that more the target language is associated with physical action (Asher, 1984) in the previous part of the theory.

Krashen also indicates the SLA has the relevance with learners’ emotion, motivation and self-confidence. Asher (1977) states that TPR could effectively build learners’ self-esteem and confidence, when learners respond the commands through the motor movement because students feel secure, do not worry about making mistakes, even though they process low English proficiency (Celestino, 1993). The findings gained from the literature review, classroom observation and interview indicate benefits of TPR as follows: To sum up, according to the teachers, parents and students’ interview, Lei have identified TPR as an especially effective method to teach young learners who can successfully foster children’ interests via TPR activities with the motor actions. In a word, in the process of TPR, children learn more effectively through seeing, hearing, hands-on, complete body experience, working with others.

Through the observation and interview, the two teachers developed various tasks refer to the communicative purpose in their classroom, such as singing song, playing games, role-play and pair work in their classes. It can be clearly shown from Ms Lei’ class, students were actively involved in TPR activities to develop their communicative competences. The new curriculum also clearly reflects activities based on TPR to encourage teaching and learning through listening, speaking, playing, doing and acting.

It is commonly believed that students’ shyness/reticence, English proficiency level, the attitude towards English learning have a significant effect on the implementation of TPR. Children who with extremely low English proficiency as well as different English levels which are presented challenges for teachers to control the degree of the task’s difficulty. Additionally, when students are asked to do role-play or pair work, some of the students are reluctant to communicate. The reason of shyness/reticence would be tracked down my context. In my context, the minority of students belong to the left-behind children, the lack of parents’ love and supervision. Just as the literature mentioned that students’ reticence or low English proficiency is a major obstacle in the process of communication (Ai Harrasi, 2014; Li, 1998; McKay, 2012). Indeed, the findings indicated TPR which has its limitation, perhaps it is more suitable for children who are active and outgoing, for older or introverted children, it could be a big challenge.

Ms Lei shown that the shortage of professional English teacher for children is seen as a secondary factor, for example, the minority of young learner teachers are from the college school for supporting, just as Ms Lei said it is hard for me to switch my role owing to my double status, namely, I teach both adults in my college school and children in this primary school, just like McKay (2012) states that the teaching of young learners are different from adults. Some of them are novices who lack of training refers to young learner English or TPR. Ai Harrasi (2014, p. 39) in his study in Oman has illustrated that TPR may be misapplied by some young learners English teachers, because some teachers may have no idea about the rational principles behind it owing to lack of any training courses related to TPR.

As far as I am concerned, the lack of in-service has seriously influenced on the implementation of the teaching method. It also influenced the English proficiency of students. As the literature mentioned that the traditional approach mainly stresses the translation of second language (Ai Harrasi, 2014, p. 41) and exam-oriented assessment (Hu, 2010; Carless, 2007, p. 597). The challenges of the traditional methods are also about the fact that they are deeply rooted in education (Ai Harrasi, 2014, p.41). Wedell and Malderez (2013) claim that the designs of curriculum, teaching materials and test have influenced teaching method. Through the documentary analysis, even though the curriculum and textbook are entirely followed the features of TPR, while assessment materials are based on exam-oriented in practice. To some extent, exam-oriented have not referred to TPR activities, just as Carless (2007) argues that the contents of assessing have positive or negative impact on what goes on in the classroom and a potential constraint to the implementation of communicative teaching(p.597), the assessment material in this study has a negative effect on teaching. The findings from Mr Li’s case, it seems that it is very difficult for teachers to balance the task of teaching and TPT activities (40 minutes). TPR activities are regarded as a waste of time, this is consistent with the literature.

The findings show that the parents are not aware of the significance of English education, leading children to lack of supervision and responsibility to learn English. Their expectations for children are to get higher scores rather than speaking and interests (e.g. parent B’s interview). Ms Lei revealed that part of contents in the text book have beyond students’ level. In a word, apart from the challenges have mentioned in above, the department of education, parent and children are not aware of the importance of learning English, owing to parent with poor English levels lead to children are lack of supervision, love and cultivation from parents the extent to which cause children conservative traits as a big factor of TPR difficulty.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has addressed all of the author’s research questions. The findings of presentation are summarized from two teachers’ case studies. Meanwhile, the significance, aims and limitations of this study will be given to the restatement, the aims are to echo the author’s introduction. The findings derived from teachers’ classroom observation and interview with teachers and students identified that TPR is useful to teaching English to young learners, because it can effectively arouse students’ enthusiasm, evoke students’ interests, reduce affective filter, enhance motivation and
build up confidence to learn English. Meanwhile, it also can be proved that it has benefits in the aspects of students’ listening and imperative sentences etc. Most importantly, it can clearly reflect the features of young learner, and match the requirement of the curriculum for primary English. From the findings of two teachers’ observation and interview, we can see that TPR is mainly depending on students listening to a command and then immediately responding with the appropriate physical action, gesture, eyesight and facial expression via TPR songs, TPR games and pair work and so on.

Most importantly, this study identified TPR’s challenges in the author’s context, for instance, the factor derived from teachers, students and parents (e.g. the use of traditional method, students’ English proficiency, the lack of training, the lack of supervision and so on). However, it has been proved that curriculum and course books are consistent with the features of TPR, while the exam-oriented system is identified as a significant factor to cause TPR’s challenges. Actually, TPR technique also revealed its drawbacks (e.g. it is not suitable to teach grammar and introverted students). There is a bit limitation that the author has to acknowledge here. The research was conducted with a small number of participants with one-shot interview within a limited time, which may not obtain as much information as the author expected.

All in all, through a systemic introduction of TPR in this study, more teachers will know about it and may apply it in the future. The results of this study can also help the teacher to reflect on her own teaching approaches and support other teachers working in her school. It is useful to improve young learners’ English teaching, especially in the author own local context. Since there is a push in China and in her province to more English for young learners and at even earlier ages to learn English, it hopes that this study will add some small insights into ways of improving teaching English to young learners. As this study progressed, studying TPR on a large scale field in primary school arouse her great interest as she deepens understanding of TPR.

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Construction of Language Teachers’ Professional Competence in Education for Sustainable Development in Higher Education for Post-pandemic Era

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Abstract—Education for sustainable development is essentially a value education. It is an educational process that aims at the value recognition, perception, practice and sustainable value tendency of sustainable development. Language teachers’ competences for sustainable development education is a professional ability manifested in sustainable development education activities based on their recognition of relevant concepts and willingness to practice sustainable values in their personal lives and educational activities in higher education. The connotation, pedagogic goals and characteristics of sustainability education constitute the foundation of language teachers’ professional competences in education for sustainable development, which fall into three major categories of professional knowledge, professional skills and professional attitude.

Index Terms—professional competence, education for sustainable development, higher education, professional development, language teacher, post-pandemic era

I. INTRODUCTION

Covid-19 pandemic has been a global disaster in many ways (Gao & Zhang, 2020). It is a consequence of nature due to unsustainable development of human activities. The pandemic outbreak has set people to rethink the relationships between humans and nature. It has brought the issue of sustainable development in terms of environmental, social and economic dimensions back to the top priority in human development. Since education plays a role of a core discipline to disseminate sustainable development principles, increasing emphasis and attention are devoted to the education for sustainable development (Michalos et al., 2012; Tilbury, 2011; Olsson et al., 2015).

In the 21st century, the theme of overall development for human society lies in sustainable development, which is pursued by the world as a value goal. And the Sustainable Development Goals have become a mainstream aim since the United Nations Sustainable Development Summit in September 2015 adopted the document Transforming Our World: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. The World Education Forum in 2015 planned a global education roadmap for 2030 and put forward specific ideas and requirements for promoting education for sustainable development (ESD). Subsequently, the Global Action Plan for Education for Sustainable Development was launched, and the concepts of sustainable development and education for sustainable development thus gained global recognition and attention.

In particular, China has put forward higher requirements for the construction of ecological civilization and the goal of “greening” the country’s construction. In 2016, China released the “China National Program for the Implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development”, which fully launched the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. In 2017, a speech, entitled "Building a Community with a Shared Future for Mankind”, was delivered by President Xi of China, advocating a green, low-carbon, circular, sustainable production and lifestyle to balance the advancement of sustainable development (Xi, 2017). It clarifies China’s national position in the ‘2030 Sustainable Development Agenda’.

Education is a powerful guarantee for implementing sustainable development. Irina Bokova, the former Director-General of UNESCO, emphasized that education must teach people how to learn coexisting on a stressful planet. It must value cultural literacy, and help integrate the social, economic and environmental aspects of sustainable development (UN, 2015). In other words, education for sustainable development is the key to achieving sustainability. As an educational activity, the participation of language teachers with sustainable development educational capabilities is indispensable in the process of promoting ESD.

However, a major challenge has emerged as there is a clear mismatch between the essential significance and responsibilities of ESD and the existing qualified language teachers who are able to carry out ESD. And teacher training
is an effective way to bridge the gap. Therefore, from the standpoint of language teacher trainers, this paper intends to establish the structure of language teachers’ professional competences in the context of ESD for the purpose of providing guidance and reference for pertinent teacher training.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Education for sustainable development has been encountering multiple and complex social, economic, cultural, and environmental problems and issues. It highlights the combination of educational theories and social practice, as well as focuses on participation in solving practical problems associated with sustainable development. Accordingly, language teachers are expected to develop their professional competence to promote sustainable development in higher education.

A. ESD Definition

There are multiple versions of definitions for ESD. The core idea lies in the process of preparing students with knowledge, skills, and attributes in order to work and live in such a way that it ensures their environmental, social, and economic well-being both at present and for future (Longhurst, 2014). To be specific, it contextualizes their learning to the realities of their specialization, personal and study life in the way of motivating them to develop a notion of global citizenship, social justice, environmental and ecological protection, and sustainable economic development (Longhurst, 2014).

Centered on sustainable values, education for sustainable development emerged upon the needs of new era of sustainable development (Zhang, 2019). It also teaches people new knowledge and skills to enable them to respond to current and common challenges facing human society in the future. And it is considered as a holistic approach for implementing a dynamic and transformative process to further promote the sustainable development of society, economy, environment and culture in educational institutions (Biasutti, 2017).

Universities take it as their primary responsibility and obligation to contribute to a sustainable society in the perspectives of increasing teachers’ professional competence in ESD and leading to a deeper understanding and appreciation of this concept as well as larger-scale of implementation in the higher education (Barth & Rieckmann, 2012).

B. Aim

The aim of ESD consists of two dimensions: one is for teaching, and the other one is for learning. ESD practice in higher education intends to promote and strengthen students’ skills to develop a more sustainable social contest (Filho, 2015). The application of ESD in higher education could upgrade university language teachers in terms of professional development in the context of sustainable development as well as cultivate global citizens with sustainability values, knowledge and skills (Biasutti, 2017). The essence of teaching falls on the commitment to connect students’ academic learning with meaningful and consistent experience in a number of educational settings. Pedagogical methods and approaches are conducted to deliver experiential learning and develop key skills such as critical thinking skills, problem-solving skills, and creativity.

On the other hand, students are taught in such a way that it is more than just dissemination of information but a value system and attitudes towards life that are embedded throughout university life. Their concept of sustainability is established and reinforced through the participation of community workshops or projects. Skills that are needed for personal and professional development, such as communication, collaboration and innovation, are demonstrated and transferred to students. It is evidenced to exert a significant impact on their future employability as they continue to develop their understanding and behaviors of sustainable development.

Zhang (2019) has summarized and listed the ultimate goals of ESD as follows: Education at all levels should help educate people to (1) Establish sustainable development values; (2) Learn scientific knowledge of sustainable development; (3) Cultivate sustainable learning ability; (4) Practice sustainable lifestyle; (5) Pay attention to and participate in solving practical problems of sustainable development.

C. Features

It calls for a shift in people’s mind set towards more sustainable values, behaviors and lifestyles for a better quality of human life (Besong & Holldan, 2015). Similarly, an educational refocus should be placed on developing and transferring competences in sustainable development. It is pointed out that a major characteristic of ESD is its interdisciplinary nature as it reflects complex issues across various dimensions of the surroundings. A departure from courses focused on mere knowledge transmission is proposed, and at the same time, an emphasis on the development of autonomous learning and competences is encouraged in higher education institutions. ESD provides a new pedagogical perspective with its interdisciplinary and student-centered approaches for higher education (Natkin & Kolbe, 2016). It also encourages future-oriented skills and critical thinking (Biasutti & Frate, 2017). In response, universities should integrate sustainability into their curricula design and support collaborative teaching and research projects involved with sustainable development as an integrated part of the institution’s utmost mission, which could be viewed as a catalyst for systemic institutional change and educational reform (Wals et al., 2014).

Meanwhile, the introduction of ESD practice in higher education could be regarded as an impetus for promoting
professional competence of academic language teachers in the sustainability education context. As teachers are an essential pillar in training millions of graduates across all disciplines each year, and they are in a strategic position to foster sustainable awareness, there is no doubt that teachers’ capability and teacher education are critical to achieving ESD (Biasutti et al., 2017).

III. STRUCTURE OF PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCE IN ESD

A systematic literature review was used to capture and analyse literature that dealt with the content of professional competence in ESD. Existing and emergent structures related to language teachers’ ESD competence were identified and examined. This paper selects two representative models from macro and micro perspectives respectively.

A. Macro Professional Development Model of ESD

Biasutti et al. (2017) put forward a comprehensive macroscopic framework for teachers’ professional development in ESD in higher education.

![Framework for teachers’ professional development in ESD in higher education.

As shown in the above figure, teachers’ professional development consists of eight categories, covering three levels of teachers’ life. They are personal level, professional level and interpersonal level (Biasutti et al., 2017). It also applies to the professional development of language teachers in higher education, illustrated as following:

1. Attitudes. It refers to language teachers’ awareness, beliefs and attitudes towards ESD. It includes language teachers’ obligation and responsibility as an educator to promote sustainable development principles. It further covers their thoughts and reflections upon the impact of sustainability in working and personal life.

2. Teaching principles. It refers to the methodological and theoretical principles that language teachers have applied to their teaching practices under the framework of sustainability concepts and the integration of alternative educational methods, such as learner-centred approach, linking theory with practice, and interactions with external agencies and communities.

3. Teaching methods. According to ESD principles, language teachers should endeavour to modify their teaching methods and techniques for more extensive involvement by students, who would benefit more from the autonomous learning process and an active role in classroom activities.

4. Course design skills. It refers to the comprehensive ability to design, modify and implement the syllabus, including outlining teaching and learning objectives, selecting teaching materials and didactic approaches, measuring students’ cognitive load and shaping their time management skills.

5. Promotion of students’ skills. It aims to cultivate and enhance students’ capabilities. In specific, it is important for teachers to recognize the significance of broadening students’ individual interests in cultural study and raising their sustainability awareness in their life. Additionally, language teachers should also be obliged to address other skills such as life-long learning skills, critical-thinking and problem-solving skills.

6. Assessment methods. It is suggested that language teachers adopt new assessment process of multiple techniques to evaluate students. In accordance with pedagogic objectives, teaching outcomes should be evaluated and assessed in various forms such as portfolios, reflection paper, reports, individual presentations, group discussions, project-based teamwork, and so on.
Difficulties and obstacles. It firstly originates from students’ resistance to the changes induced by ESD reform. Other issues pertain to class management, teaching time management, teachers’ substantial workload and so on.

B. Team-work project. It touches upon aspects of characterizing group activities during the teaching practice. It highlights the importance of disseminating the sustainable development ideas and ESD principles through collaborative learning.

B. Micro Overview of Teachers’ Professional Competence in ESD

In contrast with Biosutti’s (2017) framework, after collecting and combing previous literature, Zhang (2019) established a holistic overview of the connotation and denotation of ESD language teachers’ competence. He put their professional competence in ESD into three dimensions, namely professional values, professional knowledge, and professional skills, as shown in the following tables.

1. Professional value

Zhang (2019) developed the content of professional values of ESD from 11 indicators in three categories: values of sustainable development, affects, and educational concepts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Values of sustainable development</th>
<th>Sub-category</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Understanding the significance of sustainable development and ESD</td>
<td>Fully aware of the facts that: Human beings and the environment are interdependent and share a common destiny; Sustainable development is the ultimate goal for human beings; Human economic and social development cannot exceed the carrying capacity of resources and the environment; ESD equips educators with knowledge, skills and values to promote the realization of sustainability; ESD is interdisciplinary by nature and could be integrated in different disciplines.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental values</td>
<td>Recognize the facts that: Human being is an integral part of the natural environment; Human should respect the rights of other living things on the planet; Human should take actions to protect the natural environment and natural resources.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Social values</td>
<td>Fully aware of the facts that: Everyone is free and equal; Value life and respect the basic rights of others; Recognize the significance of a peaceful and non-violent world to humanity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural values</td>
<td>Appreciate the diversity of world cultures; Understand and respect the differences between various cultures; Value national culture and tradition.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resources values</td>
<td>Acknowledge the circular economy as a sustainable economic development model; Develop a resource-conservation lifestyle.</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Affects</th>
<th>Sub-category</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility awareness</td>
<td>Role model in protecting natural environment and natural resources in life and work; Willingness of involving in environmental volunteer activities.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sustainability obligation</td>
<td>Obligation in teaching sustainability in schools; Willingness to spread sustainable concepts and ideas to people around.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Passion for ESD</td>
<td>Continuous interest in sustainability issues; Active acquiring relevant knowledge; Active participation in further ESD trainings.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sustainable lifestyle</td>
<td>Actively advocate and practice water and electricity saving and low-carbon travel in daily life; Environmentally-friendly disposal of domestic waste; Green household consumption</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education reform</td>
<td>Recognize the significance of ESD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value education</td>
<td>Cultivate students as the agents for SD</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

Professional values in ESD involve environmental, economic, and social dimensions of sustainable development in terms of sustainability awareness, attitudes, and behaviors (Biasutti et al., 2017). These three dimensions are viewed as interrelated and intertwined: The environmental value concerns with the vulnerability of the resources and the physical environment; the social value is based on a system of democracy, which enables people to become responsible global citizens and actively participate in pushing society in a sustainable direction; the economic value exerts fundamental impact on the other two dimensions in terms of potential economic growth and economic limits. Language teachers’ professional values should be considered essential in developing students’ environmental and ethical awareness in humanity that is consistent with sustainable development (Biasutti et al., 2017). Their favourable dispositions towards sustainable human development as well as their sustainable practice in daily life help diffuse values and attitudes into sustainability education.
Furthermore, higher education institutions should lead to the development of interdisciplinary education to address sustainability issues and advocate sustainable development (UNESCO, 2014). Sustainability education is far from knowledge input and general ability training but has become a cultural awareness that shapes people’s worldview, attitudes and lifestyle choices. It guides people to establish sustainable values and form sustainable behaviors.

Accordingly, language teachers in higher education, therefore take on an unparalleled role in the promotion of sustainability education through their educational activities and interactions with external agencies and communities (Minguet et al., 2011). Naturally, being ESD role models for students, language teachers become a strong spiritual driving force and exert a direct and profound impact on the establishment of students’ sustainable values. One of the most indispensable elements in sustainable values is the concept of ‘teacher spirit’ (Zhu, 2017). In this regard, the International Teacher Education Forum has also formed a consensus that in order to be an outstanding ESD practitioner, teachers must also possess the basic qualities and characteristics of dedication, responsibility, integrity and love of education.

Following the guidelines of the international communities of sustainable development, China also regards the construction of ecological civilization as a national development strategy and dedicates to incorporate sustainability into its formal education systems, in all relevant subjects, and in non-formal and informal education. It is believed that ESD is a kind of positive education based on a deep sense of social crisis and responsibility towards the future of human being. It discovers practical problems of unsustainable development in the social, economic, environmental and cultural fields, and guide students to think critically and use innovative ability to propose solutions to these problems.

Sustainable development education has formed its own unique educational concept in practice, that is, the activities of sustainable development education are action-oriented and student-centered, and focus on the development of students’ critical thinking ability and innovation and problem-solving ability. Understanding and implementing these concepts in practice is an essential factor for teachers’ sustainable development of education capabilities.

2. Professional knowledge

Mastering a series of professional knowledge of sustainable development education is a prerequisite for teachers to carry out sustainable development education and teaching activities and ensure teaching quality. Extensively selecting thirty aspects of global issues that must be addressed in education for sustainability, Zhang (2019) has classified them into two major categories, that is, general knowledge and scientific knowledge of sustainable development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE II. TEACHERS’ PROFESSIONAL KNOWLEDGE OF ESD</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Dimension</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Professional knowledge</td>
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Professional knowledge of ESD will equip language teachers with knowledge of sustainable development and with concerns for environmental, social, economic and cultural sustainability. It will also enable language teachers to grow more competent and confident and increase their opportunities for acting for a productive and healthy life in harmony with nature (UN, 2002).

On the one hand, it is evident that ESD has undertaken quite a journey after the concept of sustainable development had been recognized and promoted universally. What’s more, ESD is acknowledged as a lifelong process of learning from early childhood to higher education even to the whole life of people. With heightened general knowledge of sustainable development, such as the origin of sustainability, the history of ESD, the ultimate goals of ESD, the policies and regulations of international and national institutions of sustainable development, educators can be more effective in spreading sustainable ideas implemented in discipline teaching.

On the other hand, scientific knowledge of ESD covers a broad and comprehensive range of concepts, encompassing interrelated environmental, economic, social and cultural issues. Among which, key themes of sustainable development include poverty alleviation, peace, ethics, citizenship, democracy and governance, justice, security, human rights, health, responsibility in local and global contexts, gender equity, cultural diversity, production and consumption pattern, rural and urban development, environmental protection, corporate responsibility, natural resource management and biological and landscape diversity, and so on (UN, 2002).

The development of a sustainable society should be seen as a continuously evolving process during which issues and
dilemmas will be explored, and appropriate answers and solutions will be proposed as people’s experience increases. Therefore, sustainability education should be elaborated and complemented in an integrative and holistic approach.

3. Professional skills

Constructivist learning theories and learner-centered methodologies should be considered in order to produce effective improvement in the quality of knowledge and values of sustainability (McNaughton, 2012; Scoullos et al., 2017; Biasutti & Frate, 2017). More importantly, innovative teaching methods with ESD characteristics should be adopted. For instance, sustainability education is supposed to be interdisciplinary and holistic. It implements learner-centered teaching approach to promote students’ critical thinking and problem solving ability both within the classroom and in multilateral collaborations with schools, local communities, private sectors, non-government organizations, and so forth.

Regarding professional skills, the following characteristics of ESD teaching methods outlined by Scoullos et al. (2017) are considered: task-based teaching, student-centered teaching methods, higher-order thinking skills, future-oriented thinking, innovative thinking, critical thinking, interdisciplinarity, linking theory with practice and linking local and global issues. Language teachers’ ESD professional skills are summarized into two categories of teaching skills and instructive skills with six subcategories (Table 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sub-category</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professional skills</td>
<td>ESD teaching skills</td>
<td>Teaching mode</td>
<td>Be able to implement: Interdisciplinary teaching of ESD; Student-centered teaching approach; Value education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning strategy</td>
<td>Be able to: Raise students’ motivation and initiatives; Master learning strategies of inquiry-learning, experiential learning, critical learning, social learning, etc.;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching design</td>
<td>Be able to: Explore ESD value within specific discipline; Establish teaching goals of ESD in line with students’ level; Integrate SD theme into syllabus; Design student-centered and real-life learning activities.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teaching principles</td>
<td>Be able to: Launch interdisciplinary feature lectures, seminars, etc.; Organize team-work project in SD learning; Cultivate critical thinking and innovative thinking.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>Be able to: Grade students’ learning process and results objectively; Formative evaluation of students’ achievement (raising questions, social practice, task fulfillment, peer-review, etc.); In-time feedback.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESD instructive skills</td>
<td>Instructional skills in SD</td>
<td>Be able to: Collect data and analyze SD incidents globally; Observe and analyze SD issues in multiple perspectives; Interact with external agencies and communities.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The first and foremost category of professional skills lies in the teaching skills of ESD language teachers. It covers altogether five aspects: teaching mode, learning strategy, teaching design, teaching principles and assessment.

The teaching mode refers to the approaches language teachers adopt to implement sustainability education, such as student-centered teaching, interdisciplinary teaching, and value education. It aims to strengthen students’ motivations and initiatives in the mastery of several learning strategies. The teaching design ability refers to the use of different teaching principles and strategies as well as students’ participation in designing a variety of situational issues or problems to which students are guided and facilitated by the language teacher to work out the solutions. In this process, students’ critical thinking and communicative skills are promoted in a positive and effective learning environment.

In teaching practice, language teachers should bear a strong awareness of sustainable development and enhance their competence to integrate the idea of sustainable development into the curriculum. Their professional competences in ESD are demonstrated in two ways. On the one hand, language teachers play a role model in maintaining a sustainable lifestyle and a consistent interest in sustainable development in both local and international contexts. On the other hand, teachers should be able to evaluate the teaching and learning outcomes in their ESD practices. By means of objective and scientific formative evaluation system, language teachers’ professional competences and students’ learning abilities could be promoted to a great extent.

The second major category of professional skills is ESD language teachers’ instructive skills. A reoriented focus is required from solely providing knowledge to enhancing students’ hands-on capabilities of handling real-life situations and identifying possible solutions. ESD language teachers themselves should also possess such key skills as the abilities to collect and analyze sustainable development events from a multi-dimensional perspective as well as propose innovative solutions. It would exert an impact on the structure of teaching and learning programs and would also change
IV. CONCLUSION

Under the current national strategic goal of building ecological civilization, the education for sustainable development at schools of all levels is the essential foundation of the national sustainable construction. ESD paves a path for students to master the skills, knowledge, attitudes and values which enable them to take responsible actions and informed decisions and eventually make a contribution to sustainable development in aspects of environmental, economic, and societal improvement for present and future generations. Hence ESD has been given a significant role in raising students’ sustainable awareness and reinforcing their skills involved in sustainable development. Therefore, there is an urgent need to build the capacity of educators on issues of teaching and learning methodologies related to sustainability education. Language teachers, equipped with professional knowledge and skills, are more capable of advocating ESD teaching and activities at high standards. More importantly, studies on the construction of language teachers’ professional competence in ESD will also provide references for teacher education and evaluation both within and beyond the institutions.

ESD has been integrated into teacher training in institutions of all kinds. Educators are expected to enhance their competences to teach sustainability issues, conduct praxis-oriented interdisciplinary research, and inform policies on ESD and sustainable development (UNESCO, 2014). They are taken as one of the most important levers in facilitating sustainability learning and fostering educational reform.

Educational institutions and policy makers should acknowledge and reward language teachers who advocate for sustainability by means of focusing on multidisciplinary education, critical thinking and community engagement. It is indicated that colleges and universities should initiate a holistic strategy to incorporate sustainability education into their core values (Pompeii et al., 2019). Language teachers’ professional competences would be tremendously strengthened if their teaching excellence, academic research and ESD practice could be recognized and awarded, which is essential to the complex process of sustainability education in higher education.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Adoption of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in Saudi Arabian EFL Classrooms

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Abstract—This study aimed to examine EFL teachers’ concerns about the adoption of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) in Saudi Arabia. The Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) was used to analyze the participants’ stages of concern (SoC) about MALL. The study also investigated whether some specific demographic and technographic variables (gender, age, teaching experience, and professional development) had any statistically significant effect on EFL teachers’ stages of concern about MALL. The participants in this study were (130) Saudi EFL public school teachers. The results revealed that the participants had high concerns at the Informational, Personal, and Management stages and minimal concerns at the Awareness, Refocusing, Collaboration, and Consequence stages. The MANOVA analysis revealed no significant difference among EFL teachers in terms of their MALL stages of concerns in relation to their gender, age, and teaching experience. Such findings indicate that Saudi EFL teachers’ gender, age, and teaching experience have no effect on their concerns about using and implementing MALL. However, the MANOVA analysis yielded a significant difference among EFL teachers in terms of their professional development. These results entail that Saudi EFL teachers’ professional development has a significant effect on their concerns about MALL. The study concluded that technology-related professional development could help decrease teachers’ self-concerns and increase their impact-concerns. The study recommended providing EFL teachers with technology-related professional development to ensure successful MALL adoption.

Index Terms—English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL), Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM), Stages of Concerns (SoC)

I. INTRODUCTION

Some researchers asserted that we are moving from the "Age of the PC" to the "Age of Mobilism" in which "classrooms move from 'I Teach' teacher-centric pedagogy to 'We Learn' pedagogy where the teacher learns along with the student, mastering content and practicing the key 21st century skills" (Norris & Soloway, 2011, p.3). In the same vein, Prensky (2001) described today's students as "digital natives" who spend most of their time using mobile phones, videogames, and digital players. The exponential growth of information and communication technologies has reshaped the EFL learning and teaching landscape. To cope with this rapid change, EFL research has gone through three major phases: (1) Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), (2) Web Assisted Language Learning (WALL), and (3) Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL). While there is an abundance of literature examining the adoption and integration of CALL and WALL, research on Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) is still in its infancy (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008). Current research on MALL covers a variety of topics including learning theories, pedagogical approaches, instructional models, curriculum design, teachers' and students' attitudes, and technical requirements. Investigating teachers' stages of concern and their levels of use of MALL is of paramount significance to ensure the effective adoption and integration of new technologies into EFL classrooms.

A. Statement of the Problem

Despite the growing research on the positive outcomes of integrating mobile technologies into EFL teaching and learning, little research has investigated the stages of concern about MALL in Saudi Arabian EFL classrooms. This study attempts to fill this research gap and contributes to existing research by examining EFL teachers’ stages of concern (SoC) and analyzing the factors that might impact MALL adoption among EFL teachers through investigating whether EFL teachers’ gender, age, teaching experience, and professional development have any significant effect on their stages of concern about MALL.

B. Purpose of the Study

Drawing on the above-mentioned research gap, this study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What are EFL teachers' stages of concern (SoC) about Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL)?
2. Do gender, age, teaching experience, and professional development have any statistically significant effect on teachers' stages of concern (SoC) about MALL? This question is divided into four sub-questions:
a. Is there a statistically significant difference among EFL teachers in terms of their stages of concern about MALL based on their gender?
b. Is there a statistically significant difference among EFL teachers in terms of their stages of concern about MALL based on their age?
c. Is there a statistically significant difference among EFL teachers in terms of their stages of concern about MALL based on their teaching experience?
d. Is there a statistically significant difference among EFL teachers in terms of their stages of concern about MALL based on their professional development?

C. Significance of the Study

The findings of this study contribute valuable information for researchers, curriculum designers, and policy makers to understand the stages of concerns about MALL among EFL teachers in order to provide them with appropriate professional development activities, effective instructional methods, and interactive technology-based curricula and programs. Investigating the factors that influence teachers’ stages of concerns about MALL may help in understanding the adoption patterns, implementation processes, and expected challenges concerning mobile assisted language learning. It is hoped that the findings of this study inspire professionals and institutions to provide appropriate professional development resources and programs that facilitate successful adoption and integration of MALL.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition and Features of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL)

The rapidly-growing information and communication technologies have reshaped learning from D-Learning (distance) to E-Learning (electronic) to M-Learning (mobile) (Basak, et al., 2018; Kim, 2012; Korucu & Alkan, 2011; Ozuorcun & Tabak, 2012). M-Learning is defined as “any educational provisioning where the sole or dominant technologies are handheld or palmtop devices” (Traxler, 2005, p. 262). This new kind of learning takes account of “the mobility of technology, mobility of learners and mobility of learning” (El-Hussein & Cronje, 2010, p. 20). M-Learning is not constrained by time, place, and space; in addition, students are not restricted by specific age, gender, or geography to participate in learning opportunities (Behera, 2013). The educational potential of M-Learning can radically change the learning environment because it offers more choice in when, where, and how teachers teach and students learn (Walsh & Shaheen, 2013).

As the movement from D-Learning to E-Learning to M-Learning has taken place over the past few years, a similar transition in second language teaching has also shifted from Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) to Web Assisted Language Learning (CALL) to Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL). As a subset of both M-Learning and CALL, MALL is considered as an approach to language learning that utilizes mobile devices such as mobile phones (e.g. iPhone), tablets (e.g. iPAD.), MP3/MP4 players (e.g. iPods), and PDAs (e.g. Blackberry) (Valarmathi, 2011). What makes MALL different from CALL is its portable devices that provide learners with continuous access and constant interaction anywhere, anytime according to their contexts (Kukulska-Hulme and Shield, 2008). Some of the most distinctive features which mobile technologies bring to the language learning context are mobility and portability (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008); accessibility, affordability, and feasibility (Zurita & Nussbaum, 2004); individuality, connectivity, and interactivity (Lan et al., 2007); inventiveness of knowledge acquaintance and integration of instructional content (Yedla, 2013).

B. The Impact of MALL on EFL Learning

Much of the research conducted on MALL focused on the impact of using mobile devices on acquiring language skills. Alemi et al. (2012) employed a mobile-based SMS vocabulary program for university students and reported a significantly better vocabulary retention by participants. Amer (2010) developed a mobile-based application for learning idiomatic expressions and collocations and found a significant correlation between learners’ use of the application and their scores on the quizzes. Demouy & Kukulska-Hulme (2010) investigated students' experiences when accessing listening and speaking activities on their own portable devices (mobile phones, iPods, and MP3 players) and indicated that the use of those devices improved students’ listening and speaking skills. Chang & Hsu (2011) developed a PDA-based system to support EFL students' reading comprehension through providing them with reading-assisting functions of instant translation and annotation modes. The study concluded that the system significantly contributed to enhancing EFL learners in reading comprehension. Anaraki (2009) designed and developed a mobile flash-based learning system and reported a significant impact of the system on students’ pronunciation, listening, and conversation skills. Facer, Abdous, & Camarena (2009) investigated the impact of academic podcasting on students' learning outcomes and discovered that podcasts helped students improve their listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, as well as increase their knowledge of vocabulary and grammar.

C. The Concerns-based Adoption Model (CBAM)

The Concern-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) is a conceptual framework that provides tools and techniques for describing, facilitating, and measuring the implementation process of an innovation (Hall et al., 1973). According to
Straub (2009), the CBAM provides "a developmental perspective on how an individual's concerns influence his or her integration of an innovation." (p. 632). The CBAM has three diagnostic dimensions (Figure 1) for guiding and assessing the adoption process: (1) Innovation Configuration (IC); (2) Stages of Concern (SoC); and (3) Levels of Use (LoU). For the scope of this study, only the Stages of Concern (SoC) component will be utilized to determine EFL teachers' concerns about the adoption of MALL.

Stages of Concern (SoC) is a diagnostic framework for describing and analyzing people's feelings and concerns about an innovation. It focuses on individuals' perceptions and attitudes rather than behaviors and actions toward an innovation. When adopting an innovation, individuals go through a change process. If their concerns are considered, their adoption of the innovation will be more successful (Hall & Hord, 1987). An Innovation refers to a new strategy, program, or practice. Concerns refer to the categorization of expressions stated by the users related to their use of the innovation. Stages of Concern are a developmental progression of these concerns. (George et al., 2006, p. 7).

Hall & Hord (1987) proposed seven stages of concern (SoC) that individuals go through in their process of change when adopting an innovation as follows:

- **Stage (0) Awareness**: is a stage in which individuals have no knowledge/concern about or involvement with the innovation.
- **Stage (1) Informational**: is a stage in which individuals show a general awareness of and positive interest in the innovation. Particular attention in this stage is focused on the innovation's characteristics, requirements, and effects.
- **Stage (2) Personal**: is a stage in which individuals are uncertain about the demands of the innovation, their inadequacy to meet those demands, and their role with the innovation. Issues reflected in this stage include potential conflicts with existing structure, personal commitment, and financial implications.
- **Stage (3) Management**: is a stage in which individuals focus their attention on the processes and tasks of using the innovation and the best use of information and resources. Particular attention in this stage is centered on organization, management, scheduling, and time demands.
- **Stage (4) Consequence**: is a stage in which individuals focus their attention on the impact of the innovation on students. Concerns reflected in this stage include the relevance of the innovation for students, evaluation of student's outcomes, and changes needed to increase students' outcomes.
- **Stage (5) Collaboration**: is a stage in which individuals focus their attention on coordinating and cooperating with others regarding the use of the innovation.
- **Stage (6) Refocusing**: is a stage in which individuals focus their attention on exploring other ways and alternatives to use the innovation.

**D. The Relationship between the Stages of Concern (SoC) and Innovation Adoption**

The Stages of Concern (SoC) framework has been extensively used in previous studies as a frame of reference to examine and measure users' concerns about innovation adoption. According to Schoepp (2002), a successful implementation of an educational innovation is largely dependent on teachers' concerns about that innovation; and for technology integration to be successful and effective, the concerns of teachers must be highly considered. Using the SoC framework, Watkins (2014) examined the relationship between teachers' stages of concern and technology integration including specific demographic variables and reported a significant relationship between teachers' stages of concern about technology integration and some specific demographic variables, as well as a significant relationship.
between teachers’ levels of technology integration and some specific demographic variables. Goktalay (2013) investigated faculty members’ stages of concern with regard to the adoption of social media technology and found a strong relationship between their stages of concern and their levels of use of social media. The study also revealed that the lack of faculty professional development and the lack of support activities were among the main barriers that hinder the adoption of social media technology in the classroom. Ball (2014) explored faculty concerns toward implementing mobile technology devices in the classroom and found that age, gender, and teaching experience did not have a significant difference on faculty concerns toward using mobile technology devices in the classroom. Chen (2017) investigated the perceptions and acceptance of university EFL instructors and students toward mobile learning and indicated that both instructors and students had a positive perception toward M-Learning in and out of the classroom, had a high acceptance level of M-Learning for EFL teaching and learning, and had a positive relationship between their perceptions and their acceptance. Schoepp (2002) examined the relationships between EFL teachers’ technological use, concerns, and perceived barriers toward technology integration and discovered a very high correlation between teachers’ stages of concern and their levels of use of technology. The study reported no significant difference between gender and computer use and no significant difference between their teaching experience and their stages of concern. Atkins & Vasu (2000) studied teachers’ concerns, knowledge, and use of technology and revealed significant relationships between teachers’ stages of concern and level of technology integration, hours of technology training, and age.

III. Method

A. Research Design

This study employed a quantitative research design to examine teachers’ concerns about the adoption of MALL and to investigate whether some specific demographic and technographic variables (gender, age, teaching experience, and professional development) have any statistically significant effect on EFL teachers’ stages of concern about MALL.

B. Instrument and Data Collection

The Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ) was used to examine the participants’ concerns about the adoption of mobile assisted language learning. The SoCQ is a self-report, 35-item instrument designed to assess participants’ stages of concern about adopting an innovation (George et al., 2006). The SoCQ measures seven stages of concern that reflect three dimensions: self (awareness, informational, and personal); task (management); and impact (consequence, collaboration, and refocusing). Each stage was expressed as follows: Stage 0: Awareness (e.g. "I am not concerned about the innovation"); Stage 1: Informal (e.g. "I’d like to know more about the innovation"); Stage 2: Personal (e.g. "How will using the innovation affect me?"); Stage 3: Management (e.g. "How much time do I need to get my materials ready when using the innovation?"); Stage 4: Consequence (e.g. "How will my use of the innovation affect my students"); Stage 5: Collaboration (e.g. "I’d like to coordinate my use of the innovation with other colleagues"); Stage 6: Refocusing (e.g. "I have some ideas about something that would work even better") (George et al., 2006).

The authors of CBAM indicated that scoring the SoCQ requires calculating raw scores for each stage, locating the percentile score for each stage, and plotting the results on the stages of concern profile chart. The percentile score represents the relative intensity of concern at each stage. The higher the score, the more intense the concerns are at that stage. The lower the score, the less intense the concerns at that stage (George et al., 2006).

C. Validity & Reliability

The Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ) has been extensively used in research studies, dissertations, and programs and its validity and reliability have been tested on various studies. George et al. (2006) asserted that the validity of the SoCQ scores was established by inter-correlation matrices, results of interview data, and confirmation of expected group differences and changes over time. George et al. (2006) also reported high reliability scores of SoCQ with alpha coefficients ranging from .64 to .83 and test-retest correlations ranging from .65 to .86.

For the scope of this study, the reliability of the instrument was measured again and yielded stable and consistent results (Table 1) which proved the instrument to be valid and reliable for measuring the SoCQ of the participants in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Number of Items</th>
<th>Alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage (0) Awareness</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage (1) Informational</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage (2) Personal</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage (3) Management</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage (4) Consequence</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage (5) Collaboration</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage (6) Refocusing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
D. Data Collection and Analysis

Data was collected from a sample of (130) Saudi EFL teachers. The participants were full-time teachers in Saudi public schools. The participants came from several cities in Saudi Arabia, namely, Riyadh, Jeddah, Dammam, Buraidah, Abha, and Arar. The SoCQ was distributed and collected electronically (web-based) and results obtained in this study were analyzed using SPSS Statistics.

For the scope of this study, four independent variables and seven dependent variables were investigated. The independent variables were gender, age, teaching experience, and professional development. Gender included two groups: male and female. Age was divided into three groups: 20-38 years old, 39-48 years old, and 49-60 years old. Teaching experience was also divided into three groups: 0-10 years, 11-20 years, and 21-30 years. Professional development included two groups: teachers who had professional development and teachers who did not have professional development. The dependent variables were Awareness, Informational, Personal, Management, Consequence, Collaboration, and Refocusing.

Descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) were computed to examine participants' stages of concern about MALL. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), using Wilks' Lambda (Λ) with an alpha of .05, was conducted to test whether there was a significant difference among participants' stages of concern about MALL based on some selected demographic and technographic variables (gender, age, teaching experience, and professional development).

IV. RESULTS

A. Participants’ Overall Stages of Concern (SoC)

To examine participants’ stages of concern about MALL, descriptive statistical analysis was computed (Figure 2) and results showed that the Informational stage was the highest stage of concern for participants, followed by the Personal stage as the second highest stage of concern, followed by the Management stage as the third highest stage of concern. The minimal stages of concern for participants were Consequence, Collaboration, Refocusing, and Awareness respectively.

![Figure 2. Profiles of Participants’ Overall Stages of Concern about MALL](image)

B. Participants’ Stages of Concern (SoC) Based on Gender

Investigating the participants' stages of concern about MALL based on their gender (Figure 3) revealed that the male participants expressed higher concerns than female participants at the Informational, Personal, Collaboration, and Refocusing stages; while female participants showed higher concerns than male participants at the Awareness, Management, and Consequence stages.
A one-way MANOVA was conducted to analyze whether gender had any statistical significant effect on the participants' stages of concern about MALL. The MANOVA results (Table 2) revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in teachers' concerns based on their gender, $F (7, 114) = 1.055$, $p = 0.397$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.939$. Because the MANOVA test was not statistically significant, there was no need to conduct ANOVA test on each stage of concern.

### Table 2: MANOVA Tests for Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Wilks' $\Lambda$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>$P$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.939</td>
<td>1.055</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>0.397</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

C. Participants’ Stages of Concern (SoC) Based on Age

Analyzing the participants’ stages of concern about MALL based on their age (Figure 4) indicated that they all shared the same concerns scoring high on the Informational, Personal, and Management stages; while scoring low on the Awareness, Collaboration, Refocusing, and Consequences stages. However, the profile of the age group (49-60 years old) expressed higher concerns than the other two groups. In contrast, the profile of the age group (20-38 years old) showed lower concerns than the other two groups.

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to scrutinize whether age had any statistical significant effect on the participants’ stages of concern about MALL. The MANOVA results (Table 3) revealed that there was no statistically
significant difference in teachers' concerns based on their age, $F (14, 228) = 1.592$, $p = 0.145$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.950$. Because the MANOVA test was not statistically significant, there was no need to conduct ANOVA test on each stage of concern.

**TABLE 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MANOVA TESTS FOR AGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**D. Participants’ Stages of Concern (SoC) Based on Teaching Experience**

Exploring the participants' stages of concern about MALL based on their teaching experience (Figure 5) showed that they had varying concerns. The participants who had (0-10) years of teaching experience showed highest concerns at the Informational stage and lowest concerns at the Consequence stage; whereas, the participants who had (21-30) years of teaching experience had the highest concerns at the Personal stage and the lowest concerns at the Refocusing stage.

![Figure 5. Profiles of Participants’ Stages of Concern about MALL Based on Teaching Experience](image)

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to investigate whether teaching experience had any statistical significant effect on the participants' stages of concern about MALL. The MANOVA results (Table 4) revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in teachers' concerns based on their teaching experience, $F (14, 228) = 1.252$, $p = 0.197$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.902$. Because the MANOVA test was not statistically significant, there was no need to conduct ANOVA test on each stage of concern.

**TABLE 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MANOVA TESTS FOR TEACHING EXPERIENCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**E. Participants Stages of Concern (SoC) Based on Professional Development (PD)**

Examining the participants' stages of concern about MALL based on their professional development (Figure 6) indicated that the participants who had no previous PD expressed higher concerns than the participants who had previous PD at the Awareness, Informational, Personal, Management, and Consequence stages; whereas, participants with previous PD showed higher concerns than their counterparts at the Collaboration and Refocusing stages.
A one-way MANOVA was conducted to examine whether professional development had any statistical significant effect on the participants’ stages of concern about MALL. The MANOVA results (Table 5) revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in teachers' concerns based on their professional development, $F (7, 114) = 3.601, p=.001$, Wilks' $\Lambda = 0.924$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5</th>
<th>MANOVA Tests for Professional Development</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effect</td>
<td>Wilks’ $\Lambda$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Development</td>
<td>0.924</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because the MANOVA test was statistically significant, the ANOVA test was conducted on each stage of concern. The ANOVA results (Table 6) showed that there was a significant difference in five stages of concern between those who had professional development and those who did not have any previous PD, namely, Stage 1: Informational ($p = .001$), Stage 2: Personal ($p = .003$), Stage 3: Management ($p = .007$), Stage 4: Consequence ($p = .03$), and Stage 5: Collaboration ($p = .04$).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6</th>
<th>ANOVA Test for Professional Development</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stage of Concern</td>
<td>Type III SS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Unconcerned 0:</td>
<td>432.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Informational 1:</td>
<td>250.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Personal 2:</td>
<td>292.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Management 3:</td>
<td>170.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Consequence 4:</td>
<td>320.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Collaboration 5:</td>
<td>168.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage Refocusing 6:</td>
<td>443.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V. DISCUSSION

This study investigated Saudi EFL teachers' concerns about the adoption of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL). The study also examined whether some specific demographic and technographic variables (gender, age, teaching experience, and professional development) had any statistically significant effect on EFL teachers’ stages of concern about MALL.

The results of this study showed that the participants expressed high concerns at the Informational, Personal, and Management stages regarding the adoption of MALL. On the other hand, the participants reported minimal concerns at the Awareness, Refocusing, Collaboration, and Consequence stages. These results follow the same typical nonuser SoC profile scoring highest on stages 0, 1, and 2 and lowest on stages 4, 5, and 6 (George et al., 2006).
The statistical analysis revealed that the male participants expressed higher concerns at the Informational, Personal, Collaboration, and Refocusing stages; while the female participants showed higher concerns at the Awareness, Management, and Consequence stages. The results also showed that the participants from all of the three age groups shared the same concerns scoring high at the Informational, Personal, and Management stages; while scoring low at the Awareness, Collaboration, Refocusing, and Consequences stages. The findings also reported that the participants who had (0-10) years of teaching experience showed high concerns at the Informational stage and minimal concerns at the Consequence stage; whereas, the participants who had (21-30) years of teaching experience had the highest concerns at the Personal stage and the lowest concerns at the Refocusing stage. The analysis of professional development (PD) revealed that the participants who had no previous PD expressed high concerns at the Awareness, Informational, Personal, Management, and Consequence stages; while the participants who had previous PD showed minimal concerns at the Collaboration and Refocusing stages.

The MANOVA analysis revealed no significant difference among the participants in terms of their concerns about MALL based on their gender, age, and teaching experience. Such findings indicate that Saudi EFL teachers' gender, age, and teaching experience have no effect on their concerns about using and implementing MALL. These findings are consistent with previous studies which reported that gender, age, and teaching experience did not impact teachers' SoCs and were not significant predictors of technology adoption. George et al. (2006) asserted that gender, age, and teaching experience were not predictive of the participants' stages of concern (SoC); therefore, they recommended exploring other critical variables associated with the innovation adoption. Ball (2014) studied faculty's concerns towards implementing mobile technology devices in the classroom and found that their concerns were not influenced by their gender, age, and years of teaching experience. Examining the relationship between full-time faculty's age and gender and their concerns in adopting online learning, Hwu (2011) reported no significant difference between gender, age and faculty's concerns. Yeldell (2017) studied the stages of concern for teachers with the innovating of digital one-to-one and found that teachers' gender and age did not impact their SoC.

The MANOVA analysis also yielded a significant difference among the participants in terms of their stages of concerns about MALL based on their professional development. These results entail that Saudi EFL teachers' professional development has a significant effect on their concerns about MALL. These results are in line with other studies which found a significant difference between the participants' stages of concerns and their professional development. Hall and Hord (2001) concluded that professional development is more likely predictive of concerns than age, gender, and teaching experience. Professional development (i.e., technology training) was frequently reported to have a significant effect on reducing teachers’ self-concerns about technology adoption (Adams, 2002; Atkins & Vasue 2000; Casey & Rakes, 2014; Dobbs, 2000; Pathebridge, 2007). Three important SoC studies, which were conducted on Saudi public universities, also support the findings of the current study pertaining to the impact of professional development on users' concerns. Al-Sarrani (2010) studied faculty’s concerns about the adoption of blended learning at Taibah University, Kamal (2013) investigated the faculty's concerns about the adoption of online teaching at King Abdulaziz University, and Omar (2016) examined faculty’s concerns about the adoption of online teaching at King Saud University. The three studies found a significant effect of professional development on the use of technology in teaching.

These findings suggest that Saudi EFL teachers are at their self-concern stage. They are aware of and interested in MALL, but they need more information about utilizing and implementing MALL in their teaching. They are more concerned about how MALL affects them and how MALL would benefit them at the personal level. They have high concerns about organizing, managing, and scheduling MALL. They would like to understand the instructional use of MALL, realize the ways in which MALL could be used for ESL purposes, and identify the available resources if they decide to adopt MALL in their teaching. They seek more information on how using MALL is better than their current teaching practices and how their role will change when they adopt MALL. They want to know how to meet the demands of adopting MALL, how to resolve conflicts with existing teaching practices and policies, and how much time and energy are required if they start using MALL. On the other hand, the findings confirm that Saudi EFL teachers have minimal concerns for the impact of MALL on their students as well as their students' attitudes toward MALL. They are not worried about coordinating and cooperating with others regarding the use of MALL and they are not keen to know what other teachers doing when using MALL. Besides, they do not seek other approaches or alternatives that they think might work better. Factors such as gender, age, and teaching experience were not predictive of Saudi EFL teachers’ MALL adoption. Those factors had no statistically significant effect on the teachers’ concerns about using and implementing MALL in their teaching process. However, professional development was a significant predictor of MALL adoption among Saudi EFL teachers. The more professional development teachers have, the less self-concerns they have about MALL adoption. Technology training could help decrease teachers’ self-concerns and increase their impact-concerns, which eventually leads to full adoption of MALL. These findings indicate that more attention should be given to professional development and that technology training should be a priority for a successful and effective MALL adoption in EFL classrooms.

VI. CONCLUSION

Several studies investigated the predictors of technology adoption and asserted the importance of professional
development in adopting, and implementing technology innovations into the learning and teaching process. The findings of this study emphasized the vital role of technology-related professional development in adopting and implementing mobile assisted language learning. Technology-related professional development, as described by Pathebridge (2007), may include workshops, seminars, programs, and conferences which develop knowledge and enhance skills in integrating technology innovations into the learning and teaching process. Increasing professional development opportunities and providing successful hands-on experiences concerning mobile assisted language learning may alleviate teachers’ self-concerns and encourage them to fully adopt MALL in their teaching process. Professional development activities cannot be designed without an understanding of teachers’ concerns and technology could only be fully integrated into teaching if teachers are provided enough hours of training (Pathebridge, 2007).

To achieve successful adoption of MALL, policy makers, educators, and EFL professionals/teachers should take into account the six assumptions which were proposed by Hord et al. (1987, p. 5-6) for adopting innovations in general:

1. Change is a process not an event; it takes time.
2. Change is accomplished by individuals; individuals must be the focus of attention.
3. Change is a personal experience; individuals are different and act differently to change.
4. Change involves development growth; individuals express feelings and skills as they go through different stages.
5. Change is understood in operational terms; individuals relate to change and how it affects their current practice.
6. The focus of facilitation should be on individuals, innovations, and the context; the real meaning of change lies in its human, not material, component.

It is worth mentioning that effective adoption of innovations requires not only addressing teachers’ concerns but also providing appropriate interventions (Hord et al., 1987). It could be concluded that teachers should be involved in discussions and decisions about MALL and its implementation and unaware teachers should be encouraged to talk with their colleagues who know about MALL (awareness). EFL teachers should also have clear and accurate information about MALL and how it relates to their current practices (informational). In addition, the personal concerns of teachers about MALL adoption should be communicated, channeled, and legitimized (personal) and all the technical requirements and support of MALL should be addressed to the teachers before, during, and after the adoption process (management). Besides, teachers should be provided with opportunities to visit other classroom settings where MALL is implemented (consequence) and should be provided with opportunities to develop those skills necessary for working collaboratively (collaboration). Last but not least, teachers should be encouraged to channel their ideas about MALL in ways that will be productive (refoocusing).

The results of this study could be used to guide future research into EFL teachers’ concerns about mobile assisted language learning. The findings of the current study would also suggest a need for investigating other factors that might be predictive of teachers’ concerns about MALL such as technical support, institutional support, course level, class size, and socio-cultural differences. A future study that includes EFL teachers at private and international schools in Saudi Arabia might also yield interesting findings.

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Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

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Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR) is a scholarly peer-reviewed international scientific journal published bimonthly, focusing on theories, methods, and materials in language teaching, study, and research. It provides a high profile, leading edge forum for academics, professionals, consultants, educators, practitioners and students in the field to contribute and disseminate innovative new work on language teaching and research.

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- Second and foreign language teaching and learning
- Classroom-centered research
- Literacy
- Language education
- Teacher education and professional development
- Teacher training
- Cross-cultural studies
- Child, second, and foreign language acquisition
- Bilingual and multilingual education
- Translation
- Teaching of specific skills
- Language teaching for specific purposes
- New technologies in language teaching
- Testing and evaluation
- Language representation
- Language planning
- Literature, language, and linguistics
- Applied linguistics
- Phonetics, phonology, and morphology
- Syntax and semantics
- Sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, and neurolinguistics
- Discourse analysis
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- Language teaching and psychology, anthropology, sociology
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The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

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- 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
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Estimated number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
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- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

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