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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- How Second (L2) and Heritage (HL) Language Learners Can Draw on Existing Knowledge to Overcome Common Discourse Issues in Spanish Compositions 511
John M. Ryan and V éctor Parra-Guinaldo
- Culture, Confidence, and Cr êpes Sucr ées: Exploring Teacher Candidate Perceptions of Francophone Homestay Community Leadership Experiences 520
Daniel H. Jarvis and Callie Mady
- Non-verbal Communication Used by Parents to Their Children in Presence of Visitors in Ovoko 533
Bestman Esegbuyiota Odeh, Linda, Abugu, Jacinta Ukamaka Eze, Juliana Ginika Mamah, and Augustina Ngozi Eze
- The Challenges of Online English Language Teaching From EFL Instructors' Point of View in KKU, Tehama Campus During COVID 19 Period 543
Mona M. Hamad, Alrafeea S. Dafaallah, and Abdulbasit A. Alhaj
- The Investigation of the Listening Strategies Teachers Instruct and the Listening Strategies Students Use 557
Lin, Yi-Hsiang and Huang, Yen-Ling
- A Component Analysis of "Ideological and Political Competence" in College English Education in China 566
Hui Liu and Satoshi Tsukamoto
- Implementation of E-Learning for ESP in Tourism During the Covid-19 Pandemic 572
Gede Ginaya, Ni Putu Somawati, and I Gusti Agung Bagus Mataram
- Exploration of the Second Time Development of ESP Materials: Classroom Practice and Teachers' Roles 579
Shiping Deng
- Power-oriented and Rapport-oriented Interruptions Among Professional Women in Small Group Conversations 585
Angelina Subrayan and Chित्र Muthusamy
- Some Linguistic Features of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures 595
Lianzhi Lu
- Ikhin Tone and Nasality: Autosegmental Effects 603
Oladimeji Olaide A. and Opoola Bolanle T.
- Ambivalence of Cosmopolitanism: A Study of Kazuo Ishiguro's Writing 611
Tingxuan Liu
-

EFL Learners' Learning Styles and Self-regulated Learning: Do Gender and Proficiency Level Matter? <i>Jahanbakhsh Nikoopour and Mohammad Shaker Khoshroudi</i>	616
The Representation of Chineseness in <i>Eat Drink Man Woman</i> <i>Mengjie Zhou</i>	624

How Second (L2) and Heritage (HL) Language Learners Can Draw on Existing Knowledge to Overcome Common Discourse Issues in Spanish Compositions

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Abstract—Student error analysis is an area of investigation that can shed light on how students learn. It can also serve as a pedagogical tool to increase students' awareness of the most common types of errors to avoid. Quality of student output, however, isn't solely determined by the number of errors students make, but also the extent to which students successfully employ certain other discourse-related strategies to improve their compositions. This paper argues that, aside from grammatical concerns, and at least from a discourse point of view, students already possess much of the knowledge they need in order to write better compositions. Both second (L2) and heritage (HL) learners of Spanish typically already possess some advanced writing skills in English, but we have observed that when attempting to write in Spanish, many of these same students will resort to more remedial means of presenting and/or expressing their ideas. In other words, unaware that so many discourse skills are transferable from English to Spanish, students will not necessarily apply the same strategies, or at least to the same degree, as they would if writing a similar essay in English. This paper, therefore, provides ten tips that students can draw on to improve both the presentation and expression of their ideas in compositions. Recommendations are divided into two categories, the first being aspects a student should always keep in mind when approaching any piece of writing, while the second are negative tendencies that are quite common, but which a student should necessarily avoid.

Index Terms—composition studies, discourse skills, Spanish, heritage language (HL) learners, second language (L2) learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Throughout the past ten years that the first author of this paper has taught Spanish composition at the University of Northern Colorado, he has noticed certain common patterns of errors among his students. Some of these he was already quite familiar with from his own experience as a second language learner of Spanish, but others only became more apparent to him as an instructor. About five years ago, he began noticing a steady growth in the number of heritage (HL) language learners enrolling in what were previously his almost exclusively non-heritage (L2) Spanish classrooms. This situation prompted him to undertake a pilot study to collect, analyze and compare a total of thirty grammatical and discourse level errors from a mixed class of fifteen HL and L2 students. The study would produce two articles (Ryan 2018 and 2019), the first of which, in addition to providing a much-needed quantitative comparative error analysis, offered recommendations for how instructors like himself could address these errors with both groups of students. The second article introduced a new self-evaluation/peer evaluation module that could be utilized in composition classes for combined groups.

As both Ryan (2018) and (2019) demonstrate, student error analysis is indeed an area of investigation that not only helps shed light on how students learn, but it also serves as a pedagogical tool that can be used to increase students' awareness of the most common types of errors to avoid. Nevertheless, the more time the authors of this paper have spent reviewing student compositions, the more we have come to realize that the quality of student output is not determined solely by the number of grammatical errors students make, for yet an equally important factor that helps make a good composition is the extent to which students draw on other skills that have more to do with overall presentation and expression of ideas. For example, we have noticed that some students, despite making abundant word- or sentence-level errors, still demonstrate such skills as planning, organizing, and brainstorming, all of which contribute in their own ways to better essays.

II. PURPOSE

This article marks the third in a sequence of papers on the topic of HL and L2 Spanish compositions. Whereas the first two papers of the series focused more on things that both students and instructors can do to improve grammatical errors at word- or sentence-level, the purpose of this third paper is to shift the focus from the notion that writing can be improved based on the eradication of quantifiable errors to the idea that there are other, more abstract issues in student writing at the level of discourse. Such factors as style, structure, cohesion and coherence cannot necessarily be quantified, and students may indeed improve on these things by employing the same strategies they already use when they write in English. The recommendations of this paper are divided into two categories, the first being those aspects that a student can and should always keep in mind when approaching any piece of writing, such as creativity, word choice, connectors, transitions, verb tense and sentence length. The second category of recommendations consists of three tendencies observed in student writing that should be avoided at all costs, namely, repetition and redundancy, stream of conscious writing, or the sense of an unfinished essay.¹

III. PREVIOUS WORK: ERRORS, MISTAKES AND PITFALLS (*ESCOLLOS*)

As pointed out in Ryan (2018), a significant amount of work has appeared in the literature on the writing of L2 compositions and error analysis, for Spanish or otherwise, as demonstrated by Nas & Van Esch (2014); Van Beuningen (2010); Schoonen et al. (2009), Carduner (2008); Truscott (2007); Ferris (2004); DeHaan & Van Esch (2005); Roca de Larios et al. (2002); Silva (1993); Valdés et al. (1992) and Schneider & Connor (1990). and (2019). Additionally, as further pointed out in Ryan (2019), the effectiveness or utility of teacher and peer feedback has also been examined by Hyland & Hyland (2006), Cotterall and Cohen (2003), Brinkman (2003), Liu and Hansen (2002), and Chaudron (1984).²

More pertinent to this paper is work by those scholars who have suggested there to be differences between “errors” and “mistakes.” According to Brown (2006) and others (Corder 1967; Ellis 1994), errors are inaccuracies produced by a speaker due to the lack of knowledge of an appropriate vocabulary item, a grammatical point or some convention. Mistakes, on the other hand, are failures in production in which vocabulary, grammar or conventions are indeed known, but for one reason or another are produced inaccurately, not because of the lack of knowledge, but more like momentary omissions or gaffes due to other, competing communicative needs of the moment. Brown goes on to say that even L1 speakers commit mistakes for similar reasons such as tiredness, slips of the tongue, or the short-term inadequacy of memory load in processing lengthier utterances.

Table 1 demonstrates the quantification of word-level composition errors found for HLs from Ryan (2018):

TABLE 1:
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF HL WORD-LEVEL ERRORS FOR ALL COMPOSITIONS (Ryan 2018)

	(1) C-1		(2) C-2		(3) C-3		(4) C-4		(5) C-5		(6) Totals	
	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%	#	%
accent	17	56.67%	4	30.77%	24	54.55%	19	47.50%	10	32.26%	74	46.84%
spelling	7	23.33%	2	15.38%	9	20.45%	4	10.00%	9	29.03%	31	19.62%
wrong word	0	0.00%	2	15.38%	5	11.36%	4	10.00%	4	12.90%	15	9.49%
capitalization	1	3.33%	3	23.08%	3	6.82%	4	10.00%	2	6.45%	13	8.23%
number	1	3.33%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	3	7.50%	2	6.45%	6	3.80%
mood	2	6.67%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	2.50%	2	6.45%	5	3.16%
verb form	1	3.33%	0	0.00%	2	4.55%	2	5.00%	0	0.00%	5	3.16%
tense	1	3.33%	1	7.69%	0	0.00%	1	2.50%	0	0.00%	3	1.90%
dir. obj. pron.	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	2.27%	1	2.50%	0	0.00%	2	1.27%
prep. pron.	0	0.00%	1	7.69%	0	0.00%	1	2.50%	0	0.00%	2	1.27%
gender	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	3.23%	1	0.63%
ind. obj. pron	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	3.23%	1	0.63%
adverb	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
copula	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
totals	30	100.00%	13	100.00%	44	100.00%	40	100.00%	31	100.00%	158	100.00%

As Ryan (2018) points out, according to the data in Table 1, a full 84.18% of all word-level errors committed by HL participants in that study are represented by errors in the first four categories, from highest to lowest as indicated in column (6), namely: 1) incorrect (or missing) accent mark (n = 74; 46.84%); 2) incorrect spelling (n = 31; 19.62%); 3) use of the wrong word (n = 15; 9.49%); and 4) incorrect capitalization (n = 13; 8.23%). Because such errors can be identified and quantified, an instructor can indicate by means of a code every time a particular error appears on a

¹ The publication of this article was supported by the University of Northern Colorado Fund for Faculty Publications and a portion of the research with a 2017 UNC Summer Support Initiative Award No. QS232.

² For additional context regarding the studies cited here, we refer the reader to the following sections, “I. Previous Composition Error Studies” in Ryan (2018) and “III. Prior Research” in Ryan (2019).

student's composition, and depending on the number of times that code appears, the student can determine how much of a deficit the corresponding grammar point represents.³

In contrast to errors or mistakes, yet another concept is that of "pitfall," or *escollo* in Spanish. A pitfall can be described as some obstacle or hurdle that is typically encountered, but not immediately obvious to the speaker or writer. In other words, pitfalls are potential problems, and if you are aware of what they are ahead of time, you can overcome them. What makes a pitfall different from an error or a mistake is that it is, by its very nature, something that can be avoided before it happens. Unlike errors or mistakes, pitfalls are not as easily quantifiable.⁴

One example of a typical pitfall in student writing is repeated use of a given term or expression, and although its appearance is grammatically correct each time, its continued presence is excessive to the point of becoming distracting to the flow of the composition. Since the repeated word or expression is used correctly each time, it is not necessarily an error so to speak; however, from the point of view of style, any sensible person reading the essay would assert that it would be advisable to explore alternate ways of expressing the concept expressed by the original term. Another example of an item that is not as easily quantified is in the suggestion that a student composition include transitions between sentences or paragraphs where none existed.

IV. DISCUSSION: TIPS FOR DEALING WITH DISCOURSE PITFALLS OF SPANISH COMPOSITIONS

As indicated previously, what distinguishes this paper from the previous two of the series is the shift in focus from that of dealing with errors committed to one that has to do with bypassing potential issues. In other words, instead of an arguably negative orientation which looks back with an eye to correct, this paper instead takes the more positive stance by looking ahead with a focus on best practices. The idea is to make students aware of strategies and tools they already possess to make them more aware and active writers. In fact, the method we use to help students improve their compositions at the level of discourse is based on the premise that students already possess much of the knowledge they need to write better compositions. Both L2 and HL students typically already have advanced writing skills in English but it is curious that when these same students attempt to write in Spanish, a strange sort of mental block sets in and it's almost as if they've erased from memory some of the very things they typically do when confronted with a writing exercise in English. What many students don't understand is that so many discourse skills are transferable from English to Spanish.

The following ten tips are based on those discourse issues or pitfalls that appear to be common among student compositions.

What to do:

1. Reread the first draft

At the beginning of every semester, just after they've received comments on the first draft of their first composition, the authors typically hold individual meetings with students to discuss their recently completed essay. The agenda for this meeting is simple, to start the process of getting the student to think more critically of their writing even before they begin to make corrections. The very first item of business at this meeting is for the student to reread their composition to themselves from beginning to end, and as they do so for them to ask themselves whether they would write a similar composition in the same way in English. Almost every time without fail, after reading their work, the student will lift their head with perhaps a smile, an expression of awe, or even a shake of their head in astonishment, and answer in the negative. We conduct this exercise precisely because having students reread their composition this way forces them to directly compare their discourse strategies in both languages, and by doing so, it draws their attention to skills and strategies they typically use for English that they could have used just as well for the paper at hand.

For this exercise to be successful, it is critical that an instructor specify to students that this read-through of their composition is not at all a word-for-word translation to English, but more simply, a reflection about how they would have written it in English. Rather, its purpose is to evoke for the student the overall "feel" of their composition. Reading through their initial draft in this way **helps students realize the gap between what they mean to write and what they actually wrote**, and to challenge them to venture beyond their comfort zone. At times, students simply settle for more familiar words and structures because those are the ones on which they may have come to rely, either because they have been successful using them in the past, or because they can be retrieved on the fly or in a rush when needed.

Furthermore, the authors agree that this exercise can be seen as the first necessary step in encouraging students to take risks with their writing, by getting them to work harder to express what they actually mean with more precise vocabulary or more complex constructions. We have found that once a student knows that it is not just acceptable to take risks, but even more importantly, advisable to do so, it is much easier for them to be receptive to exploring the additional remaining tips below that can further improve their essays from a discourse perspective.

2. Envision the overall structure and presentation of an essay before you start writing

³ Only word-level error results for HLs are presented here for purposes of illustration. For a more complete analysis, see Ryan (2018) for results pertaining to HL sentence-level errors and both word- and sentence-level errors for L2s.

⁴ The Spanish word *escollo*, whose literal translation into English is 'reef,' 'sandbank,' or the Indo-European Anglo Saxon reflex 'shoal,' is also used in a figurative sense to mean 'pitfall' or 'obstacle.' It is interesting that both languages draw upon a similar semantic concept of 'potential entrapment' or 'tripping over something,' as in the English concept of 'falling into a pit' or that of Spanish, of 'tripping over rocks or the coral of a reef.'

One of the most common pitfalls to which students typically fall prey as they begin to write is a lack of forethought or planning about how their essay will unfold. The few moments a student takes before putting pen to paper can be beneficial, because at this point the mind has not yet become cluttered with specific grammar or vocabulary concerns. In other words, the student can still see the big picture of their composition, because they haven't yet begun to deal with the gory details.

Once they've thought about the structure their overall composition should take, the very next item a student should consider is how to begin their work. An opening sentence, or paragraph for longer compositions, not only gives initial structure to a student's work, but it can also provide direction to the reader in that it makes clear where the remainder of the paragraph or longer essay is headed. Also, because introductory statements tend to be unique to the writer, these or other devices can at the same time make your composition more appealing as well as innovative. Alternatives to opening statements or paragraphs might be the use of a poignant or controversial quotation, or some question the student is trying to answer by the end of the essay. For example, if a student sits down to write a personal narrative, fiction, or a dialog between two people, s/he might start with some statement made by a person central to the plot. This can set both the mood and tone for the remainder of the composition.

Another consideration a student can make at this initial juncture with regard to overall presentation of their essay is whether it is worth experimenting with perspective or point of view. For example, if the student is writing something that is normally written in the third person, such as a descriptive essay, s/he might try writing it in the first person as if it were happening to them; conversely, if they are drafting a personal narrative that reads more like a diary entry, they might try writing it instead in third person as if they were simply an observer.

3. Vary sentence length

In addition to an adequate introduction, another important structural aspect to any essay written in a target language is the proper management of sentence length. Some students think that if they keep their sentences short, they will generate fewer errors. While this can be true, however, the strategy to keep sentences shorter, can unfortunately have some additional negative side-effects from the point of view of discourse. For example, an essay written exclusively with shorter sentences typically sounds simplistic, creates a rhythm that is repetitive and even monotone. Students who continue to employ the same simple sentence structure of S(ubject)-V(erb)-O(bject), without adding some level of complexity throughout their compositions, run the risk of making their essay sound dull and uninteresting, even when the topic itself may be interesting or even compelling.

Consider the following sequence of Spanish sentences (1)(a) from an actual student essay, and its English equivalent in (1)(b):

(1)(a) *Nuestros profesores entienden la situación. No hay dinero para el programa. Deben buscar alternativas.*

(1)(b) 'Our professors understand the situation. There is no money for the program. They must seek alternatives.'

Although all three sentences in (1)(a) are perfectly well-formed, repetition of simple S-V-O structure in all three cases produces a simplistic and monotonous tone with a more or less repetitive rhythm. Interestingly, the first sentence, though short itself, has the potential to make an impact, but seems to get lost in the monotony of the entire sequence of similarly structured sentences. Now consider, however, the revised sentence in (2)(a), and its English equivalent in (2)(b):

(2)(a) *Nuestros profesores entienden la situación. No hay fondos para mantener el programa y por lo tanto van a tener que buscar alternativas.*

(2)(b) 'Our professors understand the situation. There are no funds to maintain the program and therefore, they will have to look for alternatives.'

As (2)(a) suggests, by combining the last two sentences the first sentence, which in fact has not changed at all from its original state, acquires more impact because, at least from a discourse perspective, it has now acquired a more contrastive quality when juxtaposed with the now larger subsequent sentence. This small versus larger arrangement makes the text stand out not just structurally, but it also has the additional effect of giving the message of the statement a more punctuating quality than it had before.

The misguided strategy of keeping sentences short is neither realistic nor practical, because when we write we typically write in more, rather than less, complex ways than that in which we speak. What is recommended instead, as we have shown with example, (2)(a), is that we vary sentence length between short and long sentences to create a more dynamic, rather than the monotonous rhythm as suggested by (1)(a). When students become more adept at creating longer sentences, an occasional short sentence can actually become more effective as a means of punctuating the essay.

Another negative side-effect of frequent or exclusively short sentences is that it is often necessary to repeat words throughout a paragraph that would not be required if conjunctions or relative pronouns were used to connect separate clauses. Tip 4 below speaks more to this strategy.

4. Use "meaningful" conjunctions and relative clauses to expand sentences

The preceding tip spoke to the monotonous and simplifying effects that repeated short sentences can have on an essay. One of the ways to address the problem of short sentence length is to connect separate clauses with meaningful conjunctions and relative pronouns. Students typically start out by overusing more simple conjunctions, such as *pero* 'but' or *porque* 'because,' both of which convey basic semantic relationships. Although incorporating these into sentences can be a proper first step in addressing the tendency pointed out in the previous paragraph, namely, that which

students have for writing short sentences, such basic conjunctions are limited in what they contribute to the overall meaning of the sentence.

Certain, more “meaningful” conjunctions as *sin que* ‘without which,’ *con tal (de) que* ‘provided that,’ *a menos que* ‘unless,’ or *a pesar de que* ‘in spite of,’ etc., are so much more substantive semantically in the sense that they can convey more nuanced relationships between clauses than the more simple *porque* or *pero* could ever hope to achieve. In fact, these more powerful conjunctions can help strengthen sentences by making a student’s arguments that much stronger, as well as help make points more persuasive. Such conjunctions can be especially challenging for HL students at first since they are usually not part of the conversational repertoire these students are used to, but with practice they can expand and supplement a student’s writing resources.

Relative clauses are another way of creating more interesting and complex structure and students can be encouraged to employ these as well. Each group has its own challenges in the use of relative pronouns correctly, L2s typically resorting to overuse of *quien* at the expense of *que* (which can be used for both people and things, while some HLs are unaware of the more complex uses of relative clauses).

Consider the following sequence of actual Spanish sentences produced by a student in (3)(a), and their English equivalents in (3)(b):

(3)(a) *Ese **hombre** me hace reír. Él es más gracioso que cualquier otro **hombre** que he conocido.*

(3)(b) ‘That **man** makes me laugh. **He** is funnier than any other **man** I have met.’

Although the sentences in (3)(a) are perfectly well-formed, they include redundant information in three places (as indicated by the bolded, underlined words). A student can be shown to economize and avoid such redundancy by: 1) combining the two sentences by means of a relative construction; and 2) converting the adjective *otro* ‘other’ into a pronoun, whereby the second use of *hombre* can be deleted. These simple changes can make the resulting sentence more coherent, as in (4)(a), with its English equivalent (4)(b):

(4)(a) *Ese hombre, que es más gracioso que cualquier otro que he conocido, me hace reír.*

(4)(b) ‘That man, who is funnier than any other I’ve met, makes me laugh.’

Another way students can combine shorter sentences is with the use of meaningful subordinative conjunctions/expressions. Consider the following sequence of actual Spanish sentences produced by a student in (5)(a), and their English equivalents in (5)(b):

(5)(a) *Irán al partido mañana. Solamente si no llueve.*

(5)(b) ‘They’ll go to the game tomorrow. Only if it doesn’t rain.’

Once again, although the sentences in (5)(a) are perfectly formed grammatically, the way in which they appear together conveys a rather simplistic and rhythmically monotonous tone. A way to avoid this is to combine the sentences with a meaningful conjunction or subordinating expression that implies the same condition established by the if-clause of the second sentence expressed by *Solamente si...*, ‘Only if...’ Any such subordinating conjunctions or expressions as *a menos que* or *a no ser que*, both meaning ‘unless,’ or *con tal de que no* ‘provided that it not...,’ etc., would be appropriate in this case as illustrated in (6)(a), and its English translation in (6)(b).

(6)(a) *Irán al partido mañana a no ser que llueva.*

(6)(b) ‘They’ll go to the game tomorrow **unless** it rains.’

An additional factor that must be considered when presenting this tip for both groups is that, with increased use of subordinating conjunctions and relative pronouns, some structures, though not necessarily all, are more susceptible to trigger the subjunctive mood. This presents students with yet an additional challenge, especially for those students who are still struggling with the distinction between the two moods, or the sequence of tenses, so instructors may want to coordinate making this recommendation at the same time they are teaching those grammatical points.

As subordinate and relative clauses imply more complex constructions, they are naturally more frequent in written than in oral form, and therefore are most appropriate in preparing students to write more complex discourse.

5. Use transitions between sentences for greater coherence

Somewhat related to the previous tip that helps connect separate clauses within sentences, this tip instead has more to do with the connection of sentences within paragraphs. Students can use transitions and connectors to help make their paragraphs flow both internally and between each other. They can be shown how this makes their essays easier to read and it also helps organize their thoughts and tighten their composition, all of which keeps the reader on track and focused.

Students should consider using such expressions as *primero* ‘first,’ *luego* ‘then,’ *después* ‘later,’ or *por último* ‘finally,’ when organizing individual events in a narrative, or other expressions such as *a diferencia de* ‘unlike,’ *en cambio* ‘instead,’ *por una/otra parte* ‘on the one/other hand,’ or *por consiguiente* or *por lo tanto*, both meaning ‘therefore,’ when constructing a comparative essay. There are many such expressions to choose from to convey different assertions the writer would want to convey with the additional benefit of helping move their composition along from one sentence to the next.

6. Consider verb tense

Although on the surface it may seem something purely grammatical, the tense of a verb can actually be quite powerful in communicating the precise timing between two actions, as regards the perfect tenses (formed with *haber*

‘have’ + past participle); it can also be used in a discursive way in order to create a certain mood or tone of the sentence or paragraph.

Bleichman & Cañón (2011) illustrate in (7)(a), which is translated in (7)(b) how Colombian author García Márquez (1991) in a section from his short story, *La siesta del martes*, utilizes all three past tenses, the past perfect, preterit and imperfect, to convey the different timing and aspects of a past situation he represents in the story:

(7)(a) *A las doce **había empezado** el calor. El tren **se detuvo** diez minutos en una estación sin pueblo para abastecerse de agua. Afuera, en el misterioso silencio de las plantaciones, la sombra **tenía** un aspecto limpio.*”

(7)(b) ‘By twelve the heat **had begun**. The train **stopped** for ten minutes at an unnamed station to get water. Outside, in the eerie silence of the plantations, the shade **had** a clean look.’ [our translation]

Consider the differences between the three tenses utilized in (7)(a) basic aspectual differences between preterit and imperfect tenses that can be used in the traditional manner to relate different perspectives of a past action. Students should be given ample opportunity to practice utilizing the different past (including perfect) tenses so that they have a clear understanding on how these should be used to correctly employ the traditional uses of these tenses.

On the other hand, the tense of a verb can also sometimes be used more to create a certain mood or tone. Consider the use of the imperfect by some authors to create a sense of immediacy or in the moment sensation in the narration of a situation. Reyes (1990) underscores this fact that the imperfect tense, in addition to its more traditionally known aspectual usage, has also a lesser-known discourse application. Consider the following authentic examples (8)(a), (9)(a) and (10)(a) from Reyes (1990), and their corresponding English equivalents (our translation) in (8)(b), (9)(b) and (10)(b), all of which outline different discourse uses of the imperfect tense.

(8)(a) *Al amanecer salió el regimiento, atravesó la montaña, y poco después **estableció** contacto con el enemigo*

(8)(b) ‘The regiment left at dawn, crossed the mountain, and shortly thereafter **established** contact with the enemy.’

(9)(a) *Ayer **murió** Borges en Ginebra.*

(9)(b) Yesterday Borges **died** in Geneva.

(10)(a) ***Escuchábamos** la sinfonía número 28 de Mozart.*

(10)(b) **We were listening to** Mozart’s Symphony No. 28.

For all three examples, Reyes explains that the imperfect is used to achieve more intimate involvement by the reader in the action being expressed. In (8)(a), which is an example she draws from the *Esbozo* of the RAE (1914),⁵ Reyes points out that the use of the imperfect *estableció* ‘established’ at the end of a series of several other verbs that are otherwise conjugated in the preterit tense signals a point in a succession of events at which comparable greater involvement is solicited of the reader in the action specified, suggesting that up until that point, the reader held a more passive role. In the case of (9)(a), a quote that she reportedly heard on a television news program, Reyes suggests that stylistic use of the imperfect *murió* ‘died’ served to highlight the act of dying as something that impacted the entire day, as opposed to being just one of several singular events that took place at a given moment. Reyes suggests that these two first examples may have their origin in literary usage that she points out also appearing in the *Quijote*.⁶

However, it is Reyes’s final example of *Escuchábamos* in (10)(a), which unlike both (8)(a) and (9)(a) is coincidentally a plausible utterance in English as well, hence the translation, ‘We were listening to...’ This last example is perhaps the least distant in terms of relevance to the reader. It is the epitome of an expression of involvement and perhaps the best example of how the imperfect can be employed to “involve” the reader/listener.

The moral of this section is that students should be encouraged to experiment with tense, just as they might with point of view, particularly with the imperfect, when they want to convey a more intimate relationship with the reader of their essay.

7. Consider word choice

The words chosen for a composition can have a great impact on the resulting product, and these should be considered from a variety of perspectives. To start with, students should always check their composition throughout for appropriate word choice in terms of redundancy. Repeated use of the same vocabulary or expressions can make an essay sound monotonous and uninteresting. Both HL and L2 learners may suffer from limited exposure to vocabulary, for different reasons; HL students because their vocabulary of everyday conversation or transfer from English, L2 students because they are limited to the word list from a chapter unit. In fact, one activity that HL and L2 students can do together is a prewriting step by brainstorming about and looking for synonyms or expressions that they can use to enhance their writing before they even put word to paper.

Ryan (2019) provides the example of a composition about dogs which has the potential of becoming rather boring if the word ‘dog’ is used excessively throughout; however, adding such colorful alternate words or expressions, like “man’s best friend,” or “little hairy companion,” both of which have near equivalents in Spanish can significantly improve an essay, and in this case can even make it more endearing to the reader. Or perhaps you are writing about something that is burning in a house fire for which the notion of ‘fire’ might be expressed with *las llamas* “flames” or *infierno* “hell.” The truth is that this same convention, which students are already familiar with in English, also exists for Spanish and can be applied to create more variety in word choice for an essay. What is required is a little imagination and ingenuity on the part of the student to take their writing to this additional step further.

⁵ *Esbozo de una gramática de la lengua española*. (1914).

⁶ Salvador Fernández: Ramfés. (1986). *El verbo y la oración*. In Bosque, Ignacio. *Gramática española*. Madrid: Arco Libros.

Another factor affecting word choice is appropriateness. Some words are considerably more colloquial and should only be used in such contexts, such as the case of the use of *nomás* 'only' by HL speakers. One would never find this word used in more formal writing, such as a business letter. Some examples of inappropriate word choice for L2 learners would be the use of *tú* or '(informal) you' versus *usted* '(formal) you,' the inaccurate targeting of the copulas *ser*, *estar*, or *haber*, all three which mean 'to be' in different circumstances, or the incorrect selection of *por* and *para*, both prepositions meaning 'for,' but used differently for different purposes.

What NOT to do:

The last three recommendations of this paper are recommendations of what NOT to do when writing an essay. 8.

Avoid redundancy of structures

Whereas Tip no. 7 regarded the repetition of such individual lexical items as nouns, verbs, and adjectives and provided suggestions for how students might overcome limited vocabulary, the present recommendation, though also related to word choice, has more to do with redundancy that is less the result of word selection, but more implicit in other operations such as syntax. For example, some L2 learners who are at the beginning stages of writing tend to overuse of subject pronouns. It is widely known that unlike English, subject pronouns in most cases are not required in Spanish, unless they are used for emphasis or clarification.

9. Avoid stream of consciousness (unless appropriate)

Some writers string thoughts together with little or no punctuation, making text difficult to read. This happens with some HL learners who are beginner writers of Spanish who just simply string together their thoughts on a topic without separating them out with punctuation or some of the other strategies mentioned earlier, such as sentence or paragraph transitions or conjunctions. This last sentence is a good example of this type of writing.

Stream of consciousness, a type of writing where loose, unrelated and/or unstructured words or expressions are strung together to convey a disjointed stream of thought can be quite effective when writing personal narratives; particularly when the writer wants to convey confusion or to achieve a certain psychological effect, such as representing what random thoughts may be going through the mind of person in a particularly difficult situation. The result is a kind of organic type of writing that pays less attention to punctuation, structure, cohesion or coherence. Of course, this type of writing is not practical for all assignments, particularly those that are more formal in nature. However, students should be made aware of the possibilities and that additional resource. Most times, however, punctuation and clarity are necessary for the reader to understand what you write, the latter being permissible only in the unlikely case that a very specific type of writing assignment requires it, and for that reason alone may seem appropriate, and even effective.

10. Avoid an incomplete essay

Just as it is important to start off a composition with a compelling introduction of some sort, it is equally important to finish your composition in a way that doesn't just drop off without some kind of conclusion or statement that ties your entire work together. This can be in the form of concluding statement or paragraph, or even a question or quote that can be effective in driving home your thesis statement. If you began your essay with a question, the concluding paragraph or statement can come in the form of the answer to that question.

Just as the student was asked to reread their essay at the beginning of the journey to gain the sense or feel of an overall essay, the same student should also be asked to consider how the ending of their essay makes them feel, what sense does it give them. Do they feel that there is something missing? Does it just leave them hanging or, worse yet, like they've been pushed off a cliff without allowing them to say a few last words or, more simply, a goodbye.

In summary, Figure 1 illustrates all ten composition pitfalls suggested in this paper:

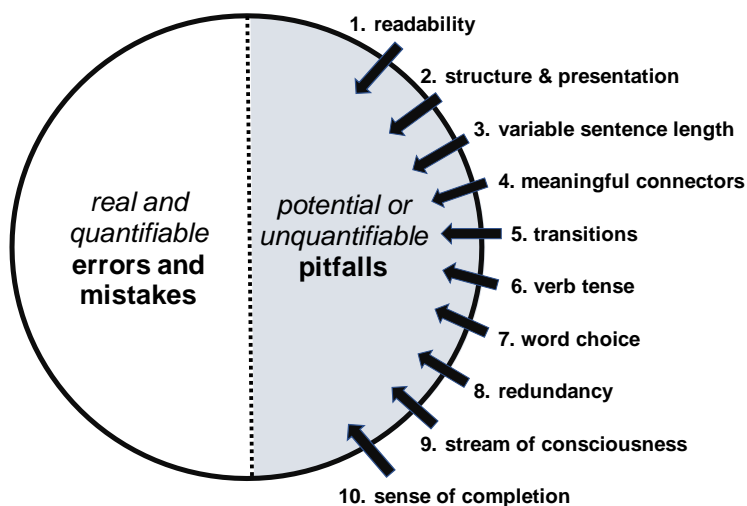


Figure 1. Contrast between quantifiable errors and mistakes and unquantifiable writing pitfalls

Figure 1 contrasts real, quantifiable errors and mistakes that students typically make in their compositions with the ten more unquantifiable pitfalls that students can potentially make. Since errors and mistakes are real and quantifiable,

they are represented on the one hand by the clear, leftmost hemisphere of the circle. In contrast, as pointed out in the paper, pitfalls are less quantifiable because of their more abstract or subjective nature, and for that reason, they are demonstrated by the shaded region of the rightmost half of the circle. As this paper suggests, language instructors can guide students to consider these things more proactively when writing papers in the target language.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The goal of this paper was to contrast the more grammatical, hence quantifiable, word- and sentence-level composition errors that students make and the more discourse-oriented, paragraph-level pitfalls that these same students can overcome by following the ten recommendations for improvement, also made in this paper. While it is difficult to quantify the absence of effective qualities or strategies students could have employed when writing a paper, it is undeniable that the presence of these same items can significantly improve the overall flow, cohesion and conciseness of an essay, making it not only more readable, but more interesting as well. Many of the recommendations that have been suggested in this paper are indeed strategies that both L2 and HL students may already employ in their writing of English compositions but fail to do so in their writing of Spanish. One of the reasons for this difference may be that these students were outwardly trained and possess experience writing in English, whereas they lack the same training and experience writing in Spanish. I suggest that this may lead to a sort of beginning writer's block in Spanish, in which students temporarily forget some of the more common-sense strategies they customarily apply when they write in English. In other words, students should extend these best practices in terms of what they already know about English to Spanish as well. It is therefore recommended that students be trained to use these tips as they continue to evaluate their essays in Spanish until they feel more comfortable applying those skills they already possess for English.

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Culture, Confidence, and Crêpes Sucrées: Exploring Teacher Candidate Perceptions of Francophone Homestay Community Leadership Experiences

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Abstract—This study examines the perceptions of two groups of teacher candidates (TCs) who had participated in a 2-week, French immersion homestay Community Leadership Experience (CLE) in rural Trois-Pistoles, Quebec, Canada. Based on individual participant interviews, the co-authors, who also each served as a Faculty Facilitator for several of these CLE trips (2015-2020), present thematic findings surrounding the five components (homestay, school placements, community volunteering, cultural workshops/events, and Quebec City trip), and perceived benefits of the program including accessibility, language acquisition and improvement, cultural awareness, self-confidence, career planning re-assessment (division/program), and future employability advantages.

Index Terms—teacher education, immersion, homestay, French second language, community leadership experience

I. INTRODUCTION

In this first section, we contextualize the study through an examination of the literature: (i) relating it to provincial programming as outlined in the Ontario *French as a Second Language* (FSL) curriculum (2013); (ii) as it pertains to this study's immersion experience as offered through the French Immersion School (FIS) of Western University in London, Ontario; and (iii) through an examination of homestay initiatives research and their effectiveness.

A. French Immersion Teaching and Learning

Education in Canada is a provincial or territorial responsibility, as opposed to having a standardized, national system of content and assessment. Canada also has two official languages, English and French, and thus second language learning opportunities are offered, albeit in differing degrees of scope, quality, and access, in most jurisdictions (Canadian Parents for French, n.d.). In the province of Ontario, where this study's participants have learned and will become qualified to teach, the Ministry of Education (OME) has defined three different programs that public schools can offer to students as part of their formal FSL experience. According to the *Ontario Curriculum, French as a Second Language* (OME, 2013) document:

The primary goal of the three French as a second language programs in Ontario is to increase, within realistic and well-defined parameters, a student's ability to communicate in French. The programs also enable students to better understand the stages of language learning and the use of language learning strategies to acquire the language. Students' proficiency in French increases based on the amount of time and the level of intensity of instruction in French. (p. 15)

Core French is mandatory from Grades 4 to 8 for all students in English-language elementary schools, and students must accumulate a minimum of 600 hours of French instruction by the end of Grade 8. Schools also have the option of offering an *Extended French* (French as language of instruction for at least 25 per cent of total instructional time for all grades; minimum 1260 hours of French instruction; FSL and at least one other course taught in French), or a *French Immersion* program (French as language of instruction for at least 50 per cent of total instructional time for all grades; minimum 3800 hours of French instruction; FSL and at least two other courses taught in French), based on local demand and resources, and beginning at any grade level within the elementary school.

According to the Canadian Education Association (as reported by Canadian Parents for French, n.d.), French Immersion in Canada has been thoroughly researched and proven to be highly effective:

After almost 40 years, the original French immersion model has proven its value around the world and been adopted in many countries and many languages. 'French immersion is a proven, successful Canadian approach

to second language learning... No educational program has been so intensively researched and evaluated in Canada as has French immersion. (p. 2)

Notwithstanding its popularity (see also Arnott et al., 2019), one of the main difficulties in all FSL programming, including French Immersion, is generating an adequate supply of qualified FSL teachers to meet the growing program demand. Cho (2019) describes Ontario's FSL teacher dilemma as follows:

As French Immersion continues to grow in Ontario, finding French teachers is becoming more and more of a challenge: there is a dearth of French teachers in the public school system but greater demand for French Immersion programming. . . . One of the failings of French Immersion is the limited opportunities to use French on a daily basis outside of school. (pp. 42-43)

Second, adding to the complexity, qualified FSL teachers do not always have the French proficiency some boards prefer (Ontario Public School Boards Association, 2017). A third challenge in Canada is preventing FSL teacher attrition during the early stages of their careers. According to Arnott et al., (2015, p. 15), two main issues that contribute to this premature teacher exodus from the field are difficult working conditions and lack of instructional materials. A fourth potentially related issue is a noted increase in student attrition within the Ontario Core French program. Ryan and Sinay (2020) note that the "government of Ontario has acknowledged a need to increase FSL student retention via improved access, training, relationships and special programs" (p. 311). Raymond Thøerge, the Official Languages Commissioner of Canada, has addressed these issues, calling for innovative solutions to help increase FSL teacher numbers, and hence program quality and student access:

Parents want to provide all of the opportunities to their children, and they see French Immersion programs and FSL programs as the right opportunity down the road for their children, be it from a cultural perspective, be it from an employment perspective . . . The persistence of these challenges makes it all the more important that we continue to draw attention to them and work toward finding innovative solutions that will help to improve access to the opportunities inherent in linguistic duality for all Canadians. (as cited in Gillmore, 2019, pp. 14-15)

Clearly, the complex issues of FSL teacher recruitment and retention, as well as student retention in Core and Immersion programs, require innovative strategies such as creative immersion experiences that may serve to support FSL teachers.

Western University in London, Ontario hosts a FIS which offers the oldest immersion program of its kind in Canada. Beginning in 1932, the small town of Trois-Pistoles in eastern Quebec was chosen as Western's preferred site for of the integration of their FSL students into a French-speaking community. In the summers, the FIS offers a number of different types and lengths of homestay immersion programs including intensive, non-credit 1- or 2-week programs for university students, adults, teachers, or families; and longer 5-week credit programs for more extensive exposure to language learning. In addition, in partnership with Nipissing University's Schulich School of Education and the Ontario Ministry of Education, the FIS agreed to host a group of Nipissing University TCs annually for two weeks in the winter term, with 2015 being the inaugural year. This experience provided TCs with a 2-week homestay experience, the first week of which featured a school placement, and the second week of which featured a community placement.

B. Homestay Experiences

While homestay experiences have been widely reported to offer many advantages for students regarding second language acquisition (Conroy, 2018; Di Silvio, 2014; Kinginger & Carnine, 2019), cultural transmission (Castaneda & Zirger, 2011; Torii et al., 2020), and teacher preparation (Harbon, 2007; Tang & Choi, 2004), some have highlighted the mixed effectiveness of such programs (Lee et al., 2017; Shiri, 2015). In her examination of this homestay program in previous years, Mady conducted survey research with participating TCs who revealed "an improvement in French proficiency that they related to the homestay component of the program as well as the opportunities to use French in the community. Similarly, the TCs cited an increase in confidence" (2018, p. 893). In terms of future recommendations, Mady encouraged the Ontario Ministry of Education to consider the expansion of such intensive language learning opportunities for both FSL students and future/current FSL teachers.

Given the SL teacher candidates' lack of exposure to French outside of the classroom at the elementary and secondary levels, I suggest highlighting such opportunities and their positive impact to teachers with a view to increasing the number of intensive language learning experiences provided to students at the elementary and secondary levels. . . . I recommend continued provision of such opportunities for future FSL teachers. In particular, given the recognition of the important role of the homestay component, I advocate for the intensive experiences that well-established homestay programs can offer. (p. 894).¹

Following the initial Community Leadership Experiences (CLEs)² facilitated by Callie Mady in 2015-2017, Dan Jarvis took part as Faculty Facilitator for the subsequent three trips (2018-2020). During the last two of these (2019,

¹ As per the signed contract, please note that the views expressed in this publication are the views of the Recipient [Dr. Callie Mady], and do not necessarily reflect those of the Ontario Ministry of Education which funded the initiative.

² At Nipissing University, teacher candidates are required to complete one Community Leadership Experience of 60 hours, in addition to their school practica (55 days). CLEs are self-selected, take place in a variety of contexts, and although they occur outside of traditional classrooms, provide teacher candidates with means to apply their pedagogical skills.

2020), Jarvis individually interviewed the two groups of TCs towards the end of their respective CLE experiences, and this data forms the basis of the present paper. We were specifically interested in comparing the earlier survey data findings with the more comprehensive interview data.

II. RESEARCH METHODS AND QUESTIONS

As part of their Ontario Ministry of Education funding for these homestay placements, teacher candidates were required to complete brief pre- and post-experience online surveys. Further, they were asked to sit for an exit interview in which they were asked a number of questions about their experiences. Although their participation in the surveys was mandatory, their decision whether or not to participate in the subsequent research interviews was optional. All participants received Ministry of Education funding to subsidize the cost of the homestay experience and received this support regardless of whether or not they participated in the research study. All 13 TCs from both the 2019 and 2020 groups consented to take part in the research project. Interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed for accuracy of commentary. All transcripts were returned to the participants to allow for the member checking process, with participants asked to review their comments and to request any desired corrections, additions, and/or deletions to the record. Interview data was then analyzed using qualitative software (*Atlas.ti*) to code the data and then to explore the content for emergent themes.

The TCs were in their early- to mid-twenties, 12 were female and 1 was male, reflecting the majority of TCs who plan to teach FSL in the province. The 13 participating TCs came with experience in all three of the Ontario Curriculum FSL programs: Core French (6), Extended French (1), and French Immersion (6). Six of them had also taken part in previous French immersion experiences such as the Canadian *Explore* program (3), and French exchange programs (3). In terms of undergraduate study, some had completed French majors (4), others French minors (3), and still others with only a few or no French courses taken (6). Most, but not all, had travelled previously to Quebec City. Several came from homes where one parent was francophone, and French occasionally being spoken in the home, or at family gatherings; others came from homes where both parents spoke French regularly; and some from homes where neither parent spoke French. Participants in the CLE also ranged from those who were relatively weak French speakers, to those who considered themselves to be fully bilingual and fluent in terms of communicating verbally in French.

In preparation for the Trois-Pistoles CLEs, the organizers at FIS office at Western University, working with the local organizer in Trois-Pistoles proposed a functioning homestay arrangement based on participants' needs. Further, as Facilitators, we met with each group several times prior to their trip to explain what to expect, to answer questions, and to establish the placement designations. Once we had been given a list of participating school teachers/grades and community volunteering organizations, we randomly generated a selection order of the TC names, and then asked them to first choose their classroom placement preference according to this list; then, proceeding in reverse list order, they were asked to state their preferences for the available community placements. In this way, each TC was given some degree of choice in terms of upcoming experiences. We also worked with FIS to establish an itinerary which was modified as required (see Appendix A).

We set out to explore two main research questions in this study: (i) What are the perceived effects of a 2-week CLE on TCs? and (ii) How are the five key components (homestay, classroom placements, community volunteering, cultural workshops/events, Quebec City trip) perceived as contributing to the overall effectiveness of the CLE? This research study received Research Ethics Board approval, and according to the research protocol, TCs were required to read and sign Participant Information Letters (PILs), and were also assigned fictitious pseudonyms to ensure confidentiality.

III. RESEARCH FINDINGS

In what follows, we will explore the five components of the CLE (homestay, school placements, community volunteering, cultural workshops and local events, and Quebec City trip), describing what took place in each of these areas (Figure 1), and hearing from TCs in terms of their perceptions. We will then examine a number of further themes of interest that precipitated from the analysis of the interview comments as shared by the 13 TCs involved in the study.



Figure 1. Five components of the Trois-Pistoles Community Leadership Experiences (CLEs).

A. *Homestay Experience*

Teacher candidates were billeted with local families of Trois-Pistoles (population 3500), Quebec located approximately 250 km east of the provincial capital of Quebec City, on the southern shore of the Gaspé peninsula. TCs often were in pairs or small groups for these homestay placements, depending on the families' home size and/or TC dietary considerations. Participants were expected to speak French with their homestay families in the evenings during and following meal times. Such times have been shown to facilitate language use and cultural knowledge (Kinging et al., 2016). Most of the school and community placements were within walking distance of the homestay locations, with the exception of the hospital. As Facilitator, Jarvis rented a car for the duration of the CLE and so was able to assist with transportation, as needed.

Candidates noted how powerful the homestay experiences were in terms of developing their: (i) French language skills, (ii) an appreciation for the local French dialect, and (iii) vocabulary. This was especially the case during snowstorm school cancellation days (both placements took place during winter term in February/March), which happened at least one day for both of these groups, and which meant extended time spent in the homes.

Belle: I love the homestay aspect, that was great. You're speaking a lot more French than you would be if it was just students living together in an apartment or something. That kind of gave you more of a feel for the French culture, for sure, and the French cuisine was amazing as well.

Ariana: The most influential [part] was spending time with my host family. . . . All of that has given me lots of opportunity to practice my French, and to become more confident in what I'm saying, and how I'm saying it, and also just learning new things, new vocabulary, new expressions.

The constant practicing of French language within an informal, non-threatening atmosphere allowed and encouraged

TCs to practice their speaking and listening skills, and to ask questions. As Jenn shared, "I think it was definitely more important to do that [homestay] versus a hotel or something, because you get to interact with other people, and so you were using your French all the time."

Kaia: I think it was fabulous, just because it was a very comfortable atmosphere. Our host parents were very welcoming. I never felt like I was being judged for mistakes that I made in my speaking. Nobody was always just cutting me off to make corrections. But at the same time, when it was clear that I was saying something that maybe hindered our communication, or gave the wrong message, our hosts said something like, "You might actually want to say that another way." It was more just to help us, and they were also very open to answering our questions.

Harris: I really enjoyed the time that I spent with my host family, and having people that are there that speak only in French—that held me more accountable. . . . Also, you never want your host family to feel like you're talking about them, or saying something mean. So, we definitely would speak in French 100% of the time that we were at home. . . . I really liked having dinner with them too. I liked just being able to talk with them, and laugh with them—it was really fun.

Evenings were often spent preparing the dinner meal, watching French television programs, playing board games, and discussing local and provincial events, all of which reinforced French language:

Maive: Being in a homestay is very different because there are people around you that don't speak English, so you're forced to speak in French. I think it was also good that we were put together in pairs, because if there were things you didn't know how to say, you would try and get the other person to help you. . . . You're not hyper-focused, like when you're trying to do a job in a different language, but it's more like you're just having fun in a different language.

Lydia: Our host family was a couple who spoke French the entire time, and were really friendly and welcoming. We each had our own rooms, and our own bathroom. And every morning we would make our own breakfast and have a nice conversation before we would head off to school. We would come back and have a nice conversation while she was cooking dinner. We'd have dinner together and talk about our day. If there was a silence at the table, our host dad would start a conversation, you know, ask a couple of questions and then get the conversation rolling.

Only one of the 13 participants, Faith, indicated a lack of communication with the homestay family, noting, "They didn't spend a lot of time with us. There was one day I went into the kitchen . . . and I helped her cook, but they didn't really do a whole lot of interacting with us." This was clearly the exception, as the overwhelming attitude towards the homestay experience was one of appreciation for how vitally important this was for achieving the language acquisition and practice goals of the CLE placement. It also provided one of the best windows into cultural learning, since TCs were able to ask questions about anything they found interesting, both before and following the Quebec City excursion.

B. School Classroom Placements

Another key factor of the CLE experience was the placement in a local school classroom for one week of teacher observation. Unlike their longer Ontario practicum blocks where they would often be increasingly responsible for lesson planning, teaching, and assessment elements, this brief yet important placement allowed our TCs to become familiar with school schedules, traditions, and pedagogy while also facilitating French language practice with associate teachers, students, parents, and school staff. As Lydia explained, "We're only in the classroom for a couple of days, so we're really more of a teacher's assistant. So, we're speaking in French with the fellow teachers, and students, and whatnot." Emma added, "Just being here we've been able to pick up different teaching techniques, and games, and activities that . . . help to utilize the language in different aspects." Belle added, "It was interesting to see the teachers interact with the students in the Quebec curriculum, and just to see where they're at. Others noted the following:

Kaia: The classroom teacher introduced us to the Grade 6 students and so they knew we were coming, and they were excited we were coming. She said something like, "They speak English, but they're here to speak French, so you need to speak to them in French." So, that was a really nice intro, and so the kids knew what was going on. So they knew that we might struggle with our language sometimes, but that we were here to learn and to practice. So that was a really awesome experience, just developing those kinds of interactions and relationships with the kids.

Classroom management is always foremost in the minds of TCs, so part of what made this placement meaningful was observing how teachers dealt with student misbehaviour in terms of the French language communication involved.

Harris: I was in a Grade 1 class and went with them to all the classes that they had, and just observed a lot of the time. I helped with classroom management to answer questions, and I was able to see how their teacher handled them with classroom management strategies as well.

Gisele: I was in a Grade 3 class and I enjoyed seeing different forms of classroom management, rather than a perfect classroom where everything goes smoothly. They have different teachers for different subjects, so I got to see different teachers, and to spend time with each one.

Ike: The second class was a Grade 9 English class, and it was very grammar-heavy—not much opportunity for practicing English. Those students were particularly difficult students in terms of behaviour . . . had no interest in listening—it came down to her classroom management skills.

Thus far we have examined the homestay and classroom placement elements of the CLE. Next, we shall consider the community volunteering placements that took place in a variety of contexts during Week 2.

C. Community Volunteering

Community volunteering took place during the second week of the CLE schedule. Organizations that were involved included two local daycares, the town of Trois-Pistoles Library, a local food bank, a youth employment office, and the local hospital. The TCs would often be placed in pairs and would spend most of the day volunteering at these sites, minus lunch hours during which time they would either walk back to their homestay, or eat a packed lunch. Similar to Week 1 school placements, these community placements provided ideal opportunities for TCs to not only absorb local culture, but to also practice their French speaking and listening skills.

Harris: I'm having a lot of fun with the kids at the daycare. They have organized activities—swimming, bowling, carving out little ice sculptures, a board game day, and tomorrow we're going to a museum. . . . It gives you an opportunity to have one-on-one interactions with kids, because they have so much free time, in terms of having a lot of choice in the things that they can do.

Kaia: I'm at the library working for the city, and I think it's been really great. Workshops have been planned during their March Break—opportunities for artists and authors to come in and read a story that they've written

for kids, or do some sort of craft or activity. So, just interacting with other people, especially young kids, because they realize that we're anglophones and that French isn't our first language, but they just speak like they always do.

Ike: The hospital's been great, everyone is so kind. . . . I was playing the guitar, and I also played Skip-Bo, a card game, and we played Bingo and this other game where you take a tennis ball and you throw it at a foam board, and it just kind of sticks there with Velcro—basically just practicing their motor skills. Puzzles, spelling words, things like that—just keeping them aware and lucid.

Note that for all three of the locations described above, being exposed to French language associated with the organization itself, and with the activities being planned, all contributed to FSL improvement.

D. Cultural Workshops and Local Events

In addition to the school and community placements, a rich set of workshops and local events were arranged by the local program coordinator. These workshops included evening, classroom-based sessions that focused on French language writing/speaking, French Canadian history and literature, the arts (dance/visual arts), creative writing, and the viewing of a popular French film. Various local activities were also planned, depending on availability and interest, such as a guided tour of a local brewery, live music performances, bowling, and café/pub gatherings. TCs share their thoughts on the workshops and activities in which they participated:

Gisele: The arts workshop was kind of a mixture of dramatic arts and visual arts—that one was, I think, everybody's favourite. . . . We also did a writing workshop . . . and we watched a French film that was hilarious—it was called something like "Dinner of Fools." And then we had the coffee shop night at the café that was just perfect.

Harris: The French film night was nice. We eventually did end up turning on the English subtitles along the bottom. If we had the option to put French subtitles, we would have done that, just because they speak so quickly, but there was only English. It was nice to be able to listen in French, and then whenever you needed to, you could just look down at the bottom and understand what it was that they were saying, especially when it's like slang, or whatever.

As Maive noted, "I think they were all a part of the cultural aspect of the CLE. Doing social events and just being able to talk and learn about that stuff was really cool for me." While some evenings simply allowed for quiet time to be spent with their homestay families, the evenings that did involve planned workshops and/or local events were definitely highlights for our students. Notwithstanding, the most anticipated and perhaps most enjoyed cultural moment of the entire CLE was the weekend excursion to the nearby (3.5-hour drive) provincial capital, Quebec City.

E. Quebec City Excursion

The majority of the TCs had already been to Quebec City previously, though sometimes it had been many years since that trip, yet all 13 interviewees recounted very positive impressions of the weekend excursion. In contrast to Trois-Pistoles, visiting Quebec City provided our TCs with a very busy, urban context in which they could see the traditional sights and also practice their French among francophones who were usually willing to engage in conversations. Our groups stayed at the *Auberge Internationale de Quebec* (a youth hostel located in the heart of the Old City), and we also met together for dinner at the *Cochon Dingue* (Crazy Pig) on Friday night, but beyond that the TCs were free to plan their entire weekend according to their own interests and budget.

Dating back to 1608, Quebec City is rich in history and features a central, fortified colonial core; Vieux-Québec (Old City); Place Royale square with cobblestone streets and shops; the funicular railway; Château Frontenac Hotel; the military Citadel; the Plains of Abraham historical battle site; museums; walking tours; and the hourly ferry to/from Lévis situated directly across the St. Lawrence River. Local day-trip bus tours include those heading east to the Montmorency Falls and Ste-Anne-de-Beaupré cathedral; and northwest to the Hôtel de Glace (Ice Hotel) at the Valcartier Vacation Village.

Kaia: As soon as we got there, we hit the ground running, wanting to see all these different things. It was my first time to Quebec City, so I hadn't seen anything—just trying to understand, you know, historically about French Canada, it was fabulous to visit that place. We went to Château Frontenac, we just walked the streets of old Quebec, we went to the old church, we went and saw a lot of these historical things. And then what we also enjoyed was being able to have Québécois cuisine too, talking to the people there, and some great nightlife, of course.

Ariana: Since I am very likely going to be a French teacher for the majority of my career, just having all of these different experiences and learning about Quebec is going to be super helpful, because a big part of the French curriculum has to do with teaching about culture, and teaching about different regions that use French. Most of my experience, previously, was in France and Switzerland, but now I can add that third aspect of having lived in Quebec to enrich my program.

Ike: It was really good to see the different kinds of social norms that exist in both places as well. Very few people speak English in Quebec City. . . . I went to the Montmorency Falls, I also spent a long time in a bookstore, and we took a ferry across the river to Lévis. We went to a bunch of different Québécois restaurants,

and we had cuisine that we wouldn't have had here—crêpes, for example, and *pâté Chinois*, which is like shepherd's pie, which is a very typical Québécois dish.

Beyond historic sightseeing, the Quebec City excursion provided ample opportunity for TCs to practice French speaking and comprehension in a variety of authentic (real-world) contexts, each of which involved different vocabulary and common vernacular expressions.

Gisele: I definitely think it was very beneficial in the sense that you kind of had to plan out what activities you wanted to do, and you had to make your own way through. So, just asking for instructions to make sure we were on the right bus. You got to see a lot of different people.

Harris: It definitely gave us a lot more cultural context, and it helped you to have conversations about things that are outside of the realm of teaching or childcare—it helped you to develop different vocabulary, and to communicate with people that weren't your host family, or childcare providers, or placement supervisors. I really, really enjoyed the time we spent in Quebec City.

Clearly, the Quebec City weekend excursion (Figure 2) ranked among the most enjoyable and profitable experiences of the CLE, both in terms of language acquisition and cultural knowledge learning goals.



Figure 2. Teacher candidate group at Chateau Frontenac during the Quebec City excursion (2019).

F. Program Length and Accessibility

The first of three additional themes will deal with the brevity and accessibility of the CLEs in Trois-Pistoles, as compared to lengthier French immersion experiences. As Mady (2018) had reported on previously, the benefits of the shorter, 2-week placements appear to be quite significant in terms of language learning and cultural awareness, both of which are requirements for effective FSL teaching. The participants in this study concurred:

Gisele: There are benefits from either kind, but as far as this type of shorter placement, I think it's definitely more intense, because you go from one area right to the other, and you're living with a host family the whole time. Even if this experience was just coming here to live with a host family, I think you would gain so much from just that part alone.

Kaia: I think that with a condensed experience you're almost forced to adjust very quickly, which I think was actually a good thing. When I did a longer exchange in the past, it took me longer to adjust, but not here. I think the thing, too, with the 2-week experience, you have to get as much as possible out of it when you're here, so you feel like you can't waste any time in terms of wanting to go see the different cultural things, and spending time with your host family.

Others focused on the time and energy commitment aspects of a short-term immersion experience:

Ike: I think the big advantage of a short program is the accessibility. As young professionals that are hoping to secure a job in the very near future, having a 2-week program makes it possible for us to even experience something like this. . . . So, it's really good, especially for people who haven't had immersion experiences, and there are a few of those here in our group.

Maive: I am very much a homebody, so a longer program doesn't interest me at all. Even a 6-month program would be too much for me, because I'm tired at the end of just two weeks. I think I learned quite a bit here. I think with the short period of time, you just have your eyes open to things—things that you just don't know, and that you become aware of.

These brief, 2-week experiences can obviously not provide TCs with extensive classroom teaching opportunities, or with long-term French language practice. However, the cultural awareness elements, especially with the Quebec City excursion, coupled with the intensity of the daily communication with the homestay family, colleagues, students, and other professionals did seem to provide TCs with many of the same advantages of lengthier trips. And as participant Lydia shared, “I think this short immersion experience just gives you a taste of it, and an inspiration, maybe, to do more.” In some respects, the CLE in Trois-Pistoles can be best described as a quality-over-quantity experience.

G. Communication and Confidence

Another strong theme that emerged was the communicative opportunities that provided new learning, as well as the reinforcement, through constant practice, of things already learned. The French language—including accents, vocabulary, and expressions—was described as being quite different in France (Parisian/International French), compared to that often spoken in Quebec society (Québécois), and again compared to that spoken in rural Quebec, particularly by seniors (Joual dialect).

Ariana: There are more Québécois expressions and different vocabulary words here, and things you don’t always expect. If you say the word “cheeps” here, referring to chips, they’re not really going to understand you. Whereas, if you say “croustille” in France, they’re not going to really understand you either. . . . There were times, especially when working with older Québécois people at the hospital, that they had more peculiarities with their language, and I found they would also sometimes speak very fast, or with a different accent that’s closer to Joual—a more regional dialect that kind of developed during the 30s through 60s in more rural areas of Quebec.

Belle: I know in France they have ‘chaussures’ and ‘chaussettes’ for ‘shoes’ and ‘socks,’ and I grew up learning ‘souliers’ and ‘bas.’ And they said that if you say ‘bas’ for socks, in France, they will know it’s Québécois because they don’t say that there—certain things like that.

The ability to begin and to continue a conversation in French, without the other party immediately recognizing that they were second language speakers, and hence switching to English, was of great importance to several of the TC participants. As Kaia noted, “Most people would continue in French. There were a few times when people could hear that we had accents, but they wanted to practice their English, and so would switch over.” Cleo and Lydia recounted similar experiences.

Cleo: Just going to shops, especially in Quebec, and being able to speak with them in French and not have them switch back to English. Which means I can kind of pass as a French speaker, and they can tell by your vocabulary that you’re comfortable with the words you’re using.

Lydia: I didn’t have any problems communicating my thoughts or ideas. Everyone was pretty welcoming, and I didn’t find that at any point someone would switch to English. . . . In bigger cities, like, let’s say Montreal, where there’s an even bigger population, there are more bilingual speakers, and so if they hear a smidge of an accent, they’ll often switch to English, or they’ll want to practice their English. That actually happened a couple of times here in Trois-Pistoles.

The ability to understand humour within a second language often represents a real challenge, and requires a sensitivity to vocabulary, expression, and tone that goes beyond the basic grammar learning. Having the opportunity to casually relax with homestay families, for an extended period of time, allowed TCs to absorb some of the subtler nuances of French language and popular idiom. For example, Cleo noted, “I think a lot of it was talking with my host family, and being able to joke with them and understand their jokes. We were actually able to joke and have a good time which leads to kind of more familiarity with the language.” Emma likewise shared, “Being at home with our host families, and being able to talk and just having those communication skills—that is what most affected my self-confidence.” Faith enjoyed the person talks: “If something happened, you wanted to share it, and so you needed the French expressions to do that—like real conversing, which is something I’m not used to doing in French. So, I think that was the most influential part for me, getting to know people personally.”

Ariana: During the homestay, I could understand my hosts almost all the time, especially after the first couple days, when the tiredness left, and all that. You get used to people’s mannerisms and speaking the more time you spend with them.

Ike: I think that being exposed to the idiosyncrasies of the Québécois culture, that is really key. Whenever you all sit down together and say ‘Bon appétit,’ before a meal, for example, or different ways of saying hello, those are things that you can’t really pick up from a textbook. Also just having to speak French continuously for two weeks—it’s surprising how mentally exhausting it is. . . . That’s just something that you wouldn’t know unless you experience it.

Communicating with students and young children at the various school and community volunteering placements often involved the delivery of instructions, something that helped to improve the TCs’ French speaking skills by way of a constant practice and feedback from students and teachers.

Emma: Helping the kids with their games, and when you are in charge of explaining it and giving the instructions, you need to have the knowledge and the understanding of how can you get that across, especially in a second language—how to communicate in French properly in order to get a task completed. So, I think it’s

been great to be able to be in these positions where you're fully immersed, and you're able to utilize everything that you've been taught thus far.

However, classroom management in a second language can be particularly difficult, especially when the teacher is grasping for words, sometimes in the midst of an urgent situation in terms of student safety. Emma continued, "You're more confident in congratulating someone, right? It's easier to reinforce good behaviour, even in English, than to address bad behaviour. So trying to find those appropriate words, and just listening to the other leaders in terms of their choice of words or phrases."

Faith: I just wish I had that higher vocabulary in French to help me communicate better with the kids. Sometimes when you wanted to discipline them, or just completely stop the game and start something new, I felt like I didn't have that much confidence in doing that, so I kind of just kept fixing the problems as they came up, instead of stopping and starting something new. There was a lot of rough housing . . . and a sense of urgency, and I sometimes thought, "Oh, no, I don't have what it takes to do this in French," you know, to communicate a statement adequately.

The ability to adequately communicate in French, within a variety of contexts, and to be understood by those with whom you are speaking, both of these relate directly to one's self-confidence.

Emma: Our home experience was amazing—we talked constantly! So, to be able to talk to someone and they don't know any English at all, and to be able to communicate and have them completely understand what you're saying, and you're having 2-hour conversations every night, and you're watching French TV programs with them, and you're able to talk about the news, and you're able to carry on those conversations—all of that really boosts your confidence.

Kaia: I think just the fact that I was able to navigate everyday life and my placements, in French, without really any huge issues, that is what really boosted my confidence a lot. The fact that I didn't feel like I was being judged for speaking poorly, being able to communicate without the fear of making mistakes, that has also been a huge confidence booster.

Ike: I think it definitely had a positive impact on my confidence as a French speaker. Before I came here, I had interacted with other French speakers, you know, from Franco-Ontario, from France, but with the Québécois in particular I didn't have the cultural background, or any really acclamation to their accents. So, I got to experience, frankly, both of those things with the host family experience—I got to practice both the culture and the language.

Ariana summed up her CLE aptly with the statement, "This has given me two weeks of living my life in French," and peer Danika likewise beamed, "I can honestly say that I will go home feeling 10 times more confident in my language abilities." The immersion experience, although brief in length, was clearly perceived as having significantly boosted participants' confidence and cultural awareness.

H. Career Direction and Employability

A third theme that emerged from the interview data analysis was that of the perceived effects of the CLEs on career path direction and on future employability. When asked if the 2-week experience had in any ways reinforced, or perhaps even completely changed, their original preferences for division (two selected from Primary, Junior, Intermediate, and Senior levels in Ontario) and program (Core French versus French Immersion teaching), participants noted a mixture of responses. The majority felt that their preferences had been reinforced and solidified through participation in the CLE experience:

Lydia: I feel pretty confident in my French skills. I've already been hired to teach French Immersion. With this CLE Experience, I just feel even more at ease with the language, and it kind of just solidified the idea that, yes, I do want to be a French Immersion teacher at J/I level.

Ariana: I am a Core French kid. Core kids tend to drop out because they don't feel confident that they can do it, or that their French is good enough to go and actually talk with French speakers. So, I want Core kids to realize that this *is* something they can do—they can live in French, and they can have success learning a second language.

However, several participants did note a significant change in one or both of their teaching preferences (i.e., division level and program), thus indicating that the variety of contexts in which they were immersed provided them with adequate time and feedback to influence such important questions.

Emma: I'm currently in the J/I Division, but in coming here, I now really would like to take my Primary qualifications and hopefully get a job where I'm teaching in elementary. . . . So, it was nice to be able to see if I could communicate effectively and efficiently with a younger group, especially since French is their first language, and I now feel like I'm confident in doing that.

Harris: I think I feel less comfortable teaching in Immersion after this experience. I feel like I don't want to do a disservice to my students by not being up to par for them. . . . I grew up in the French Immersion program, so I had always imagined myself as a French Immersion teacher, but now I don't know, maybe Core—I'll have to keep practicing and thinking more about it.

One TC noted that she was uncertain whether or not she wanted to actually teach in an FSL classroom:

Faith: I don't know if I want to teach in French. I don't know if I want to spend my whole career in French, just as a personal preference. Once you start in French, they say you kind of have to stay there. So, I think that if I were to do that, I think I would feel confident with P/J and Core.

Thus, the variety of placements and peer conversations provided the TCs with opportunities, even within the condensed timeframe of two weeks, to participate in, observe, discuss, and personally reflect on the realities of several divisions and FSL programs (e.g., Core, Immersion) in terms of future career preferences.

During the interviews, I asked all of the TCs about their current employment prospects and also whether or not, and how, they perceived the CLE as potentially affecting their future job opportunities. Of the thirteen participants, seven indicated that they already had been hired (three of which received this news while we were in Quebec, which was exciting), some as full-time teachers, others as Occasional Teachers, and two heading further beyond to Nunavut (northern Canada) and Taiwan. Most of the others either had been interviewed, were awaiting a scheduled interview, or planned to interview upon return. In other words, the job prospects for FSL teachers in Ontario appear to be relatively plentiful. In terms of the perceived effects of the Trois-Pistoles CLE immersion experience on future employment opportunities, all of the interviewees indicated a sense of positive correlation. As Lydia shared, "I think this would, 100%, help with finding a job because you are indeed practicing and improving your French skills—your comprehension and communication skills." Others noted:

Danika: I have an upcoming interview with a board, and I think this is a really important experience to touch on. Employers need to know that as a pre-service teacher I am continuing to seek professional development, and this is one of the highest levels of PD that you could take as an immersion experience. And I think it's beneficial for them to also know that I'm able to enter into a foreign, or strange situation and make it something super beneficial.

Ike: I think this experience will definitely help me to secure a French teaching position when I return to Canada. I think it would show that as an educator I'm willing to, you know, put in the work for professional development outside of school, so that I can improve my French language, and above all my French cultural knowledge. Because I think as a French teacher, you need to be able to offer that cultural dimension, because that's not something that students can access on their own. And I think that once you put language and culture together, that's when language classes really take off, and that's where the importance, frankly, of learning a language comes in.

In several cases, TCs had already taken part in teaching position interviews prior to our trip and had indeed described the upcoming CLE placement as part of their overall presentation to the board.

Harris: This trip really just gives you that little notch above, and I feel like it helped get my foot in the door as well. During the interview, I spoke about the program that we are doing here. You know, like, "Did I mention that I'm going on an exchange in Quebec!?"

Ariana: Mentioning the CLE in job interviews made it evident that I wasn't just going to be like, "I don't need to learn anything else," because as teachers we always need to be learning and practicing ourselves. So this experience, I think, made it clear that I do intend to be practicing, and that I do intend to move myself along in terms of proficiency.

In this section, we have seen that the CLEs in Trois-Pistoles, although relatively brief in nature, were clearly perceived as having significant benefits in terms of French language proficiency; increased cultural awareness, in both rural and urban Quebec; boosted self-confidence; informed reflection on career preference (division/program); and perceived future employment advantages.

IV. DISCUSSION

When asked if they would recommend this CLE immersion program to a friend or colleague, all 13 participations indicated, without reservation, that they would definitely do so. For many, the rural homestay experience was the key; for others it was coming to the realization that they were actually capable of "living in French" and thereby reaping the promised benefits of Canadian FSL education.

Danika: I would recommend it, 100%. I think I got the biggest benefit from staying with my host family. In terms of language gains, I will say that that came mostly from sitting down and having at least an hour at every meal where we just conversed with our host parents.

Maive: I really struggled with in my undergrad degree, where I debated about dropping my French minor, actually, because I was just so bored of doing just strictly French language, and having no real application of my knowledge. I've never had this kind of experience. I didn't know how good I was at speaking French in the grand scheme of the world. So, just having that self-satisfaction that you can actually do it, and that everything you've learned up to that point was enough for this, and what you didn't know didn't hinder you significantly—you were still successful, and you became aware of what you still needed to learn.

These types of positive perceptions of the CLE were even evident among those who had previously lived and/or studied in two of the most French-speaking centres in Canada, i.e., Montreal and Ottawa:

Ariana: Absolutely, it was a great experience. I really enjoyed living with a family, immersing myself in a language, and getting to kind of experience what small-town Quebec is like. Because I've previously lived in

Montreal, and Montreal is nothing like the rest of Quebec. So, having this experience and being able to see what, to me, feels like the ‘real’ Quebec, has been amazing.

Emma: I think, for sure, I would recommend this program, especially being from Ontario where there are only pockets of areas that are fully French; and even as someone who studied in Ottawa, and who is now living in Ottawa, where there is French, but it’s not necessarily the dominant language. This is your one opportunity to come into a situation and be fully immersed—to be able to use all of those skills and techniques, and just talk and be able to really get a solid foundation—to improve yourself and your French communication skills.

The potential longer-term positive impacts of the CLE included TC’s future plans to maintain their language skills by seeking ongoing conversations with francophone speakers and consuming French media.

Ariana: I’ve taken down my host mom’s email, so hopefully I can stay in touch with her. And also, to reach out to people in my own vicinity, like other French teacher candidates and French Associate Teachers that I’m going to be working with, and use them as a means to practice my French, because in Ontario there’s not a lot of ways that you can find people to speak French with. It’s also very difficult to find French literature. . . . I know of a couple of TV shows, Netflix also dubs a lot of things in French, or even if it’s not dubbed, I can find the subtitles in French.

Cleo: We were exposed to French music and French TV a lot, so I feel like that’s something I could try and find, so that I could try and maintain my listening skills. I bought a French book, a French novel, and so just trying to continue with the reading as well.

Others described wanting to participate in other future immersion opportunities, taking online French courses, and even attempting to create some form of virtual immersion experience for their students. For example, Bell noted, “If they did have summer programs available while I’m teaching, that would be something that I would be interested in. . . . It’s nice to have refreshers, with maybe more complicated texts,” while Faith explained, “So, I think that just taking courses about the reading and writing of French—there are courses offered back home that I can take for that, and they’re free.”

Danika: I would also like to implement scenario-based learning into my classroom that would revolve around situations like this where you need your French to communicate effectively. The only way to learn is to put yourself out there, and to make mistakes. . . . So, I would love to implement almost like a virtual exchange, or virtual immersion experiences, with my students.

Perhaps Maive summed up her CLE and future plans best with the following reflection: “Sometimes you think you know a lot, and then you go somewhere and you realize that you don’t. I think that in leaving this experience I will have a much greater appreciation for what I still don’t know, and need to learn.”

Clearly, there are numerous and significant benefits involved with this type of condensed, multi-faceted, full immersion program. Our findings serve to thus reinforce the recommendations made by Mady in 2018, namely that the government, and the faculties of education in Ontario and throughout Canada, would seriously consider making these types of rich experiences even more widely available to those considering FSL teaching, as well as to those who have already begun their careers as FSL teachers.

APPENDIX. SAMPLE CLE ITINERARY

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Depart Toronto Union Station by Rail (11:00) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Arrival at TP Train Station (2:00) Welcome and Planning Meeting at FIS Office (13:00) School Placement (14:00-16:00) Dinner and Evening with Host Family 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Host Family School Placements (8:00-12:00) Lunch at Host Family (or packed) School Placements (13:00-15:30) Dinner with Host Family Workshop at FIS: French Language 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Host Family School Placements (8:00-12:00) Lunch at Host Family (or packed) School Placements (13:00-15:30) Dinner with Host Family Café Social at <i>Grains de Folie</i> (19:00) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Host Family School Placements (8:00-12:00) Lunch at Host Family (or packed) School Placements (13:00-15:30) Dinner with Host Family Workshop at FIS: Dance & Visual Art 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Host Family Bus or Van Trip to Quebec City (9:00-12:30) Check in to Intl Hostel (13:00) Group Dinner at <i>Cochon Dingue</i> near Place Champlain (19:00) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Hostel Self-selected activities including walking tours, shops, museums, restaurants, 2-way ferry to Lévis, bus day-trips to Montmorency Falls or Varcartier Village (Ice Hotel tour)
Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Depart Quebec City from Gare du Palais Bus Station (14:00) Dinner and Evening with Host Family (18:00) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Host Family Community Placements (8:00-12:00) Lunch at Host Family (or packed) Community Placements (13:00-15:30) Dinner with Host Family Workshop at FIS: French Culture/Hist. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Host Family Community Placements (8:00-12:00) Lunch at Host Family (or packed) Community Placements (13:00-15:30) Dinner with Host Family Tour of Local Microbrewery (18:00) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Host Family Community Placements (8:00-12:00) Lunch at Host Family (or packed) Community Placements (13:00-15:30) Dinner with Host Family Workshop at FIS: French Writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Host Family Community Placements (8:00-12:00) Lunch at Host Family (or packed) Community Placements (13:00-15:30) Dinner with Host Family Live Music Concert (19:00) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breakfast at Host Family Surveys and Interviews at FIS Office (9:00-12:00) Lunch at Host Family (or packed) Visit to Local Cheese Shop Dinner and Final Evening with Host Family 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Depart Train Station (5:00) Arrive Toronto Union Station (16:30)

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Non-verbal Communication Used by Parents to Their Children in Presence of Visitors in Ovoko

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Abstract—This study examines the use of non-verbal communication by parents to their children in presence of visitors in Ovoko speech community, Enugu state, Nigeria. The specific objectives of the study are: to identify various body communication signs used by parents to their children in presence of visitors and to provide the interpretations in the speech community under study. Primary methods of data collection are adopted which is observation and interview. From the pictures gathered from the field, a total of ten (10) facial and body expressions are selected for analysis in this study. The study adopts the social semiotic theory as a theoretical framework for its analysis. The study identifies various body signs used by parents to their children. It further reveals that all expressions used by the population have meanings attached to them. The study therefore, recommends that a study of the children's interpretation and opinion of the parents' body expression is a worthwhile academic undertaking in order to ascertain if the right perlocutionary response to the sign is always achieved.

Index Terms—communication, non-verbal expression, Ovoko, semiotics

I. INTRODUCTION

Language, a major trait that distinguishes homo-sapiens from other beings, is a vehicle through which realities are conceived, perceived and expressed. It is acquired through a process of socialisation in the culture of the group that uses it. Language is only a means of communicating information; it is an essential means of establishing and maintaining relationship with other people. It gives listeners clue about speakers' origins and the sort of people they are. It is a tool used for expression of one's mind. Fridlund (1994) avers that expressions evolved to elicit behaviours from others. Some expressions can be accurately interpreted even between members of different speech communities –anger and extreme contentment being primary examples. Others are problematic to interpret even among a particular group of individuals. One can say that the main purpose of the use of language is for communication. According to Bloch and Trager (1942), language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which cooperation among social groups is made possible. It is the basic instrument for social behaviour. Communication is the conveyance of feelings, thought, ideas, intentions, and the likes to one another, and for humans, it is peculiarly done verbally.

The importance of communication cannot be over emphasised. Communication serves all humans as a culturally inherited and institutionalised implement created through time by any given speech community. It helps members of family to use their faculty of speech to meet their communicative needs through family interaction. Therefore, irrespective of the social group or class anyone belongs to, the essence of language is to communicate.

People communicate with each other in a number of ways depending on the message and its context. Invariably, these different styles of expression exert effects on communication. Communication can be in form of verbal or non-verbal. These types of communication are used based on the communication channels adopted. Verbal communication refers to the form of communication in which message is transmitted verbally and communication is done orally or in written form. The objective of communication is to have people understand the message we want to convey. Verbal communication uses spoken words to communicate a message. Most people think of verbal communication as just speaking, but in addition to that, listening is equally an important skill for this type of communication to be successful.

Verbal communication is applicable to a wide range of situations, ranging from informal, office discussions to public speeches made to tens, hundreds or even thousands of people.

Non-verbal communication is the sending or receiving of messages without vocal sound. It can be said to be that information passed across through means such as posture, gesture, body language, tone of voice or facial expressions. It is all about the body language of the encoder. Non-verbal communication may convey any aspect of communication that is not purely verbal. More precisely, non-verbal communication can be viewed from two angles. From one angle, non-verbal communication refers to people's actions or attributes other than words (Verderber, 1975). Coming from this perspective, Burgoon and Saine (1978) define non-verbal communication as all those attributes or actions which humans exhibit or receive intentionally or consciously, that have socially shared meaning instead of using speech, and have the unrealised ability to elicit feedback from the receiver. From another perspective however, non-verbal communication also refers to elements that are not from, neither are they part of, people but that communicate through people's use of them. Thus, such artefacts and environmental factors as clothes, temperature and colour fall within the realm of non-verbal communication. Mikoluk (2013) argues that non-verbal communication sets the tone of a conversation, and can seriously undermine the message contained in the speaker's words if it not carefully controlled.

Cherry (2018) listed some forms of non-verbal communication among which facial expression is considered responsible for a huge proportion of it, considering how much information can be conveyed with a smile or a frown. The look on a person's face is often the first thing one sees, even before they hear what the person has to say. For example, we can combine a frown with crossed arms and unblinking eye gaze to convey disapproval. Non-verbal communication and behaviour can vary dramatically between cultures; however, facial expressions for happiness, sadness, anger, and fear are similar throughout the world. Moreover, body language, posture and movement can also convey a great deal of information. Common gestures include waving, pointing, and using fingers to indicate numeric amounts.

The interpretations of the different non-verbal communication signs pose a challenge to those who are not conversant with them. Also, the use of some of these expressions may be very misleading as they can be ambiguous. This is because different contexts of use can bring about different interpretations. There is the need to study non-verbal signs especially the ones that exist between parents and children when visitors are around at home and what they imply. This work therefore is to identify various non-verbal signs used by parents to their children in presence of visitors at home and to provide the interpretations as used in the speech community where we are studying.

This study is carried out in Ovoko speech community in Enugu state, Nigeria. Also, the study is an observational study and the data that are used in this research work are collected based on participant-observation and interview. This method is chosen so as to gather relevant information which could not be easily obtained if the researchers observe in a disinterested fashion. A phone camera is used to capture the expressions of a selected few during the observation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Carter (2000) explores the use of front-page photographs in newspapers and the interpretation of the images by readers using semiotic analysis. The study argues that there are many decisions taken by the photographer such as focusing, lighting and the angle that produces various representations and readings and at the same time create different connotations. From the choices made from the paradigm sets of these signifiers and the syntagmatic relationship between them, it is possible to decode and compare the front page photographs from newspapers. In the study, Carter concludes that although a semiotic analysis can determine the meanings embedded in a photograph, it cannot determine the reader's interpretation of the text in a social context. It can only serve as an insight to the conventions that different newspapers employ and the responses that are attached to the codes at work within them. The two research works are carried out on non-verbal communication though with different objectives.

Tsotra, Janson and Cecez-Kecmanovic (2004) carry out a semiotic analysis of marketing on the internet. The objectives of their study are to examine two examples of internet marketing and explore the manner in which potential customers from different cultural backgrounds perceive advertised products. The researchers employ semiotic theory as a framework of analysis in the study. The study reveals that customers from different cultural backgrounds create meaning in different ways. It also unveils the fact that alternative visual categories are relevant to different groups of people. In as much as these two research works are anchored on semiotic analysis, they have objectives different from each other.

In another study, Ferreira, Barr & Noble (2005) conduct a literature review on the role and place of semiotics in the design of user interface in a computer system. This is born out of the realisation that the proportion of non-technical users has grown over the years. Consequently, the interaction style and interpretability of the user interface determines its success. The review found out that computer interface redesigns are implemented once they are tested on users and subjected to an expert evaluation. Hence, semiotics can help the designers to better the communication power of the user interface. The designer combines various signs to make up the interface in order to convey its intended meaning. This from their own view is achieved through buttons, scroll-bars and significant images, all contributing to the power of communication. From the literature review of user interfaces, it emerged that semiotic analysis is a strong tool for use in analysing the communicability and interpretability of user interfaces in computers by applying the Peircian model of the sign. The designs of user interfaces are inclined to be in the form of iconic, indexical and symbolic signs. This

should make designer aware of the benefits of iconic, symbolic and indexical representation of functionality of user interfaces. Although, the two studies are related as they study the use of signs, one of their differences is the fact that while Ferreira, Barr & Noble (2005) based the objectives of their study on the role and place of semiotics in the design of user interface in a computer system, this present study is based on the use of non-verbal communication by parents to their children in presence of visitors at home.

Remland (2008) studies non-verbal communication in everyday life in West Chester University of Pennsylvania with the following objectives: to present the following codes: primary functions and development of non-verbal communication; to take on integrative approach and show how each channel serves a primary function and to offer a sound application of non-verbal communication grounded in the best and latest theory and research to help students achieve success in various, common and everyday situation. His work on non-verbal communication in everyday life employs a highly qualitative approach in the analysis of data sourced from interviews, participant observation and Focal Group Discussion (FGD), however, secondary data source is employed to this effect. The study finds out that non-verbal communication is an everyday life affair and as such, students make use of it in their daily interaction both consciously and unconsciously. This study is similar to the present work as it focuses on the use of many different parts of the body for non-verbal communication as the present work does. However, while this work is anchored on the use of body language among the students, the present work is anchored on the use of non-verbal language by parents to their children.

Eberhardinger (2012) carries out a synchronic textual analysis on Japanese manner posters from the 1970s to 1980s. The study aims at unpacking a cultural code commissioned by Hideya Kawakita, a Japanese artist. The study shows that Japanese manner posters act as communicative medium for commuters to follow rhetorical directives in public transportation sites. It is also found that crowded Japanese context rely mostly on non-verbal communication such as poster for civil cooperation. The study is of the opinion that icons serve as metaphors for people in their everyday societal life. This analyses Japanese manner posters while the current study investigates the use of non-verbal language by parents to their children. Nevertheless, the two studies are based on the use of sign languages.

Feng and O'Halloran (2012) investigate the way emotive meaning is represented in visual images using the semiotic resources of facial expression, touch and body positioning. Using social semiotic framework, the study draws up facial expression, touch and body alignments as inter related systems of meaning of which the selection and combination constitute a systemic functional "lexico grammar" for analysing and interpreting meaning creation in visual imagery. The systems are employed in explaining the way emotive meanings are represented in iconic books. Finding shows that cartoonists' systemic choices for representing emotions are mostly consistent with the coding accuracy of facial expression on one hand and style guideline on the other hand. The study also shows that the social semiotic framework is effective in explaining the emotion resources in non-verbal behaviour and also useful in investigating cultural differences in the visual depiction of emotion. Although, the two research papers aim at explaining the emotive meanings represented in pictures, they are different in that as Feng and O'Halloran analyse pictures in a comic book, the current study is based on non-verbal communicative expressions of parents in Ovoko speech community to their children in presence of visitors.

Okoro and Day (2013) study non-verbal behaviour in intercultural communication between Nigerians and non-Nigerians during business transactions. Their objective is to investigate the extent to which Nigerian business people adapt to their non-verbal communication style when conducting business with non-Nigerians as well as with other Nigerians. They employed the use of survey and face-to-face interview method where specific non-verbal communication variables which include silence, non-verbal feedbacks, facial expressions, voice volume, gestures, and eye contact were used. This work identifies unique non-verbal signs essential for effective business communication in Nigeria. The study suggests the importance of identifying adjustment strategy associated with non-verbal behaviour in intercultural business transactions in Nigeria. The two works are related as they study the use of non-verbal communication in Nigeria. Besides, their divergence lies the fact that while the previous study addresses the intercultural communication between Nigerians and non-Nigerians during business transactions, the current study focuses on the use of non-verbal language by parents to their children.

Dzanic (2013) explores the extent to which semiotics aids in explaining how signs were used to represent something. The study seeks to investigate the switching from denotative to connotative meanings of advertisements. The approach is based on the assumption that communication is accomplished through decoding and encoding messages. The connotative meaning represents the overall impression about the meaning of the product which an advertisement creates by the use of the image or icon (e.g. the photographed model). The study then argues that through the use of symbolism and iconicity, a customer is made to believe that a product or service is the ultimate solution to their problems and something that makes their wishes come true. The area of convergence between these two works is in the study of the use of signs to communicate. However, their objectives vary. While the previous work studies the semiotics of contemporary advertising messages from the decoding visual point of view, the present work studies the use of non-verbal language by parents to their children.

The reviews so far, looked at the findings of different authors on studies of body expressions which are very important aspects of non-verbal communication. Most of the works above focused on parts of the body used for

expressions. This work differs greatly from others because it looks at the interpretation of the body expressions of parents to their children in presence of visitors.

Theoretical Framework

Semiotic Theory

Semiotics as a field of study that is concerned with the science of signification is often said to derive from two sources: Charles Sanders Peirce (Anglo-American, 1839-1914) and Ferdinand de Saussure (Swiss-French, 1857-1913). Some other prominent scholars known for their works in semiotics are Eco (1976), Barthes (1967) and Baudrillard (1988). Semiotics is the theory that deals with the production and interpretation of meaning. Its basic principle is that meaning is made by the deployment of acts and objects which function as “signs” in relation to other signs.

In linguistics, how people use signs and body to communicate is studied under semiotics. It is the study of signs in general. Semiosis as a term is the ability of all living things to produce and understand signs involuntarily (Sebeok, 2001). It is the human capacity and process of making and using signs. Semiotics can be traced as far back as 460 – 377 B.C. in the study of physiological symptoms of diseases. It developed over time but the first linguists to be associated with the study of semiotics is Ferdinand de Saussure and Charles S. Peirce. Their study of semiotics aims at understanding the structures undergird both the production and interpretation of signs (Sebeok, 2001). The structuralist semiotics is of the opinion that the recurring patterns which are the properties of sign system are reflective of inherent structures in the sensory, emotional and intellectual composition of human body and psyche. de Saussure (1916) proposes two branches of semiotics thus: diachronic and synchronic semiotics. From Saussurean’s point of view, sign is a form that is made up of a physical reality (which Saussure himself terms “signifier”) and the image or concept which is the referent of that physical reality (Saussure calls it the “signified”). Then the connectivity between the signifier and the signified is what he called signification (Sebeok, 2001). de Saussure contends that there is no natural connection between the signifier and the signified; their connection is arbitrary. In Peirce own words according to Sebeok (2001), signifier is termed “representamen” while the signified is called “the object”. The proponent also notes that based on the usage and situation, most human signs have the ability to encode two primary kinds of referent – denotative and connotative. Peirce classifies signs into three, thus: icon, index and symbol. Icon resembles or recreates the perceptual experience of the referent; index shows a referent through /causal relationship between the signifier and the signified while symbol represents the referent arbitrarily. In all, there are six types of sign (Sebeok, 2001): symptom, signal, name, icon, index and symbol.

Hodge and Kress (1988) criticise the structuralist semiotics of Ferdinand de Saussure on the basis of its inability to address the issue of how societies and cultures maintain or shift the conventional link between the signifier and the signified. They also complained that Ferdinand de Saussure dodged addressing the issue of creativity, movement and change in language owing to the reaction to the diachronic linguistics of the time.

Social semiotics is a communicative approach which aims at understanding the manners at which people communicate through a variety of modes in a particular social situation. From this angle, the study of communication identifies and invents the semiotic options that are available to the communicators and that which they chose to make. In other words, people choose from semiotic resources at their disposal to express meanings in a given social context and at a given point in time. It is a theory that is based upon meaning and socio-cultural context. Social semiotics explores the manner at which cultural contexts produces representations and how these representations contribute to cultural settings (Jewitt and Henriksen, 2016). Put differently, social semiotics aims at investigating the social functions and meaning possibilities of cultural settings and representations in the communicative terrain.

The term ‘social semiotics’ emerged in linguistics following the work of Michael Halliday in the Book he entitled ‘*language and social semantics*’ (Halliday, 1978). In this work, language is perceived as sets of resources that influence what the speaker can do with language in a particular social situation. On the other hand, the work of Hodge and Kress (1988) which is entitled ‘*social semiotics*’ deals basically with the use of semiotic system in social practice; shifting emphasis from language to other modes or rather other resources available for use to produce sign in a communicative enterprise. They toe the perspective of Charles Sanders Peirce by referring to his classifications of sign as icon, index and symbol. Through these classifications, Hodge and Kress are able to address the issue of how the society and culture maintain or shift the conventional link between signifier and the signified.

This study adopts the social semiotic approach of Hodge and Kress (1988) which promotes the choice from the available semiotic resources to express meaning given a particular situation and time without being restricted to only verbal mode.

III. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

Here, the pictures of different gestures exhibited by parents in the bid to communicate to their children without attracting the attentions of their visitors are presented and analysed.

A. Identification of Body Expression Used by Parents to Their Children in the Presence of Visitors.

Different body expressions as identified from the study area will be represented here using figures.



Fig. 1: Happiness and contentment



Fig. 2 This denotes “come”



Fig. 3 This denotes anger and the injunction to go in



Fig. 4: This denotes surprise and shock.



Fig. 5: This denotes disappointment.



Fig. 6: This indicates “leave the presence of the visitor or shut your mouth up”.



Fig. 7: This denotes interest.



Fig. 8: This denotes "to wait".



Fig. 9: This denotes get inside

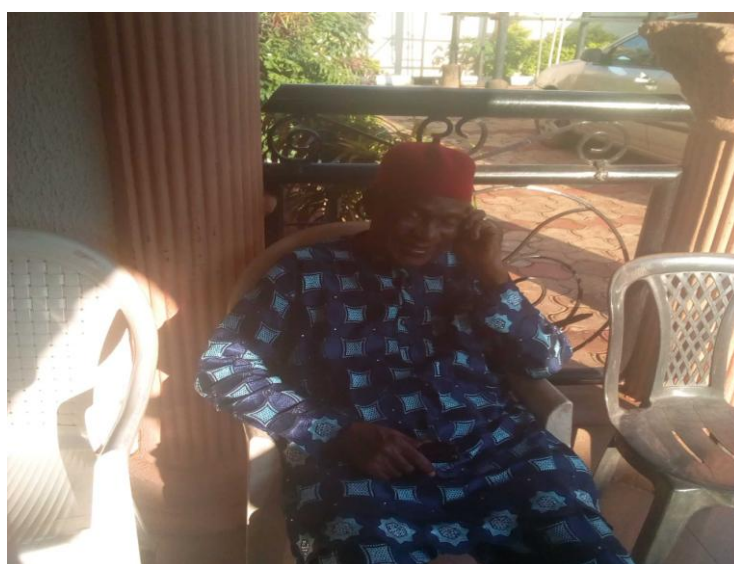


Fig. 10: This denotes slyness

B. Semiotic Interpretations of the Body Expressions of Parents to Their Children

Fig. 1 is a parent smiling, and the expression shows that he is in a bright mood despite the fact that he is old. This was captured when a visitor was making an impressive statement about his child and from the smile, the child saw in him a happy moment and detected the feeling of contentment and pride about their action.

Figure 2 is a mother bidding her little child come closer by folding her fingers as her hand is raised, which indicates "to come." During an interview, she said that once the sign is done by her with smiles on her face, her child will quickly rush to meet her. But if she frowns, the child will run away thinking the mother will beat him/her for doing something wrong. Some other respondents on seeing the picture added that the sign shows a kind of reinforcement or applaud given to a child as a result of wonderful behaviour in front of the visitor.

Fig. 3 is a representation of anger and injunction to go in; the mother telling the child to go into the house in an angry and threatening mood. Her hands are pointing directly to the door of the house with her frowning. During the interview section, the mother explained that the child did something nasty in the presence of a visitor, hence she asked the child to leave their presence using those expressions both with eyes and hands.

Fig. 4 shows a representation of surprise and shock. The expressions are exhibited when the father of the child was no more comfortable with the child's manner of approach to their visitors. This was done unconsciously when the respondent's child was asked a question about a particular assignment by the visitor, which the parents expected him to keep quiet or pretend to have done it, but rather he did otherwise. The father was shocked by the child's action and communicated it to the child by that facial expression.

In fig 5, there is an indication of disappointment. The father widens his eyes in show of disappointment of what the child did though without reprimanding the child verbally. This face scares the child away which he never came back till the visitors left.

In fig. 6, a sad look with a squeezed mouth shows an instruction to leave or to shut up. This expression is usually displayed with the face. This can also be displayed when a mother does not want her child to collect a gift from a visitor. It can also be used to reprimand a child who wants to ask a visitor for something. With the facial expression, one can easily notice that the woman is not happy, which the child can decode immediately and leave without being told.

In fig. 7, a focused face of the mother shows interest in what the child has to say. The respondent was listening to the child's speech in the presence of their visitors and this shows how interested she was, which gave the child more courage to speak. In this case, the eyes will be opened and concentrated on a particular place. The tongue may twist unconsciously. One who is focused may look upward and never blinks the eye.

In fig. 8, the expression indicating 'to stop' is usually displayed with the raising of all fingers. Once this expression is done, the children will realise what their parent requires of them, and in a coded way, they will keep quiet and stop whatever they are saying or doing.

In fig. 9, the expression indicates 'to get inside the house'. It is a sign that suggests to the children that they should excuse the visitor(s) and the parents. However, they are not expected to leave the house rather to go inside the house and wait. This sign is always used when the parents and the visitors are having their discussion outside. Receiving visitors under a shade is common in the culture of the study area especially when the weather is hot.

Fig. 10 indicates shyness. The respondent was unexpectedly complemented by the child in visitor's presence. When the picture was taken the child was complementing him on how handsome and good looking he was despite his age. This is mostly used to indicate that one is shy. It involved the lowering of the head and eyes, spread lips and nose with a puffed cheek. This sign can also be displayed when a child in the presence of a visitor asks their parent whether to collect something from the visitor. The situation at hand deprives the parent of the opportunity to decline even though the parent does not want the child to collect that.

IV. CONCLUSION

So many body expressions used by parents to their children in Ovoko speech community were identified in the course of the research, out of which ten were used for this study. It revealed that all expressions used by the population have a meaning attached to it. The study successfully conducted semiotics analysis on the signs embedded on the graphic images of parents as used in communicating to their children. Various levels of meanings have been identified and analysed. The study finds out that a sign can connote more than one idea; therefore, the interpretation of body expression depends on the user and the interpreter. From these results, it has been proven that non-verbal communication is culture based and some aspects of non-verbal expressions or communication are universal. It is very pertinent to note that every culture and social group has its own peculiar body language. This research discovers that there is a meaning attached to every expression and as a result, the population should be aware that these non-verbal expressions which are the meaning of communicating ideas, emotions and messages are either culture specific or universal. Non-verbal communication is extremely complex yet integral part of overall human communication skills.

The researchers therefore, recommend that a study of the children's interpretation and opinion of the parents' body expression is a worthwhile academic undertaking in order to ascertain if the right perlocutionary response to the sign is always achieved.

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The Challenges of Online English Language Teaching From EFL Instructors' Point of View in KKU, Tehama Campus During COVID 19 Period

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Abstract—Spreading of COVID 19 in the whole world affected all fields of life in general and education in specific; this study aims at finding out the challenges of online teaching from EFL instructors' point of view at KKU/ Tehama campus during the COVID 19 period in the field of 1- Quality of teaching, 2 Students' interaction. 3- Results of Authentic learning outcome. 4- Instructors' planning and correction load 5- Macro and Micro skills. A questionnaire is used to collect the data from instructors who work in Tehama. The researchers used the descriptive-analytical approach. Data were analyzed using SPSS. The finding of this study reflected many challenges of online teaching from Instructors perspectives, such as the difficulty of reflecting desired learning outcomes due to multiple attempts and students cheating, which results in high marks in grading, interaction problems between instructors and students, multi-tasks that are added to instructors burden beside many other challenges that affect EFL teaching.

Index Terms—challenges, online, EFL, COVID19

I. INTRODUCTION

Online teaching has been an ideal solution to the current situation due to COVID 19 spread worldwide in general and in Saudi Arabia in specific. King Khalid University started using the Blackboard software in 1912, using it as a supportive method to traditional teaching. Later, Blackboard is used to teach blended courses according to instructors and departments agreement and for fully online teaching for courses taught as a university requirement. In March 2020 with the spread of COVID 19, King Khalid University changed all courses from traditional classes and blended classes to fully online classes. It was a critical period for both instructors and students, who find themselves obliged to use the Blackboard for online teaching and learning.

In this study, the researchers will focus on teaching challenges from EFL instructors' point of view at KKU, Tehama Campus period. Teaching is an art that each instructor has his/ her preference of using a specific approach that suits his class feature and his / her philosophy; however, using online teaching forced instructors to use certain teaching methods and approaches, as they cannot apply what they are used to in their traditional class.

Instructors of EFL preserved no efforts to help their students overcome all obstacles they may face during online learning. They used other Apps to support communication with their students, such as Emails and WhatsApp, which made instructors, like doctors in emergency units on call all the time, have to respond on the spot to students' inquiries and questions. This is besides the time they spend sitting in front of their computers planning a module to help students understand a course chapter's content. This burden most of the time deprives instructors of some of their private time. Butcher and Hoosen (2012) state, "*People use the term online learning in many different ways. Most broadly, it refers to a method of delivering educational information using the internet. This may range from downloadable content (such as iTunes university content, digital textbooks, and video or audio materials)*"

They pointed that open learning helps students to overcome barriers to learning with a reasonable chance of success by having open sources, open access, open educational sources, and Massive open online courses (MOOCs)

II. AIM OF THE STUDY

The study aims at exploring the challenges of online teaching from EFL instructors' point of view at KKU/ Tehama campus during the COVID 19 period in terms of:

1. Quality of teaching.
2. Students' interaction.

3. Authentic results of learning outcomes.
4. Instructors' planning and correction load.
5. Macro and Micro skills.

III. QUESTION OF THE STUDY

The study attempts to answer the following question:

What are the challenges of online teaching from EFL instructors' point of view at KKU/ Tehama campus during the COVID 19 period in terms of:

1. Quality of teaching.
2. Students' interaction.
3. Authentic results of learning outcomes.
4. Instructors' planning and correction load.
5. Macro and Micro skills.

IV. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In this study, exploring the challenges of online teaching from EFL instructors' points of view will help find solutions that may help overcome these challenges in both KKU community in specific and Saudi Arabian higher education in general. Results will help EFL instructors in Higher Education preserve the best learning outcomes desired for different EFL courses, whether for micro or macro skill, to maintain the best educational results.

V. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, the researchers displayed previous studies according to the questionnaire domains to review related studies.

Studies related to the quality of teaching

An emerging number of individual researchers and research centers contributed to the literature related to the pandemic's challenges on the education world, which inevitably affect the standards of the students. Khang D. Nguyen, Md. et al., (2013) expressed their fears on the extent to which the current pandemic challenges the next generations' education. On their paper, they stated that some people may ask, "why bother with education" (p. 21), and hence, it seems the novel ways of education have transformed the instructors into new learners. Their stand is supported by Adegboye O. and Quadri A. (2020), Adedoyin B. and Soykan E. (2020), and Abuhammad S. (2020) that personal, social, technical and finical barriers are outstanding factors affecting online learning. Bennett et al., 2008, cited in Adedoyin O. and Soykan E. (2020), points out that "students and instructors with low digital competence are liable to lack behind in online learning." (p.5). Abuhammad S. (2020), reports that some parents are dissatisfied as online learning does not meet the needs of the students. Rebeiro 2020, cited in Adedoyin O. and Soykan E. (2020), adds logistical and attitudinal modifications as challenges facing online learning.

Raines et al. (2011) pointed out that students' cheating and quality of learning are the barriers of online teaching; he showed how students identified breaking the rules, dishonesty, and not doing the work as behaviors emblematic of cheating lead to better grades and success. Also, Dendir. S and R. Stockton Maxwell (2020) showed that cheating in online courses is clear but using proctoring was an effective tool to lessen academic dishonesty in online courses. Ross, J. (2020) discussed different points of view about students cheating and exam invigilation, comparing online exams and class exams, showing no big difference. Golden and Kohlbeck, M. (2020) revealed that using test bank question help to decrease cheating as students find difficult to find answers on the internet, and they pointed the importance of revising old bank questions by making new questions or by paraphrasing questions to reduce the benefits from enormous cheating opportunities.

Butcher and Hoosen (2014) stated, "*fundamental judgments about quality should not depend on whether education is provided in a traditional or post-traditional manner*" He pointed that quality assurance of distance education should be similar to general education assurance in higher education.

Bunmi S. et al. (2014) indicated in their study entitled, Using Computer-based technology to improve feedback to staff and students on MCQ that students' responses, showed satisfaction of MCQ in terms of time comprehension revision, while teaching staff is satisfied with the efficient provision of automatic feedback about students' learning progress, which leads to quality assurance and support students learning.

@ONE ONLINE NETWORK OF EDUCATORS pointed that there are five principles for effective online teaching:

1. Teachers should be present within their course to be effective.
2. Teachers should be effective by applying reasonable methods for encouraging students' access and success while recognizing institutional problems.
3. Teachers should respond to students' needs and use data for continuous course development.
4. Teachers should model moral online interaction while helping students with digital literacy, leading them to succeed.
5. Teachers should realize ongoing professional development is the central factor of their success.

Christine F. et al. (2019) explained that quality indicators depend on teaching effectiveness. Effective online teachers are facilitators, connectors who lead and work with students to gain success indicators such as: success, students' development over time, and students' application of what they have learned in their work. Nauman A. and Munawar M. (2020) Stated that there is a shortcoming in the course's modules, procedures and control and observe irregular attendance and punctuality of the students.

Studies related to students' interaction

Fageeh and Mekheimer (2013) pointed out that students' attitude towards face-to-face learning is more positive than online interaction and discussions; however, many students found that BB is helpful and motivating to develop their writing skills. Al-Nofaie, H. (2020) revealed that students who learn by online learning lack physical interaction and have many technical problems such as internet speed and lack of headphones and home distractions, making it difficult to replace traditional in-class teaching with fully online teaching. Reese, S. A. (2014) stated that online learning environments in higher education must be a mixture of synchronous and asynchronous learning opportunities. This mixture should facilitate communication and collaboration between classmates and instructors, hence giving them a chance to explore, research, and create. Leontyeva A. Irina (2018) revealed that students like online learning but complain about teachers' quality of interaction during technical problems. This is beside the internal and external factors that hinder online implementation, such as resource control, inappropriate administrative structure, etc. The online learning environment is also one of the critical challenges that affect learning outcomes. Hee K. et al. (2013) investigated the learner-instructor interaction factors that can predict the learner's outcomes in the online learning environment. The study found out that instructional interaction factors have predictive power on learners' perceived learning achievement than social factors. The study also maintains that private learner-instructor communication cannot guarantee learners' facilitated achievement.

Studies related to authentic results of learning comes:

Authentic learning outcomes can be achieved by student management and engagement, affecting online learning platforms' challenges. According to Everett D. et al. (2015), in the online environment, it is a challenge to engage students with the content, with each other, and with the instructor" (p. 69). Lathifah Z. et al. (2020) investigated the challenges of student management at the time of the pandemic in Indonesia, they found out that many students got stressed when they are given a lot of tasks. Finn and Zimmer (2013), cited in Everett D. (2015), proffers four factors necessary for student engagement: the understanding of engagement behavior, connecting the engagement many to the appropriate students' workplace, improving the academic environment, and remaining engaged as an outcome of being in school.

Arnold S. (2012) noted that "Oftentimes students indicate dissatisfaction when instructors of online courses offer them synchronously at scheduled times due to their time/place-bound circumstances" Also online assessment is the lack of test reliability of a non-proctored online exam is its equivalence to a take-home or open-book test (p. 190)".

Pedersen C., White R. and Smith D. (2012) "Cheating and plagiarism are two frequent and controversial issues that arise in online assessments." (p. 35), and they recommended the adoption of the authentic assessment approach for minimizing academic dishonesty among students.

Studies related to instructors' planning and correction load:

Adedoyin O. and Soykan E. (2020) utterly proclaim the urgent need during the digital transformation for unbiased and evenhanded grading policies to overcome the pandemic-related anxiety that negatively affects students' academic performance, as well as racial, and economic resource differences. He also mentioned the lack of effective training among the larger parts of instructors and their ability to deliver high-quality instruction remotely. He stated that "students with outdated technological devices might find it hard to meet up with some technical requirements of online learning." (p. 4). Xhaferi, B., and Xhaferi, G. (2020) stated that online teaching and learning is a good solution for the COVID19 pandemic, but the traditional classroom elements are lost in using online teaching, and the teachers should consider reducing homework amount that given to the students as they think it was too much. Vadivel, B., Mathuranjali, M., and Khalil, N. R. (2021) pointed that teaching language online in the year 2020 has proved to be a challenging task without the live teacher presence, in spite of using technology, which was a solution for people across the world by using different applications. Devenyi, G. A., et, al (2018) provide ten rules to help teachers who spend countless hours work on planning their lessons; these ten rules work as an alternative. These 10 rules provide an alternative1. Clarify your audience 2. learner profile 3. Teach best practices for lesson development 4. Encourage and empower control; these5. Build a community around lessons 6. Publish periodically and recognize contributions 7. Evaluate lessons at several scales. 8. Reduce, reuse, recycle 9. Link lessons to other resources 10. You can't please everyone. Tomei, L. A. (2006). found that online teaching demanded a minimum of 14% more time than traditional instruction spent in preparing instructional content, which raises instructors cannot and traditional teaching was more stable than online teaching, Tomei also pointed three teaching components: instructional content, counsel and advisement, and student assessment that are affected by online teaching, they also pointed that the ideal number for s; in Tomei online class are 12 students. Armăsar, I. P. (2020) pointed that besides the advantages that are gained from online language teaching, there are many disadvantages such as: instable internet connection, devices' the crash or platform drawback, potentially disturbing factors, the passivity of the students, the lack of motivation, and real connection between students and teacher, lacking of a sense of belonging to a group or an institution, etc.

Studies related to Macro and Micro skills:

The four main language skills or the macro skills, whether if they receptive skills (i.e., listening, speaking) or productive skills (i.e., reading, writing), are regarded as the basis of most English language teaching (ELT) practices around the world. The sub-skills or micro-skills such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation are also emphasized in teaching English to integrate the main four skills.

Narayanan, R., and Mathew, P. (2020) indicated that students were not motivated performed poorly. In contrast, the high achievers were engaged in self-study and were, to some extent, independent learners. Srivastava, R. (2020) stated that virtual education's success depends upon the effective content generation, delivery of its design and planning, use of effective teaching/learning tools that can work as a supplement to the teachers' efforts. Colleges, learners, and educational institutions need to be well-equipped to adapt to online teaching and learning. Martínez, R., and Ruiz-Jiménez, M. (2020) show that students are satisfied with the experience of a flipped classroom and with their summative, formative assessment. Students also consider their learning process better with this has been better-flipped classroom. Add to that flipping courses helped to improve students' academic results, compared with traditional lectures. Haidari, M. et, al. (2020) The results of all 17 articles show that using social media and Wikis platforms helped improve learners' writing skills. And recommended utilize them by both teachers and learners teaching and learning. Sherine, A. et, al. (2020) stated that using smartphones resulted in improved language learning engagement. And has a positive effect on the participants' speaking skills fluency. Kiili, C., and Leu, D. J. (2019) pointed three results for their study: 1) a methodology and a taxonomic system were developed for the study of information sources involved in collaborative synthesis; 2) the integration of ideas from multi-participants texts was difficult for adolescent students; 3) students with better essays used more online information whereas students with less remarkable essays relied more on prior knowledge that was activated during online reading. While Syahrin, S., and Salih, A. A. (2020) revealed that students prefer online classrooms reflected by technology and students' preferred learning style. However, results showed that receptive skills (listening and reading) are more focused than productive skills (speaking and writing), requiring more focus by instructors and educationist. Also, Newman, B. (2020) highlighted the drawback of online teaching, including the loss of language inhibitions in students with ESL, the missing body language reflecting students' understanding or disagreement, and the loss of responsive interaction with learners.

VI. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Data Collection

This study has been carried out at King Khalid University in Tehama campus colleges in the academic year 2020-2021 using the descriptive-analytical approach.

Population of the Study

62 EFL instructors teaching at King Khalid University, Tehama Campus, constitute this study's population. 43 instructors out of 62 instructors responded to the questionnaire. When this study was carried, the total number of instructors is 82 instructors in all Tehama. 20 of them were outside KSA for post-graduate studies.

Study Instrument

An electronic questionnaire is used as an instrument for collecting the data of this study; the questionnaire consists of 38 questions divided into 5 domains: A. Quality of teaching, B. Students' interaction, C. Authentic results of learning comes, D. Instructors' planning and correction load, E. Macro and Micro skills. Responding to each domain's questions may reflect the challenges of online English language teaching from EFL instructors' point of view in KKU, Tehama Campus during the COVID 19 period.

Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire

Table .1, which reflects the use of a: Cronbach's Alpha. b: Spearman and Brown. c: One-Sample Tests, it is obvious that (0.908) and (0.931) reflect high validity and reliability of the questionnaire proving its suitability for this study.

TABLE 1.
VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

	Cronbach's Alpha	Spearman and Brown
Reliable	0.824	0.867
Validity= $\sqrt{\text{Reliable}}$	0.908	0.931

Data Analysis

The participants' responses were received through google forms and the results were coded and analyzed using SPSS. The researchers used t-test through t-distribution table to find if the results are significant or not. It is expected that the results reflect the challenges of online English language teaching from EFL instructors' point of view in KKU, Tehama Campus during the COVID 19 period.

The first part of the questionnaire addresses the research and its importance. The second part of the questionnaire is about the instructors' basic information. Tables 2, 3, 4, 5 below reflect information about instructors' age, gender, the period they are teaching in KKU, and their EL -teaching experience before Covid19.

TABLE 2
AGE

Age	Frequency	Percent
25 and less than 35	13	30.23
35 and less than 45	16	37.21
45 and less than 55	10	23.26
55 and less than 65	4	9.30
Total	43	100%

From the above table, it is obvious that the age of the majority of the participants is between 35 and less than 45 with 37.21 %, and the age of the second group of the participants is between 25 and less than 35 with 30.23 %, and the 3rd group of participants' ages is between 45 and less than 55 with 23.26 %, and the minority of the participants' age is between 55 and less than 65 with 9.30 %. These results show that 90.70% of the respondents can rely on technology. 90.70% not in the table.

TABLE 3
GENDER

Gender	Frequency	Percent
male	16	37.21
Female	27	62.79
total	43	100%

From the table above, we can see that most of the participants are females, and the minority are males as most of the female instructors are out of KSA for postgraduate studies.

TABLE 4
THE PERIOD OF TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN KKU

Time been teaching in KKU	Frequency	Percent
1-5 years	16	37.21
6-10 years	21	48.84
11-15 years	6	13.95
Total	43	100%

Table 4 shows that the majority of the instructors have been teaching in KKU for more than 6 years, so they are trained enough by KKU e-learning deanship on using the Blackboard (BB) platform, as the deanship of E- Learning offers many training courses every year to KKU instructors to be updated in working with the Blackboard). This is beside Tamkin channel, which uses YouTube to post different skills to improve teachers' technical abilities in using the BB. The table shows that only 37.21 % of the instructors have between 1-5 experience working in KKU.

TABLE 5
EXPERIENCE OF E- TEACHING BEFORE COVID19

I have experienced E- teaching before Covid19	Frequency	Percent
Yes	26	60.47
No	17	39.53
Total	43	100%

Table 5 reflects that most of the instructors experienced E-Teaching before Covid19 with 60.47 %, reflecting instructors' experience even before the emergence of Covid19.

An Independent sample of t-test was applied to identify the instructors' responses in a significant difference using statistical equations: a- Cronbach's Alpha b- Spearman and Brown c- One-Sample Test.

Below are the t-distribution tables for the fifth domain items that are tackled in the questionnaire; each domain item was discussed below the tables.

TABLE 6
QUALITY OF TEACHING

Test Value = 1.5							
Statement	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig	reality of 0.05	Value
1-Online teaching does not achieve the prescribed learning outcomes.	1.8837	.98099	2.565	42	.014	significant	No idea
2-Cheating on online examination is inevitable.	2.4884	.85557	7.575	42	.000	significant	agree
3-Having more than one attempt for the exam increases the students' chance of cheating.	2.7907	.59993	14.108	42	.000	significant	agree
4- Students' repeated excuses and chances may reflect unreliable grades and results.	2.8837	.39093	23.211	42	.000	significant	agree
5-Most of the blackboard questions are objective.	2.6977	.70828	11.088	42	.000	significant	agree
6-Objective types of questions do not assess all learning outcomes.	2.3023	.93948	5.600	42	.000	significant	agree

The results of phrase No. 1 in Table 6 reveal that this phrase is significant as the (t) value is (2.565) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.014) disagreement. This means that online teaching achieved the prescribed learning outcomes according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

The results of phrase No. 2 in Table 6 reveal that this phrase is significant as the (t) value is (7.575) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement. This means that cheating on an online examination is inevitable according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

The results of phrase No. 3 in Table 6 reveal that this phrase is significant as the (t) value is (14.108) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement. It means allowing more than one attempt for the exam increases the students' chance of cheating. According to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

The results of phrase No. 4 in Table 6 reveal that this phrase is significant as the (t) value is (23.211) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement. It means that the Students' repeated excuses and chances may reflect unreliable grades and results according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

The results of phrase No. 5 in Table 6 reveal that this phrase is significant as the (t) value (11.088) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement. It means that most of the blackboard questions are objective according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

The results of phrase No. 6 in Table 6 reveal that this phrase is significant as the (t) value is (5.600) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement which means that objective types of questions do not assess all learning outcomes according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

TABLE 7.
STUDENTS' INTERACTION

Test Value = 1.5							
statement	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig	reality of 0.05	Value
7-Online teaching lacks class interactivity.	2.3023	.96449	5.455	42	.000	significant	Agree
8-Networks problems hinder online teaching.	2.9070	.36606	25.204	42	.000	significant	Agree
The 9-Uncomfortable environment at home can distract both instructors and students.	2.3023	.88734	5.929	42	.000	significant	Agree
10-Online teaching isolated instructors and students from their colleagues.	2.7209	.66639	12.014	42	.000	significant	Agree
11-Instructor cannot use body language in online teaching.	2.6977	.70828	11.088	42	.000	significant	Agree
12-Classroom control and instructor movement and gestures language are not available in online teaching.	2.5814	.79380	8.933	42	.000	significant	Agree
13-Long -opened quizzes and assignments make students passive and indifferent.	2.7674	.57060	14.566	42	.000	significant	agree
14-Recorded materials make the students passive participants.	2.6744	.71451	10.778	42	.000	significant	agree

Seeing the of phrase No.7 in Table 7, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (5.455) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means online teaching lacks class interactivity according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the of phrase No. 8 in Table 7, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (25.204) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means networks problems hinders online teaching according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the of phrase No.9 in Table 7, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (5.929) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means uncomfortable environment at home can distract both instructors and students according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the of phrase No.10 in Table 7, results according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity, reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (12.014) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means online teaching isolated instructors and students from their colleagues.

Seeing the of phrase No. 11 in Table 7, results according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (11.088) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means instructor cannot use body language in online teaching.

Seeing the of phrase No. 12 in Table 7, results according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (8.933) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means classroom control and instructor movement and gestures language are not available in online teaching.

Seeing the of phrase No. 13 in Table 7, results according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (14.566) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means long -opened quizzes and assignments make students passive and indifferent.

Seeing the of phrase No. 14 in Table 7, results according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (10.778) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means recorded materials make the students passive participants.

TABLE 8
AUTHENTIC RESULTS OF LEARNING OUTCOMES

Test Value = 1.5							
statement	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig	reality of 0.05	Value
15.Grades and online teaching results do not accurately reflect students' standards.	2.5116	.82728	8.019	42	.000	significant	Agree
16.Google is the only source for the students in online learning. (copy / paste)	1.6977	.91378	1.419	42	.163	insignificant	No idea
17.In online teaching, assessment is not reliable due to many factors.	2.4419	.82527	7.484	42	.000	significant	Agree
18.Online teaching resulted in students' rudeness due to anxiety and other reasons.	2.0930	.89480	4.346	42	.000	significant	No idea
19.Most students do not benefit from the feedback of their instructors.	2.0465	.97476	3.676	42	.001	significant	No idea
20.Students' behavior, contribution, and progress are difficult to monitor in online teaching.	2.5581	.82527	8.408	42	.000	significant	Agree
21.When using online teaching, you cannot keep students engaged in learning.	2.0465	.97476	3.676	42	.001	significant	No idea
22.A large number of students in online teaching negatively affects the learning outcomes.	2.3488	.86969	6.400	42	.000	significant	Agree
23.Online teaching resulted in a discrepancy between the students' repeated absence and their grades.	2.6279	.69087	10.706	42	.000	significant	Agree
24.Online teaching makes students always demand giving high marks.	2.6279	.75666	9.775	42	.000	significant	agree

Seeing the of phrase No. 15 in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (8.019) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means "grades and results of online teaching do not accurately reflect students' standard according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the of phrase No. 16 in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is insignificant as (t) value (1.419) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.163) no idea, which means "Instructors did not agree and are not sure if Google is the only source for the students in online learning. (copy/paste)", with (0.05) of validity."

Seeing the phrase No. 17 in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (7.484) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which according to instructors' responses, means "In online teaching, assessment is not reliable due to many factors." with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the phrase No. 18 in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (4.346) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) no idea, which means: "instructors are not sure if online teaching resulted in students' rudeness due to anxiety and other reasons or not." with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the phrase No. 19 in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (3.676) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.001) no idea, which means:" instructors are not sure if most students benefit from the feedback of their instructors or not" (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the phrase No. 20 in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (8.408) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses "students' behavior, contribution and progress are difficult to monitor in online teaching" with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the phrase No. (21) in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (3.676) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.001) no idea, which according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity means "instructors are not sure about keeping students engaged in learning when using online teaching."

Seeing the of phrase No. (22) in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (6.400) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which according to instructors' responses means: "a large number of students in online teaching negatively affects the learning outcomes" with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the of phrase No. (23) in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (10.706) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which according to instructors' responses means: "Online teaching resulted in a discrepancy between the students' repeated absence and their grades." with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the of phrase No. (24) in Table 8, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (9.775) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which according to instructors' responses means: "online teaching makes students always demand giving high marks" with (0.05) of validity.

TABLE 9
INSTRUCTORS' PLANNING AND CORRECTION LOAD
Test Value = 1.5

statement	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig	reality of 0.05	Value
25. Online teaching demands multi-tasking works for planning lessons which is exhausting.	2.4651	.82661	7.656	42	.000	significant	Agree
26. Online teaching is distressing to normal life due to the numberless working hours.	2.4651	.82661	7.656	42	.000	significant	Agree
27. Students' excuses for missing assignments and quizzes makes more work for the instructors.	2.8605	.51554	17.305	42	.000	significant	Agree
28. Online teaching is time-consuming.	2.3953	.90342	6.499	42	.000	significant	Agree
29. Access to online materials is not always possible.	2.1163	.98099	4.120	42	.000	significant	No idea
30. Response to the repeated and different students' contact adds another burden to instructors.	2.5116	.76756	8.643	42	.000	significant	Agree
31. Students do not commit to the deadline of assignment questions.	2.4884	.85557	7.575	42	.000	significant	agree

Seeing the of phrase No. 25 in Table 9, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (7.656) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Online teaching demands multi-tasking works for planning lessons which is exhausting."

Seeing the of phrase No. 26 in Table 9, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (7.656) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Online teaching is distressing to normal life due to the numberless of working hours."

Seeing the of phrase No. 27 in Table 9, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (17.305) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Students' excuses for missing assignments and quizzes does more work for the instructors."

Seeing the of phrase No. 28 in Table 9, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (6.499) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Online teaching is time consuming."

Seeing the phrase No. 29 in Table 9, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (4.120) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) with (0.05) of validity, no idea, which means: "Instructors are not sure about the possibility of access to online materials."

Seeing the of phrase No. 30 in Table 9, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (8.643) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Response to the repeated and different contact from students add another burden to instructors."

Seeing the of phrase No. 31 in Table 9, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (7.575) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Students do not commit to the deadline of assignment questions."

TABLE 10
MACRO AND MICRO SKILLS

statement	Mean	Std. Deviation	Test Value = 1.5				
			T	df	Sig	reality of 0.05	Value
32.Due to students' invisibility, instructors cannot accurately assess micro-speaking skills.	2.5349	.82661	8.210	42	.000	significant	Agree
33. Students' motivation is difficult to evaluate in online teaching.	2.5581	.79589	8.718	42	.000	significant	Agree
34.Listening skill is difficult to evaluate in online teaching.	2.0465	.95002	3.772	42	.001	significant	No idea
35.Writing skill is difficult to teach in online teaching.	2.4186	.87919	6.851	42	.000	significant	Agree
36.Micro skills are better to be taught in a traditional classroom. (face to face).	2.6279	.72451	10.209	42	.000	significant	Agree
37.Online teaching automatically makes you less visible, which impacts your authority.	2.4651	.85493	7.403	42	.000	significant	Agree

Seeing the of phrase No. 32 in Table 10, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (8.210) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means: "Due to students' invisibility instructor cannot accurately assess micro speaking skill." according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity.

Seeing the of phrase No. 33 in Table 10, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (8.718) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Students motivation is difficult to evaluate in online teaching."

Seeing the phrase No. 34 in Table 10, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (3.772) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) with (0.05) of validity, no idea, which means: "Instructors are not sure about the difficulties of evaluating listening skill in online teaching."

Seeing the of phrase No. 35 in Table 10, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (6.851) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Writing skill is difficult to teach in online teaching."

Seeing the of phrase No. 36 in Table 10, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (10.209) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Micro skills are better to be taught in a traditional classroom. (face to face)."

Seeing the of phrase No. 37 in Table 10, results reveal that this phrase is significant as (t) value (7.403) with a degree of freedom (42) and a probability value (.000) agreement, which means according to instructors' responses with (0.05) of validity: "Students do not commit to the deadline of assignment questions."

Most of the instructors 'answers of question No. 38 suggested blended learning, and asked for activating only one attempt in exams and quizzes to decrease cheating chance between students, and to reflect desired learning outcomes.

VII. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Quality of teaching, results' discussion:

Findings showed that Online teaching does not achieve the prescribed learning outcomes as the students are passive in attending the lectures and only watch the recorded lectures and that agreed with Butcher and Hoosen (2014) study finding also showed that cheating on an online examination is inevitable and giving the students more than one attempt for the exam increases their chance of cheating, this agrees with Raines, et al. (2011) and Seife Dendirand, R. Stockton Maxwell (2020) and Ross, J. (2020) results, cheating can be solved if instructors consider Golden, J. and Kohlbeck, M. (2020) results, this beside students' repeated excuses and chances may reflect unreliable grades and results. These results are supported by Nauman A. and Munawar M. (2020). Also, results showed that most of the blackboard questions are objective, which does not assess all learning outcomes. These results limit the effectiveness of applying some of the online teaching principles that @ONE ONLINE NETWORK OF EDUCATORS mentions.

Students' interaction, results' discussion:

Finding of this domain showed that online teaching lacks class interactivity, as students do not normally use the microphone and depend on writing on the chatbox, also result showed how an Uncomfortable environment at home could distract both instructors and students not like being in a lecture room that is extremely prepared for learning purpose. Considering students and instructors meeting online participate in their isolation, losing contact by body language as students are reluctant to open the cameras, these finding are supported by Fageeh and Mekheimer (2013). Add to that online learning deprived instructors of using movement and gesture for illustration and depend only on intonation. This agrees with Al-Nofaie, H. (2020) and Leontyeva A. Irina (2018). Recorded materials, long-opened quizzes, and assignments make students passive participants and indifferent.

Authentic results of learning outcomes, results' discussion:

This domain's finding showed that grades and results of online teaching do not accurately reflect students' standard and learning outcomes as mainly students tend to (copy/paste) from the internet websites, making assessment unreliable due to many factors. This agreed with Everett D. et al. (2015) and Pedersen C., White R. and Smith D. (2012) studies, add to that students' rudeness due to anxiety as Arnold S. (2012) mentioned. Results also showed that students don't benefit from their instructors' feedback. Results also showed students' behavior, contribution, and progress are difficult to monitor in online teaching because of students' large numbers, affecting their engagement. Result also revealed the discrepancy between the students' repeated absence and their grades and their demands for higher marks.

Instructors' planning and correction load results' discussion:

Finding of this domain showed that online teaching demands multi-tasking works for planning lessons which are exhausting and distressing to normal life due to the resultset of working hours and time-consuming these results are supported by Vadivel, B., Mathuranjali, M., and Khalil, N. R. (2021) Xhaferi, B., Tomei, L. A. (2006), and Xhaferi, G. (2020), and it is difficult for them to apply the 10 rules provided by Devenyi, G. A., et al. (2018).

Macro and Micro skills results' discussion:

This domain's finding showed that students' motivation is difficult on online teaching, and students do not always commit to the deadline of assignment questions, which is another burden to instructors for making makeup tests. This agrees with Narayanan, R., and Mathew, P. (2020) and Newman, B. (2020).

Due to students' invisibility, the instructor cannot accurately assess micro speaking and listening skills in online teaching; this agreed with Syahrin, S., and Salih, A. A. (2020) about productive skills speaking and writing, add to that the difficulties associated with teaching and evaluating writing and reading skills although these results agree with Newman, B. (2020). However, disagree with Haidari, M. et, al. (2020), Sherine, A. et, al. (2020) and Martínez, R., and Ruiz-Jiménez, M. (2020).

VIII. CONCLUSION

As a conclusion of this study, finding which are in divided into 5 domains, revealed the following:

A. Quality of teaching:

Online teaching does not achieve the prescribed learning outcomes because of students' cheating on online examinations, having more than one attempt and type of questions mostly objective questions.

B. Students' interaction

Online teaching lacks class interactivity due to network problems, distraction at home, students and isolation, and lack of class control and body language.

C. Authentic results of learning outcomes

Grades and online teaching results do not accurately reflect students' standards due to many factors such as cheating, many students, difficulties of monitoring students, and students' absence.

D. Planning and correction load:

Online teaching demands instructors multi-tasking works for planning lessons that are exhausting, time-consuming, and distressing to normal life. Add to that the burden of responding to the repeated questions to different students individually besides the students' unresponsiveness to dead time of activities.

E. Macro and Micro skills:

In online teaching, students' invisibility instructors cannot accurately assess micro and macro skills, speaking and reading skills in specific. Students' motivation is difficult to evaluate, while online teaching affects instructors' authority compared to traditional classrooms.

APPENDIX. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

In the Name of Allah, the Merciful, the Compassionate

This questionnaire is designed to investigate the Challenges of Online English Teaching from EFL Instructors 'Point of View in KKU, Tehama Campus

Part One Preface

Dear instructors,

As a part of a research project on investigating "the Challenges of Online English Teaching", we would be grateful if you kindly, complete this questionnaire about the challenges you encounter when you practice teaching English online. The questionnaire describes different kinds of challenges suggested by scholars in this field. It is divided to 6 parts: basic information, quality of teaching, Students' interaction, Authentic results of learning comes, Instructors' planning and correction load and macro and micro skills.

Circle one of the options (Agree, Disagree, No idea). If you want to add anything else, please write it down on the lines provided.

Part Two: Basic information

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1- Age: 25 and less than 35 <input type="checkbox"/> | 35 and less than 45 <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 45 and less than 55 <input type="checkbox"/> | 55 and less than 65 <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2- Gender _____ | |

Male ☐ Female ☐

3- I have you been teaching in KKU for _____

1-5 years ☐ 6-10 years ☐11-15 years ☐ More than 15 years ☐

4- I experienced E- teaching before Covid19 .

Yes ☐ No ☐**Part three: Questions:****A. Quality of teaching:**

No.	Statement	Agree	Disagree	No idea
1	Online teaching does not achieve the prescribed learning outcomes.			
2	Cheating on online examination is inevitable.			
3	Having more than one attempt for the exam increases the students' chance of cheating.			
4	Students' repeated excuses and chances may reflect unreliable grades and results.			
5	Most of blackboard questions are objective.			
6	Objective types of questions do not assess all learning out comes.			

B. Students' interaction:

No.	Statement	Agree	Disagree	No idea
7	Online teaching lacks class interactivity.			
8	Networks problems hinders online teaching.			
9	Uncomfortable environment at home can distract both instructors and students.			
10	Online teaching isolated instructors and students from their colleagues.			
11	Instructor cannot use body language in online teaching.			
12	Classroom control and instructor movement and gestures language are not available in online teaching.			
13	Long -opened quizzes and assignments make students passive and indifferent.			
14	Recorded materials make the students passive participants.			

C. Authentic results of learning outcomes:

No.	Statement	Agree	Disagree	No idea
15	Grades and results of online teaching do not accurately reflect students' standard.			
16	Google is the only source for the students in online learning. (copy / paste)			
17	In online teaching assessment is not reliable due to many factors.			
18	Online teaching resulted in students' rudeness due to anxiety and other reasons.			
19	Most students do not benefit from the feedback of their instructors.			
20	Students' behavior, contribution and progress are difficult to monitor in online teaching.			
21	When using online teaching you cannot keep students engaged in learning.			
22	A large number of students in online teaching negatively affects the learning outcomes.			
23	Online teaching resulted in a discrepancy between the students' repeated absence and their grades.			
24	Online teaching makes students always demand giving high marks.			

D. Instructors' planning and correction load:

No.	Statement	Agree	Disagree	No idea
25	Online teaching demands multi-tasking works for planning lessons which is exhausting.			
26	Online teaching is distressing to normal life due to the numberless of working hours.			
27	Students' excuses for missing assignments and quizzes makes more work for the instructors.			
28	Online teaching is time consuming.			
29	Access to online materials is not always possible.			
30	Response to the repeated and different contact from students adds another burden to instructors.			
31	Students do not commit to the deadline of assignment questions.			

E. Macro and Micro skills:

No.	Statement	Agree	Disagree	No idea
32	Due to students' invisibility instructor cannot accurately assess micro speaking skills.			
33	Students motivation is difficult to evaluate in online teaching.			
34	Listening skill is difficult to evaluate in online teaching.			
35	Writing skill is difficult to teach in online teaching.			
36	Micro skills are better to be taught in a traditional classroom. (face to face).			
37	Online teaching automatically makes you less visible, which impacts your authority.			

S38. Anything to add.

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The Investigation of the Listening Strategies Teachers Instruct and the Listening Strategies Students Use

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Abstract—When people learn a new kind of language, the listening ability is the first ability people will encounter. Listening ability will also influence people to speak a new type of language fluently and correctly. This research aimed to determine the relationship between teachers' listening strategies and the listening strategies students use. Moreover, this research also intended to investigate what kind of listening strategies students usually use when practicing English listening. In this study, the researcher again examined the listening strategies teachers usually instruct during the class. The participants of the study were all freshmen of the Department of Applied Foreign Languages, University of central Taiwan with a certain level of English listening ability. The participants were going to fill out a questionnaire about their English listening habits. After analyzing the data, the researcher revealed final findings that indicated differences between teachers' listening strategies and the listening strategies students use. Teachers preferred to combine different materials and knowledge when they were in the listening class. Moreover, students tended to choose the materials that they are interested to improve their English listening after the course. Moreover, teachers also facilitate students with methods to enhance their English listening skills after class.

Index Terms—listening strategies, teachers' instruction, English learning

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Listening plays a huge part in the process of people learning languages. Children make specific attempts to imitate words and speech sounds they hear around them (Brown, 2014). When it comes to learning a second language, listening ability seems to become much more critical. Listening skill is the main impetus to start in our first, second and foreign language learning process. Moreover, it is also a medium for communication to maintain the long and tedious learning process. (Bozorgian, 2012). Through listening to native speakers, learners improve their pronunciation of the target language. However, it seems to become a weakness of Asian students because they focus on improving their writing and reading abilities. Yet, teachers at school have been more concerned about how to improve the listening ability recently. Even though many language courses teach listening, experts still believe that teachers are encouraged to conduct much more research to make the teaching skills more effective (Selamat and Sidhu, 2011).

In general, listening strategies teachers instruct, such as listen to the keywords, the ability of prediction... etc., and listening strategies that students use are positively correlated (Bao, 2017). Besides, students could benefit from listening plans as these listening strategies assisted them in their academic success (Selamat and Sidhu, 2012). Listening strategies are the strategies that are used by non-native speakers in the process when they encounter the listening. Moreover, learners used the listening strategies when they learner the language that they are not familiar with. Overall, here are some common listening strategies that teachers teach: predict the content, listening for the gist, detecting the signposts, listening for details, and inferring the meanings.

Indeed, practical listening comprehension skills are essential for students' academic success (Selamat and Sidhu, 2012). However, it seems that it doesn't have many related articles which investigate English listening strategies between teachers' instruction and students' use. In Taiwan, there are still many students who struggle with English listening. Since teachers don't spend much time improving learners' listening ability, teachers in Taiwan focus more on English reading and writing abilities. Fortunately, recently people have increased the focus on the importance of English listening ability, and some schools even set up a course to teach students how to improve their listening ability. However, the studies of distinction between learner's English listening strategies use and teachers' strategies teach still remain few.

B. Aims and the Purpose of the Study

The researcher will let students have a more comfortable and more effective learning process during their second

language acquisition period. The practical language learners apply the suitable strategies to achieve their learning target, however, ineffective language learners know a little in selecting and using strategies. (Chamot, Kupper and O' Malley, 1989).

During this study, the researcher focused on two points: 1.) the listening strategies teachers taught and the listening strategies that the students used. 2.) the using frequency of meta-cognitive Strategy, Cognitive Strategy, and Social/affective Strategy.

Through the questionnaire designed in this study, the researcher aimed to answer the following questions:

- 1.) Teachers instruct and students' most used and least used strategy of the meta-cognitive process.
- 2.) Teachers teach and students' most used and least used strategy of cognitive strategy.
- 3.) Teachers instruct and students' most used and least used strategy of the social/affective strategy.
- 4.) What is the relationship between the listening strategies teachers teach and the strategies that students use?

C. *Significance of This Study*

This study provides some data on students' listening strategies currently and discovers the effective listening strategy when people are learning a second language. Besides, the researcher will also find out some listening strategies that teachers taught during the class. By computing these data, the researcher can discover helpful listening strategies to improve learners' listening ability. Hopefully, during this study, research suggested some beneficial methods to enhance learners' listening ability when they are in the second language acquisition process.

II. LITERATURE REVIEWS

A. *Listening Comprehension*

Listening comprehension is just an input and passive activity which involves a complicated and active process. During this process, the listener must distinguish sounds, understand vocabularies and grammatical structures, solve stress and intonation, preserve all the things above. Besides, we must interpret it under the immediacy and the more significant social background utterance. (Vandergrift, 1999). In the second language theory, listening to the spoken language has been admitted as the combination of active and involved processes that decide the content and understanding level (Chamot, Kupper, and O' Malley, 1989). Under the presentation of comprehensive channels, the accomplishment in listening is measured by the proper response to the questions or tasks. Field (1998) claimed that teachers focus on the result of listening instead of listening to themselves. In this theory, listening comprehension is considered as a joyful process. People focus on selecting the aural input aspect, constructing meaning from a passage, and related things they heard to the current knowledge. (Chamot, Kupper, and O' Malley, 1989). According to River (1996), listening to a foreign language may be analyzed as involving two levels of activities. First is the recognition level, which involved identifying the structural inter-relationship between the words and phrases, time sequences, logical and modifying terms, and unnecessary interpolation phrases, increasing nothing to develop sentences. And second is the level of selection that listeners draw out from the communication. These components include the main point of the message. This process asks listeners to focus on specific sound grouping while other people are aurally perceived without being preserved. (River, 1996).

B. *Listening Strategies*

According to the western study of foreign language, listening comprehension strategies consider the learning strategies as their theoretical framework. As a result, many researchers seek listening comprehension strategies as learning strategies (Bao, 2017). Chatom (1987) points out that learning strategies are skills, approaches, or deliberate actions that students take to boost learning and recall linguistic and content information (Bao, 2017). Chamot and O'Malley (1990) have categorized the language learning cognitive activity range into two main styles: metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are the strategies that supervise, control or instruct the process of language learning. Metacognitive strategies are related to the learning process's thinking, which includes designing, monitoring, and assessing. But without deploying the proper cognitive strategies, the approach of metacognitive strategies will be eliminated. Cognitive strategies operate the learning material or utilize a particular skill in the learning mission. Besides, they have added the third category, socio-affective strategies, to talk about the collaboration between the language learner and classmates, asking the teacher's clarification, or using specific skills to make them less anxious. (Vandergrift, 1999). The cognitive strategies are different from other learning strategies. These are activities which learner apply to comprehend the language input and receive knowledge. (Boroujeni, Hesabi, and Serri, 2012).

C. *Related Studies*

According to the study that Bao (2017) conducted, the author designed a questionnaire for 174 non-English majors and 35 teachers from the College English Department in a University and collected 170 and 34 valuable questionnaires. And the conclusion that this study carried out the correlation between the strategies that teachers guide and the strategies that students use are correlated positively. However, the applying of the social/affective strategy has an interval. Teachers pay the same attention to both cognitive and social/affective strategies. In contrast, students do not use social/affective very often. The deploying of listening strategies and learning style can become a predictor of

listening ability because they have a statistically significant relationship (Liu, 2008). Also, through the research which Tuan (2012) conducted, the study shows that teaching students' speaking performance and measuring students' speaking performance should be a process rather than a product. The study contrasts the whole present preferable scoring way in teaching and evaluating learners speaking ability. The entire scoring way can benefit teachers in both education and assessing students' articulating display. The emphasis on listening comprehension and listening strategies can help students take advantage of the language input and attain massive success in language learning (Vandergrift, 1999).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The 44 freshmen of the Applied Foreign Language department of Chung Shan Medical University were invited to participate in this research as the experimental group. These 44 students are all with a certain level of English. And all of them are having over five years or more English learning experience.

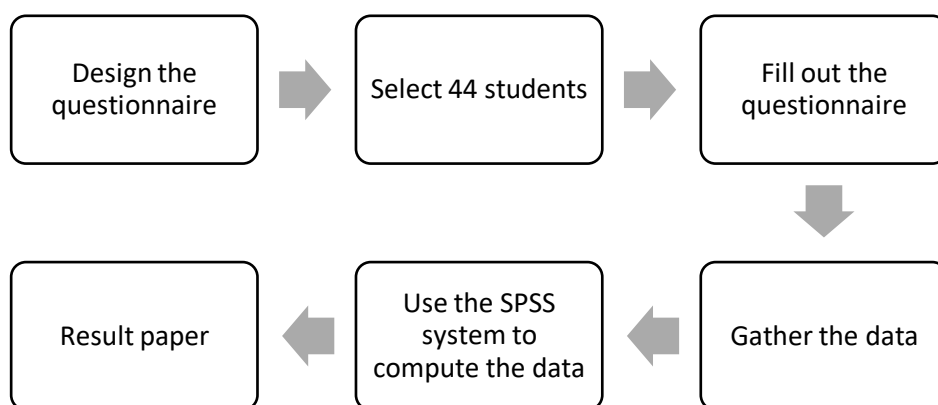
B. Instruments

The questionnaire attached at the end of this study (see Appendix) was based on Bao's questionnaire in 2017. The questionnaire is mainly divided into three parts. The first part is about the demographic of participants. The second part centers on listening strategies that students used, and the third part is the listening strategies teachers teach. The researcher also divided the first part, the listening strategies students used, into three sections. 1.) Meta-cognitive Strategy 2.) Cognitive Strategy 3.) Social/affective Strategy. And the researcher will give each section five questions. There are 15 questions for the first part in total. As the second part of the questionnaire, the researcher also categorized it into three parts. 1.) Meta-cognitive Strategy 2.) Cognitive Strategy 3.) Social/affective Strategy. Part 1 and 2 are five questions, respectively. However, the third part -- Social/affective Strategy only include one question. There are 11 questions for the second part in total. The researcher used the 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 – strongly disagree to 4 – strongly agree to measure participants' opinions. Two foreign language department professors had already filled out this questionnaire and modified the inappropriate item to consider its content validity.

C. Procedures

For the first step, we were going to select 44 first-year students to fill out the questionnaire. The researcher's standards to choose participants are 1.) students who have a similar level of English ability 2.) students who are having an equivalent length of time 3.) students who are learning English in a similar background. After collecting all 44 questionnaires, the researcher applied the online statistic software - the SPSS to compute the data and analyze the results.

D. Research Execute Flow Chart



E. Data Analysis

In this study, the researcher used the SPSS as the analysis tool. Also, the researcher printed the questionnaires and sent them to each participant. After the participants finished the questionnaire, the researcher collected the questionnaire. To reveal the valid and visible results, the researcher made a chart to analyze the data.

F. Expected Result

This study's expected result is that the students can realize helpful listening strategies after answering the questionnaire. Besides, after collecting and computing the data, the researcher can determine the listening strategies students and teachers frequently use and find out the most useful listening strategies. The result of this can also resolve the solution to improve the weakness of students' listening ability and also increase their desire to learn English.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *The Descriptive Demographic Statistic*

The questionnaire had been filled by 44 freshmen of the department of Applied Foreign Languages. There are 9 male students and 35 female students in total who had done this questionnaire. And with the 63.4% of students spend over 5 hours on studying English per week. However, only 36.6% of students spend over 10 hours learning English per week.

B. *The Descriptive Statistics of the Students' Listening Strategies*

TABLE 1.
THE OVERALL SITUATION OF STUDENTS' LISTENING STRATEGIES

Name of the strategy	Mean	Standard Deviation
Meta- cognitive strategies	3.5091	.4926
Cognitive strategies	3.9227	.5822
Social/ affective strategies	3.6181	.6885
Overall strategies	3.6833	.5878

Table 1 indicated that the most listening strategy students used are the cognitive strategies (mean 3.92). But in fact, the students' frequency to use these three strategies didn't show a huge difference. The least used strategy by students is the meta-cognitive strategy (mean 3.50). Overall, the mean value of strategies is 3.68, which stays high but higher than the average mean. Compared with the previous studies made by Bao (2017), the overall strategies' mean value of this study (mean 3.68) is higher than the 2.9449 mean value that Bao's research.

1. Students' most used and least used strategy of the meta-cognitive strategies

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' MOST USED AND LEAST USED STRATEGY OF THE META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES

Questions	Mean	Standard Deviation
Question 1	4.30	.632
Question 2	2.57	.998
Question 3	4.00	1.078
Question 4	3.41	.923
Question 5	3.27	.872

Table 2 indicated that the most used strategy of the meta-cognitive strategies is question 1, "when students find mistakes that they made during the listening process, they will try to find out the reasons," which mean value was 4.30. The result was in light of a study that Bao (2017) made, indicating that contemporary college students' self-regulation awareness is vital (Bao, 2017). And the least used metacognitive strategy is question 2, "the students will skip the new words or difficult sentences when they were listening to English," which only has a 2.57 mean value. The second most used strategy is question 3, "they will try to understand every word when they were listening to English," which has a 4.00 mean value in this question. This data showed that students preferred to find out the problems they encountered during the listening process and figured out why they had made these mistakes (question 1). Moreover, they would like to understand every word that the speaker is talking about (question 3), which means students do not want to skip the difficult words or sentences when listening (question 2). In contrast, students' frequency of practicing listening (question 5) or reviewing the listening materials after class (question 4) is relatively low, with only 3.27 and 3.41 mean values.

2. Students' most used and least used strategy of the cognitive strategies

TABLE 3
STUDENTS' MOST USED AND LEAST USED STRATEGY OF THE COGNITIVE STRATEGIES

Questions	Mean	Standard Deviation
Question 1	3.68	1.157
Question 2	4.11	.841
Question 3	3.93	.950
Question 4	3.52	1.171
Question 5	4.36	.865

According to Table 3, we can understand that the most used strategy of the cognitive strategy is question 5, "by watching the English movies and series, students can often learn the real and national English information", with a 4.36 mean value. Through this result, we predicted that students can improve their English ability by taking classes and sometimes prefer to practice their English in a more comfortable way, such as listening to music and watching English series or movies. Many studies offered powerful finding showing that movies benefit both listening and speaking in the learners' language performance (Chung, 1999; Lin, 2002; Weyers, 1999; Chen, 2012). Moreover, it is a readily available method for students to access in their daily life. And the least used strategy is that "students prefer to translate the word that they have heard into Chinese during the listening process "(question 4), which is 3.52 mean value. As the second

most used strategy is the strategy that "students will take notes during the process of listening, and will also try to write down every important information" (question 2), which is 4.11 mean value. As we can see, students' frequency of using the cognitive strategy is much higher than the frequency that students use the meta-cognitive strategy.

Moreover, students tend to use other materials to get closer to accurate and local English information (question 5). Besides, students are more likely to take notes when they are in the listening process (question 2). And after the class, they would like to categorize the words they have learned during the course to make them memorize the words easier (question 3). But they won't remember the new terms by connecting the pronunciation with the Chinese words (question 1) or translate every English word into Chinese during the listening process (question 4). Students' most used and least used strategy of the social/affective strategies

TABLE 4
STUDENTS' MOST USED AND LEAST USED STRATEGY OF THE SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

Questions	Mean	Standard Deviation
Question 1	4.57	.094
Question 2	3.41	1.109
Question 3	3.70	.878
Question 4	3.23	.985
Question 5	3.18	1.225

From Table 4, we learned that the most used strategy of the social/ affective strategy in which "students will choose the ways that they like to study English after class, for example, listening to music, and watching TV program (question 1)", with 4.57 mean value. Watching English movies and series can improve our vocabulary and listening comprehension and increase students' reading and comprehension speed (Sabouri and Zohrabi, 2015). As the least used strategy is question 5, "students like to find out several partners to learn together," with only a 3.18 mean value. According to Bao (2017), he categorized this strategy into cooperative learning and said that students often neglect the strategy. Because Taiwanese schools did not emphasize that students should find a partner to help them in the learning process or encourage students to find a partner to learn with, students prefer to learn things on their own. Students were considered this process as acquiring knowledge of language rather than communicative ability directly, and they just received the new knowledge passively (Zhang, 2010). And the second used strategy was "students not only question themselves about the problems that they cannot understand but also through the question they made to get more information from the speaker (question 3)", with a 3.70 mean value. According to the questionnaire result, students learned by themselves, using the material they like to improve their listening ability (question 1).

Furthermore, they reflected on the question they do not understand and their mistakes (question 3). Through the questionnaire, we also know that students' level to study in a group or discuss with others (questions 4 and 5) was lower than learning by themselves. Moreover, students' frequency to questions English communication with their classmates or teachers was the second least used strategy in the social/affective strategy (question 4). Compared with the strategies ahead, the social/ affective strategy stayed in the central place of students' frequency.

C. The Descriptive Statistic of Teachers Instruct Listening Strategies

TABLE 5
THE OVERALL SITUATION OF TEACHERS INSTRUCT LISTENING STRATEGIES

Name of the strategy	Mean	Standard Deviation
Meta- cognitive strategies	3.9000	.6015
Cognitive strategies	3.8681	.5437
Social/ affective strategies	3.9300	.9250
Overall strategies	3.8993	.6901

Table 5 indicated students think that the frequency of the listening strategies that teachers instruct during the class (mean 3.89) was slightly higher than the frequency that students used listening strategies on their own (mean 3.68). And the frequency that teachers use each strategy was very close with each strategy. After analyzing, the author listed the most used and least used strategies of each strategy. The most used strategy of the meta-cognitive strategy was that the teacher often combines listening and speaking during the listening class. The use of language can assist language learning. By using language, the received information can leave a more profound impression on the brain (Bao, 2017).

1. The most used and least used meta-cognitive strategies that teacher instruct

TABLE 6
THE MOST USED AND LEAST USED META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES THAT TEACHER INSTRUCT

Questions	Mean	Standard Deviation
Question 1	3.09	1.309
Question 2	3.95	.806
Question 3	4.48	.731
Question 4	3.98	.762
Question 5	4.00	.747

The data in Table 6 showed the most used strategy teachers instruct was question 3, “during the listening class, the teacher often combines the listening and speaking,” which has a 4.48 mean value. And the least used strategy that teachers instruct is “during the listening process when the students encounter difficult words or sentences; the teacher will guide the students skip them and continue the following listening (question 1)”, with only 3.09 mean value. And the second most used strategy that teachers instruct is that “before the students start listening, the teacher helped the students figure out the listening process (question 5)”. And this question has a 4.00 mean value. As a result, we can find out that teachers prefer to teach listening and speaking skills during the listening class (question 3), and this process can help students have a better language learning result. By combining the listening and speaking skills, the brain can have a more profound impression of these two skills. Students can seize the same information instantly when they listen to it next time. On the same level, students think it is tough to enhance their listening ability because they lack the occasion to practice speaking (Bao, 2017).

Moreover, teachers will lead students to think about the purpose of the listening before they start the listening (question 5) and instruct students with different listening skills according to the other materials they use (question 4). But teachers won't skip those problematic words or sentences during the listening process (question 1), which is similar to the strategy students use in the meta-cognitive strategy. Teachers' frequency of instructs on the meta-cognitive is close to how teachers instruct the cognitive strategy.

2. The most used and least used cognitive strategies that teacher instruct

TABLE 7
THE MOST USED AND LEAST USED COGNITIVE STRATEGIES THAT TEACHER INSTRUCT

Questions	Mean	Standard Deviation
Question 1	4.18	.724
Question 2	4.00	.835
Question 3	3.64	1.104
Question 4	4.22	.784
Question 5	3.41	1.064

As we can see in Table 7, question 1 was the most used strategy that teachers instruct, “teachers will teach the students new knowledge and understand the listening materials by connecting the old and new knowledge.” This strategy has a 4.18 mean value. As the least used strategy is that “teachers will remind students not to translate every single word into Chinese during the listening process” (question 5), with a 3.41 mean value. And the second most used strategy is “during the process of listening, the teachers will let the students write down the information they think. Before and after the listening, teachers let students discuss how to take note “(question 4). It has a 4.11 mean value with it. According to the result, the author inferred that teachers emphasized connecting new and old knowledge during their teaching process (question 1). They also focused on predicting the content throughout reading the title and questions to be answered (question 2) and how students take notes during the reading process (question 4). Teachers avoid to disturbing students in the listening process (questions 3 and 5).

3. The most used and least used social/affective strategies that teacher instruct

TABLE 8
THE MOST USED AND LEAST USED SOCIAL/AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES THAT TEACHER INSTRUCT

Questions	Mean	Standard Deviation
Question 1	3.93	.925

The mean value of the only question of the social/ affective is 3.93, which stayed at a high level compared with other questions that the author provided in the questionnaire. And this showed that teachers are willing to guide students to find out the methods which they are interested in to improve their English ability.

D. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient of the Strategies that Teachers Instruct and Students Used

TABLE 9
THE PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT OF THE STRATEGIES THAT TEACHERS INSTRUCT AND STUDENTS USED

		mean value	Pearson's r	the significant
meta-cognitive strategies	students	3.5091	.298	
	teachers	3.9000	1	.057
cognitive strategies	students	3.9227	1	
	teachers	3.8681	.455	.002
social/affective strategies	students	3.6181	.104	
	teachers	3.9300	1	.501

As we can see above, the significance of the cognitive strategies that teachers instructed and the students used is 0.002 (under 0.05), which means the relationship between the cognitive strategies that students used and teachers

instruct is strong. For the students, the cognitive is also the most used strategy in the listening learning process. Both teachers and students did not prefer to translate English into Chinese during the listening process. Moreover, taking notes and writing down the important is the strategy that teacher and students tend to do while listening to English. And these two strategies are the least used and most used strategy that both teachers and students apply in cognitive. As the significance of the social/ affective strategies is 0.501 (above 0.05), the least correlation of the three strategies, which interestingly happened to be the teacher's most instruct strategy. Choosing the students' learning methods is how students and teachers would like to use them in the social/ affective strategy. The significance of meta-cognitive is 0.057, which stays in the middle of the three strategies. Skipping the words and sentences is the least likely strategy for both teachers and students when applying the meta-cognitive strategy.

V. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to investigate the most and least used listening strategies students use during the listening process and the most and least listening strategies teachers instruct when teaching the listening class. The conclusions of this study addressed into two parts. First, students used the three listening strategies to stay at a medium level (mean 3.68), and there is no huge gap between them. The frequency of students utilizing the listening strategies from the highest to the lowest was cognitive strategy (mean 3.92), social/affective strategy (mean 3.61), and meta-cognitive strategy (mean 3.50). In cognitive strategy and social/ affective strategy, we found out that students use the materials given by teachers and seek other materials such as listening to music and watching movies to improve their English listening ability. Moreover, students use some listening strategies to classify and categorize conversation during the listening classes, which can help them learn vocabulary efficiently and understand the listening content more clearly. In addition, the listening process, when students find out the mistakes, they try to figure out the reasons and correct answers.

Secondly, the overall listening strategies that teachers instruct also stay at a medium level (mean 3.89). And it is a little bit higher than the frequency that students used the listening strategies. The frequency that teachers instruct the listening strategy from high to low was social/affective strategy (mean 3.93), meta-cognitive strategy (mean 3.90), and cognitive strategy (mean 3.86). As we can find out in the result, teachers intended to assist students with the methods they are interested to improve their English listening ability. In addition, teachers also combine the previous knowledge and the new knowledge to teach students during the listening classes. Besides, listening is not only the skill teachers teach during the listening class; whereas, teachers integrate speaking skills during the lessons.

The teaching implication:

According to the result of the meta-cognitive strategy that students used, we can find out that students put less emphasis on practice listening after classes (mean 3.27) and review the teaching materials after class. Therefore, teachers can reinforce students to practice more English listening skills after class. For example, teachers can assign English songs or English videos without subtitles after classes. Besides, teachers can also facilitate students to build the habits of reviewing the teaching material after class. Moreover, the using frequency of classifying and categorizing the words that students have learned before stays at a relatively low level (mean 3.93), teachers can demonstrate how to organize and associate the knowledge they have known before. Also, students are not willing to find a partner to learn together (mean 3.18) which indicated students did not like to share some information with their teachers and classmates (mean 3.23). Therefore, teachers can try to encourage students to find a partner to reinforce cooperative learning. It also helps students cultivate the habit of sharing their ideas and information with their classmates and teachers to promote collaborating learning.

APPENDIX

Questionnaire of the investigation of the listening strategies teachers instruct and the listening strategies students use

This questionnaire is completely anonymous. And the purpose of this questionnaire is about to study if the students are using the listening strategies or not, also the researcher is going to study if the teachers in school are teaching listening strategies or not. There are three main parts of this questionnaire, please read the questions carefully and complete the following questionnaire to the best of your ability. Thank you for your cooperation.

Part I Demographics

1. Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female
2. what is the regular hours you spend on English study per week _____

Part II The listening strategies that students used

Please read the questions carefully and using the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree

- 1.) Meta-cognitive Strategy

1. When I find mistakes that I made during the listening process I will try to find out the reasons.	1	2	3	4
2. I will skip the new words or difficult sentences when I was listening to English.	1	2	3	4
3. I will try to understand every word when I was listening to English.	1	2	3	4
4. I will review the listening materials in my planned way after class.	1	2	3	4
5. I do a lot of reading and listening practice after class in order to improve my listening ability.	1	2	3	4

2.) Cognitive Strategy.

1. I will try to remember every new English word by relating them with the pronunciation of Chinese words during the listening process.	1	2	3	4
2. I will take notes during the process of listening. And I will also try to write down every important information.	1	2	3	4
3. I will classify and categorize the words that I have learned after class.	1	2	3	4
4. I prefer to translate the words that I have heard into Chinese during the listening process.	1	2	3	4
5. By watching the English movies and series, I can often learn the real and national English information.	1	2	3	4

3.) Social/affective Strategy

1. I will choose the ways that I like to study English after class, for example, listening to music, and watching English tv program.	1	2	3	4
2. When I met some difficult problems during the listening process, I will consult with my teachers and classmates.	1	2	3	4
3. I am not only question myself about the problems that I can't understand but also through the question that I made to get more information from the speaker.	1	2	3	4
4. I will often communicate with teachers, classmates to share some information with them, and also test the learning effects of myself at the same time during the listening study.	1	2	3	4
5. I like to find one or several partners to learn together.	1	2	3	4

Part III The listening strategies that teacher used

Please read the questions carefully and using the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree

1.) Meta-cognitive Strategy

1. During the listening process, when the students encounter difficult words or sentences, the teacher will guide the students skip them and continue the following listening.	1	2	3	4
2. The teacher will let the students classify and categorize the words that they have learned before.	1	2	3	4
3. During the listening class, the teacher often combine the listening and speaking.	1	2	3	4
4. The teacher will guide the students to use different listening skills according to the different listening materials.	1	2	3	4
5. Before the students start listening, the teacher will let the students figure out the listening purpose.	1	2	3	4

2.) Cognitive Strategy

1. The teacher will not only teach the students new knowledge, but also understanding the listening materials by connecting the old and new knowledge.	1	2	3	4
2. Before start listening, the teacher will let students predict the content by the title and the questions to be answered.	1	2	3	4
3. During the listening process, the teacher will sometimes pause the listening and let the students to predict the following content by the contents above.	1	2	3	4
4. During the process of listening, the teacher will let the students write down the information they think. And before and after the listening, the teacher will let students discuss how to take notes.	1	2	3	4
5. The teacher will remind students not to translate every single word into Chinese during the listening process.	1	2	3	4

3.) Social/affective Strategy

1. The teacher will guide the students to choose the methods that they are interested in to learn English. For example, listening to music, and watching English movie, etc.	1	2	3	4
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A Component Analysis of "Ideological and Political Competence" in College English Education in China*

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Abstract—College English course is an effective channel of ideological and political education for students in China. College English can influence students' value orientation and moral standards in an implicit way, and help to improve their comprehensive quality and achieve all-round development. This study interprets "ideology and politics" from the angle of students as a way of thinking, i.e. to be able to think critically, to analyze and evaluate on the basis of knowing and understanding, and to solve real-life problems, so as to successfully internalize knowledge into awareness and ability. Then, the concept "ideological and political competence" is introduced, the component elements are analyzed, the sub-competencies are defined, and a three-pronged model for the cultivation of ideological and political competence in College English is designed.

Index Terms—College English, ideological and political education, ideological and political competence, three-pronged cultivation model

I. INTRODUCTION

Only when a country or a nation has established a common ideal and belief, can it have a strong cohesion and centripetal force, and education plays a vital role. In China, the ultimate goal of education is to foster a new generation of young people capable of shouldering the mission of national rejuvenation, and those who have all-round moral, intellectual, physical, and aesthetical grounding with a hard-working spirit. Within this context, colleges and universities are required to follow the socialist value system to guide students' growth, not only to enhance students' recognition of the core socialist values, but also to cultivate students' ability to put the core socialist values into practice. Ideological and political education is a new concept, which is key to the CPC's overall leadership over colleges and universities, and the implementation of the "three-pronged education". General Secretary Xi Jinping pointed out that we should fully utilize classroom teaching, and while improving ideological and political theory courses, all other courses should play their roles and shoulder responsibilities, so that all courses could work together to produce a synergistic effect.

College English, as a basic course in higher education in China, is regarded as one of the important arenas of ideological and political education for its teaching duration, long class hours, and wide influence. It not only aims to increase students' language knowledge and skills, but also shoulders the mission of transmitting culture, values and virtues. It is a typical course with the dual attributes of "instrumentality" and "humanity". Therefore, College English is both an organic carrier of and an effective channel for ideological and political education for students. It can influence students' value orientation and moral standards in an implicit way, and help to improve their comprehensive quality and achieve all-round development.

II. IDEOLOGICAL & POLITICAL EDUCATION AND COLLEGE ENGLISH

The essence of "curriculum ideology and politics" (courses with ideological and political elements) is to integrate the ideological and political education into all aspects of curriculum and teaching. It not only focuses on learning of knowledge while promoting core values, but also emphasizes the transmission of values in the learning process, and thus highlights the integration of explicit teaching and implicit education, so as to realize the goal of moral education (Zong, 2017). Since the 18th National Congress of the CPCC first proposed that the moral education should be the most fundamental task of education, General Secretary Xi has been stressing the significance of ideological and political work in the development of higher education in a series of meetings, including the National Education Conference, the National University Ideological and Political Work Conference and the National Ideological Propaganda Work Meeting.

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Teaching innovations and reforms are booming in “Ideological and Political Curriculum” (ideological and political theory courses) and “Curriculum Ideology and Politics”. Researchers and teachers have actively carried out relevant research to explore the laws and methods of ideological and political education.

The research on ideological and political issues in the field of College English education has been around for more than 10 years, showing a rapid growth after 2018. First of all, researchers generally believe that it is necessary and important to carry out ideological and political education in College English teaching. College English and ideological and political education have a high degree of consistency in nature, function and content (Liu & Yue, 2020; Xia & He, 2019). However, there is in College English teaching a lack of moral education, inadequate coverage of Chinese culture, and ambiguous attitude toward ideological issues. Second, most research focuses on how to integrate the ideological and political content into College English classroom, that is, the strategies, paths and methods of ideological and political teaching in College English course. The research clarifies how to combine College English and ideological and political teaching, and suggests that ideology and politics should be taken as the guideline in goal setting, teaching material construction, teacher training, teaching methods, student evaluation, etc. Elements of ideological and political education should integrate and infiltrate into the whole teaching process so as to form an overall framework of College English ideological and Political Education (Du & Sun, 2019; Li, 2018). Thirdly, some research focuses on the details, and shows the specific routes and methods of implementing ideological and political education in College English course by means of teaching plans and examples, from topic introduction to discussion, from language knowledge to cultural phenomenon, from critical thinking to evaluation and feedback, from classroom to virtual learning, and so on (Song & Ma, 2020; Gao & Xia, 2020). In addition, a small number of studies, from the theoretical perspective, have introduced some relevant theories of pedagogy, psychology, philosophy and other fields into the research of College English ideological and political teaching, such as Bloom-Anderson Taxonomy, Babansky's optimization theory and Wen Qiufang's production-oriented approach. These studies attempt to secure theoretical support for the design of teaching materials and teaching practice (Chen, 2019; Wu, 2020).

In all, the previous studies have clarified the goal and function of ideological and political education in English teaching, and constructed a relatively complete system and feasible implementation path and methods. However, theoretical innovation is insufficient, and empirical studies are even more rarely seen, which makes it difficult for people to see its real nature. This study interprets the concept of “ideological and political” from the perspective of students, and regards it as a way of thinking, that is, to think critically, to analyze and evaluate based on the knowledge learned, so as to successfully internalize ideological and political knowledge into awareness and ability. Then, on this basis, the concept of “ideological and political competence” is introduced, the component elements are analyzed, the sub-competencies are defined, and a three-pronged model for the cultivation of ideological and political competence in College English is designed.

III. COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF IDEOLOGICAL AND POLITICAL COMPETENCE

Feng Qi, a modern Chinese philosopher, once proposed the idea of “transforming theory into method, transforming theory into virtue”. It is the process of turning external theory into internal virtue through learning and practice. Similarly, the goal of “curriculum ideology and politics” is to guide students to transform their knowledge into virtues, into inner spirit, and into their own quality or ability, which would help students to understand and change the world (Qiu, 2017). And the transformation or internalization takes place in the cycle of knowing, thinking, doing and hypothesis testing.

“Competence” in Marriam-Webster Dictionary is defined as the quality or state of having sufficient knowledge, judgment, skill, or strength. It is a comprehensive quality showed in an individual for a particular duty or in a particular aspect. The objective of ideological and political education in College English is to cultivate students' competence in the way of thinking and doing within the “socialist core value system”. This ideological and political competence is composed of four elements: cognitive competence, thinking competence, practical competence and emotional competence. Ideological and political knowledge in College English involves both language and culture. Language knowledge includes vocabulary, grammar, functions and topics, while cultural knowledge refers to the knowledge about the world, the west and China. Thinking competence is the ability to apply some critical theories to analyze and evaluate political, economic, social, cultural, religious and other issues, so as to form and develop a critical and creative thinking mode. Practical competence refers to students' ability to use ideological and political knowledge to deal with real-life problems in society and intercultural communication, such as “telling Chinese stories and spreading Chinese culture”. Finally, emotional competence is the attitude and motivation of students towards the socialist political system and ideological and moral education. Through College English course, students can accept and identify with ideological and political education emotionally, have enough motivation to learn and apply ideological and political knowledge, develop ideological and political thinking, and fulfill ideological and political missions.

A. Cognitive Competence

First of all, ideological and political knowledge is a series of knowledge about ideology, politics, morality and value, and the sum of descriptions and expressions of relevant facts and information. The cognitive competence is the ability to acquire and master the knowledge. As the ideological and political knowledge covers a wide range of content, we

must accurately locate its scope within the context of College English, and achieve an organic combination. As Zhao (2019) pointed out, the integration of courses of ideological and political theory and courses with ideological and political elements doesn't mean that they are the same, and the position of each cannot be mixed or misplaced. Ideological and political theory course is the main channel of ideological and political education, while specialized courses and general courses are mainly for intellectual, physical and aesthetic education. As a general course, College English cannot replace or copy the teaching content of ideological and political theory course, so we should grasp the "degree"; the realization of its ideological and political function should be based on the characteristics of the course itself, conform to the laws of language teaching and learning, and transmit value in the way of "infiltration". Also, ideological and political content cannot be separated and disjointed from the course itself.

According to the description of the course nature in the "Guidelines for College English Teaching 2020", College English is both instrumental and humanistic in nature. Instrumentality is mainly reflected in improving the ability of listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating and acquiring the ability of international exchange in academic or professional fields. Humanity shows itself in two aspects: one is to carry out cross-cultural education, that is, to help students better understand foreign countries and cultures, and to strengthen their understanding of the differences; the second is to cultivate students' ability to understand and interpret Chinese culture from new perspectives and to promote it across the world. In view of the integration of ideological and political education and English curriculum and the inseparability of language and culture, the knowledge content of ideological and political education in College English should be mainly about Chinese traditional culture, western language and culture and humanities, and the like. When selecting teaching content or mining the teaching materials available, we should pay special attention to the vocabulary, expressions, discourses and texts loaded with culture and value, and let students learn and understand relevant knowledge through skills training, so as to form a relatively complete knowledge system.

B. Thinking Competence

Secondly, ideology is a way or manner of thinking characteristic of a group or society. Mode of thinking is closely related to language and culture. Language promotes the formation and development of thinking, while culture influences and restricts thinking. The way of thinking of Chinese college students is bound to be fundamentally influenced by Chinese modern ideologies and politics, traditional culture and moral norms; at the same time, College English, as a language and culture course, also has some penetrating impact on students. Under the cross effect of two different languages and cultures, students should be taught to correctly treat the differences between China and the West, which is closely related to students' thinking competence. The key to the cultivation of thinking competence lies in the training of critical thinking skills. Historical and dialectical materialism, a main part of Marxism, interprets the world and social problems from the perspective of development and connection, and tries to find the laws of historical change. This is consistent with the characteristics of ideal critical thinkers, "inquisitive, trustful of reason, fair-minded in evaluation, prudent in making judgments, ... and persistent in seeking results" (Delphi project, 1990). In other words, the improvement of critical thinking ability can help students better understand and master historical materialist dialectics, and vice versa.

Moreover, "the Outline of National Medium and Long term Education Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020)" points out that the long-term development of education needs to "promote students' all-round development, strive to improve students' learning ability, practical ability and innovative ability", "stimulate students' curiosity, cultivate students' interests, and create a good environment for independent thinking, free exploration and innovation". It shows that the cultivation of critical thinking ability is one of the ultimate goals of education in China. Bloom-Anderson Taxonomy classifies cognition into six levels, namely, remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating. Analyzing, evaluating and creating are the core content and key skills of critical thinking. In College English teaching, teachers should not confine themselves to one teaching method; instead they can employ different approaches, methods and techniques in different teaching contexts. For example, they can assign tasks before class, pay attention to the quantity and quality of "input" during class, stimulate students' discussion and thinking, encourage students' in-depth involvement, and guide them to carry out inquiry-based and research-based learning, so that students can grow into active learners and creative thinkers, and form good habits of thinking while learning.

C. Practical Competence

Thirdly, ideological and political education is to enable students to deal with and solve various problems in learning, working, social life, intercultural communication and other situations, so as to serve the needs of the country and society. Students are supposed to form a behavior pattern guided by the core socialist values, to have a good international vision, patriotism, and cross-cultural communication ability, to participate in international affairs, and to spread and transmit Chinese culture. Language is produced in the form of speaking and writing, and ideological and political knowledge needs to be delivered through English as a medium. The application and practice of knowledge and theory will serve as a bridge between the two languages and cultures.

The practical competence is mainly demonstrated in two aspects, namely, intercultural communication and "telling Chinese stories and spreading Chinese culture". Intercultural communication refers to the communication between people speaking different languages or from different cultural backgrounds. Intercultural communication competence needs to be incorporated in the language curriculum and it consists of four elements: global awareness, cultural

adaptation ability, self- and other knowledge (communicative culture) and practical ability (Yang & Zhuang, 2007). A successful intercultural communicator needs to be proficient in the target language, be familiar with the target culture and communication rules, and be able to fulfill communicative tasks and resolve disputes. Meanwhile, General Secretary Xi's idea of "telling Chinese stories" is in essence an intercultural communication issue yet with the focus on "self". It is of great significance to cultivate confidence in Chinese traditional culture and achieve cultural prosperity. It is indispensable for the improvement of the national soft power and building a socialist cultural power in the 21st Century. "Telling a good Chinese story" makes it possible to let the world know about China, change the stereotypes, and improve China's international image. College English ideological and political education should be committed to fostering students' confidence in the nation and the culture. During the training of basic language skills, students should master the means and strategies of storytelling, so that they are able to use understandable and acceptable language and manners to introduce China's history and culture, development path, and institutional innovations to the world.

D. Emotional Competence

Emotional competence means that the students are able to identify with core socialist values, have a positive attitude toward the teaching content and methods of ideological and political education in College English, and have a strong willingness to practice the core socialist values and traditional Chinese moral norms. Emotion is very important for cognition, behaviors, and social activities. Emotional competence helps people adapt to the environment, meet challenges and achieve goals. In terms of ideological and political education in College English, it specifically refers to the ability of students to adapt to the teaching, participate in activities, and adjust and regulate their emotions. The first is students' recognition and approval of the ideological and political knowledge content in the course, such as whether they really agree with the core socialist values, whether they are full of confidence in Chinese culture, and whether they can objectively and critically evaluate western culture; the second is the degree of involvement in learning, that is, whether they are willing to participate in the ideological and political learning activities; and the third is the ability to regulate their negative emotions in the process of learning and practice, such as whether they can overcome the anxiety in language use, confusion and frustration in cultural conflicts, etc. Ideological and political education in College English should guide students to correctly understand foreign countries and cultural differences, strengthen their national identity, and enhance cultural confidence. Teachers should design various interactive tasks and activities to boost students' interest in learning, enhance learning motivation, and increase classroom participation; they should also pay attention to students' emotional changes, offer timely intervention, and provide them with strategies to effectively control negative emotions and help build positive psychology.

IV. THREE-PRONGED MODEL OF IDEOLOGICAL AND POLITICAL EDUCATION IN COLLEGE ENGLISH

"Opinions on Strengthening and Improving the Ideological and Political Work in Colleges and Universities in the New Situation" puts forward the requirement of adhering to the three-pronged education ("education of all staff, whole process and full coverage"). It is a call for the integration of educational resources and the reconstruction of the long-term educational objectives, standards and system, which lays the keynote and direction for ideological and political education. The ideological and political education in each course must fully conform to the very idea of three-pronged education, and further improve the quality of teaching. Built on the idea of three-pronged education and four-component ideological and political competence, the cultivation model of ideological and political education in College English includes the following three aspects.

A. All Staff, the School, Teachers and Students, Participate and Take Their Own Responsibilities

"All staff" is a concept put forward in terms of the subjects of education. It means that all the stakeholders, schools, teachers and students, should actively participate in the process of teaching and learning. As the policy maker, the school should not only make clear the overall idea and layout of its ideological and political work, play a role in coordination and organization, but also be able stand at a higher level to guide the direction of various departments and courses, and develop the an evaluation mechanism fit for the school. Also, the school should give priority and provide financial support to teaching and research on ideological and political education. Teachers and students are the main bodies of ideological and political education. Teachers and what they say and do in class have great impact on students. Therefore, teachers should first fully realize the importance and necessity of curriculum ideology and politics, utilize all resources to learn, improve professional skills and ability, and then integrate ideological and political elements into the English class and impart relevant knowledge to students in a planned and strategic way. Meanwhile, they should also take the initiative to monitor students' psychological and mental changes and give timely intervention and thus form a complete cycle of ideological and political teaching through evaluation, feedback and other methods. Students are both the acquirers of knowledge and the creators of meaning. The formation of students' ideology and way of thinking, though affected by the external environment, is ultimately the result of self-selection. Therefore, students should be active and important participants. Without students' involvement, the work is doomed to failure. Students should have a positive attitude, correctly understand the role of English, and participate in learning with an open mind. With the use of English language and skills, students can build healthy personality and positive psychology, to improve and enhance the communication between China and the west, and to spread Chinese culture.

B. The Whole Process Involves both Internal and External Activities – Learning, Thinking, Doing and Evaluating

The whole process defines both the phases and continuity of ideological and political education in terms of time. The formation of thought, value, and virtue is the result of internalization. It is the product of input and intake, a process from the input of ideological and political knowledge to the intake of knowledge through active learning and thinking, to the final internalization through application and practice. Therefore, ideological and political education should go through every part of teaching, and effectively connect these parts together to form a complete cycle. In the process of knowledge input, we should pay attention to both the quantity and quality, and the content and method. The content should combine language (English), culture (Chinese and Western Culture) and thought (Chinese traditional morality & ethics, core socialist values, etc.), and the method should not be limited to one pattern. Task-based and inquiry-based teachings are effective ways to transmit and construct values, and also help to nurture and develop students' creativity, autonomy and efficacy. However, input is not equal to output. Whether the input can be absorbed successfully depends on the effectiveness of processing. In addition to noticing and remembering, the construction and creation of meaning requires higher order thinking. Higher order thinking, analyzing, judging and creating, plays a crucial role in the process of knowledge internalization. Only by critical thinking in a conscious way can learners transform the ideological and political knowledge input into intake and integrate it into their own knowledge system. Output is not only the result of learning, but also the method of learning, which is an important part of the whole process of ideological and political education. Students can extract relevant information from the knowledge learned and produce it through speaking and writing. They can tell Chinese stories in understandable English, spread Chinese culture and conduct cross-cultural communication. Finally, evaluation and feedback are also important means to promote the ideological and political education in College English. The ideological and political knowledge and competence should be incorporated into both the formative and summative evaluations of class learning and the high-stakes tests, such as CET-4 and CET-6. This will definitely have a positive wash-back effect and further promote the development and standardization of the ideological and political education in College English.

C. The Full-coverage Education Includes First and Second Classrooms and Online & Offline Learning

Full coverage defines the scope and field of ideological and political education in terms of space. Curriculum ideology and politics should not only be confined to the classroom, but should be extended to after-class activities and tasks by building a suitable learning environment and to the network platforms by making use of modern educational technologies. First of all, first classroom (classroom teaching) and second classroom (extracurricular activities) should be combined together to create a learning environment. In a broad sense, the second classroom refers to all activities besides classroom teaching, which is an effective extension of the first classroom. With the help of the second classroom, students can broaden their horizon, train their ability and enrich their experience (Peng & Xie, 2011). College English can fully develop resources for the second classroom on the basis of the first classroom; it can improve students' interest in learning by holding English corners, reading clubs and other activities, and it can also turn to social resources and organize students to participate in volunteer and internship activities, test students' language skills, exercise their practical ability, and raise their ideological level. Secondly, blended learning (online & offline) should be encouraged and promoted. More efforts should be made to develop online courses with focus on Chinese history and culture, comparison between China and the West, selected readings of Marxist works (English version), critical thinking, etc. These courses can be shared via the Internet and become accessible to more learners. In addition, teachers can use Microblog, Zhihu and other social networking sites to regularly release information about College English ideological and political education, answer questions, resolve confusions and conduct questionnaire surveys. Teachers can also establish class groups on mobile apps such as Wechat, and organize students to carry out cooperative learning by offering materials, initiating discussions, and assigning tasks. Education must catch up with the development of science and technology which has positioned itself as the new direction in today's world (post-epidemic era).

V. CONCLUSION

The current change in College English education is a positive response to the needs of China's higher education reform and development in the new era. It is also a new goal after decades of exploration and practice. The ideological and political education in College English course is a multi-agent, multi-stage and multi-level systematic project. It is very important to clarify the inherent nature and the component elements of ideological and political competence in order to set objectives and formulate teaching plans. The goal of College English ideological and political education is to cultivate students' ideological and political competence, and the improvement of competence depends on the growth and maturity of the three-pronged education model. Generally speaking, the ideological and political education in College English curriculum needs to be further explored in both theory and practice. We also need to work hard to promote the reform of College English education and teaching, and further improve the integration of English curriculum and ideological and political education.

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Implementation of E-Learning for ESP in Tourism During the Covid-19 Pandemic

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Abstract—Covid-19 has been declared a global pandemic by WHO. This affects all aspects of human life, including education. The entire teaching and learning process during the Covid-19 pandemic was carried out online or by implementing e-learning. The online system of study intends to avoid human contact. This study aims to look at the media used to implement e-learning, considerations in choosing e-learning media, as well as the advantages and disadvantages found in implementing e-learning. There are six English lecturers who teach Tourism English at Tourism Department of Bali State Polytechnic. The data used in this study were obtained from questionnaires distributed online. The data is then analyzed by looking for a percentage and describing it.

Index Terms—Covid-19 pandemic, E-learning, tourism English learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The world was shocked by the outbreak of the corona virus in early 2020. The virus, which is said to have originated in Wuhan, China in December 2019, has infected almost all countries in the world (Huang, et al, 2020). This has resulted in a global crisis where the most obvious impact is on the tourism sector. The existence of an international travel ban has affected more than 90% of the global population accompanied by the imposition of social distancing has made the tourism industry practically suspended in March 2020 (Grech, et al, 2020). The first case of the Corona virus in Indonesia occurred in Depok, West Java, to be precise on March 2, 2020 (Nuraini, 2020). This case of transmission of the virus began when a Japanese citizen met an Indonesian citizen, a 31-year-old woman, at a dance club on February 14, 2020. Then the corona virus spread to various regions in Indonesia with the capital city of Jakarta as the epicenter. As of May 13, 2020, there were 15,438 positive cases in Indonesia with details of 3,287 patients having been declared cured, 1,028 patients declared dead, and the rest are still undergoing treatment (Task Force for the Acceleration of Handling Covid-19, 2020). These cases are spread across 34 provinces in Indonesia.

Seeing the rapid development and transmission of the Coronavirus, the Indonesian Government is taking various ways to deal with it. One of them is the policy of studying from home. The Minister of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia through a notification letter number 36962 / MPK.A / HK / 2020 appealed to all university leaders, heads of higher service institutions, heads of provincial education offices, heads of district / city education offices, and heads of technical implementation units of the Ministry of Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia to postpone activities that invite and gather mass and replace them with teleconferences or other online activities. In response to this, The Governor of Bali Province also issued a notification letter number 60 / Task Force Covid-19 / III / 2020 which appealed to the Head of the Education Unit in Bali to organize learning online up to a deadline that is not determined.

Based on this fact, education units, from the lowest to higher education, organize online education by utilizing the existing technology. This phenomenon becomes the background of this research. There are three main focuses examined in this research, namely (1) media and categories of implementation of e-learning or online learning, (2) determining factors or considerations in choosing e-learning media, and (3) advantages and disadvantages found in implementation of e-learning.

II. CONCEPTS AND THEORY

Concepts and theories discuss the theories that are the basis for conducting this research, including the notion of e-learning, characteristics and components of e-learning, categories of e-learning, advantages and disadvantages of e-learning, and choosing e-learning media.

A. Definition of E-learning

E-learning or what is also often referred to as online learning has a broad and different definition. But broadly speaking, these definitions have one thing in common, namely the existence of learning and the involvement of technology. Several experts in the field of e-learning or online learning expressed their opinion about the definition of e-learning. The definition created by this expert sees e-learning from various points of view so as to produce different meanings or definitions.

The term e-learning actually comes from 2 words in English, namely electronic and learning (Mutia & Leonard, 2013). Then, literally, e-learning can be interpreted as learning that is carried out using electronic media. Specifically, e-learning refers to the use of the internet and technology to provide various solutions to increase knowledge and skills (Jethro et al, 2012). This understanding shows that the purpose of using e-learning is to increase one's knowledge and skills by utilizing technology and the internet. The solutions and materials used to improve these abilities and skills are provided and delivered using technology and the internet, such as the use of video, website and audio. Horton (2011) in Kattoua et al (2016) also has the same idea that e-learning is a set of learning delivered through electronic media, such as the internet, intranet, and extranet. The two definitions indicate the important role of technology in the learning process. Learning can be said to implement elearning if there is technology in it.

Furthermore, Paulsen (2003) states that e-learning is an interactive learning where students will get input from their learning activities automatically and the availability of online learning resources and materials (Bezhovski & Poorani, 2016). It is also said that e-learning is learning that uses telecommunications to convey information and learning materials so that this type of learning does not use learning materials in the form of printed books (Goyal, 2012). This definition states the same thing, namely in the process of implementing e-learning the interaction between educators and students occurs online. Not only interaction, learning materials are also presented online so that text books or other printed materials are no longer used.

As technology develops, the use of e-learning is also increasingly prevalent. Alshehri et al (2019) said that e-learning is the latest form of learning that attracts the attention and interest of teachers in the world. Much of the learning has been done online. This can be seen from the number of online classes that can be accessed by anyone, anytime and anywhere. Looking back, e-learning is nothing new. E-learning has been around for a long time. Howe & Knutzen (2012) quoted from Belaya (2018) stated that the concept of e-learning has existed since the 1990s. Eickhoff (2008) in Belaya (2018) believes that e-learning is not a new knowledge transfer method, but a way of presenting and delivering material using new media. Based on this opinion, e-learning tends to lead to the use of new media to convey and transfer information and knowledge to students. When e-learning was not yet developed, learning materials were presented in written and printed form, such as textbooks and other analog materials. However, with e-learning, the printed material is no longer used and has switched to digital forms, such as e-books.

B. Characteristics and Components of E-learning

The implementation of e-learning can be easily marked and recognized by the use of technology and electronic media in the learning process. However, in essence e-learning is still a learning process that involves educators, students, and all supporting materials. Bernard Lusk, one of the pioneers of e-learning, even interpreted the letter "e" in the term e-learning as enthusiastic, emotional, extended, excellent, and educational (Obuekwe & Eze, 2017). In addition, the letter "e" in the term e-learning can also be interpreted as exploration, experience, engagement, ease to use, and empowerment (Mutia & Leonard, 2013).

E-learning is expected to be able to provide opportunities for students to explore learning topics through learning resources available on the internet. So that e-learning allows students to gain experience learning according to their interests, talents, and abilities. The use of technology in e-learning is also expected to be able to attract students' interest and engagement in learning so that they can foster creativity and critical thinking skills. In addition, e-learning should also be easy to access and can empower students in learning.

Apart from having characteristics, e-learning also has components that ensure that e-learning runs well and smoothly so that learning objectives can be achieved (Ginaya, et al, 2020). Gottschalk (1995) mentions 5 important components in the implementation of e-learning (Mutia & Leonard, 2013).

- a. Students are the main component in e-learning. If students are not there, e-learning cannot take place. Elearning is said to be effective if it is able to facilitate the needs of students.
- b. Instructor as another major component. The instructor in the teaching and learning process has a very important role. An instructor must know the needs and characteristics of his students so that he/she can design effective e-learning. In addition, instructors also act as helpers who are always ready to help students when they need help in learning.
- c. Facilitator in e-learning as a supporting component. The facilitator acts as an extension of the instructor's hand. The facilitator is in charge of preparing equipment, supervising exams, and submitting assignments.
- d. Support staff. The support staff has almost the same duties as the facilitator who is responsible for arranging the scheduling, duplication and distribution of materials, and value processing.
- e. Administrators. Administrators in this case lead to managerial functions that are tasked with making decisions, making agreements, and conducting evaluations and ensuring that the academic focus remains in accordance with the vision and mission.

C. E-learning Category

As with the definition of e-learning, the category of e-learning also varies depending on the point of view used to classify it. The German Federal Academy of Public Administration divides e-learning into four forms, namely individual learning, tutorially supported learning, collaborative learning, and blended learning (Belaya, 2018).

- a. Individual learning is a type of e-learning that provides freedom for students to regulate their learning methods. In this form, only learning materials and resources available in the media are used online and there is no monitoring process from educators.
- b. Tutorially supported learning is a different type of individual learning. In individual learning, students do not get supervision from educators, while tutorially supported learning provides supervision for students.
- c. *Collaborative learning* is a learning process that occurs and involves virtual communities, such as classes.
- d. *Blended learning* is a combination of several types of learning. Blended learning combines individual learning, face-to-face learning and group work.

In addition to the four types of e-learning above, Horton divides e-learning into five major classifications, namely learner-led e-learning, instructor-led e-learning, facilitated e-learning, embedded e-learning, telementoring and e-coaching (Mutia & Leonard, 2013).

- a. *Learner-led E-learning* has in common with individual learning where students can learn independently. All learning materials and resources are posted online.
- b. *Instructor-led E-learning* is a type of e-learning in which educators present online learning material. This is like a face-to-face meeting, but done online.
- c. *Facilitated E-learning* is a combination of learner-led e-learning and instructor-led e-learning.
- d. *Embedded E-learning* is a just in time training where educators can provide assistance immediately when students need it.
- e. Telementory and e-coaching are distance learning and training guidance and are carried out like teleconferencing.

D. Pros and Cons of E-learning

E-learning has a variety of advantages that can be obtained by both students and educators themselves.

Some of the advantages of using e-learning (Mutia & Leonard, 2013) are as follows.

- a. The implementation of e-learning can reduce costs incurred for the learning process, such as the absence of costs for purchasing textbooks and printing tests and study materials.
- b. The implementation of e-learning allows educators and students to have the flexibility of time, place, speed of learning.
- c. *E-learning* has the same standards and effectiveness of learning. Whenever students access teaching resources and materials, the quality and standards of the sources and teaching materials remain the same.

In addition, other advantages will also be obtained from the implementation of e-learning, namely increasing interaction between students and educators and enabling students to learn according to their learning abilities and speed (Arkkorful & Abaidoo, 2015).

The implementation of e-learning allows for an increase in the quality of relationships and communication that occur between students and educators. Online education eliminates the existing boundaries between educators and students so there is no awkwardness for students to communicate and express their opinions. In addition, e-learning provides opportunities for students to learn according to their own abilities.

However, e-learning also has shortcomings that can be taken into consideration for educators in deciding the use of e-learning (Mutia & Leonard, 2013).

- a. Students and educators must have good computers and internet access so that learning can run well.
- b. Students will feel confused in learning considering the absence of class routines so that it will be a threat to students.
- c. Students and educators will have long distances in the absence of face-to-face meetings.

E. Choosing E-learning Media

In selecting media for the implementation of e-learning, there are several factors that can be considered by educators (Clarity Innovations).

- a. The selection of media for the implementation of e-learning should consider the learning objectives to be achieved at the end of the class.
- b. The budget that is owned by educators is that some media require users to make payments to get additional features.
- c. Learning activity plans can also be a consideration for having e-learning media, such as interactive communication support, videos, and other digital media.
- d. The type of assessment provided by e-learning media is also a consideration in choosing e-learning media.
- e. The type of communication supported by the media can also be taken into consideration for having e-learning media.
- f. The media design used for e-learning is one of the considerations for choosing e-learning media.
- g. Media accessibility can also determine whether a media can be used to carry out e-learning.

- h. The technical support provided is also an important factor in selecting media.

III. RESEARCH METHODS

This research was designed as a descriptive study. Descriptive research is research that aims to describe an event and its characteristics and leads to the “what” question (Nassaji, 2015). This study involved six English lecturers who teach at Tourism Department of Bali State Polytechnic. Data from six lecturers were obtained using online questionnaires. The data collected is then analyzed and interpreted so that conclusions can be drawn.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This research focuses on the implementation of e-learning for the English course Tourism in Tourism Department of Bali State Polytechnic during the Covid-19 pandemic. The results of the analysis refer to three important things related to the implementation of e-learning, namely the media used to implement e-learning, considerations in choosing the media used, and the advantages and disadvantages of implementing e-learning that were found and felt during e-learning during the Covid-19 pandemic. Apart from these three things, the study also found that 50% of the respondents (three people) organized e-learning for the first time. Two out of six lecturers (33.3%) said that they had implemented e-learning before the Covid-19 pandemic.

A. *E-learning Media*

There are various learning management systems (LMS) or learning management systems available today. In fact, educators can take advantage of social media and instant message features to carry out e-learning. The data obtained from respondents in this study shows a tendency in the selection of media used to implement e-learning.

a. *Google Classroom*

All respondents (100%) said that they used Google Classroom to organize e-learning for Tourism English courses. Google Classroom is the most popular medium for educators in implementing e-learning. This platform provides facilities for interactive communication in text form.

b. *Zoom*

There are 5 respondents (83.3%) who also use the Zoom application to implement e-learning. This application allows educators and students to meet face to face online so that educators can provide instructions and explain teaching materials directly.

c. *Edmodo*

Only 1 respondent (16.7%) used the Edmodo application to organize e-learning. Edmodo is an e-learning application that allows users to upload teaching materials and conduct discussions online.

d. *WhatsApp*

In addition to the three applications and platforms mentioned, some lecturers also take advantage of the WhatsApp instant message application by using the video call or video message feature.

e. *YouTube*

YouTube is also one of the media used by lecturers to organize e-learning. Students can access videos that are relevant to the learning topic being studied.

The media selection is based on several categories of e-learning conducted by the respondents. This is in accordance with the e-learning category put forward by Horton, quoted from Mutia & Leonard (2013).

a. *Facilitated E-learning*

Five out of six respondents (83.3%) said that the teaching material was sent online and then carried out interactive communication with students. The lecturer provided further explanation about the material and learning topics so that confusion and student problems during online learning could be answered and assisted by the lecturer concerned.

b. *Learner-led E-learning*

There were two lecturers out of six respondents who only uploaded materials and learning resources online and then provided opportunities for students to study independently according to their learning abilities.

c. *Instructor-led E-learning*

Similar to learner-led e-learning, there were two respondents who said that the respondents explained all learning materials and topics in an interactive and communicative manner without uploading learning materials online.

d. *Embedded E-learning*

There was only one respondent who did embedded e-learning, which was only giving directions to students if they needed help and guidance. Lecturers provided opportunities for students to find and find suitable learning materials and resources. If there was a problem, students could ask questions and ask for help from the lecturer.

From the results of the analysis of the media and the e-learning categories used by research respondents, it can be seen that the lecturers who are the respondents of this study tend to implement facilitated learning where the respondents will upload learning materials and resources online and then provide an explanation of the material and topics. Seeing the trends in the e-learning categories being used, Google Classroom provides features that can support these e-learning categories.

B. Factors to Consider the Selection of E-learning Media

In choosing the e-learning media to be implemented, the respondents have several factors to consider. The results of the analysis show several factors that are thought by respondents in determining the e-learning media.

a. Accessibility

Media accessibility is an important factor that determines whether users will use a media or not. An e-learning media should have easy accessibility. The easier the accessibility, the more attractive it is to users. This factor was chosen by five out of six respondents (83.3%).

b. Supported media devices

Teaching and learning activities involve a variety of media, such as audio, visual, and even audiovisual. Reflecting on this, it is important for educators to consider support for ease of uploading instructional media. E-learning platforms or LMS that are compatible with various types of learning media will be widely used. Some LMSs and e-learning platforms do not provide access to upload videos and some do not have the feature to upload images. As many as four out of six respondents (66.7%) agreed that supporting media was important in choosing an LMS or e-learning platform.

c. Communication features provided

The results of the analysis of the applied e-learning category found that respondents tended to carry out facilitated e-learning. This is what makes the communication features available in an LMS and e-learning platform one of the factors of consideration for educators in choosing e-learning media. The more communication features provided, the more users tend to choose it. It is also not surprising why there are various e-learning media used by respondents where the selection is based on the type of communication required. This was stated by four out of six respondents (66.7%).

d. Assessment process and type

The types and assessment systems provided by e-learning media are important factors in choosing a medium for implementing e-learning. Assessment cannot be separated from the teaching and learning process. There are various types of assessment used in the learning process that are tailored to the things or learning improvements that want to be measured. Three out of six respondents (50%) stated that it was important to consider the types of assessment available in an LMS or e-learning platform.

e. Design

Design is also a consideration for respondents to choose an e-learning media. Design will add to the aesthetic value of a lesson. There are three out of six respondents (50%) who stated that design is a factor in choosing the media to implement e-learning.

f. Price

Some LMSs and e-learning platforms require their users to pay a certain price or subscribe to enjoy some of the additional features provided. Judging from the media used, respondents tend to choose e-learning media that is not paid, such as Google Classroom, Edmodo, Zoom, and WhatsApp and YouTube. Almost all respondents agree that price is a consideration in choosing media to implement e-learning. These considerations are in line with what is contained in the Learning Management System Toolkit written by Clarity Innovations, namely accessibility, supporting media, communication features, types of assessment supported, design, and price.

C. The Advantages and Disadvantages of Implementing E-learning

The final focus discussed in this study is the advantages and disadvantages of implementing e-learning that were encountered and felt by respondents in implementing e-learning during the Covid-19 pandemic. Based on the results of the analysis, the advantages of implementing e-learning can be explained as follows.

a. Provide opportunities for students to study according to their abilities

As many as 83.3% or five out of six respondents agreed that the implementation of e-learning provides opportunities for students to study according to their abilities. Students are not forced to study beyond their ability and speed so that students do not feel overwhelmed in the learning process. This is in accordance with Arkkorful & Abaidoo (2015).

b. Provide opportunities for students and lecturers to be more innovative and creative

There are five out of six respondents who stated that the implementation of e-learning provided opportunities for students and lecturers to be more innovative and creative. With the use of technology, it always makes students and lecturers find new ways of learning. This is in line with what was stated by Jethro et al (2012).

c. Provides flexibility in study time

Mutia & Leonard (2013) stated that the implementation of e-learning allows students and teachers to have flexible time. This is supported by the results of the analysis in this study where there were four out of six respondents who stated that they had flexible time in learning.

d. Provide easy access to learning resources

The use of technology and the internet in the implementation of e-learning makes it easy for students and lecturers to access learning resources. As many as 50% of respondents agreed to this advantage.

In addition to finding the advantages of implementing e-learning, respondents also encountered several shortcomings that were present in the implementation of online Tourism English learning. The results of the analysis of the shortcomings in the use of e-learning are described as follows.

a. Uneven internet access

Uneven internet access is a fundamental issue encountered in the implementation of e-learning. As stated by Mutia & Leonard (2013), to get an effective e-learning process, students and lecturers must have good internet access and equipment. A total of five people out of six respondents encountered this problem in implementing e-learning.

b. Limitations of the types of assessments available

This type of assessment is an important focus in the teaching and learning process. This was stated by four out of six respondents who were involved in this study.

c. The interaction between lecturers and students becomes more distant

Mutia & Leonard (2013) said that the implementation of e-learning can result in the interaction between students and lecturers being not warm. This was also found by 50% of respondents who joined this study. The three respondents agreed that the absence of face to face results in the relationship and communication between students and lecturers becoming distant.

In its implementation, e-learning provides several benefits for both students and lecturers. But on the other hand, several obstacles were also found in its implementation.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The implementation of e-learning in learning English in Tourism during the Covid-19 pandemic is nothing new for the lecturer who teaches the Tourism English course at the Bali State Polytechnic Tourism Department. They choose the media for implementing e-learning based on several factors of consideration, including accessibility, supporting media, and communication features. The implementation of e-learning in tourism English learning has various advantages or benefits but also has several obstacles that must be faced by students and lecturers. One of the obstacles that are a scourge especially for students is the internet quota they have to buy which can burden their parents in the midst of a pandemic where many of their parents are affected, such as being laid off and reducing their income.

The implementation of online learning in the Tourism Department of Bali State Polytechnic, which includes the English Tourism course in the three study programs, is getting used to teaching lecturers, especially after the IT lecturer team in the Department created an online course evidence management system (SIMBUKULON). The online lecture reporting system can be accessed by lecturers who teach courses in the Department by using the employee's registered number or NIP as a password, making it easier for them to upload proof of their online lectures after the learning-catch-up process is complete. In addition, the online lecture proof files for each lecturer are stored neatly in SIMBUKULON. It can be suggested that lecturers who teach Tourism English courses should be even more creative in creating innovative Tourism English learning content by collaborating with IT lecturers and core subject lecturers to make learning more contextual and integrated between language and content.

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Exploration of the Second Time Development of ESP Materials: Classroom Practice and Teachers' Roles

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Abstract—This study investigates teachers' second time development of ESP materials in the context of ESP curriculum reform in a Chinese university where a newly published series of textbooks are used. Data collected from classroom observations were analyzed to reveal teachers' practice in the second time development of materials. Semi-structured interviews with ESP teachers were conducted to disclose the hidden agendas of teachers by a thorough thematic analysis. Results show that teachers' second time development techniques mainly include omitting the "Researching Task" part, supplementing more "critical thinking" tasks, glancing through the "Reading Strategies" and simplifying the interpretation of discipline-related content. More advanced development strategies such as adding more discipline-related knowledge, changing the instructional sequence, reconstructing or creating certain contents are seldom used. The overall second time development practice indicates that teachers would rather simplify the teaching process than make it meaningful. Inability, laziness, the lack of awareness, and fear of making mistakes are the main causes of teachers' rudimentary development practice. This study then suggests that institutions and teacher educators should offer special programs that can improve teachers' skills in the second time development of teaching materials, take measures to enhance ESP teachers' disciplinary/content knowledge, and enforce rigorous management so as to make the second development of ESP materials more effective and thus improve the quality and efficiency of ESP teaching and learning.

Index Terms—the second time development of materials, ESP courses, classroom practice, hidden agendas, suggestions

I. INTRODUCTION

A teacher often finds that it is necessary for him/her to adapt provided materials to optimize language learning (Macalister, 2016). This process of material adaptation is also labeled as "the second time development of language materials" to emphasize teachers' innovative roles in the use of already published textbooks (Wang, Yu, Wang, Shi, & Dong, 2016). The second time development of language materials is rather important to teaching and learning as it is usually an indispensable step for teachers to make their teaching more effective and interesting (Cheng & Sun, 2011, p. 123). In China, ESP courses have received special attention from the academia and institutions of tertiary education in the past few years in the context of college English course teaching reform. Some local ESP textbooks have been published to meet both teachers' and students' needs. However, there is a relatively small body of literature that is concerned with teachers' second time development of ESP materials. This paper is to therefore to fill this gap by exploring why ESP teachers decided (not) to make certain adjustments/adaptations through a qualitative study in a science and engineering university (which will be addressed as "University Z" in this paper) in China where ESP reform has been implemented for several years. Implications for institutions, teacher educators and teachers are presented to make the second development of ESP materials more effective and thus improve the quality and efficiency of ESP teaching and learning.

II. METHODOLOGY

This study sought to answer the following specific research questions:

1. What techniques do teachers use to conduct the second time development of ESP materials in classroom practice?
2. Why do teachers use these techniques? Why don't they use other techniques?
3. What can be done to improve teachers' skills in the second time development of ESP materials?

To address these research questions, qualitative data were collected in the following two ways. Firstly, the researcher observed the online and offline ESP courses taught by teachers in University Z and took field notes which were mainly about the material adaption teachers have made in both real and virtual classrooms. Secondly, the researcher summarized and classified the adaption practice and conducted in-depth interviews with five of the ESP teachers to elicit teachers' hidden ideologies (i.e. why they used or why they did not use certain adapting techniques).

A. Research Setting: University Z and the ESP Materials Used in the ESP Courses

The university where this research was conducted will be addressed as University Z in this paper. University Z is a tertiary institution which features science and engineering disciplines, so there has been an appeal for ESP courses for a long time to make language education conducive to the development of those preponderant disciplines. Since 2015, final decision was made to implement a policy of initiating ESP courses and switching from general English to ESP step by step, for the sake of the institution and the future of the students. ESP courses were soon offered by the college of foreign studies of the university. At that time, the teachers had little experience of ESP teaching, nor did they have any knowledge of the corresponding disciplines (for example, chemical engineering, mechanical engineering, etc.). Initially the teachers collected some materials and designed their lessons by themselves. Two years later the dean launched a textbook editing program to develop some formal ESP materials. Finally a series of ESP textbooks were successfully edited and published by a famous publishing house in China and were introduced to the ESP courses in University Z. This series includes eight ESP textbooks of very different disciplines, but the structure of each textbook is rather similar. There are several units in each book. Each unit contains two sections: Section A includes Pre-reading, Text A, Reading comprehension, Language focus, Critical thinking and Researching task. Among these parts, critical thinking claims to encourage independent thoughts on certain disciplinary topics. The following is a typical example in this part: "Large areas of natural vegetation and forests have been cleared to grow plants for biofuels, which has become a controversial topic. Share your opinion with the class". Researching task is a part aimed at improving academic skills. For example, this part may introduce how to collect data in a research project or how to write an abstract for an academic paper. Section B is designed for supplementary reading, with a part labeled as "Reading Strategies" focusing on different reading skills of disciplinary texts in English and a text (Text B). For instance, students may be required to learn how to identify the structure of a complex sentence in a disciplinary text.

B. Participants

All the five participants in this research have been teaching general English for more than ten years, but none of them have been teaching ESP for more than five years. The participants' profiles are presented in Table I. They are addressed by codes for ethic consideration. P2 and P5 were also editors of the published textbooks that have been used in their ESP courses.

TABLE I
PARTICIPANTS' INFORMATION

Participants	Gender	Title	teaching experiences of ESP
P1	female	associate professor	3 years
P2	female	lecturer	4 years
P3	female	associate professor	5 years
P4	female	lecturer	4 years
P5	male	lecturer	5 years

C. Data Collection

With the participants' permission, the researcher attended their offline courses and watched the online MOOCs and recorded the teaching practice in field notes. By making a comparison and contrast between the actual teaching procedures and the contents in the ESP textbooks, the researcher detailed the teachers' second time development of the ESP materials. Teachers' materials development activities or techniques were then analyzed and classified. In order to get a comprehensive image, the researcher also recorded how the teachers *adopted* and followed the textbooks in the field notes. To reveal the hidden agendas, five ESP teachers were then invited in interviews in which questions about their teaching practice, the adaptation they made to the published ESP materials, and the reasons why they decided (not) to use certain adapting strategies were asked. Each of the participants was interviewed for about twenty minutes. Throughout the interview, all of them were encouraged to tell what they really thought.

D. Data Analysis

The researcher conducted thematic analysis of the above-mentioned field notes and in-depth interview data, which had been transcribed into texts and coded word by word in three rounds. Themes emerging from the three rounds of coding were treated as complementary resources. The themes summarized from the field notes of classroom observation clearly presented teachers' second time development of ESP materials while the interview data mainly revealed why they used (or why they did not use) certain adapting techniques.

III. RESULTS

A. Teachers' Classroom Practice in the Second Time Development of ESP Materials

By summarizing what has been discussed in the available literature (Sherin & Drake, 2009; Cheng & Sun, 2011; McDonough, Shaw & Masuhara, 2013; Macalister, 2016; Leufer, Prediger, Mahns, & Kortenkamp, 2019), techniques of the second time material development mainly include omitting, supplementing, simplifying, modifying, sorting,

reordering, replacing, reconstructing or creating certain contents. Based on that, the researcher made an analysis of the field notes of classroom observation and categorized the teachers' material development practice. Results indicate that teachers made the second time development of the ESP materials mainly by adopting the following strategies.

1. Omitting the "Researching Task" part

The "Researching Task" is a rather important part of this series of ESP materials, which reflects the material editors' attention to students' skills of doing academic research. In the preface of each material, the editorial board highlights the objective of improving academic skills through academic training and learning academic English. This objective is also listed at the beginning of each unit. Therefore, this part is indispensable in the teaching practice. However, classroom observation data reveals that most teachers omitted this part in both offline teaching and the Moocs, or just made it an optional after-class task. The time for teaching and developing academic skills was given to vocabulary learning: in Moocs, teachers spent a lot of time (approximately one fourth of the time spent on a unit) explaining the words with different meanings in general English and English for specific purposes, or dealing with terminology; in offline classrooms, students were even asked to read the new words and expressions after the teacher, which cost a lot of time; teachers also explained rigorously the vocabulary exercises in "reading comprehension" and "language focus" in class. Omitting the "Researching Task" is likely to render the objective of cultivating academic skills an "empty talk".

2. Supplementing more "Critical thinking" tasks

"Critical thinking" is a part in which two or three disciplinary questions or topics (usually pertinent to the topic of Text A) are presented as tasks for discussion. Students can enhance their independent thinking on disciplinary issues and improve their ability to express ideas freely in English for specific purposes. Classroom observation results show that teachers usually extended this part by adding another three or four "critical thinking" tasks. Usually the teacher would divide the whole class into several groups and each group was supposed to share viewpoints on the topics. The discussion session would occupy one fourth (or even more) of the time for a unit. It seemed that the discussions were heated, but students told the researcher that the preparation time was so short (as there were so many topics for discussion and presentation) that they could not fully explore each of the questions or topics. Moreover, teachers' comments on the discussions were usually short and not enlightening. Therefore, students were unlikely to deepen their understanding of the discipline-related topics through the "critical thinking" tasks, and they could not get effective feedback to improve their academic English.

3. Glancing through the "Reading Strategies" part

The text structure, the writing style, the structure of each sentence, the diction, etc. of texts in ESP courses are all different from those in a general English course. Students who are not familiar with the characteristics of ESP writing may find the articles difficult to read or understand. "Reading Strategies" in this series of ESP materials are actually a critical part aimed at helping students grasp skills of reading the long and difficult discipline-related texts. However, it seemed that teachers reckoned "Reading Strategies" as a part of general English courses, as they just glanced through it by dealing with two or three simple reading comprehension exercises. The exercises they let students do were not different from those in a general English course. For example, the teacher would just analyze the structure of a sentence by picking up the major components such as the subjects, predicates and objects. He/she seldom analyzed the style of the writing from a disciplinary perspective. Therefore, the students were unable to be aware of the reasons why the texts were difficult to read and many of them told the researcher that they felt confused about the purpose of this part because it seemed that all the skills mentioned by the teachers had already been discussed in general college English courses or even in their high school English courses.

4. Simplifying interpretation of discipline-related contents

One more feature that emerged from the ESP teachers' second time material development practice was that they tried to simplify their interpretation of the disciplinary knowledge in the texts. Actually, it seems to be safe if one labels the teaching method as "grammar-translation" because the foci in these ESP classes were vocabulary, grammatical analysis of difficult sentences, and translation of the texts. The researcher found that a typical lesson began with the explanation of new words and phrases (as is discussed above), then the teacher(s) wrote down some long and difficult sentences (usually no more than five sentences, which were selected from the texts) and explained a bit. Then much of the time was spent on the literal translation of the texts. Usually it was the teacher(s) who did the translation, but sometimes the students may also be asked to share their opinions. After the translation, a few reading comprehension questions and some language enhancement exercises (e.g. vocabulary exercises such as matching, blank filling, etc.) would be covered. Little time would be left; so the explanation or interpretation of the disciplinary contents was usually shallow.

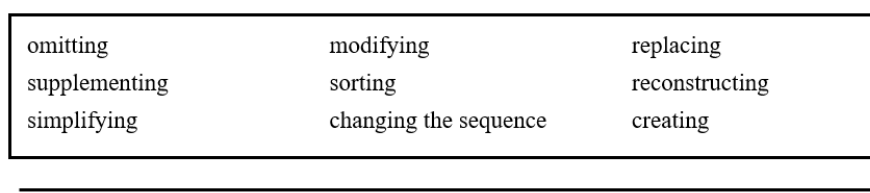


Figure 1. A spectrum of teachers' second time development of ESP materials

The results described above reveal the specific techniques the ESP teachers used in their material adapting practice. Inspired by the adaptation spectrum described by Sherin and Drake (2009, p. 487), a spectrum of teachers' second time development of ESP materials is presented in Figure 1 based on the different levels of teachers' innovations in the teaching process.

In this spectrum, teachers' second time material development strategies roughly fall into three different levels based on their agency exercised in the material adapting practice. Compared with omitting, supplementing and simplifying (level 1), teachers exerted more agency when they modified, sorted, or reordered the materials (level 2). And replacing, reconstructing materials or creating new materials (level 3) need more teacher agency than modifying, sorting or reordering. Based on the above analysis of the data collected from classroom observation, what can be seen is that the ESP teachers mainly made level 1 adaptation; the development practice seldom reached level 2 or level 3. Their development efforts are actually rudimentary, and it can be concluded that the purpose of their efforts is to simplify their teaching instead of making it more effective.

B. The Hidden Agendas in Teachers' Second Time Development of ESP Materials

In order to find out why the ESP teachers made adaptation at level 1 instead of level 2 or level 3, the researcher conducted in-depth interviews with them to elicit the hidden agendas. By a thematic analysis of the interview data, four major reasons emerged: teachers' poor academic and adapting skills, their unwillingness to change, the lack of awareness of second time development of materials, and the fear of making mistakes due to their insufficient disciplinary knowledge.

1. Inability

This section reveals teachers' inability to conduct second time development of ESP materials from two aspects: teachers' poor academic skills and their poor knowledge of material adaptation. All the five teachers who participated in this research mentioned that they omitted "researching task" mainly because of their lack of academic skills. P1, an associate professor who has been teaching for more than 20 years, admitted this:

I am not good at writing academic papers as I have not got systematic academic training. I became an associate professor in 2006, but to be honest, at that time the requirements for academic publication were not difficult to meet. As you know, we are now required to publish in SCI/SSCI indexed journals. I am afraid that I have not published any. I have not got rich experience in academic writing myself; how can I teach "Researching Task"? So in class I just omitted this part.

The above excerpt shows that P1 was unable to teach how to conduct academic research or publish academic papers because the teacher herself could not do this either. This inability deprived her of the confidence in teaching "Researching Task". While this is the main reason why most teachers omitted this part, they also mentioned that their poor knowledge in adaptation was another obstacle to their material development practice. P2 said:

I know little about material adaptation or second development of materials although I participated in the editing of one ESP textbook. I never learned relevant theories. In ESP courses, I usually just follow the textbook. Sometimes I would change something, but I just did that inadvertently.

What P1's and P2 said can be understood as indicators of teachers' incompetence to conduct second time development of ESP materials.

2. "Laziness"

Another cause of teachers' rudimentary ESP material adaptation practice is their "laziness". The four female teachers all mentioned that they spent a lot of time on family chores, and all the five participants complained that they were hit with a blizzard of workload. P3 directly pointed out:

I am always busy. Actually I feel overwhelmed sometimes. You know, I have to take care of my child. She is now in high school, preparing for the college entrance examination. This is a big deal for my family and me. I have spent a lot of time on her. What's more, I need to teach many different lessons recently. I cannot publish any paper in good academic journals so I have to teach as many courses as possible (to compensate for my poor academic skills). The ESP course is just a small proportion of my work, and I don't think it is necessary for me to conduct any second time development of the ESP materials. You can regard me as a lazy ESP teacher, if you like (smile).

The above remarks show that although teachers are busy, they still can be labeled as "lazy" teachers (at least, lazy ESP teachers). Time famine is, to a certain extent, the stock excuse for their laziness. They are reluctant to exercise any agency in the ESP materials; the ultimate objective is just to complete the teaching task.

3. Lack of awareness

Teachers also showed poor awareness of ESP material adaptation, which is another reason why their adapting practice just reached level 1. According to data from the interview, most teachers didn't know they needed to make material adaptation until they were asked by the researcher. P4, who have taught ESP courses for 4 years, said that:

In the first two years, we didn't have any formal textbook. The department director built up a team to search for materials on the Internet. I did not join that team; I just used the materials they gave me. In the next two years, we have got textbooks, which were published by an authoritative publishing house. I thought I could just follow these authoritative books.

ESP teachers believe that published textbooks or the materials assigned by the institution are authoritative, so what they need to do is just to follow. They have not realized the importance of the second time development of materials, as

is also revealed in P3's remarks:

I think the textbooks are good and enough. If we have to adapt these materials, why do we need to publish the textbooks? Moreover, I believe the textbooks are enough for my ESP students. Many of them only have a low level of English, there is no need to bother them, or myself (by making adaptation).

4. Fear of making mistakes

Teachers' fear of making mistakes is another cause of their low level of second time development of ESP materials. Almost all teachers who are now teaching ESP courses were previously general English teachers. They majored mainly in British or American literature, or linguistics or applied linguistics. So few of them had any disciplinary knowledge. Therefore, they showed little confidence in modifying or reconstructing discipline-related materials. P5, the department director, is the only one among the five participants who had once tried to make some adaptation to the materials. However, after some unsuccessful trials, he gave up:

I remembered I had found some supplementary materials in another science book and presented them in my ESP class. But after class one of my students told me that the notion discussed in one material was actually out-of-date and was criticized by many scientists. I felt embarrassed. If I knew that, I could have designed some other discussion activities instead of adding that material. This incident made me realize that I could not make right judgment about materials that are unfamiliar to me. Afterwards, I just followed the textbook. That made me feel safe.

From P5's experience, we can clearly feel the dilemma the ESP teachers are faced with. They may run into difficulties at any time because of the lack of disciplinary knowledge. To them, the second time development of ESP materials is another potential cause of trouble. Therefore, most teachers would choose to "teach off a blackboard" instead of excising their agency.

IV. MEASURES TO OPTIMIZE TEACHERS' SECOND TIME DEVELOPMENT OF ESP MATERIALS

In the previous sections, the researcher conducted an investigation into the status quo of the ESP material adaptation practice in a Chinese university, and analyzed the reasons why the adaptation is rudimentary. Based on these findings, this section aims at making some suggestions to help teachers improve their skills in the second time development of ESP materials. As is revealed above, material adaptation is a complex and multifaceted problem; therefore, a package of measures need to be taken into consideration.

First of all, it is suggested that teacher educators should offer special programs to improve teachers' second time material development skills. Apart from making ESP teachers realize the importance of this issue, such programs need to tell ESP teachers what they can actually do and what specific techniques they can use in the adapting practice. Moreover, the programs should guide teachers to make the best use of online resources. For example, it is necessary for teachers to know where they can get cutting-edge and authoritative information of a specific discipline.

Besides, measures to enhance teachers' disciplinary/content knowledge must be taken. It may be difficult for ESP teachers to get a deep and thorough understanding of every aspect of a discipline, but basic knowledge is needed and it is also more likely to be acquired. It would be an easy job for institutions like University Z (where this research was conducted) to bring ESP teachers and disciplinary teachers together. Once a cooperative relationship is formed, ESP teachers can consult their colleagues (i.e. the teachers teaching specific disciplines) when they encounter disciplinary problems. It is also advised that institutions directly offer relevant special training programs to the ESP teachers. Only when they have confidence in their disciplinary/content knowledge can the teachers be confident in the second time development of ESP materials.

In addition, rigorous management system is also needed. On the one hand, it is indispensable to set requirements/yardstick that must be followed by ESP teachers. Teachers can guide students to do academic research or write academic papers only when they can do the same by themselves. To make ESP teachers become experienced researchers, academic study and publication should be defined as an important part in the appraisal system of ESP teachers, and institutions and teacher educators should give priority to academic training. On the other hand, measures should be taken to keep the ESP staff stable. Suppose one teacher is teaching English for material science. He/she should be encouraged to teach the same course for the next few years. As experience accumulates, the teacher would gradually be able to make higher level material adaptation (i.e. the second time development of materials at level 2 or level 3 in Figure 1). Moreover, it is highly advised the ESP teaching team be specialized. In other words, ESP teachers should just focus on ESP courses (instead of teaching both ESP and general English at the same time). Only in this way can these teachers become expert in ESP teaching, and thus become expert in the second time development of ESP materials.

V. CONCLUSIONS

By conducting a qualitative study in a Chinese university, this research reveals teachers' practice in the second time development of ESP materials and discloses the hidden agendas from a micro perspective. Possible measures that can be adopted to optimize the second time development of ESP materials are also proposed. As an important way to realize effective, individualized and contextualized teaching, the second time development of language materials deserve more attention from the academia. Suggestions for future studies may include conducting research in other institutions or

countries to check whether the results will be different and whether there are other hidden discourses to be found. Researchers may also be interested in a diachronic investigation of the ever-changing material adapting practice as a result of the dynamics of all kinds of factors.

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Power-oriented and Rapport-oriented Interruptions Among Professional Women in Small Group Conversations

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Abstract—Interruptions in conversations have long been regarded in negative ways and are associated with dominance and power. The purpose of this study is to examine if women in the professional field interrupt each other in casual conversations with the intention to show power or to show rapport. The samples for this study were the verbal utterances and the interview data from the selected three professional women participants. The utterances among the participants were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed using the Goldberg (1990) model for interruptions. Subsequently, Murata's (1994) and Kennedy and Camden's (1983) sub-categories for interruption analysis were also applied for a detailed analysis. The linguistic elements that existed within the interaction were examined to find out if the speakers demonstrated power-oriented interruptions (intrusive) or rapport-oriented interruptions (cooperative). The study reveals that the function of interruptions in conversations may not be for the purpose of portraying dominance alone. Interruptions among speakers that are supportive and cooperative, promoted solidarity among speakers. This study is significant to understand that with interruptions, speakers can work out a topic or a conversation together to produce a shared meaning. Interruptions could be power-oriented or rapport-oriented, depending on the functions assumed in the context.

Index Terms—power-oriented interruption, rapport-oriented interruption, dominance, intrusive, cooperative

I. INTRODUCTION

Interruptions in conversations have long been regarded in a negative way and are associated with dominance and power. Research carried out in the past shows that men and women have different communicative competence (Coates & Pichler, 2011). Interruptions in conversations have the potential to disrupt utterances of the speakers and disorganize the constructions of conversational topics (West & Zimmerman, 1983). Furthermore, interruptions violate a speaker's right to be engaged in a conversation. Individuals who interrupt repeatedly are usually seen as authoritarian and domineering. However, some studies show that interruptions in a conversation can also act constructively in rescuing and promoting group discussions (Hung, Brooke & Dunne, 1995). Interruptions can at times be neutral and is not associated with violation of the speakers' right on others (James & Clarke, 1993).

The basic assumption of a successful communication is assumed that interruptions exhibit disrespect and rudeness for a speaker. It is also believed that interruptions limit the opportunities for the speakers to share ideas as well as sanction interrupters to dominate the topic of conversation and to exercise control over their conversational acquaintance (Greif, 1980; Zimmerman & West, 1975). What people perceive as an interruption varies systematically across different speakers and speech acts (Shashkevich, 2018). Specifically, interruption acts are deciphered as ways of instituting and upholding a status distinction. According to James and Clarke (1993), a substantial percentage of interruptions in interaction may not be disruptive or dominance related. Interruptions can help speakers to discuss a topic together and create a collective meaning. In other words, interruptions could function as power-oriented (intrusive) or rapport-oriented (cooperative), based on the roles of conversations adopted in the context (Dunne & Ng, 1994). Interruptions may serve to indicate and encourage solidarity between speakers (James & Clarke 1993). Although there are many articles and books written on interruptions, most of the studies were done on men versus women speakers. Very little research has been done on all women speakers, especially in the Malaysian context. Studies done were mainly on linguistics features that men frequently used in their speech to portray dominant roles. Findings on the use of interruptions by women were overlooked. More new and exhilarating analysis on women's conversation is necessary to understand how interruptions serve various purposes in conversations. There are other eminent details which must be investigated namely, interruptions and their functions in professional women's casual conversations.

Power-oriented interruptions allow a speaker to take over the floor when the first speaker is still speaking or has not completed his or her utterances (James & Clarke 1993). Women are normally identified with the notion of solidarity and cooperation as they support and strengthen rapport more than men (Tannen, 1992; Coates, 1989; Aries, 1976), and

their conversations are inclined towards cooperation and substantiating support. Hence, the present study on interruptions in an all-women small group conversation may provide an impetus for avid researchers who strive to examine more on conversational interruptions among professional women in the present era. From this study, other researchers may be able to further understand that the function of interruptions in conversations may not be for the purpose of portraying dominance alone. Interruptions among speakers that are supportive and cooperative, may promote solidarity among speakers.

This study aims to find out if women in the professional field interrupt each other during casual conversations with the intention of indicating power or rapport. During the face-to-face interactions, the participants' non-verbal and verbal communication were observed to discern how and why a particular speaker interrupts another speaker's utterances. The linguistic elements that prevailed within the interactions and manifested power-oriented interruptions (intrusive) or rapport-oriented interruptions (cooperative) were discussed. A small group of professional Malaysian women speakers were chosen for critical analysis on their utterances. Hence, the purpose of this study is to examine how and why interruptions take place among professional women. The study was analyzed using the following research questions:

1. How are interruptions executed linguistically and non-linguistically among the professional women?
2. What are the most frequently exhibited interruptions among the participants?
3. Do the participants' status and position at the workplace influence the way interruptions take place?
4. How does one feel about being interrupted in conversations?

The scope of the study was limited to examining conversations among a small group of professional women speakers from the same workplace. The utterances of the speakers were analyzed using the Goldberg (1990) model for interruptions. Sub-categories for interruption analysis by Murata (1994) and Kennedy & Camden (1983) were used for detailed analysis. The limited scope allowed analysis of the various types of interruptions that took place among the speakers in the group conversations.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

People are constantly involved in communication with others. The ability to make a communicative process appropriate in a certain context depends on a person's communicative competence (Gravano & Hirschberg, 2012). People use various communicative strategies for various purposes. Numerous studies on interruptions and gender show significant irregularities between men and women during conversations. As women's participation in the professional fields increases, more demands are made for them to adapt to the linguistic norms of the public domain. It is perceived that their adaptation to a more competitive discourse style ensures success in other problems as well (Michael et al. (2010). Certain speakers can use discursive resources to handle the function of an organization in both the story world and the real world and so do leadership and conversation into being a leader identity (Clifton, 2014). It was found that men interrupt more frequently than women to hold the floor (Zimmerman & West, 1975; Bohn & Stutman, 1983; West & Zimmerman, 1983; Jariah Mohd. Jan, 1999). Interruptions are normally coupled with power and dominance in conversations. Ghafar Samar and Alibakhshi (2007) discovered that the most powerful speaker interrupts and holds the floor more than the other speakers who are less powerful in their study on Iranian men and women. The researchers also discovered that the connection between power and interruption is evidently obvious. Holmes and Stubbe (2003) postulate that one of the different ways of defining power, from a sociological or psychological perspective, is that it is "treated as a relative concept which includes both the ability to control others and the ability to accomplish one's goals" (p.3). This notion is conflicting to the ideas presented by researchers such as Miller (1976) and Rich (1976) where they view the meaning of power as not necessarily entailing domination over others. It is an "autonomous action based on one's beliefs and abilities" (both as cited in Kramarae et al., (1984), p.11). The study, therefore, develops on this concept by differentiating between intentional and unintentional influence. Factors such as authority, manipulation, persuasion and force have become various approaches to accomplishing intentional consequence in conversations.

Ng and Bradac (1993) have a parallel understanding of the theory of power, distinguishing between two diverse senses of the concept, those of "power to" and "power over." They derived on the work of Russell (1938) in their account of "power to," whereby power is defined as the manufacture of envisioning effects. These effects are then divided into two sub-groups, with the positive effect of "power to" being the recognition of individual or collective goals, and the negative effect that warrant the impediment of other's attainment of goals. "Power over" is defined as the relational facet of power, whereby "one person has power over another person when the two stands in a relationship of dominance and submission (p.3)." There are other studies that show interruptions bring about solidarity and support (Booth-Butterfield & Booth-Butterfield, 1988; Coates, 1989). James and Clarke (1993) emphasized that not all the interruptions or overlaps are indications of dominance. In fact, interruption can demonstrate the interrupter's supportive approaches rather than disruptive conduct. They deem that "... the extent to which an interruption is interpreted as negative and disruptive is probably not a black and white matter, but rather a matter of degree" (James & Clarke, 1993, p. 241).

In 1977, Nicola Ferguson established an alternative method for categorizing simultaneous communication. This method involved four categories: simple interruptions, butting-in interruptions, overlaps and silent interruptions. These categories contrasted with a 'perfect speaker switch' – where the first speaker completes his turn, and no simultaneous speech takes place. Ferguson included interruptive behaviour in her typology, that is the 'silent interruptions'. Silent

interruptions depict occasions when the second speaker begins to talk instantly upon the first speaker's completion of the utterance of a word while in mid turn (James & Clarke 1993). Subsequently, the first speaker stops talking and gives up the turn. This act is executed so quickly that no simultaneous speech occurs, henceforth the term *silent* interruption. Cafaro, Glas and Catherine Pelachaud (2016) conducted an experiential study to examine whether various interruption types (i.e. amount of overlap between speakers and utterance completeness) and approaches (disruptive vs. cooperative) in agent mediators in an interaction have any influence on apparent agents' interpersonal manner, commitment and participation. They discovered that the interruption style has an additional impact on the perceived approaches of the agents, while in the use of a cooperative strategy (as contrasting to a disruptive one) an interrupter is observed as being more involved and more immersed in the interaction. To fulfill the literature gap, in this present study, the various types of interruptions were analyzed to find out if a speaker's intention was to demonstrate power or to show rapport.

III. METHODOLOGY

This qualitative study approach distinguished between two types of interactional pressures as shown in Goldberg's categorization. The data collection procedure was guided by discourse features characterizing interruptive acts and the participants' responses to the interruptive acts. The participants' responses were analyzed based on context and the interpretive context. The theoretical framework focused on Goldberg's (1990) divided interruptions along the power-rapport continuum and provided a means for assessing the meaning of each interruption.

TABLE 1
CLASSIFICATIONS OF INTERRUPTIONS ACCORDING TO GOLDBERG (1990)

i.	Power-oriented interruptions	They are broadly heard as impolite, intrusive, and inappropriate, revealing the interrupter's aggression, dislike or apathy towards the interrupted speaker or the talk at hand.
ii.	Rapport-oriented interruptions	They are generally inferred as interpretation of empathy, solidarity, or interest.

TABLE 2
SUB-CATEGORIES OF POWER-ORIENTED AND RAPPORT-ORIENTED INTERRUPTIONS

Power-oriented interruptions	Murata's (1994)
	Disagreement,
	Floor taking
	Topic change.
Rapport oriented interruptions	Kennedy & Camden (1983)
	Assistance
	Agreement
	Clarification.

A. Sampling

The participants consisted of a group of three professional women who met regularly for meetings and they usually continued with casual conversations. The all women participants were staff members of a public university. The duration for each conversation was not specified during the recording sessions, but they were reminded to speak enough to engage in a discussion. The selection criteria were based on purposeful sampling and their presence on the campus was reliable as they were involved in committee meetings throughout the period the study was carried out. The participants' status and position at the workplace were also considered before they were selected. The status and the position they held at the workplace mattered as the study involved finding out if these criteria influenced the interruptions during conversations. Roger (1988) observed that interactions between strangers are prone to result in constraints enforced by 'social norms' and so do not reflect natural interaction behaviour. Therefore, on the strength of this observation, all participants forming the group knew each other well. Table 3 below provides details of the participants.

TABLE 3
DETAILS OF PARTICIPANTS

Participants	Age	Qualification	Profession
F1	54	Phd	Associate Professor
F2	42	Masters	Senior Lecturer
F3	36	Masters	Lecturer

The participants from the small group of professional women were colleagues who have been working in the language department of the university faculty. The 3 participants voluntarily accepted the request to be the participants in the conversations. For the purpose of analysis, the participants are referred to as female 1(F1), female 2(F2) and female 3(F3). F1 and F2 have known each other for 3 years. F3 was a new staff member who has been in the campus for two years. She previously worked in another campus for three years and therefore has some working experience. The three participants have been meeting regularly for committee meetings. They usually engaged in casual conversations after the committee meetings.

B. Data Collection Method

The conversations among the participants were recorded with a Compact Disk (CD) recorder. The participants' non-verbal communications were observed, and observation notes were taken for additional information. The data for the study consists of the spoken interactions among the three participants stated in Table 3. The best method of data collection was by a CD recorder to transcribe those instances of interaction, sanctioning the ease of analysis later. During the first recording sessions, the participants were uncomfortable with the researchers sitting through their meetings and therefore for subsequent recordings, the researchers decided to observe the participants a little distance away from the scenarios to allow natural conversations to take place.

TABLE 4
CONVERSATION SESSIONS

Sessions	Date	Venue	Duration
1	4 Nov 2019	Staff lounge	20 minutes
2	7 Nov 2019	Faculty office	15 minutes
3	11 Nov 2019	Pantry	18 minutes
4	20 Nov 2019	Staff lounge	10 minutes
5	4 Dec 2019	Resource room	15 minutes
6	6 Dec 2019	Staff lounge	22 minutes

The data for the study are the utterances of the participants in the all-women casual conversations at a workplace. The topics of their conversations were spontaneous. For triangulation and thick description, an interview session with the 3 participants was conducted on the 30th of December, 2019, to get their feedback on the effects of interruptions on them.

C. Data Analysis Method

The study analyzed using the qualitative approach to explore the phenomena of power-related and non-power related interruptions in the participants' conversation. The utterances in the conversations and the speakers' non-verbal communication were used as the research data to analyze and to find out if they function to show intrusiveness or solidarity. Certain speech acts like turn-taking, intonations and reactions from the speakers were observed to supplement the analysis on the functions of interruptions. The 3 participants were interviewed at different times and locations on the same day to get information about their feelings and opinions about interruptions in their conversations. The interview questions were semi-structured.

D. Ethical Considerations

Since the data for the study was taken from the utterances during a group conversation, verbal permission was obtained from the participants. However, for the sake of privacy the participants requested that their names be withheld in the transcriptions. It is important to note the ethical issue involving participants by addressing their anonymity (Sebba, 2007). Since the participants have the tendency to mention names in their conversations, the use of pseudonyms to replace their names was allowed by the participants. The researchers were also reminded to keep the name of the institution where the data was taken from, confidential.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis and discussions were based on the utterances of the participants during the casual conversations. The power-oriented and rapport-oriented interruptions were examined by following the order of the theoretical sub-categories' framework. The analysis of the utterances was linked to the three participants' status and position at the workplace. The findings show how factors like relationships are important elements that influenced the utterances of the women. The analysis on interruptions among the professional women in the small group conversation was guided by the research questions. Intrusive interruptions create threats to the speaker's sphere by unsettling the process and/or content of the continuing conversation (Goldberg, 1990). The Linguistic and non-Linguistic execution of interruptions among professional women or power-oriented interruptions are shown below.

A. Power-orientated Interruptions

1. Disagreement

Disagreement interruption emerges when the interlocutor in the position of the listener conflicts with what is being said by the existing speaker and wishes to voice her opinion immediately.

Extract 1

1. F 3: She was supposed to send the form two weeks ago, [I think]
2. F 2: [No, no] 1 month ago..la. I
saw the
email...ya now I remember . it was 11 November.
3. F 3: But I think she can still send [because]
4. F2: [Ohhh no no, too late. I don't think the office is
going to allow. Don't know why this lady cannot send anything on time. Soo
much of problem now.

Analysis for Extract 1

F2 interrupted F3 in the middle of the sentence and did not allow her to complete her utterance. F2 interrupted F3 again without allowing her to complete her explanation. F2 disrupted the flow of the conversation by controlling the topic. She interrupted by disagreeing as soon as important details were given by F3. The non-linguistic aspect of the conversation which was F2's high-pitched voice helped her to gain control and dominate the conversation.

Extract 2

5. F1: The new intake is in progress now [and]
6. F2: [No!] Who said that? It is next week.
7. F1: Oh! I thought students can register now.

Analysis for Extract 2

F2 interrupted F1 again without allowing F1 to complete her sentences. F2 did not argue with F1 but submitted and accepted F2's disagreement without interrupting her.

2. Floor taking

In floor taking, the interrupter does not intend to change the topic of the current speaker. In its place, the interrupter frequently advanced on the topic of the current speaker and does so by taking over the floor from the current speaker.

Extract 3

8. F1: Yeah! When is [the] (*looking startled*)
9. F2: [YA] YA when is the trip?
10. F3: The email said next month right? Not sure of the date, [but I think] (*checking phone*)
11. F2: [Yeah now I
remember!...27th 05 right?](*excited*)
12. F1: Ok Ok. You going right Liza? I don't think I can make it [cos] (*looking agitated*)
13. F2: [Why?] You told me you
are going so I have given my name. (*disappointed*)

Analysis for extract 3

When F1 started to ask a question, F2 interrupted without allowing F1 to complete her question. F2 continued her utterances by staying on the same topic by repeating the same question that F1 wanted to ask without any interruption. F2 successfully completed her utterances without intrusion from F1 and F3. F2 also interrupted F3 and continued the discussion on the same topic about the trip. F2 interrupted F1 again without letting her complete her sentence.

Extract 4

14. F1: The scanner is not functioning. The staff card [cannot be]
15. F2: [You cannot] scan now. Salim sent
email yesterday informing us that we cannot scan yet. They will send us the latest
news soon. I wonder when we can get over with this problem.

Analysis for Extract 4

F1 initiated a conversation and before she could complete her utterances F2 managed to interrupt her. F2 developed the topic of the current speaker and did so by taking over the floor from the current speaker. She stayed on the same topic, but exercised her power to dominate the conversation from F1. Observation from F1's facial expression during this session revealed that she did not look too pleased.

3. Topic change

Here in the conversational act, the interrupter is to some degree more aggressive than in the floor-taking position since she must accomplish the task of changing the topic.

Extract 5

16. F2: The test-setters are meeting next week.
17. F3: Yeah those from the branch campus will also be here.
[My friends will also]..
18. F2: [Ok let us plan now who] is going to buy the stuff for the gathering.
19. F3: Ok we might as well plan now since we are all here.

Analysis for extract 5

F2 interrupted F3 again by taking over the floor and changing the topic of conversation. F2 interrupted more aggressively this time when she interrupted F3 without paying attention to what she was saying. F3 was more authoritative and forceful here. From the observation, F2 used the conversation as a contest as well as to be more competitive. F3's facial expression revealed disappointment when she was interrupted by F2. F3's response to F2 was more cooperative but her body language showed restlessness.

Extract 6

20. F3: Pn. Hani is leaving tomorrow. It is her last day.
 21. F1: Oh Ya. She got her promotion right?
 22. F3: Yes, heard there is going to be a [lunch]
 23. F2: [I need] to Photostat something and the machine is
 not working as usual.
 24. F3: It was ok this morning. I managed to Photostat some copies earlier.

Analysis for Extract 6

In Extract 6, F1 and F3 were discussing about a staff's promotion. F2 managed to interrupt and change the topic of conversation about a staff's promotion to a topic about the Photostat machine which was not functioning. F3 did not return to her previous topic after she was interrupted by F2. The floor was taken over by F2 and she projected her dominant attitude by performing conversational strategies that occupied the position of authority in the conversation.

B. Rapport-oriented Interruptions

Rapport-oriented interruptions are expressions of empathy, solidarity, or interest. Murata (1994), states that cooperative interruptions are expected to assist the speaker by coordinating on the process and content of the progressing conversation. The cooperative category utilized in the current research involved three subcategories: assistance, agreement, and clarification. Agreement and clarification were acquired from Kennedy and Camden (1983), whereas assistance was developed based on Li's (2001) study.

1. Assistance

This happens when the interrupter identifies that the speaker requires assistance. The interrupter provides the current speaker with a word, phrase, sentence, or idea.

Extract 7

25. F1: Many of them have not registered for the conference yet.
 26. F3: We are having meeting on the..I'm not sure when..err..
 27. F1: (Ohh it is the second week of
 January. We still have time. Don't worry.
 28. F3: I think the committee should send email to remind them.

Analysis

F1 allowed F3 to speak without interrupting her. F1 only interrupted F3 when she perceived that F3 needed help because she could not remember the date of an event. F1 allowed F3 to continue which the same topic. F1 showed rapport-oriented interruptions when she provided F3 with the answer she needed. The collaborative style assumed F1 and F3 were working together and helping each other during the conversation.

Extract 8

29. F3: So anything new happening around here? I was on leave for two days.
 30. F1: Nothing so far..oh yeah we have to fill up the questionnaire by ahh.. when is it..just read the
 [message and I]
 31. F3: [Ohh..] on the 12th]
 32. F1: Yeah that is right. On the 12th.
 33. F3: Have to do it today.

Analysis for Extract 8

F3 interrupted F1 because F1 needed assistance to get the date to fill in the questionnaire. While F1 was struggling to remember the date, F3 showed rapport by assisting her with the correct answer. F3 was being supportive when she showed involvement and camaraderie.

2. Agreement

Based on a study by Kennedy and Camden (1983), an agreement interruption allowed the interrupter to display concurrence, compliance, understanding, or support. At times, the interruption also presents as an extension or elaboration of the idea being bestowed by the speaker.

Extract 9

34. F1: Just back from class. Just hate going there. Took me twenty minutes to park.
 35. F3: Yeah. You know the other day I went to the faculty and couldn't find any parking..
 36. F2: [Yeah..Yeah
 I agree with you. It is always problem going there and [yesterday..]
 37. F3: [That is right.] I went there three hours early[but still..]
 38. F2: [Very true..nothing new here.

Analysis

F3 initiated a conversation with F2. F2 interrupted to agree with F3. F2 interrupted F3 to signal a certain level of engagement with F3. This indicates that F2 was paying attention to F3 and was interested in hearing more news. There was active participation by both the participants. F2 nodded and showed rapport by reflecting enthusiasm.

Extract 10

39. F3: The new meeting room looks better now. Looks [neater and]
 40. F1: [Yeah la.] It looks better cos' they have
 done a good job with the renovation.
 41. F2: That is right. Finally.

Analysis for Extract 10

F1 interrupted F3 before she completed her utterances. F1 projected agreement and her facial expression showed that she was smiling. F2 and F3 were paying attention to each other and showed rapport in their conversation.

3. Clarification

This kind of interruption is normally initiated by the listener, to understand the message that is sent by the speaker (Kennedy & Camden, 1983). The fundamental intention of the interruption is to have the current speaker clarify or reveal a previously elicited piece of information that the listener is uncertain of.

Extract 11

42. F1: Ya, you know my [mother..]
 43. F2: [Where is] your mother now? She visited you last week right?
 44. F1: Oh She has gone back to Johor. She was here two weeks ago.

Analysis for Extract 11

F1 began talking about herself and F2 interrupted F1 to get information about her mother. F1 responded and continued with the topic about her mother. F2 showed solidarity when she supported F1 by showing interest in F1's mother.

Extract 12

45. F3: How is Siti's son? Heard he is very ill.
 46. F1: He is admitted in the hospital. His surgery [is]
 47. F2: [Why?] What is wrong with her soon?
 48. F1: Oh you don't know the story? Siti's son has brain tumour.
 49. F2: Oh dear. Sorry to hear that. When did she find out?

Analysis for Extract 12

The function of interruption here was to show rapport. F2 interrupted F1 because she wanted to know what was wrong with her colleague's son. F1 showed cooperativeness in this conversation by replying patiently to F2's question.

There were three speakers involved in extract 3 but F2 had the most number of turns. It is apparent from the extracts that F2 interrupted more frequently than the other two speakers. In producing this description, the most salient characteristic in the conversation is, although F2 interrupted frequently, she still stayed on the same topic most of the time. However, by not allowing the other speakers to complete their utterances, F2 took the floor and was in control. F2 portrayed control of power by violating the turn-taking strategies that governed the discussions. F2 dominated the conversations that were aggravated by the interruptive nature of turn-taking.

The non-linguistic aspect of the conversation based on observation, supports the notion that F2 was in control of the conversations. This was identified through the non-linguistic behaviour of F3 when she was not much involved in the conversations throughout the 6 sessions. She avoided the conversation a few minutes during the sessions. In addition, F1 was not pleased with the frequent interruptions by F2 as seen from her facial expressions. F1 looked startled as soon as F2 interrupted her the first time. F1 appeared dismayed several times when interrupted by F2 especially when she attempted to take over the floor and succeeded to dominate the conversation. F2's tendency to interrupt frequently was considered impolite, intrusive and conveyed her aggressive conduct. Although F1 was holding higher status and position at the work place, she did not reprimand F2 for interrupting her utterances.

All three participants exhibited a certain number of interruptions during the whole period of the six conversations. F1's interruptions were more towards rapport oriented as her interruptions were to show agreement. F2's interruptions were more power oriented as she interrupted more to disagree with the other participants' views. Among the three participants, F2 changed the topic more than the others. F3 displayed more rapport-oriented interruptions as she was inclined to agree more with the participants' utterances. Interruptions can be disruptive when it was used to control the conversation by taking over the floor and, they can be supportive when it shows involvement and solidarity. Rapport-oriented interruptions are perceived as acts of collaboration in that they strengthen and add to the progress of the conversation by contributing the participants with immediate response, filling in informational inconsistency, developing on the participants' topic or theme, including evaluative comments, or requesting the speaker to supply more remarks. Besides, rapport-oriented interruptions permit one to linger on-topic.

C. The Most Frequently Exhibited Interruptions among the Participants

TABLE 5
FREQUENCY COUNTS OF THE SIX TYPES OF INTERRUPTIONS

Subcategories of interruptions	F1	F2	F3
Power Oriented			
Disagreement	2	10	3
Floor taking	2	8	2
Topic change	1	4	2
Rapport oriented			
Assistance	6	4	8
Agreement	9	3	10
Clarification	7	4	9

Analysis

The three participants exhibited a different number of interruptions during the period of the study. The six conversation sessions took place at different intervals and various settings at the workplace within the period of one month. F1's interruptions were more towards rapport oriented as her interruptions were to show agreement. F2's interruptions were more power-oriented as she interrupted more to disagree with the other participants' view. She also took over the floor 8 times. Among the 3 participants, F2 changed the topic of conversation more than the others. F3 displayed more rapport-oriented interruptions as she agreed more with the other 2 participants' discussions.

D. The Influence of the Participants' Status and Position in Power-oriented Interruptions

The frequencies of power-oriented interruptions and rapport-oriented interruptions are summed across the status and position of the participants at the workplace. The results in Table 5 show that F2 interrupted more frequently compared to the other two participants. F2's workplace status was lower than F1, but she interrupted more frequently during the duration of the six conversations. Thus, the data illustrates that status and position of a person do not contribute to power among the speakers. Interruptions do not necessarily have to be synonymous with power. Although certain interruptions may portray power, others may signal rapport and cooperativeness.

In this study, it is assumed that the social practices by the speakers also contributed to the nature of interruptions. Higher status in the workplace did not contribute to power-oriented interruptions. However, more knowledge and access to certain practices at the workplace placed the participants in positions of greater power. Power is not 'held' by individuals through social status and position at workplace but rather developed through interaction in an array of relationships.

E. Participants' Views on Interruptions in Casual Conversations

All three participants were interviewed on 30 December 2019 at different intervals. The following questions were asked during the interview sessions which lasted for about 10 minutes per participant. The extracts from their responses are given below. The interview questions were semi-structured.

Interview questions for F1

Was your conversation interrupted by any of the two participants who were involved in study?

"Yeah I realized that F2 has the habit of interrupting when others are speaking. She did annoy me a few times but I realized that it is her habit. She does that with everyone. I noticed that. F3 is a little quiet so she is ok."

As a senior staff in this campus, how do you feel when interrupted by F2?

"I don't mind if she interrupts me to show support or to clarify something. But sometimes she takes over the topic. That I think is rude. However, since it is a casual conversation, I did not take it seriously. Well, she is also cooperative at times you know."

Interview questions for F2 How do you regard interruptions in conversations?

"I believe interruption is rude and people should always listen carefully to what one is saying without interrupting them."

Do you realize that you have interrupted your colleagues on a several occasions during the whole course of the conversations?

"Did I? Ehh...close friends of mine have complaint to me that I have this habit of interrupting when others are still speaking. I know it can be rude at times but I just want to show them how excited I am in a conversation. Sometimes I realize that I don't wait for them. It is hard for me because...eh because...You see.. I have been doing that for a long time. I hope they realize that I interrupted because I want to know what is going on."

Questions for F3

Did any of the two participants interrupt your speech during the recording sessions?

Yes, F2 interrupted me quite a number of times..ehh but I don't think she was aware of what she was doing...

Do you think one's status and position at a workplace influence one's habit of interrupting others?

"No, no I strongly disagree. I know F1 is higher status and she is an associate professor. I have high respect for her. F2's intention to interrupt is not to show dominance or to control her. However, I do have certain amount of respect for people who are higher rank than me. So I am very careful in this matter.

How do you feel about being interrupted in a conversation?

"I just hope she stops being intrusive. She should let others complete their turn before she speaks. Sometimes it can be annoying. But I realize, she doesn't interrupt much during our formal meetings. Maybe she is afraid of the dean.(laughing)"

F. Analysis of the Responses from the Interview Questions

The interview questions provided the opinion and feedback from the three participants. All three participants have agreed that interruptions in conversations display rudeness. Rapport-oriented interruption for the purpose of showing cooperativeness is acceptable by the participants. One of the participants agreed that a person's status and position do not determine the frequency of interruptions in a conversation. F1 and F3 believed that F2's reason for interrupting frequently is a frequent habit that she needed to address. They were annoyed several times, but they also got used to her tendency to interrupt. They mentioned that they were too polite to inform her because on most instances she also showed cooperativeness.

V. CONCLUSION

Power and dominance are not always associated with men alone. Women can also display power as seen from this small study. Interruptions in conversations are not for the purpose of portraying dominance alone. Interruptions do not need to be synonymous with power. The study has attempted to differentiate between power and rapport-oriented interruptions. It has provided a mode for assessing the meaning of the six different interruptions as a display of relational power or rapport. Future research on interruptions among women speakers from a different culture and setting is necessary for a more in-depth study.

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Some Linguistic Features of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures

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Abstract—Zhuang, one of the fifty-six ethnic groups in China, enjoys the second largest population among all members in the Chinese family. The Baeu Rodo scriptures, a reflection of the Zhuang culture, are recited by indigenous ritual specialists called boumo for the important life-circle ceremonies of betrothal, marriage, birth, and death, or for cases of dealing with quarrels, summoning lost souls, and driving away devils. Based on the Baeu Rodo texts, it is concluded that the most impressive linguistic features of the Baeu Rodo scriptures are versification, waist-rhyme, and balanced repetition. The scriptures are written predominantly in five-syllable verse and they are in poetic form. Waist-rhyme is a rhyme in which the last syllable in the first line of a stanza rhymes with the middle syllable in the following line, which is extremely different from a rhyme in English. Balanced repetition refers to the structures that are in similar form and function and equal length but usually occur in two or more lines in verse, expressing the same idea or contrasting ones. The discussion of these striking features of the Baeu Rodo scriptures is of great significance, leading to a better understanding of the texts which serve as carriers of the traditional Zhuang culture and promoting the intercultural communication between the Zhuang people and the English people.

Index Terms—versification, waist-rhyme, balanced repetition, the Baeu Rodo scriptures

I. INTRODUCTION

Baeu Rodo is regarded as the apical ancestor of the Zhuang people with the largest population among the fifty-five non-Han Peoples and only second to the Han Chinese in China. The Zhuang nationality is an ethnic group of people who mostly live in the Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region in southern China and the Wenshan Zhuang and Miao Autonomous District in the southeastern part of Yunnan Province. Also, there are a small number of Zhuang people in the provinces of Guangdong, Hunan, Guizhou and Sichan. “Baeu”, in Zhuang language, means “a respectable senior”, and “Rodo” suggests “all-knowing”. According to the local pronunciation, “Baeu Rodo” is a combined three-syllable name of an ancestral figure which is popular among Zhuang people, meaning “an all-knowing and respectable elderly man”. Stories about Baeu Rodo are far more plentiful. It is said that Baeu Rodo had made his appearance around the time when human beings were created, and he started putting the creatures in order, separating human beings from animals, teaching people to make houses, to raise cattle, to make fire, to fetch firewood, and to do many other things. Myths about Baeu Rodo circulated and were handed down from generation to generation in a large number of prose tales, stories, “ancient songs”, and sacred scriptures. Among various forms, the sacred scriptures were called the Baeu Rodo scriptures. They reflect the very earliest stages in the formation of Zhuang culture, presenting a mythic account of the origins of the world -- of heaven and earth, of human beings, of rice, of fire, and of domestic animals and fowls. Meanwhile, they recounted how the earliest ancestors of the Zhuang had established human institutions -- family relations, writing, chieftaincy, and religious practices. The language used in the scriptures is closely related to the Youjiang River dialect with the basic features characteristic of Zhuang language. Based on a brief literature review, the author aims to have a discussion of some most striking features of the Baeu Rodo scriptures. The discussion of the linguistic features of the Baeu Rodo scriptures will help readers to have a better understanding of the scriptures and to promote the intercultural communication between Zhuang and English people.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Baeu Rodo scriptures are recited or sung, depending on context, by boumo (an indigenous ritual specialist) for the important life-circle ceremonies of betrothal, marriage, birth, and death, or for cases of dealing with quarrels, summoning lost souls, and driving away devils. The texts for corresponding rituals are most fixed and only intended for recitation in the sacred context of a ritual performance. The scriptures are of extensive corpus of orally-transmitted songs about Baeu Rodo, giving abundant evidence of formulaic composition of having been composed orally before being written down.

For hundreds of years, the Baeu Rodo scriptures circulated and were handed down from generation to generation of boumo orally in the western part of Guangxi. Baeu Rodo was not treated as a god, and he had no string of official titles. Rather, he was revered as an ancestral figure. Actually, he is venerated as the ancestral master of the boumo. In other words, the boumo regard him as the founder of priestly lineage that they represent, and as the inventor of their rituals. As put by Zhou Guomao (1995, p.56), a scholar who specialized in the Mo religion, a spirit-place is set up for Baeu

Rodo to one side of the domestic altar in the houses of boumo, where offerings and prayers are made at the New Year, and on important festival days throughout the year. Before conducting important rituals, the bomou will conduct a special rite of “inviting the master”, in which they present offerings to Baeu Rodo and request that he provide protection, so that the ritual can proceed smoothly. The recitation of the scripture constitutes the core of ritual process, and it is often accompanied by ritual dances.

It has been more than half a century since the start of the research of the Zhuang’s culture related to Baeu Rodo. From the 1960s to the middle of the 1980s, the collecting and sorting work of the Baeu Rodo texts was done and some pilot researches were conducted. During the time, some locally popular tales and legends about Baeu Rodo were collected in *Selected Zhuang Folk Tales*, which was compiled by Nong Guanpin and Cao Tingwei (1982). From 1986 to 1991, a large number of scholars and experts in the circles of ancient script, history, religion, ethnology, and folk literature worked together to collect and select 22 Baeu Rodo texts by fieldwork under the leadership of the Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region Office for the Editing of Ancient Manuscripts. After years of field work, they produced the Chinese edition of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures entitled *The Baeu Rodo Scriptures: An Annotated Translation*, which was published in Nanning, the provincial capital of Guangxi, in 1991. This work was highly praised as the cyclopedia of the traditional Zhuang culture and its publication led to the first high tide of the studies of the Baeu Rodo scriptures. Then in 2004, the hard work of the editorial committee of the Series Books of Zhuang Studies made the appearance of *Annotated Facsimile Edition of the Baeu Rodo Zhuang Boumo Scriptures* (8 volumes) based on 29 Baeu Rodo texts collected from different parts in Guangxi. More and more scholars showed great interest in conducting research studies in the Baeu Rodo texts. It was argued by Qin Naichang (2004, p. 46), an influential figure in the academic world in China, that Baeu Rodo was the first human ancestor of the indigenous people along the Zhujiang River in China and his view won support from many other scholars. This gave rise to a more heated discussion of the Baeu Rodo scriptures and more relevant books came into being. In 2016, Huang Mingbiao, a Zhuang native and expert in Baeu Rodo culture, had his works *A New Annotated Facsimile Edition of the Baeu Rodo Zhuang Boumo Scriptures* (3 volumes) published. Thanks to the published works, the researches related to Baeu Rodo have been done from different perspectives of anthropology, folklore, history, mythology, sociology and religion. It was at the start of the 21st century that the English translation works of the Baeu Rodo scriptures were produced, thus drawing more and more attention from scholars in and out of China. David Holm, an American scholar, chose some texts of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures and translated them into English on the basis of his fieldwork and meticulous way of cultural interpretation. His English versions of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures are: *Killing a Buffalo for the Ancestors: a Zhuang Cosmological Text from Southwest China* (2003) ; *Recalling Lost Souls: The Baeu Rodo Scriptures, Tai Cosmogonic Texts from Guangxi in Southern China* (2004) ; *Hanvueng: The Goose King and the Ancestral King* (2015) . Han Jiaquan, a Chinese scholar, had his translated book *The Epic of Baeu Rodo* (2012) published. Up to now, there have been hundreds of articles and books dealing with the Baeu Rodo scriptures, covering various fields such as literature, culture, and religion. However, there is still much room for further study and it is a pity that no article on the linguistic features of the Baeu Rodo scriptures can be found. Based on the previous studies, the author explores the most impressive features of the Baeu Rodo scriptures by her in-depth reading of the published works of the Baeu Rodo texts.

III. SOME LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF THE SCRIPTURES

As part of the cultural classics of the Zhuang people, the Baeu Rodo scriptures are popular with Zhuang folk and have survived the Zhuang history. With the integration of global culture, a growing number of people, in and out of China, show a great interest in the in-depth reading and research of these scriptures for various reasons. There is no denying that these scriptures are an accurate reflection of Zhuang culture and they carry their own linguistic features, which may represent the typical features of Zhuang language showing its uniqueness in its own expressive way.

A. Versification

Predominantly, the Baeu Rodo scriptures are in five-syllable verse and they are in poetic form. The published scriptures serve as a good demonstration. The poetic and versification of the scriptures are illustrated fully in *The Baeu Rodo Scriptures: An Annotated Translation* (1991), *Annotated Facsimile Edition of the Baeu Rodo Zhuang Boumo Scriptures* (8 volumes) (2004), and *A New Annotated Facsimile Edition of the Baeu Rodo Zhuang Boumo Scriptures* (3 volumes) (2016). The former two were compiled by Zhang Shengzhen, and the latter one by Huang Mingbiao. The listed books here are the fruit of a great number of scholars investigating remote villages in the western highlands of Guangxi decades ago. They had exciting discoveries of Zhuang ritual manuscripts written in a variant of the Chinese character script called the “old Zhuang script”. These manuscripts were in archaic form of five-syllable verse, reflecting the very earliest stages in the formation of Zhuang culture. It seems that all the scripts were connected with Baeu Rodo, the apical ancestor of the Zhuang. Based on the scholars’ efforts, remarkable collections of Zhuang ritual manuscripts came into being. Five-syllable verses in form are the most striking features in the above-mentioned publications. A few lines from Zhang Shengzhen’s works (1991) will account for this phenomenon:

三	𠂔	三	皇	制
Sam	gaiq	sam	vuengz	ciq
四	𠂔	四	皇	𠂔
Si	gaiq	si	vuengz	cauh

(p. 4)

The lines here are of typically five-syllable verse. The first and third ones are written in “old Zhuang script” and they are exactly what they look like in boumo’s religious texts. Accordingly, the second and the fourth lines are in Zhuang script called Zhuangwen, which is the official romanization system for Zhuang used in the People’s Republic of China. Such system is used in the published books to provide readers information that they need to trace the source of lexical information. The two lines in old Zhuang script here means, word for word, “three/thing/ three/king/establish // four/thing/four/king/create”. Simple lines as they are, translators gave different renderings. David Holm (2004, p. 54) put them as “The Three Realms were Established by the Three Kings”, The Four Realms were Created by the Four Kings.” And, Professor Han Jiaquan (2012, p. 2) turned them into “All things are arranged by Baeuqlodoh, And the myriad creatures are created by him as well.” Different understanding of the numbers “three” and “four” here lead to different translated texts. As noted in *The Baeu Rodo Scriptures: An Annotated Translation* (1991, p. 41), there are three explanations of “Sam gaiq”. (1) “Sam” (three) is meant as a non-specific number, while “gaiq” (thing) means “kind, or sort”. Thus, the term “sam gaiq” is a general reference to “all sorts of things”. (2) It refers to Heaven, Earth, and Water. (3) In Zhuang mythology, it was said that the universe is composed of Three Realms. Heaven is the Upper Realm, where the gods and immortals live; the Earth is the Middle Realm, housing human beings; and underground is the Lower Realm, inhabited by dwarfs. Based on Zhuang mythology of creation and the Zhuang culture, the author argues that three and four in the given lines here are non-specific, thus she rendered the two lines into “Everything was created by the King / A creator who was all knowing”.

As seen above, the old Zhuang script is a modified form of the Chinese character to represent the sound, or to convey the meaning, of a Zhuang word. A Han Chinese loan word in Zhuang can be used to represent both the original sound and the meaning of a character. Five-syllable forms of verse are predominant in the Baeu Rodo scriptures. Such old Zhuang characters abound with cultural connotations. They help researchers to trace information of Zhuang culture in lexical development, syntactical changes with history, and social background. As ancient songs, the versified Baeu Rodo scriptures are a reflection of what Zhuang folk had experienced. The striking features of five-syllable forms of verse are of great linguistic and aesthetic values.

B. Waist-rhyme

The Baeu Rodo scriptures are written predominantly in five-syllable verse – occasionally in seven-syllable verse due to exposure to Han Chinese influence – and exhibit the basic rhyming features of the Zhuang language. In the texts, boumo smartly and deliberately employ various rhyming devices to create words of music effect to retain the beauty of sounds and meanings, among which waist-rhyme is the most impressive feature that has drawn much attention from scholars who are interested in the study of Zhuang language and culture.

According to *The New Oxford Dictionary of English* (2001, p. 1593), rhyme is “correspondence of sound between words or the endings of words, especially when these are used at the ends of lines of poetry”. Also, in *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English with Chinese Translation* (1984, p. 990), rhyme is defined as “sameness of sound of the endings of two or more words at the ends of lines of verse”. According to the two definitions given above, it is safe to argue that the essence of rhyme is the identical sound between words or the endings of words. Just like the people of any other nations, ancient Zhuang knew how to use the sounds of their language for maximum rhetorical effect. The playing on similar final sounds in words produces kind of “echoing” effect, making the speech pleasant to the ear. However, as one of the forms of rhyme, waist-rhyme is a rhyme in which the last syllable in the first line of a stanza rhymes with the middle syllable in the following line. The most basic form goes as:

○	○	○	○	A
○	○	A	○	○

Numerous pairs of lines of waist-rhymes can be cited from the Baeu Rodo scriptures as in the opening lines of “Inviting Gods” in *The Baeu Rodo Scriptures: An Annotated Translation* (1991, p. 3):

Cingj	baeuq	daengz	hoiq	daengq
(eiŋ ³)	pau ⁵	taŋ ²	ho:i ⁵	taŋ ⁵)
Cingj	baeuq	naengh	hoiq	naeuz
(eiŋ ³)	pau ⁵	naŋ ⁶	ho:i ⁵	nao ²)

Here, the two lines are written in Zhuang script followed by their international phonetic alphabet respectively. And, “daengq” in the first line with its pronunciation of /taŋ/ in tone 5 rhymes with the third syllable “naengh” (/naŋ/), which is the middle one in the second line. The word-to-word meanings of the two lines go as: invite grandfather arrive I report / invite grandfather sit I say. According to *Dictionary of the Old Zhuang Script*, “baeuq” is a term of reference and address meaning “grandfather, old man, venerable one” (1989, p. 9). In the Baeu Rodo scriptures, it is used to refer to Baeu Rodo, an all-knowing creator in Zhuang culture. Such rhyming of sounds is extremely popular among Zhuang ancient songs, and it is the most striking one in the Baeu Rodo scriptures. A famous Chinese scholar Huang Ren (2001, p. 163) stated that rhymes in English could be roughly classified as “alliteration, assonance, and single / double rhyme”. In comparison, waist-rhyme in Zhuang language is very different and it may become a headache for translators when they try to render such Zhuang language into English.

Interestingly, the waist-rhyme pattern of “○○○○A/○○A○○” in the Baeu Rodo scriptures goes different from the rhyming patterns in English verses. This view was backed up by Gong Xiaobin and Wang Jiaxi (2019, p. 102). By their in-depth studies of English rhymes, they concluded that the rhyming patterns of English verses were end-rhymes, varying from “aa, aabb, abab, abba” to “aaba”. Apart from the Baeu Rodo scriptures, waist-rhyme is also popular in other forms of Zhuang culture. It was pointed out in *Sailing in the Sea of Songs* (2015, p.135) that Zhuang folk songs were different in rhyming from Han Chinese songs in that they rhymed in waist-rhyme, in which the last syllable in the first line rhymed one of the middle syllables in the second line. It was also stated in this book that the Zhuang people held that waist-rhyme lied at the essence of their folk songs. They insisted that it was the waist-rhyme that made their folk songs extremely singable to the singer and comfortably pleasant to the listener. The great popularity of waist-rhyme with the Zhuang folk can be found in the works of many other scholars who have conducted researches on Zhuang folk songs and Zhuang drama. Yang Changxiong (2017, p. 11) stated that waist-rhyme was very common in Zhuang folk songs when he came to discuss their syntactical structures and rhythms. In addition, Liu Xueqin (2016, p.125) also mentioned that Pingguo Zhuang folk songs were characterized by waist-rhyme. Furthermore, in discussing the lyrics of Zhuang drama, Wei Wei (1990, p.206) argued that the Zhuang drama was unique in rhyming because they appeared in waist-rhyme, which often strengthened its dramatical effect. As one of ancient songs in Zhuang area, the Baeu Rodo scriptures, like any other form of Zhuang songs, or even Zhuang drama, were woven cleverly by lines of waist-rhyme and sound musical to the ears of the audiences. Occasionally, the waist-rhymes appear in a run-on way in the Baeu Rodo texts, producing an effect of echoing in harmony to fulfill the human sensations by giving them happiness and pleasure. It seems obvious that the Zhuang people enjoy employing waist-rhymes to retain the beauty of the sounds and meanings in Zhuang language to achieve special effects so that it will be much easier to chant, recite and memorize the scriptures.

C. Balanced Repetition

In addition to versification and waist-rhyme, a salient linguistic feature of the Baeu Rodo scriptures is balanced repetition, which falls into antithetic repetition and parallel repetition. Antithetic repetition, the author argues based on the analysis of many Baeu Rodo texts, is the combination of antithesis and repetition, meaning that structures with similar form and function and approximately equal length usually occur in two or more lines in verse and express contrasting ideas. And, parallel repetition suggests that balanced structures have similar form and function and approximately equal length, and they usually occur in two lines in verse or sometimes in successive ones to repeat the same idea. Interestingly, numerous lines of balanced repetition can be cited from the Baeu Rodo scriptures. Look at the following examples from Zhang’s works (1991):

Bauq	song	sam	mbanj	laj
(pa:u ⁵	so: ɲ ¹	sa:m ¹	ba:n ³	la ³
Report	two	three	village	below)
Bauq	seiq	haj	mbanj	gwnz
(pa:u ⁵	so: ɲ ¹	sa:m ¹	ba:n ³	kwn ²
Report	four	five	village	above)
(p. 85)				
Cauh	cwz	cauh	bangx	daemz
(ca:u ⁶	ew ²	ca:u ⁶	pa: ɲ ⁴	tam ²
Create	ox	create	side	pond)
Song	gaeu	ngaem	dauqnaj	
(so: ɲ ¹	kau ¹	ɲam ¹	ta:u ⁵	na ³
Two	horns	bend	forward)	
Cauh	vaiz	cauh	bangx	dah
(ca:u ⁶	va:i ²	ca:u ⁶	pa: ɲ ⁴	ta ²
Create	buffalo	create	side	river)
Song	gaeu	aj	dauqlaeng	
(so: ɲ ¹	kau ¹	a ³	ta:u ⁵	laɲ ¹
Two	horns	bend	backward)	
(p. 318)				

Here are two examples cited from Baeu Rodo texts. The first one has two lines taken from the text of *Creating Heaven and Earth*, and the second four lines from *Recalling the Souls of Water Buffalo, Oxen and Horses*, each followed by the corresponding IPA and word-to-word English meanings, which are marked by brackets. The first example assumes a balanced structure and emphasizes a contrast in meaning by giving antonymous words “laj(below)” and “gwnz(above)” in parallel construction. In the second example, the four lines go in balanced construction in which the first and the third lines have words of different meaning, “daemz(pond)” as opposed to “dah(river)”, and the second and the fourth “dauqnaj(forward)” and “dauqlaeng(backward)” of contrasting ideas. Furthermore, the repeated use of “bauq(report)” and “cauh(create)” in the two examples are equally revealing. Such antithetic repetition serves as a tuneful rhythm especially in oral composition.

Apart from balanced structures expressing opposed ideas as discussed above, more examples of parallel lines of the same meaning but of different words or phrases are plenty in the Baeu Rodo scriptures. Here is an example from Huang’s works (2016, p. 5):

Hoiq	mbouj	niz	dien	deih
(ho:i ⁵	bau ⁵	ni ²	tian ¹	ti ⁶
I	don’t	offend	the heaven)	
Hoiq	mbouj	famh	mbwn	ndaen
(ho:i ⁵	bau ⁵	fa:m ⁶	bən ¹	den ¹
I	don’t	offend	the heaven)	

The two lines are from the opening ones of the text of *Inviting God Vangcau and Deity Dodei*. They are parallel lines with the same meaning. “dien deih (heaven and earth) in the first line is a Han Chinese term borrowed by Zhuang people and it is equivalent to “mbwn ndaen” in the second line with indigenous Zhuang concept of “heaven and earth”. Moreover, “niz” in the first line and “famh” in the second line are of synonym, both meaning “offend”. Therefore, this is a typical example of parallel repetition. More examples can be cited from Zhang’s works (1991, p. 591-594) as follows:

Ien	boh	meh	gangj	Haemz
(i:n ¹	po ⁶	me ⁶	ka:ŋ ³	ham ²
Enmity	father	mother	speak	unkind words)
Ien	nanghlaeng		gangj	yak
(i:n ¹	na: ŋ ³ laŋ ¹		ka:ŋ ³	ja:k ⁷
Enmity	wife's family		speak	unkind words)
De	ma	dwk	ciuhlaeng	
(te ¹	ma ¹	twk ⁷	ei:u ⁶ laŋ ¹	
It	come	strike	present generation)	
De	ma	daengz	ciuhneix	
(te ¹	ma ¹	taŋ ²	ei:u ⁶ nei ⁴	
It	come	to	present generation)	
Rox	raeuz	hengz	congz	byat
(yo ⁴	yau ²	he: ŋ ²	eo: ŋ ²	pja:t ⁷
May	we	offer	table	severance)
Rox	raeuz	hab	congz	ien
(yo ⁴	yau ²	ha:p ⁸	eo: ŋ ²	i:n ¹
May	we	offer	table	release)
Guh	byat	naj	baed	sien
(ku ⁶	pja:t ⁷	na ³	pat ⁸	si:n ¹
Conduct	severance	front	bodhisattvas	immortal)
Faenz	ien	naj	mehlau	
(fan ²	i:n ¹	na ³	me ⁶ la:u ⁴	
Chop	enmity	front	Great Mother)	
Ciuh	lwg	raeuz	doengz	vanz
(ei:u ⁶	lwk ⁸	yau ²	tonj ²	va:n ²
Generation	children	our	together	redeem)
Ciuh	lan	raeuz	doengz	soq
(ei:u ⁶	la:n ¹	yau ²	tonj ²	so ⁵
Generation	grandchildren	our	together	plead)
Doengz	soq	ien	ciuh	nduj
(tonj ²	so ⁵	i:n ¹	ei:u ⁶	du ³
Together	plead	enmity	generation	first)
Doengz	soq	boux	ciuh	gonq
(tonj ²	so ⁵	pou ⁴	ei:u ⁶	ko:n ⁵
Together	plead	the	generation	previous)

There are twelve lines of Zhuang script here. Actually, these lines can be classified into six pairs, each covering two lines. The first and the second lines constitute the first pair ending with “haemz” and “yak” meaning “unkind words”,

the third and the fourth “ciuhlaeng” and “ciuhneix” meaning “present generation”. Interestingly, the first line expressed a similar meaning to that of the second line. Also, the third and the fourth lines convey more or less the same meaning. Huang Zhongxi (2010, p. 121), a scholar of Zhuang native, argued that “the Zhuang have a double thinking pattern in their speech and writing”. The author of this article agrees with this argument and holds that such parallel repetition is a reflection of the double thinking pattern of the Zhuang.

IV. CONCLUSION

As discussed above, versification, waist-rhyme, and balanced repetition are the most striking features of the Baeu Rodo scriptures. They work together to show that the Zhuang of ancient time, especially the boumo, knew how to use sounds of their language skillfully for maximum rhetorical effect. It is often found that the grammatical pattern of one line will be repeated in the next, and sometimes in a third, making a stylistic feature of signs of oral composition. The combination of waist-rhyme and balanced repetition serves as an aid to reading the texts and it's easier for boumo to recite the Baeu Rodo scriptures, helping the verses more pleasant to the ear. Written in the “old Zhuang script”, a variant of the Chinese character script, the manuscripts collected in the Baeu Rodo scriptures gave every indication of being venerable age. As language is the carrier of culture, the scriptures, which were passed down in archaic form of five-syllable verse with waist-rhyme and balanced repetition, reflect the very earliest stages in the formation of Zhuang culture. There is no doubt that the Baeu Rodo scriptures are a signal contribution to scholarship on the Zhuang. It is hoped that more and more scholars at home and abroad have more in-depth research in them and bring about more significant discoveries about the linguistic features of the Baeu Rodo scriptures.

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Ikhin Tone and Nasality: Autosegmental Effects

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Abstract—In generative phonology, tone and nasality are described as suprasegmental phonological units. This implies that their survival depends on the segments on which they are grounded. Thus, when a tone bearing unit or nasality bearing unit disappears, any of these segments also disappears. In autosegmental theory, however, tone or nasality survives after the deletion of segment to which it is attached. This phenomenon is termed ‘stability’ which is the foundation for autosegmental phonological theory. Stability is the survival of tone and nasality after the deletion of segments on which they are grounded. Tone and nasality exhibit stability in Ikhin, a North-Central Edoid language spoken in Edo State, South-South, Nigeria. Previous study on Ikhin dwells mainly on the phonetics of the language. This study, therefore, investigates phonological processes such as vowel elision, glide formation and nasalization with a view to determining the stability or otherwise of tone and nasality. This paper confirms that in Ikhin, any process that involves the removal of a tone bearing unit must relate to stability and relate to the creation of contour tones. The study further confirms that nasality remains stable even in the absence of segment to which it is linked. Based on available data, it is argued that the deletion of a Tone Bearing Unit (TBU) or a Nasality Bearing Unit (NBU) does not necessarily involve the deletion of tone or nasality. Infact, it usual does not. The study concludes that tone and nasality are independent segments. They are as independent as consonant and vowel.

Index Terms—Ikhin, Tone and Nasality, Autosegmental Effects, Generative Phonology, Stability

I. INTRODUCTION

Ikhin is a member of the Edoid family’s North Central branch (Oladimeji 2013). Eastern Kwa was the name given to a group of languages that included Edoid. They are now known as Benue-Congo (BC), along with the rest of Eastern Kwa, and are recognized as forming a putative West Benue-Congo (WBC) federation (Blench 1989). Delta Edoid (DE), Southwestern Edoid (SWE), North Central Edoid (NCE), and Northwestern Edoid are the four co-ordinate branches of the Edoid community (NEW). Geographically, the Edoid languages spread from the Rivers and Bayelsa States in the eastern Niger Delta, across Delta and Edo States, to parts of Ondo and Kogi States (Elugbe 1989). Ikhin is spoken in the Owan East Local Government Area (Oladimeji 2010). The speakers, who number in the thousands, live in Edo State’s Owan East Local Government area, in the Northwestern part of the state (Oladimeji 2013). People give the tribal group and language the name “Ikhin” (Oladimeji 2010).

II. METHODOLOGY

This paper’s approach is both descriptive and empirical. The data were collected from seven purposely chosen native speakers in Ikhin town and one from Ibadan, using the Summer Institute of Linguistics’ 1000 wordlist and the University of Ibadan’s 400 basic item wordlist as it can be seen in www.open-science-repository.com. Traditional stories, interactions, descriptive remarks and isolated unelicited utterances all provided additional data. The data were analyzed using the computerised speech laboratory’s speech filing system (Oladimeji, 2010).

III. EMPIRICAL WORKS

Ikhin literature is uncommon. Folarin (1982) is the only existing linguistic research on this language. A Comparative Edoid Phonology (Elugbe, 1973), “A Phonology of Edo (Bini)” (Amayo, 1976), and “A Phonology of Emai” (Egbokhare, 1990) are only a few examples of studies on Edoid languages. There is no mention of Ikhin in any of the preceding.

IV. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Goldsmith’s Autosegmental Theory is the theoretical framework. When analysing and presenting the data, this principle is applied. Sound Pattern of English (1968), a study by Chomsky and Halle, is widely regarded as the first systematic treatment of generative phonology. For Kenstowicz (2006), taking the notation in terms of which sounds were represented as bundles of feature was a key feature. A comprehensive collection of features as well as concepts for

writing phonological representation was suggested. However, in the sense that it was a single line of representation, phonological representation was still linear (Opoola and Olaide, 2021).

Chomsky and Halle's first generation of graduate students successfully applied the generative phonological theory, in which systematic alternations are derived from a common underlying type by an ordered set of principles as it can be seen in www.web.mit.edu, to well known languages like Russian, Japanese, French and Spanish. A critical mass of comprehensive analyses from a generative viewpoint accrued, revealing a slew of issues and research questions – some of which remain unanswered. According to Paul Kiparsky (1968), abstract representations are motivated by alternations and grammars evolve to a state where the underlying representations can be caused by rules that state generalisation over surface phonetic representation.

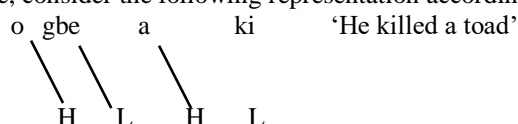
Tone, nasality, stress and length phonology are not well-suited to rules that modify the structure of features in a local context. These suprasegmentals were subjected to intense examination, which had a significant impact on how sounds are interpreted and manipulated by laws of grammar (www.web.mit.edu). Though tone and nasal features are phonetically expressed as vocalic features, their phonological behavior is largely independent of segmental string. Thus, building on Wil Leben William's work, John Goldsmith (1990) proposed that tonal and nasal features be represented on a different level (tier) from the segmental tier. As a result, if tone and nasality are independent, vowels may be deleted while tone and nasality remain on their own tiers and map to an adjacent syllable for maximum association. In Ikhin, nasality relinks to the adjacent vowel across the morpheme boundary when a nasal vowel of a monosyllabic verb elides. Without mentioning the concepts of autosegmental theory, no discussion of stability will be complete. It's a non-linear approach that enables phonological processes like pitch, nasality, and vowel harmony to be independent of individual vowels and consonants and to reach beyond them. As a consequence, phonological processes can affect several vowels or consonants at once as it can be seen in www.studylove.org

This considers phonological representation, according to www.web.mit.edu, to be multi-dimensional and multi-tiered. Each tier is made up of series of segments arranged in a linear pattern. Association lines connect the tiers, indicating how the segments on each tier should be pronounced at the same time.

Autosegmental phonology, on the other hand, is an offshoot and alteration of generative phonology, which Goldsmith introduced in his PhD thesis. It is, he says, an effort to provide a better understanding of the phonetic side of linguistic representation. He disagrees with traditional generative phonology because it is characterised by an absolute "slicing theory", according to which a phonological representation is split into tidy "slices" or segments, each nearly organised and constructed as having no ordered subparts. Autosegmental phonology, according to Goldsmith (1976), is a proposal at the same logical level as SPE's concept that a phonological representation consists of several parallel levels of phonological segments, each of which is represented on its own tier or level and that tiers are connected. Autosegments are elements on each tier that are ordered sequentially. Association convention is the central concept of this theory.

V. ASSOCIATION CONVENTION

In Ikhin, each morpheme has two parts: On the one side, there is segmental material, and on the other, there is a tone. As an example, consider the following representation according to www.vanoostendorp.nl :

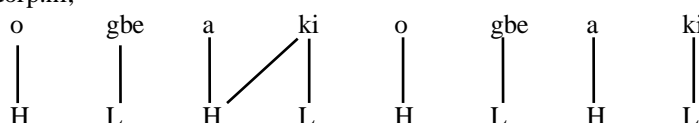


According to Association Convention in www.vanoostendorp.nl, every tone must be connected to a vowel.

a. On the surface, there are no "floating" tones; for www.vanoostendorp.nl, each tone must be associated with a vowel. The tonal association convention is part of a broader collection of phonological structure criteria that enable each element in a phonological representation to be related to the rest of the structure.

b. Align-tone: Considering other constraints of the language, according to www.vanoostendorp.nl, all tones ought to be as close to the right edge of the word as possible. Tone shifts to the right ('spread') in several tone languages around the world.

c. The Well-Formedness Condition (WFC): Each tone in the output representation should correspond to exactly one vowel, and vice versa. WFC is not absolute in all languages, as we can see later, because of its absolute existence in Ikhin. The best we can do to satisfy tone alignment to the greatest extent possible is shown below according to www.vanoostendorp.nl;



Every tone is now as closely as possible connected to the right (www.vanoostendorp.nl). It is also worth noting that the well-formedness condition encompasses a number of conditions, such as "no tone should be related to more than

one vowel” and “no vowel should be toneless.” Autosegmental theory has also proven useful in the study of contour tones. Ikhin has low, high, and contour tones, for example (The language also has downdrift, downstep and downglide).

In the theory according to www.vanoostendorp.nl, there are two approaches to coping with a case like this. We can classify the rising and falling tones as a combination of a low tone followed by a high tone, and a combination of a high tone followed by a low tone, respectively, or we can describe them as a combination of a low tone followed by a high tone. Autosegmental analysis advises us to take the latter route

VI. STABILITY IN AUTOSEGMENTAL THEORY

Autosegmental theory describes stability as a phenomenon. It refers to the persistence of tone, nasality, vowel harmony, and other features after segments on which they are based are removed. Since the syllable structure of Ikhin forbids clusters of vowels within or across word boundaries, vowel elision and glide formation are two techniques for discouraging vowel cluster in Ikhin. The two main syllable structure processes in Ikhin are vowel elision and glide formation, with vowel insertion as the third. As a result, when a vowel elides or glides, its tone is preserved, and the same is true of nasality. When a nasality-bearing unit is removed, the nasality is retained. This is stability.

A. Vowel Elision and Tone Stability

According to Opoola and Olaide (2021), in African languages in general, and in Edoid languages in particular, vowel elision is a common phonological process. Vowel elision is very common in kwa languages, where the syllable structure of verbs and nouns allows vowel sequences to occur across morpheme boundaries (Welmers, 1973). Any of the vowels (V1 and V2) will elide at the boundary in Ikhin and other Edoid languages like Urhobo, Emai, and so on, depending on the construction type. The impact of this phase on tone is a source of concern for us. Ikhin is a tone language. Pike was one of the first to provide a comprehensive description of tone language. A tone language, according to journal.ikipsiliwangi.ac.id, is one in which each syllable has lexically important, contrastive, yet relative pitch. Tone is important because it distinguishes utterances, and it is also lexical because it distinguishes the meanings of words. Pike (1948) added that tone must be contrastive in order to be lexically relevant. This means the pitches would be tonemes that contrast with each other. Since no syllable in a tone language can be pronounced without a tone, Pike’s concept of tone on any syllable is a reference to a surface phenomenon.

Tone is a suprasegmental phonological unit, according to generative theory. It suggests that it is vowel-dependent. It also means that when a vowel is deleted in generative theory, the tone is also deleted. A tone, on the other hand, survives after the deletion of the vowel to which it is attached in autosegmental theory. This, according to Opoola and Olaide (2021), leads to the phenomenon of stability, which is the persistence of tone after the deletion of the section that it is based on. The tone survives the deletion of a tone-bearing unit (vowel). When two morphemes or words, one of which ends with a vowel and the other which begins with a vowel, are combined, potential vowel clusters in Ikhin can be avoided by dropping one of the vowels. Boundary deletion is the other name for this. We will see how the elision of vowels affects the status of other segments including tone and nasality in the following presentation, which uses data from Ikhin. This is because all of the affected vowels are tone-bearing units, although only a handful of them have nasality. The segments’ (vowels and consonants) and tones’ (tones) characteristics according to Opoola and Olaide (2021) are separated in autosegmental theory. Tones have a parallel relationship with the vowels with which they are aligned. The effects of vowel elision processes on tones will be seen in our sample derivations below for autosegmental representation of vowel elision processes. When vowels are removed, their tones are immediately set afloat and then relinked using a tonal association convention, which is a set of conditions for phonological representation to be related to other parts of the phonological structure (Opoola and Olaide, 2021).

Goldsmith’s (1976) study of tone in African languages demonstrated the importance of autosegmental analysis. He argued for an autosegmental representation since phonological rules that apply separately at the tonal and segmental levels will remove a vowel while leaving the tone associated with it unchanged. Ikhin’s examples are as follows:

- (i) òkò + édà → òkědà

V₁V₂

L L H L

‘motor’ ‘river’ ‘boat’

Rule 1: Delete V₁, but do not delete its low tone

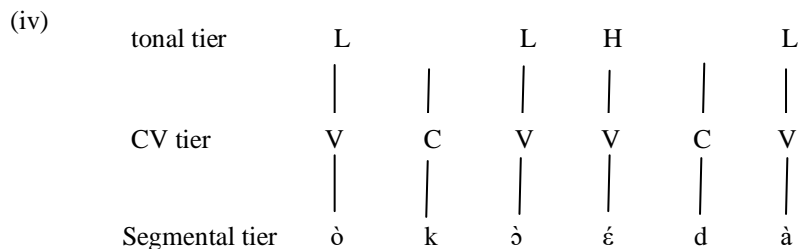
- (ii) òk’ + éda

After the vowel [ɔ] is deleted, one is left with an unattached low tone. Another rule is needed:

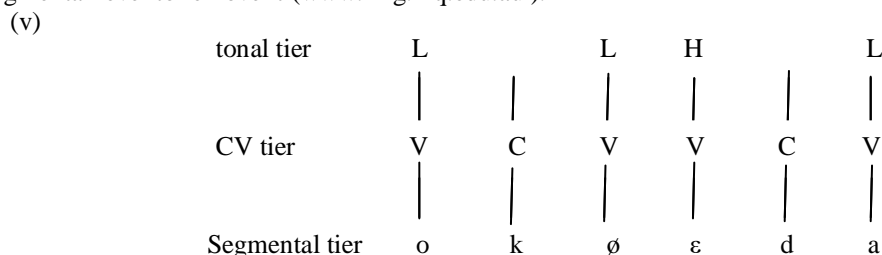
Rule 2: The unattached (floating) low tone reconnects with the next vowel (www.ling.mq.edu.au).

- (iii) òk’ + éda → òkědà ‘boat’

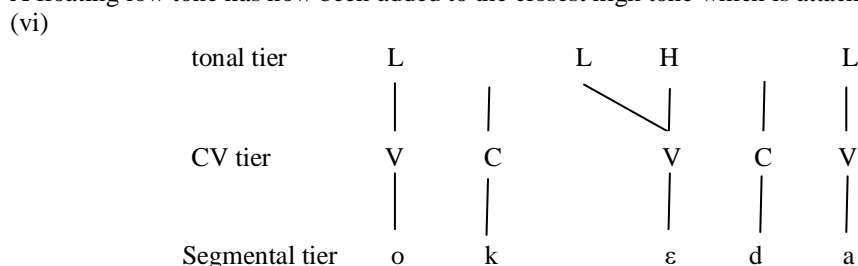
In the light of the above, notice that the tone on the second noun’s prefix vowel [éda] is high [H], while the unattached (floating) tone is low [L]. The two together produce a low [L] tone followed by a [H] tone, which is the same as a rising (contour) tone. Phonologists would handle these changes using an autosegmental representation, in which tones and segments are represented separately. For instance, according to www.ling.mq.edu.au, the underlying representation for òkò + éda would be:



When the final vowel of the first word is followed by another vowel at a word boundary, a rule applies at the segmental level to remove it (www.ling.mq.edu.au).



A floating low tone has now been added to the closest high tone which is attached to the nearest vowel.



In other words, we have a LH (rising) tone attached to vowel [ε], that is, the vowel [ε], which is V₂ at the word boundary, has an LH (rising) tone attached to it.

B. Glide Formation and Tone Stability

Glide formation is a phonological process that allows a segment to undergo a major class change by changing its major class features. It can occur within as well as across morpheme boundaries e.g.

Examples:

- (i) òpià → òpjà 'matchet'
 (ii) áxí + àmè → áxjâmè
 'pot' 'water' 'water pot'

Glide formation and vowel elision complement each other. Glide formation in Ikhin applies within or across morpheme boundaries provided the following conditions are met.

(a) V₁ must be preceded by a consonant. That is, the close vowel (front and back) occurs between a consonant and a non-identical vowel, as in the frame C – V, CV-

(b) In the vowel sequence, V₁ must be a close vowel (/i/ or /u/) and V₂ must be a non-identical vowel, provided the word that bears the V₁ has the minimal structure of its lexical category.

Examples:

- (iii) fí èró → fǝjêró
 'throw' 'money' 'throw money'
 (iv) xí òba → xǝjôbâ
 'make' 'king' 'become king'

Examples below illustrate the conditions above.

Glide formation across morpheme boundaries

- (b) i ètò ágbâ → ètwǎgbâ
 'hair' 'jaw' beard
 ii. òrú àmè → òrwâmè
 'season' 'water' 'raining season'

Glide formation within morpheme boundary

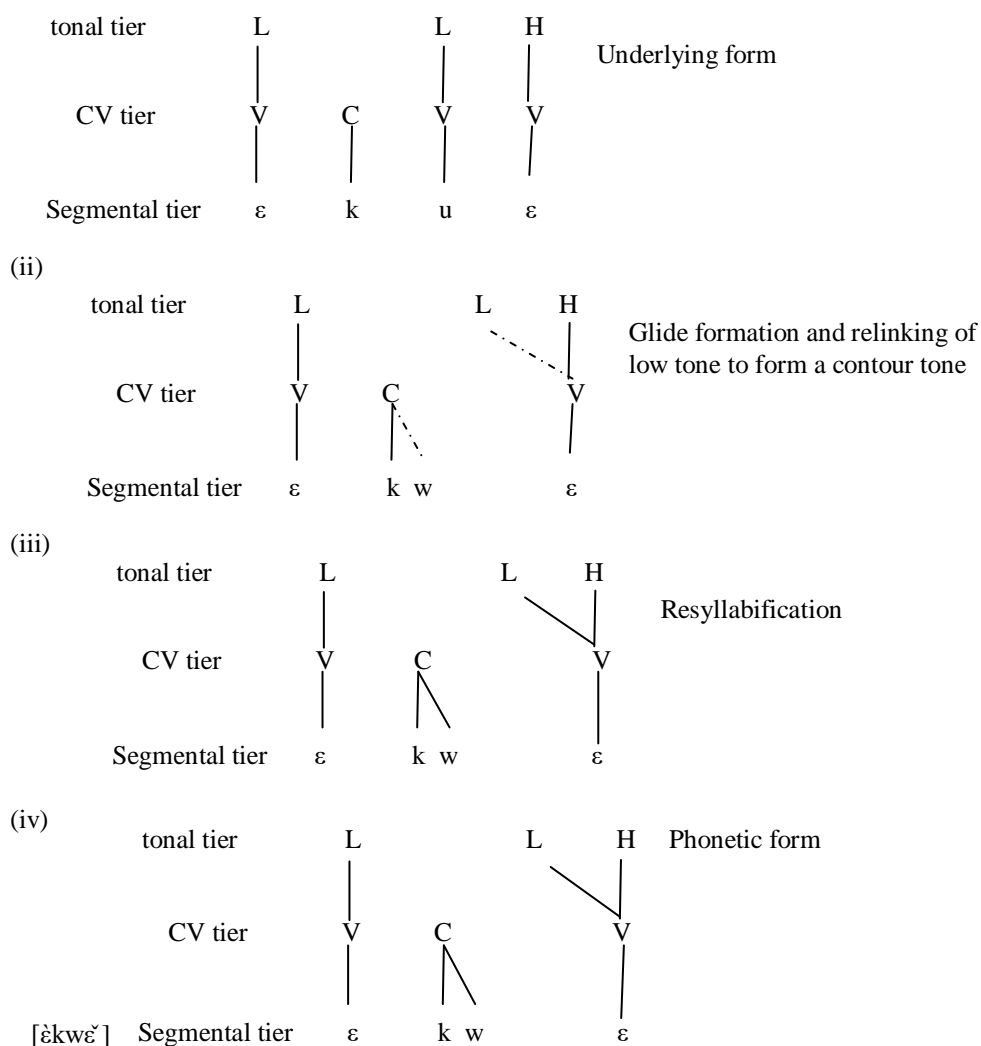
- (c) i. /èkùé/ → [èkwɛ] 'nail' (finger or toe)

- ii. /ùgúà/ → [ùgwâ] 'bone'
 iii. /ìgúà/ → [ìgwâ] 'knee'
 iv. /míè/ → [mjɛ] 'lie down'

The two syllable structure processes in Ikhin discussed so far, that is, vowel elision and glide formation have shown that either a vowel elides or undergoes a major class change, the tone which is grounded on it is not deleted, it relinks to the closest vowel to the right to form a contour tone (rising or falling) on the next vowel. Thus, tone exhibits stability in this language.

Stability is the survival of tone after either the deletion of segment on which it is grounded or the segment on which it is grounded has undergone a major class change by becoming a glide. Deletion of a tone bearing unit does not necessarily involve the deletion of tone. This confirms the earlier assertion that any process that involves the removal of a tone bearing unit must relate to stability and relate to the creation of contour tones. This paper's account of glide formation process and tone stability is formalised in the autosegmental representation below:

- (i) èkùé/ → [èkwɛ] 'nail'



VII. NASALITY AND STABILITY

The typical Edoid language is rich in nasals. In some of these languages, it is usually the case that these are seen as allophones of non-nasal phonemes Elugbe (1986). This implies that such nasals (apart from nasal consonants) are derived from their respective oral counterparts when they occur in the environment of nasalisation. Ikhin has twelve vowels made up of seven oral vowels and five phonemic nasal vowels.

A. Consonant Nasalisation

The phonemic nasal vowels in Ikhin are /ĩ/, /ẽ/, /ã/, /ũ/ and /õ/. When consonants occur in their environment, they become nasalised. Specifically, these consonants are nasalised when they occur before the nasal vowels as in the following examples:

- (i) /òrà/ → [òrà̃] 'tree'

(ii) /èwɛ̃/ → [ɛ̃wɛ̃] 'ashes'

Within the framework we are adopting, nasality occurs on an autosegmental tier.

A lexical item is either marked positive for nasality or it is without underlying nasal specification. Nasality is linked to a segment only through association in a phonological representation, thus making it autonomous, that is, independent of the segment bearing it.

In autosegmental phonology, nasality either spreads on neighbouring segments or remains stable even in the absence of the segment to which it is linked when such segment elides or undergoes certain phonological processes.

In accounting for nasality in this way, Nasality Bearing Unit (NBU) has been proposed. Thus NBU in the underlying representation can be said to be the final vowel segment in the stem. This indicates that the autosegment is mapped onto only a V slot on the CV tier. The slot will then be on a nasal vowel in the underlying representation. In this proposal, all the nasalised segments within a stem are derived from the spreading of the nasal autosegment. Spreading here is from right to left.

Examples:

(iii)	/àjũ̃/	→	[ànjũ̃]	'wine'
(iv)	/òkũ̃/	→	[òkũ̃]	'sea'
(v)	/òrà̃/	→	[òrà̃]	'blood'
(vi)	/èrà̃/	→	[èrà̃]	'meat'

When consonants appear before substantial nasal vowels in Ikhin, they are nasalized or slightly nasalised. The preceding examples support the assertion that Ikhin's consonants are nasalized. A nasalized consonant is a consonant that, while being usually oral in a language, is articulated nasally due to an adjacent nasal sound, as it can be seen in www.archive.org.

B. Vowel Nasalisation

The seven oral and five nasal vowels in Ikhin are shown in the following tables

Fig: ..1

Oral vowels

i	u
e	o
ɛ	ɔ
a	

Fig. 2

Nasal vowels

ĩ	ũ
ẽ	õ
ã	

In figure (2) above, there are no half close nasal phonemes /ẽ/ and /õ/. Each of the vowels in the two tables is a phoneme in Ikhin.

Ikhin displays a number of nasal sounds at the phonetic level. Each of the seven oral vowels in Ikhin may be phonetically nasalised if it occurs after nasal consonants [m] or [n]. Spreading here is from left to right. The NBU is a consonant.

Examples:

(i)	/òmòhɛ̃/	→	[òmòhɛ̃]	'man'
(ii)	/ùnù/	→	[ùnù̃]	'mouth'
(iii)	/àmè/	→	[àmè̃]	'water'

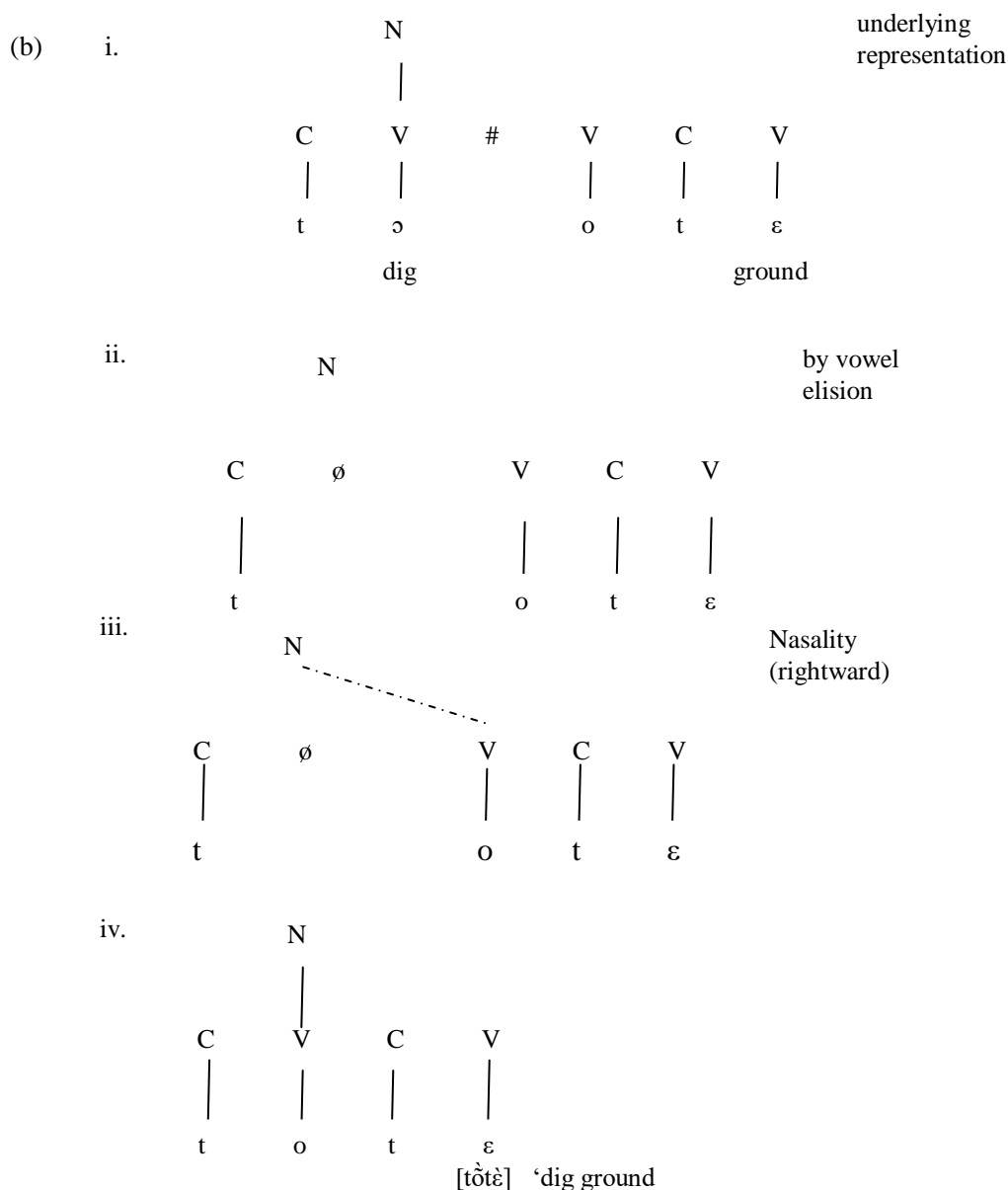
The above show that oral vowels are nasalised after nasal consonants such as [n] and [m]. This paper's account of the stability of nasality is premised on the deletion of nasal vowel at morpheme boundary and its effect on nasality. At morpheme boundary, spreading mode is from left to right.

When a nasal vowel of monosyllabic verb elides, nasality relinks to the adjacent vowel across morpheme boundary. This is a demonstration of the stability of nasality in autosegmental framework.

Examples:

(a)	i.	jã	+	èrũ	→	jẽrũ
		'cook'		'yam'		cook yam
	ii.	tɔ̃	+	òtè	→	tòtè
		'dig'		'ground'		dig ground
	iii.	tʃɛ̃	+	òkpòsò	→	tʃòkpòsò
		'refuse'		'woman'		refuse woman

The stability of nasality is derived by the following autosegmental representation



VIII. CONCLUSION

This research proved that Ikhin is a traditional African language with Edoid-like phonological features. According to Opoola and Olaide (2021), the syllable structure of the language discourages clusters of vowels within words or across word boundaries, vowel elision and glide formation are therefore two of the most common techniques for removing vowel sequence (cluster) in Ikhin. Further, the paper verified the independence of tone and nasality after the deletion of vowels to which these two phenomena are attached. The paper argued that the loss of a tone or nasality carrying unit does not always imply the loss of tone or nasality, and in fact, it seldom does. In this paper’s description of contour tone formation, it was identified that any process involving the removal of a tone bearing unit must relate to stability and contour tone formation.

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Ambivalence of Cosmopolitanism: A Study of Kazuo Ishiguro's Writing*

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Abstract—Although labeled as an immigrant writer, Ishiguro is not a typical one. His writing is not a repetition or successor of the diasporic literature. The various subjects and diversified locations of his works have been appropriately corresponded to his claim as “a kind of homeless writer”. He has always been locating himself in different cultures as well as engaged in a de-cultural writing, providing insights into the relationship between the subjective and the other, which shows his ambivalence dangling between different cultures. It is arguable that Ishiguro has several “deaths” before becoming a cosmopolitan. Nevertheless, the “killed” identity is inextirpable. The longing for subjectivity in his novels does not directly come from the cosmopolitan identity with whom he identified. Reading Ishiguro in the global context enables the detection of his compromise as a cosmopolitan writer constructed by a deliberate de-privileging and cultural alienation. Cosmopolitanism itself has been a paradoxical term in that its orientation points to the mutually inclusive “world” and “region”. Its implication is full of irreconcilable resistance and negotiation. The study is going to explore the ambivalence of cosmopolitanism in Ishiguro's writing, to trace the progress of the making of the novelist as a cosmopolitan as well as embracing multiple cultures but denies clear boundaries, and to widen the scope of the discussion of globalization, localization, diasporic study, or postcolonial study.

Index Terms—Cosmopolitanism, Kazuo Ishiguro, ambivalence, culture

I. INTRODUCTION

Cosmopolitan writers, as Rebecca L. Walkowitz stresses in her “Cosmopolitan style: English modernisms, international cultures, and the twentieth-century novel”, “assemble elements from different national cultures and also assert that international encounters, create new cultures at home” (Walkowitz, 2006, p.1), as J. M. Coetzee rejects the term “South African novelist” and Kazuo Ishiguro assumes that his potential readers are Norwegians when he writes. These writers regard themselves as international novelists and devote themselves to working on people in different countries. Katherine Stanton has captured cosmopolitan writers in her *Cosmopolitan Fictions: Ethics, Politics, and Global Change in the Works of Kazuo Ishiguro, Michael Ondaatje, Jamaica Kincaid, and J.M. Coetzee* (2009). She describes contemporary cosmopolitan writing as “historicize the movements and networks of the transnational or the global, keeping their sights on the multiple histories of colonialism and imperialism” (Stanton, 2009, p.1), revealing its full implication of irreconcilable resistance and negotiation. In Bruce King's “The New Internationalism: Shiva Naipaul, Salman Rushdie, Buchi Emecheta, Timothy Mo and Kazuo Ishiguro” in *The British and Irish Novel Since 1960* edited by James Acheson (1991), he points out that works of Timothy Mo, Kazuo Ishiguro and other immigrant writers have been characterized by “internationalism”, which “reflects the way modern life is characterized by the awareness of new nations, the ease of international travel and communications, the global literary mark” (King, 1991, p.193), rendering cosmopolitan features prolonged in immigrant literature.

However, under the seemingly “free, international and diverse” appearance, cosmopolitan writing is always intertwined with chaos, anxiety and ambivalence of identity. Cosmopolitan writing is not a repetition or successor of diasporic writing as it covers topics from history and religion to ecology and modern life. Most cosmopolitan writers tend to embrace multiple cultures but deny clear boundaries. Giving a talk in BBC in 2019, Homi Bhabha mentioned the double deaths of memory of forced migration. The two deaths, according to Bhabha, suggest the death of departure and arrival. In the initial death one leaves home, language, and people, while in the second death one kills one's old identity and welcomes a new one. “You have to die to yourself in order to be born again on a foreign land”, as Bhabha lays stress upon the importance of the birth of the new identity. Nevertheless, the new identity is not new in that the “killed” identity is inextirpable. It is arguable that cosmopolitan writers have several “deaths” before becoming a cosmopolitan. Cosmopolitanism does not signify the freedom of identity. Otherwise, cosmopolitans are traumatized. For immigrant writers, cosmopolitan writing is a new writing method of compromise as they are unwilling to wander on the edge of different cultures. Nevertheless, deliberate de-cultural writing could not digest them. Their works are always subtly intertwined with entanglement of identity.

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II. PARADIGMS OF COSMOPOLITANISM

A. Traditional Paradigm of Cosmopolitanism

Although cosmopolitanism emerged in the international academia in the 1990s, it has a long history which could be traced back to Ancient Greek Philosophy. “Cosmopolitanism” is made up of two words: “cosmos” comes from Greek “Κόσμος” which means universe, while polis is “Πόλις”, a city or world state. In the past decade, many scholars have begun to construct a global theoretical discourse under the background of globalization. The long-standing cosmopolitanism has risen again and assimilated many theories in response to the era, providing a theoretical discourse for globalization. Cosmopolitanism, is an ideal moral community, according to Martha Nussbaum in *For Love of Country: Debating the Limits of Patriotism* (1996), “made by the humanity of all human beings, to allow no differences of nationality or class or ethnic membership or even gender to erect barriers between us and our fellow human beings” (Nussbaum, 1996, p.16). Its root idea, according to Samuel Scheffler in his “Conceptions of Cosmopolitanism” (1999), is that “each individual is a citizen of the world, and owes allegiance” (Scheffler, 1999, p.255). The basic meaning of cosmopolitanism is that all human beings, regardless of their nationality and race, belong to a large community. In this community, all people share some universal rights and ethical values beyond a specific nation or culture.

Cosmopolitanism is an interdisciplinary concept in philosophical, political, sociological and literary studies. Many theorists have revitalized it and offered different versions of cosmopolitanisms since 1990s. The study on cosmopolitanism mainly focuses on next four aspects. The first is the exploration of cosmopolitanism as a pursuit of moral justice beyond nationalism and patriotism, compared with universalism. Martha Nussbaum has generally discussed the relationship between patriotism and cosmopolitanism in *For Love of Country: Debating the Limits of Patriotism* (1996). She argues: “With our connections to the rest of the world growing stronger, we should distrust conventional patriotism as a parochial ideal, and instead see ourselves first of all as ‘citizens of the world’” (Nussbaum, 1996, p.157). As a liberal feminist, her cosmopolitan view as human obligations, beyond cultures, shapes the way we think of public issues. In 2003, Derrida informs cosmopolitanism by drawing on examples of treatment of minority groups in Europe in his *On Cosmopolitanism and Forgiveness*. In *Justice Without Borders: Cosmopolitanism, Nationalism and Patriotism* (2004), Kok-Chor Tan argues that cosmopolitan justice can accommodate nationalist and patriotic commitments, setting limits without denying their moral significance. Craig Calhoun in his “Cosmopolitanism and Nationalism” (2008) articulates the value of the world as a whole, as well as arguing that if the vogue for cosmopolitanism neglects the need to more local belonging and a fashion for universalism misleads us about the inequalities built into universalist projects.

The second is connecting cosmopolitanism with globalization, global governance and the extension of democracy beyond national limits. As David Held elaborates a vision towards a multipolar world and concerns with a global order on violence, law and environment in his *Cosmopolitanism: Ideal and Realities* (2010).

The third is seeing cosmopolitanism as a multinational way of deconstructing the central. As in Ulrich Beck and Edgar Grande’s *Cosmopolitan Europe* (2007). Ulrich Beck advocates a cosmopolitan Europe in a integration as well as diversity. Beck has also mentioned the concept of “cosmopolitization” in his *Der Kosmopolitische Blick Order: Krieg ist Frieden* (2008). He emphasizes that cosmopolitization is a by-product of global capitalism. It represents a global inequality, which is different from cosmopolitanism who is attempting to convey that “we are all connected”.

The fourth is the cosmopolitanism in a state of migration, exile and diaspora under the background of colonialism, imperialism and postcolonialism, as a mode of identity and belonging. Tim Brennan has adopted a literary perspective in *At Home in the World: Cosmopolitanism Now* (1997), turning a critical eye to colonial progress and cultural studies. He criticizes the ignorance of the local effects of globalization, laying an emphasis on diversity and hybridity on the basis of shared cosmopolitan ethic. Robert Spencer has connected literary reading with cosmopolitan awareness in his *Cosmopolitan Criticism and Postcolonial Literature* (2011). Some postcolonial theorists and writers including V. S. Naipaul and Homi Bhabha have given their own versions of cosmopolitanism. In *The Location of Culture* (1994), Bhabha has named it as vernacular cosmopolitanism, represented by the natural anarchistic Trinidadians in metropolios in V. S. Naipaul’s books. Julia Kristova, in a different context, calls it a wounded cosmopolitanism. The essence of Homi Bhabha’s cosmopolitanism lies in the “vernacular”, recognizing some specific groups defending their vernacular cultures like Trinidadians and Cantonese.

In addition, some scholars have also probed into cosmopolitanism from the above four aspects like Pheng Cheah and Bruce Robbins’s *Cosmopolitics: Thinking and Feeling beyond the Nation* (1998), Kwame Anthony Appiah’s *Cosmopolitanism: Ethics in a World of Strangers* (2006) and Robert Fine’s *Cosmopolitanism* (2007), signaling particularized cosmopolitanism, concerning the future of Europe, the rights of human beings and the political pursuits beyond national limits.

B. Critical Paradigm of Cosmopolitanism

Recent years have witnessed a re-examination on the traditional paradigm of cosmopolitanism. Some scholars have put forward critical cosmopolitanism in the wave of neoliberalism, shifting their emphasis to its unwelcome side effect as Rebecca L. Walkowitz’s *Cosmopolitan Style: Modernism Beyond the Nation* (2008), *Born Translated* (2015), and Aamir R. Mufti’s *Forget English!: Orientalisms and World Literatures* (2016). In 2016, Vladimir Biti claimed that cosmopolitanism is derived from the personal or national traumatic experience in his *Tracing Global Democracy*:

Literature, Theory and the Politics of Trauma. Meanwhile, by studying cosmopolitanism in Georgian literature, Irma Ratiani argues that cosmopolitan writers have been lingering between the world and home, after suffering from personal and national trauma. Their endeavour to connect cosmopolitanism and trauma initiates a new paradigm of cosmopolitanism, which will be used widely in the future.

III. KAZUO ISHIGURO'S COSMOPOLITAN WRITING

Kazuo Ishiguro, the 2017 Nobel Laureate in Literature, is one of the “Three Immigrant Giants” in contemporary British literature along with Salman Rushdie and V. S. Naipaul. Although labeled as an immigrant writer, Ishiguro is not a typical one. His works are different from those of Rushdie, Naipaul and most immigrant writers whose preoccupation is with ethnic identity and postcolonial predicament featured with distinct regions. His writing is not a repetition or successor of the diasporic literature. He became a British citizen in 1982, but he declared himself as “a kind of homeless writer”, showing the feature of ambivalence dangling between different cultures. He has always denied there is anything specifically Japanese about his works or his familiarity with Japanese writing. After his two Japanese-set novels *A Pale View of Hills* (1982) and *An Artist of the Floating World* (1986), which brought him great success as well as the growing attention of his Japanese identity, Ishiguro, opposed to the encyclopedic interpretation, has shifted his direction and creatively undergoes a cosmopolitan writing. The various subjects and diversified locations of his *The Remains of the Day* (1989), *The Unconsoled* (1995), *When We Were Orphans* (2000), *Never Let Me Go* (2005), and *The Buried Giant* (2015) have been appropriately corresponded to his claim as “nothing Japanese”. Meanwhile, Ishiguro considers himself a European novelist instead of a British novelist. In an interview in 1989, when discussing his upbringing, Ishiguro stated, “I’m not entirely like English people because I’ve been brought up by Japanese parents in a Japanese-speaking home. My parents felt responsible for keeping me in touch with Japanese values. I do have a distinct background. I think differently, my perspectives are slightly different.” He talks about his own identity as “Temperament, personality, or outlook don’t divide quite like that. The bits don’t separate clearly. You end up a funny homogeneous mixture. This is something that will become more common in the latter part of the century -- people with mixed cultural backgrounds, and mixed racial backgrounds. That’s the way the world is going.”

Ishiguro first gains critical attentions in the 1980s but most of the studies confine themselves to the discussion of his Japanese identity as a “mysterious Orient”. The stereotyped interpretation has been continued until the early 1990s when he deliberately avoided Japanese factors in his future works. The 1990s witnessed a more objective criticism about Ishiguro. Scholars research from the biographical study as well as his writing subjects. Barry Lewis’s *Kazuo Ishiguro* (2000) is the first monograph on Ishiguro’s works which covers from his early novels to his short stories, films and television works, exploring the issues of family, dignity and identity extensively. At the same time, Brian W. Shaffer’s *Understanding Kazuo Ishiguro* (2008), along with *Conversations with Kazuo Ishiguro* (2008) under Shaffer and Cynthia F. Wong’s editorship probe into Ishiguro’s works and life. Sim Wai-chew’s *Kazuo Ishiguro (Routledge Guides to Literature)* in 2010 systematically assembled a collection of research on Ishiguro. Current study has entered into a new level beyond the early introduction and guidance. Monographs, doctoral dissertations and articles have concentrated on diversified themes involved in his works range from morality to ethic; from memory to trauma, as Yugin Teo’s *Kazuo Ishiguro and Memory* (2014) and Mei Li’s *A Trauma Narrative in Crisis Era: A Study of Kazuo Ishiguro’s Novels* (2017). The fields of research have been expanded to new historicism, post anthropology, cross-space writing, transnational writing and world literature. For example, Zhu Ping’s *A Community Study of Kazuo Ishiguro’s Novels* (2016) explores postmodern predicament and the construction of community. Other studies regarding theories are from the perspectives of psychology, narratology, postmodern theory, ecological criticism, postcolonialism, etc.

Despite all the achievements on transnational writing and world literature, there is also scholarly attention paid to cosmopolitanism in Ishiguro’s works. In 2001, in “Very Busy Just Now: Globalization and Harriedness in Ishiguro’s *The Unconsoled*”, Bruce Robin points out that Ishiguro’s reserved attitude towards professionalism “leads the butler to serve Lord Darlington’s ends so blindly, is simultaneously a case against cosmopolitanism” (Robin, 2001, p.426). In 2002, Wai-chew Sim, in his doctoral thesis *Globalisation and dislocation in the novels of Kazuo Ishiguro*, probes into the cosmopolitan identity of Ishiguro and his characters, suggesting that the cosmopolitan cultural production needs to “attend to the systemically and effects of international capital if its oppositional impetus is not to be emasculated” (Sim, 2002, p.vii), paying more attention to the location of international capitals in cosmopolitan writing. In 2008, Rebecca L. Walkowitz in her *Cosmopolitan Style: Modernism Beyond the Nation* considers the politics of modernist style as critically scrutinizes “cosmopolitan style” through narrative strategies in the works of Ishiguro, Conrad, Rudish, etc. She makes a strong claim that “there is no critical cosmopolitanism without modernist practices” (Walkowitz, 2008, p.18). In 2010, Chu-chueh Cheng has also employed this concept in his “Cosmopolitan Alterity: America as the Mutual Alien of Britain and Japan in Kazuo Ishiguro’s Novels” but to articulate the entanglement of identity of America in Ishiguro’s novels. In 2015, Noémie Nélis in his “Kazuo Ishiguro’s gentle transgression of tradition, myths and stereotypes --Towards a reading of the contemporary in *The Remains of the Day*” focuses on Ishiguro’s “transgression” of Englishness and the butler’s identity as a form of critical cosmopolitanism, suggesting a questioned movement between the local and the global. In 2019, Katherine Stanton has designated a literary genre as cosmopolitan in her *Cosmopolitan Fictions: Ethics, Politics, and Global Change in the Works of Kazuo Ishiguro, Michael Ondaatje, Jamaica Kincaid, and J.M. Coetzee*. She has chosen Ishiguro’s works as his “hesitation to be read within national

canons” (Stanton, 2019, p.2), taking the investigation into the ethics and politics of complex belonging and foreign feeling in Ishiguro’s *The Unconsoled*. Among all these significant studies, cosmopolitanism simply catches the critics’ eyes without a further concern.

IV. AMBIVALENCE OF COSMOPOLITANISM

The development and debate of cosmopolitanism has been traced by quite a few theorists in the multiple ways. Despite these supportive and controversial voices, cosmopolitanism itself has been a paradoxical term in that its orientation points to the mutually inclusive “world” and “region”. To study a particular context from the perspective of cosmopolitanism, it is possible to combine the above different studies, on one hand find the specific concept within the texts, and on the other hand observe the paradoxical voices.

As a cosmopolitan writer, Ishiguro’s ambivalence could find its expression in his writing. He has been deliberately locating himself in different cultures as well as engaged in a de-cultural writing. By locating the story in the context of the post-war Japan in *An Artist of the Floating World*, Ishiguro consciously alienates himself from the Japanese identity. By locating the story in the context in Britain between the two world wars in *The Remains of the Day*, he tries to deconstruct Englishness as a witness whose identity is uncertain. By locating the story in the context of an imaginary community with clones in *Never Let Me Go*, in which the clones are supposed to be the marginalized group, Ishiguro has provided insights into the relationship between the subjective and the other. In his earlier Japanese-related novels, Ishiguro corrects his perception of the myth of belonging, connects the history of Japan and the world, and puts himself in the gap of these narratives, so as to emphasize the re-imagination from historical perspective, submit to regional history, surrender the anxiety of national and social identity, then gradually alienate his Japanese identity. His works are always about his imaginary home, which includes the perpetrators and victims influenced by the shadow and residue of World War II as Etsuko in *A Pale View of Hills* and the failure of a Japanese militarist in *An Artist of the Floating World*. He adopts a narrative beyond nationalism, which elaborates the shame and guilty of oriental temperament.

Ishiguro has also marked his contexts with irreconcilable resistance, especially popular ones, thus as pretext, rendering the paradoxical cosmopolitanism, much more than mere location, exotic themes or foreign characters. In *The Remains of the Day*, Ishiguro deconstructs Britain after World War I, using the symbols of traditional British culture such as “housekeeper” and manor to express the traumatic feeling of British people after World War II, the change of European pattern, the split Empire and the loss of cultural authority. Ishiguro runs through the whole process to redefine Britishness and dispel the central narrative from the perspective of a non-intrusive spectator, without any critical color. In *Never Let Me Go*, Ishiguro speaks for the “marginal” group, paying attention to the survival and creation desire of minority groups, and puts forward ethical issues and emotional demands closely related to cultural differences and social discrimination -- acceptance and exclusion as well as dignity and humiliation. Through returning to individual narration, Ishiguro expresses his appeal across the nation and community.

As a cosmopolitan writer, Ishiguro’s claim of “homelessness” stems from his deliberately “killing” of multiple identities. His narration across regional and national boundaries has the distinctive features of cosmopolitanism. Meanwhile, his de-cultural writing reflects his ambivalence as a cosmopolitan.

V. CONCLUSION

From the era of globalization to post-neoliberalism, especially when COVID-19 is now the world’s destiny, the regional and world structure is under transformation and has been effected by neoliberal culture. With the weakening of international organizations, non-traditional issues such as resources, ecology, race, infectious diseases, refugees and religious beliefs emerge in an endless stream. It is urgent to build a collective world discourse under such circumstances. The study of cosmopolitanism is closely related to the interdependent views of international power, common interests, sustainable development and global governance contained in the global value of community. Studying cosmopolitanism examines the coexistence and mutual integration of regions, nations and cultures. Its development will gradually realize the transition from centralism to pluralism.

As an ambivalent cosmopolitan, Ishiguro’s longing for subjectivity does not directly come from the cosmopolitan identity with whom he identified but a compromise as they are unwilling to wander on the edge of different cultures. This makes the idea of cosmopolitan in Ishiguro’s novel an ambiguous one. Cosmopolitan identity is far more than a hybridity of different identities. Reading Ishiguro in the global context enables the detection of his negotiation and resistance as a cosmopolitan writer, as well as his creating method of deliberate de-privileging and cultural alienation, thus to further extent the application fields of the present research of cosmopolitanism and also to widen the scope of the discussion of globalization, localization, diasporic study, or postcolonial study.

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EFL Learners' Learning Styles and Self-regulated Learning: Do Gender and Proficiency Level Matter?

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Abstract—The present study attempted to investigate the interdependence of self-regulated learning and language learning styles among three levels of language learners. Their gender and language proficiency level were also taken into consideration to find out the interaction between these variables. To carry out the study, the subject was selected based on the multi-stage sampling procedure. From five universities, 200 EFL learners studying TEFL, Literature, and Translation were randomly selected. Based on their scores on the TOEFL test, the participants were divided into beginner, intermediate, and advanced levels. From each level, 30 subjects were randomly selected. The research instruments were used to collect the required data for the study. After analyzing the data, the results showed a significant relationship between the EFL learners' learning styles and their self-regulation. It was disclosed that the higher the learners' scores on language learning styles were, the more self-regulated they were. When gender was taken into account as a moderator variable, no significant correlation between language learners' learning styles and their gender was detected. It was found that both male and female learners were self-regulated in the same way. In addition, EFL learners' proficiency level significantly made a difference in their self-regulation; however, it did not affect their learning styles.

Index Terms—learning styles, self-regulated learning, gender, proficiency level

I. INTRODUCTION

The process by which one attempts to acquire new knowledge is known as learning and each individual approaches the learning context differently. According to Keefe (1988), the way individuals perceive, interact, and respond to the learning environment cognitively, affectively, and psychologically which is relatively stable is called their learning style. As Pritchard (2009) stated, learning styles are not fixed; however, one learning style is preferred over others. In addition, identifying this preferred learning style could be of benefit to both learners as they choose the best learning strategies, and to teachers as they modify their teaching strategies so that they could provide better opportunities for students to learn.

In recent years, there has been a great change in the field of second/foreign language learning and teaching which was directed towards learners' individual differences such as learning styles. This change is more of a student-centered approach in which more attention is paid to individuals' roles and responsibilities in the class that, in turn, leads to learners' independency and autonomy. Self-regulated learning started as a research on self-control for learners to self-monitor, self-instruct, self-evaluate, self-correct, and self-reinforce (Mace, Belfoire, & Hutchinson, 2001). Unlike behavioral theories which do not take into account the learners' internal states, cognitive theories of learning started their ascendancy in the 1960s and dominated as the focus of human learning. However, some researchers came to know that factors such as cognitive skills and abilities, motivation, and self-regulation account for students' teaching (Zimmerman, 2001).

According to Oxford (2003), autonomy and self-regulation are self-ruled, and learners who are autonomous and self-regulated can regulate their own thoughts, learning, and actions. Terms such as 'self-directness', 'self-control' and 'autonomy' paved the way for the emergence of the term 'self-regulation' (Bandura, 1991), and according to Najeeb (2013), learners are at the stage who are able to direct their own learning.

Different models of self-regulated learning share certain assumptions i.e. learners should be active participants and they should self-regulate and monitor their own learning process. Also, learning process should help learners to achieve their set goals and apply any required change to the process. (Curry, 1983; Pintrich, 2004). With the development of learners cognitively, their self-regulation increases and depends a lot on the use of private speech. Kopp (1989) stated that when self-regulation increases, there would be a transition in learners from responding to others' commands to plan

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and monitor their own activities. This would happen when learners interact with adults through ZPD. Learners' learning style is mostly ignored and most importantly the mismatch existing between teachers' teaching style and their learning style could influence their performance negatively.

II. LANGUAGE LEARNING STYLES

To learn a new subject or tackle a new challenge, pupils use some general approaches which according to Oxford, Ehrman, and Lavine (1991) are addressed as language learning styles. However, Reid (1985) relates learning styles to learners' predispositions to perceive and process learning experiences.

The way a learner likes to learn is called 'learning style preferences', and according to Ehrman (1996), they are put into action by specific learning strategies. Learning styles have six aspects: the cognitive, executive, affective, social, physiological, and behavioral aspect (Oxford & Anderson, 1995). According to Brown (2007), there exists a close link between learning strategies and learning styles. Bailey, Onwuegbuzie, and Daely (2000) distinguished the difference between learning styles and learning strategies in that the former are automatic/ unintentional individual features, whereas the latter are what learners choose to facilitate their learning.

Learning styles play important roles for the learners since they can integrate them to their learning process and accordingly their learning process would be faster and they will be more successful. Also, learners would resolve their problems more effectively when they identify their styles. When learners gain control over their learning process, they will feel more independent and responsible in learning, as a result, their self-confidence will increase and teachers' control over learners will lessen and teachers act as facilitators (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Merits of identifying the learning styles for teachers are to help them to design lessons to meet their students' styles. Otherwise, the created mismatch could frustrate new or poor learners. However, this mismatch could be to the advantage of the learners as to help them experience new methods of learning.

Oxford (2003) discussed four dimensions of learning style that are among the most strongly associated with L2 learning: sensory preference (visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile), personality types (extraverted vs. introverted; intuitive-random vs. sensing-sequential; thinking vs. feeling; and closure-oriented/judging vs. open/perceiving, desired degree of generality (global or holistic, analytic), and biological differences (biorhythms, sustenance, location). Najarkolai, Beigzadeh, Motlagh, and Sabzevari (2015) investigated 400 postgraduate students of Kerman University of Medical Sciences, and found that the most dominant learning style of postgraduate students is the convergent style.

Moreover, Khojasteh and Pishkar (2015) studied the relationship between Iranian EFL Learners' Sensory Learning Style and Their Autonomy Level. They found that students with visual learning style in Islamic Azad University, had the highest language autonomy and the students with auditory- kinesthetic (AK) style had the lowest language autonomy. However, in State University of Hormozgan, AK (Auditory-Kinesthetic) skill is more frequently used style and visual style is the one used less frequently by the students of both universities. Additionally, as per the finding of Shah, Ahmed, Shenoy, and Srikant (2013), students in their set up prefer multimodal and more of Kinesthetic of learning.

Naserieh and AnaniSarab (2013) explored perceptual styles among Iranian graduate students by using PLSQ. The findings revealed that the participants favored kinesthetic and tactile modalities and a group learning style. Peacock (2001) did a study as to test Reid's (1987) hypothesis that mismatch between teaching and learning styles would lead to learning failure as well as frustration. A university in Hong Kong was the source of data collection and it was detected that teacher preferred auditory, kinesthetic, and group styles and did not like individual and tactile styles, whereas the students preferred auditory and kinesthetic styles and disliked group and individual styles. Therefore, Peacock (2001) suggested a balanced style for teachers to adapt to various learning styles.

According to Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014, cited in Dornyei & Ryan, 2015), there are five principles for the practical classroom application of styles. Effective teachers know their teaching styles and self-aware learners are aware of their preferred approaches to language learning for themselves as well as for their teachers. Also, with the help of a "mixed and many" approach, teachers and learners can explore ways to balance their styles. Besides, teachers and learners compromise to occasionally stretch as well as match so as to resolve learning style conflicts, and reflective learners regard how their beliefs, strategies, and abilities relate to their individual learning styles.

Furthermore, Derakhshan and Shakki (2018) found that highly proficient EFL learners were more oriented towards kinesthetic and tactile learning styles than auditory, visual, group, and individual learning styles. On the other hand, visual and group learning styles were more favored by learners with lower level of proficiency.

III. SELF-REGULATION LEARNING

During the last decade, learning strategies have been studied to a great extent (Banisaeid, 2013; Banisaeid & Huang, 2014; Chamot, 2004; Chen, 2009; El-dib, 2004; Griffiths, 2003, 2007; Griffiths & Oxford, 2014; Magogwe & Rhonda, 2007; Nikoopour & Amini Farsani, 2010; Nikoopour, Amini Farsani, & Kashefi Neishabari, 2011; Nikoopour, Amini Farsani, & Nasiri, 2011; Nikoopour, Salimian, Salimian, & Amini Farsani, 2012; Nikoopour & Hajian, 2015; Nikoopour, Kargar Moakher, & Esfandiari, 2017a, 2017b; Oxford et al., 2014; Riazi & Rahimi., 2005). Due to the fuzziness of learning strategy definition, self-regulation has been used as a replacement which, in turn, is rooted in

educational psychology (Dornyei, 2005, cited in Dornyei & Ryan, 2015). Self-regulation refers to the ability of monitoring and managing one's energy states, emotions, thoughts, and behaviors in ways that are acceptable and producing positive results such as well-being, loving relationships, and learning (Schraw, Crippen & Hartley, 2006). In fact, it consists of three elements: cognition, metacognition, and motivation. The cognition element includes the skills and habits required for encoding, memorizing, and recalling information as well as thinking critically. The metacognition element includes the skills that enable learners to understand and monitor their own cognitive processes. The motivation element deals with the beliefs and attitudes that affect the use and development of both the cognitive and metacognitive skills.

In the early grades, teachers play significant roles in regulating learners' goals in the classroom, however, as they advance to higher grades, this support is reduced from teacher's side, and students self-regulate their learning and decide what to do with their homework (Zimmerman, 1998). According to Ramdass and Zimmerman (2011), it is important that teachers, before assigning any homework, consider students' age, grade level, and the subject matter. That is, shorter and easier material is assigned to elementary students and as they move to higher grades, the level of complexity increases. Also, the assigned homework could be negotiated with the students as well as their parents.

According to De Boer et al. (2013), strategy instruction should teach learners how, when, and why to use self-regulated methods (general metacognitive knowledge). Besides, the instruction should include metacognitive strategy 'planning and prediction' and the motivational strategy 'task value'. In the same way, Effeney, Carroll, and Bahr (2013) investigated nine male students with the age range of 15 to 17 to find their main self-regulated learning strategies and found that habits originated from the family relevant to homework as well as study routines developed the base for SRL effectiveness. Teacher's role as the most important source especially at the early grades is valued and students at the higher levels rely mostly on themselves. Keller-Schneider (2014) investigated self-regulated learning in teacher education and concluded that the intensity of the use of learning opportunity is important in learning settings requiring self-regulation. In situations which require analyzing and evaluation, strategies like elaboration, organization, and self-motivation are necessary. In addition, Mahmoodi et al. (2014) studied Iranian EFL learners' self-regulated learning, motivation and their language achievement, and concluded that cognitive and metacognitive SRL are favored by Iranian EFL learners. Besides, self-regulation and motivation assist EFL learners to learn better, however, no significant relationship was found between SRL strategies and L2 achievement of the learners.

The present study aimed at exploring the relationship between male and female EFL learners' learning styles and self-regulated learning. More specifically, the following research questions were raised:

1. Is there any relation between beginner EFL learners' learning styles and self-regulated learning?
2. Is there any relation between intermediate EFL learners' learning styles and self-regulated learning?
3. Is there any relation between advanced EFL learners' learning styles and self-regulated learning?
4. Is there any interaction between the gender, level of proficiency, learning styles, and self-regulated Learning?

IV. THE STUDY

Participants: Multi-stage sampling procedure was used to select the participants. At first, five universities were chosen based on purposive sampling. Then, 200 pupils majoring in TEFL, Literature, and Translation Studies were selected through convenience sampling. All the participants took the proficiency test including vocabulary, reading, and grammar. The participants fell into three groups, i.e., beginner, intermediate, and advanced based on their test scores. Finally, from each group, thirty students were selected randomly. The participants were all informed about the purpose of the study and they were assured that the collected data would be kept confidential and their scores would not affect their academic achievement.

Design: Due to the nature of the study, a correlational research design was used. The relationship between self-regulated learning and the learning styles was computed. The learners' gender and level of proficiency were also taken into consideration.

Instrumentation: In the present study, the Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) developed by Brown, Miller, and Lawendowski (1999) was administered to the participants. It consisted of 63 items measuring different constructs: receiving, evaluating, triggering, searching, formulating, implementing, and assessing. The reliability of the SRQ was computed through using Cronbach alpha, and the reliability index was 0.84, which was acceptable.

The second research instrument was the Learning Style Survey developed by Cohen, Oxford, and Chi (2001) consisting of 11 major activities representing 12 different aspects of one's learning style. The researcher clarified the terms which were not familiar to the participants. The reliability of the instrument, estimated through using Cronbach alpha, was .79, which was reasonable.

The third instrument was a paper and pencil TOEFL test adopted from sample TOEFL preparation book by Longman Publications (2014). The reliability of the test was calculated through running KR-21 method, and the reliability index was 0.76 accordingly.

Procedure: In order to correlate the participants' self-regulations with their learning styles and also measure their level of proficiency, the following procedure was followed: first, the TOEFL test was administered to learners to measure their proficiency level. Then the participants filled out the Self-Regulation Questionnaire (SRQ) including 63 items on a 5-point Likert scale. Finally, the Learning Style Survey questionnaire was administered which contained 11

major activities representing 12 different aspects of one's learning styles. The questionnaire was based on a Likert scale with the following scale points: 0) never, 1) rarely, 2) sometimes, 3) often, and 4) always. Finally, the completed questionnaires were collected, coded, and scored. The data on all items of each questionnaire and different components of the questionnaire were computed and converted into interval data.

V. DATA ANALYSIS

The data were displayed based on descriptive and inferential statistics. For the first three questions, Pearson correlation was utilized. However, for the last research question (exploring the interaction between the learners' gender, level of proficiency, self-regulated learning and learning styles), the groups' scores were submitted to Multivariate Analysis of Variances.

As shown in Table 1, the correlation between the beginner EFL language learners' learning styles and self-regulated learning is statistically significant. ($r=.051$, $n=30$, $p=0.001 < 0.05$). Therefore, it could be argued that based on the first research question, the null hypothesis restated as, "There is no correlation between beginner EFL learners' self-regulation and their learning styles" is rejected.

TABLE I
CORRELATION B/T BEGINNER EFL LEARNERS' LEARNING STYLES & SELF-REGULATED LEARNING

DV	Measure	IV (Learning Styles)
Self-regulation	Pearson Correlation	0.51
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
	N	30

As shown in Table 2, the correlation between the intermediate EFL language learners' learning styles and self-regulated learning is statistically significant. ($r=.054$, $n=30$, $p=0.001 < 0.05$). Therefore, it could be argued that based on the first research question, the null hypothesis restated as, "There is no correlation between intermediate EFL learners' self-regulation and their learning styles" is rejected.

TABLE II
CORRELATION B/T INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' LEARNING STYLES & SELF-REGULATED LEARNING

DV	Measure	IV (Learning styles)
Self-reg	Pearson Correlation	0.54
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
	N	30

As shown in Table 3, the correlation between the advanced EFL language learners' learning styles and self-regulated learning is statistically significant ($r=.056$, $n=30$, $p=0.001 < 0.05$). Thus, it could be argued that based on the third research question, the null hypothesis restated as, "There is no correlation between advanced EFL learners' self-regulation and their learning styles" is rejected.

TABLE III
CORRELATION B/T ADVANCED EFL LEARNERS' LEARNING STYLES & SELF-REGULATED LEARNING

DV	Measure	IV (Learning Styles)
Self-reg	Pearson Correlation	0.56
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.001
	N	30

As shown in Table 4, the interaction between learners' level of proficiency and their learning styles is not statistically significant. ($F=1$, $P=.36 > .05$). The results indicated that the interaction between learners' gender and their learning styles is not statistically significant. ($F=0.11$, $P=.74 > .05$). Besides, the interaction between EFL learners' gender and self-regulation is not statistically significant ($F=.09$, $P=.75 > .05$). Furthermore, the results revealed that the interaction between EFL learners' gender and proficiency regarding self-regulated learning and learning styles is not statistically significant. ($F=1.85$, $P=.17 > .05$). However, as it could be seen, EFL learners' proficiency significantly affects their self-regulated learning ($F=2.88$, $P=.04 < .05$), whereas the learners' level of proficiency does not affect their learning styles.

TABLE IV
MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF THE LEARNERS' SELF-REGULATED LEARNING AND LEARNING STYLES (TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS)

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	LS total	3595.16 ^a	5	719.03	.78	.562
	Self-reg	3211.10 ^b	5	642.22	1.73	.136
Intercept	LS total	1185541.15	1	1185541.15	1296.91	.000
	Self-reg	859068.06	1	859068.06	2324.12	.000
Proficiency	LS total	2934.76	3	978.25	1.07	.367
	Self-reg	3194.72	3	1064.98	2.88	.041
Gender	LS total	100.92	1	100.92	.11	.741
	Self-reg	35.81	1	35.81	.09	.756
proficiency * gender	LS total	1692.29	1	1692.29	1.85	.178
	Self-reg	256.34	1	256.34	.69	.408
	Self-reg	32042.32	83			

a. R Squared = .048 (Adjusted R Squared = -.013)

b. R Squared = .100 (Adjusted R Squared = .043)

*note: LS=Learning Styles; self-reg=self-regulation

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of the research revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between beginner, intermediate, and advanced EFL learners' learning styles and their self-regulation. Thus, it was found that the higher the learners' scores on language learning styles were, the more self-regulated learners they were. Also, between language learners' learning styles and their gender no significant relationship was detected. That is, male and female learners did not show differences in their language learning styles. However, certain studies indicated that gender matters and males and females have different learning styles (Aries, 1976; Dorval, 1990; Fox, 1990; Greb, 1999; Leet-Pellegrini, 1980; Marcus, 1977; Ong, 1989; Pizzo, 1990; Sadeghi, 2012; Thompson, 1975).

It was also explored that self-regulation and gender have no significant interaction, that is, both male and female language learners are self-regulated in the same way. This finding contradicts with the findings of previous studies (Jordan, 2013; Lee, 2002; Young & McSporran, 2001; Zimmerman & Martinez-pons, 1990), arguing that male and female learners show differences in using self-regulation (Bidjerano 2005; Hargittai & Shafer, 2006; Lee, 2002; Young & McSporran, 2001; Zimmermann & Martinez-Pons, 1990). Such a contradiction might be related to the differences in the context of the study as well as the number of the participants in the studies, which need to be investigated by some other researchers.

Language proficiency was another variable which was studied to see whether there was a relationship between learning styles and language proficiency. In addition, the researchers attempted to investigate if language proficiency affects self-regulation. As it was reiterated in the result section, EFL learners' proficiency significantly affected their self-regulation which was in line with a study done by Sahebkhair and Davatgari (2014) as well as Nabavi and Shangarfam (2012), in that the learners who improved their self-regulatory strategies were more proficient.

However, in this study, learners' level of proficiency did not affect their learning styles which was in line with the findings of Yeow, Tan, Loh, and Blitz (2010), who found that there was no relationship between self-rated proficiency in English and learning style preference. Such finding was contrary to the findings of the study done by Mirhassani, Akbari, and Dehghan (2007).

Due to the sample size of the study, the results must be interpreted with great care. Other researchers are recommended to replicate a study using different sample sizes. There might be some differences between the learners' different types of learning styles and different dimensions of self-regulation, which due to the limitations, were not addressed in the present study. Other researchers are recommended to replicate the same study investigating the EFL learners' use of different learning styles and different dimensions of self-regulation.

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The Representation of Chineseness in *Eat Drink Man Woman*

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Abstract—*Eat Drink Man Woman*, well-known as the last episode of “Father-Knows-Best” trilogy directed by Ang Lee, is attractive to numerous scholars following its nomination of Oscar. Through comparative studies, voluminous critics have devoted to the theme of globalization and cultural identity. However, few scholars notice that cultural identity as a sign of national image experiences a series of transformations. Therefore, this article mainly probes how the transformation of cultural identity changes the ideological component of national memory that contributes to nurturing the Chinese national identity. Father’s image and daughters’ role are prominently represented in the film, particularly father’s psychological changes in some sense projecting the transformation of traditional ideology. Thus, combined with historic background this article will set about the transformation of father’s role and daughter’s image which predicate the deconstruction of traditional gender discourse, trying to figure out how does the transformed ideology expressed through the deconstruction of gender discourse contribute to the reconstruction of Chinese national identity.

Index Terms—gender, Chineseness, identity, deconstruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Compared with *Pushing hands* (1991) and *The Wedding Banquet* (1993), *Eat Drink Man Woman* (1994) attaches more attention to the collision between tradition and modernity. The collision depicted in the film actually conforms to the historic changeover period of Taipei. The transition of tradition to modernity is a distinct characteristic of Chinese society at the end of 20th century due to the policy of reform and opening up. *Eat Drink Man Woman* sets the story at Taipei, dealing with a variety of family matters mainly focusing on inter-generational conflicts-between father and daughters. Simultaneously, it narrates the process by which a completely united family is eventually broken as a result of father’s remarriage and daughters’ getting married. Whitney Dilley once made a comment on the film that “both *Pushing Hand* and *The Wedding Banquet* tell a story as to how children let father down, while *Eat Drink Man Woman* in converse represents how father renders children down” (Dilley, 2015, p. 33). The father in his old age choosing a much younger woman who is his daughter’s age as his wife, causes great damage to moral rules, and deteriorates traditional ethic discipline. “Culture is an essential ideological component of national memory that contributes to nurturing national identity” (Edensor, 2002, p. 69). Therefore, the transition of father’s image indicates that the traditional moral ideology is to some extent fragmented, which hints the shake of traditional national identity. Besides father’s image, females’ striving for economic independence, love freedom and gender equality essentially reflects the requirements of the social transition. Conversely, the state during transitional period endows females with more chances to participate in social division of labor, encouraging women to pursue more freedom, rights and independence.

Much of recent scholarship on *Eat Drink Man Woman* has concentrated on family matters as to the conflict between father and daughters, which can be classified into the purview of ethic and gender issues; on conflict and tolerance between tradition and modernity, male and female, occident and orient, which are apparently represented; and also on cultural identity in the context of globalization. Whitney Dilley, in *Globalization and Cultural Identity in the Films of Ang Lee*, suggests that “the title *Eat Drink Man Woman*, which is translated literally from Chinese character “Yin Shi Nan Nu”, renders a hybrid feature—the combination of Chinese specific cultural connotation and western language” (Dilley, 2015, p. 118). The hybrid is apparent in globalization process. Also, a few scholars analyze the female images in feminism terms. For instance, compared with WeiWei’s relatively weak role in *The Wedding Banquet* which repeats the motif that female has to hinge on males for a better life, three daughters in *Eat Drink Man Woman* possess a sense of rebellion due to their courage to pursue love, freedom and independence. From *The Wedding Banquet* to *Eat Drink Man Woman*, the patriarchal system is to a large extent weakened. Undeniably, the rise of female groups and their struggling for right, freedom and equality challenge the binary opposition of gender, but few critics notice that this challenge, as a result of the transformation of female’s image from conservative to radical, meets the need of social transition.

“In addition to linking female gender with national identity from grand perspective—the transition of society, from the familiar personification of nature-as-female, it is an easy slide to read the nation-as-woman. This depicts “the motherland as spatial, embodied femaleness: the land’s fecundity, upon which the people depend, must be protected by defending the nation’s boundaries against invasion and violation by foreign males” (Kandiyoti, 1988, p. 285). Another easy slide is that “assigned responsibility for reproducing the group through time, women are singled out as “custodians of cultural particularism” and the symbolic repository of group identity” (ibid: 286). Thus, the above statements provide

me with justification to interpret the Chineseness in gender terms.

Therefore, this article mainly examines the cinematic representation of Chineseness through the disobedience to traditional gender discourse, and probes how the construction of national identity is related to gender and the medium of film. Through analysis, the conclusion can be made at two levels. Firstly, in terms of the film content, through the deconstruction of traditional gender discourse, females are free from the bondage of domestic area and participate into social works, which satisfies with the requirements of state transition. Secondly, in terms of the form, the disobedience to narrative desire which is based on traditional gender hierarchy, awaking audiences up. This narrative strategy breaks the traditional gender narrative which reduces female's body to the object of male's desire. By reducing the elaboration of female's body and increasing the depiction of how female striving for equality, the film creates a certain contact with the audience, which is conducive to forming an imagined community. Therefore, this article mainly develops analysis from the above two aspects, the deconstruction of gender discourse and the disobedience to narrative desire, which are in terms of film content and form respectively.

II. GENDER DISCOURSE IN ANG LEE'S FILM

"The term discourse used in this article in the sense is defined by Michel Foucault, indicating different ways in which realms of knowledge and social practice are constructed" (Wu, 2010, p. 155). "Discourse is formed by history and society, and embodies a kind of power relation which defines a certain social order and produces individual social status and subject position" (Foucault, 1991, p. 121). Critical analysis of gender discourse examines how social gender is constructed in society and history, and how it becomes an intrinsic part of daily life in the process of which sexual hierarchy and power relations are defined.

A. The Construction of Gender Discourse

"The core of traditional discourse is the patriarchy. It takes advantages of cultural concepts, institutional arrangements and status identification to uphold man's overbearing position and control of women" (Wu, 2010, p. 156). This traditional discourse is clearly embodied in several films directed by Ang Lee. Such films include *Pushing Hands* (1991), and *The Wedding Banquet* (1993). By comparison of two films, it is worth noting that *Pushing Hands* depicts a western female who succumbs to a Chinese male. Gender hierarchy has always been used as a sign of the relationship between occident and orient, the occident personified as "strong" male while the orient as "weak" female, with occident at center whereas orient at marginalized position. However, the question of how to interpret the phenomenon of a western female being controlled by a Chinese male is necessarily discussed. *Pushing Hands* narrates a traditional story about patriarchy - an American female succumbing to a Chinese male. The Chinese, as a matter of fact, is prohibited to marry American following the announcement of "Chinese Exclusion Law" in 1882. The iron law as an unshakable discourse at that time has determined the unequal relationship between America and China for so long time. It was not until the year of 1943 that the law is canceled. However, the rooted ideology that marriage between Chinese and American is extremely shameful still occupies most western mind even until the end of 20th century. Therefore, in *Pushing Hands*, an intensive criticism to the binary opposition between occident and orient, and a strong irony to western countries' mistaken imagination on China is produced through a vivid representation of exotic marriage. By situating a weak western female image into the context of the Chinese patriarchal family to discuss, the film unconsciously criticizes the patronizing gaze from occident. Simultaneously, by breaking up the unequal racial relationship, Chinese national image is relatively improved.

However, the removing of stereotype imposed by the west is simply by means of a gender metaphor. The foundation of patriarchal system in *Pushing Hands* is never shaken. Likewise, *The Wedding Banquet* upholds and celebrates the legitimacy of the traditional Confucian patriarchal system whereas it validates the underlying homophobic ideology. This homophobic ideology originates from public espousal of traditional gender hierarchy, making heterosexuality become discipline. "In Confucian patriarchy, the discontinuing of a family name due to the lack of an heir is regarded as the biggest offense against filial piety. A man's identity and purpose of existence are not complete until he begets a son" (Dilley, 2015, p. 36). In patriarchal agency governed by Confucian teachings, the existence of women can get their meaning only when they reproduce the patriarchal discourse through the bearing of male children. *The Wedding Banquet* ends up with all conflicts resolved. Despite the fact that Wei-Tung as the sole son in a traditional family is homosexual, his combination with Weiwei contributes to the continuing of the off-springs, which solids the patriarchal value. In addition, the strengthening of patriarchal dominance relies on the degeneration of female's image. Weiwei's image is marginalized at two levels. Firstly, she is jobless in America at the risk of being chased away at any time, for she does not get green card. Such a dependent image is set up at the opening scene of the film. Secondly, without regular job and wage, Weiwei attempts to rely on a male to ensure her life. Therefore, the traditional gender discourse is vividly represented in these films.

"According to historical background, the fundamental position of the Chinese government on gender issue has not changed greatly since the reforms started in the 1980s. However, some new contents and forms have been added to the narrative of state discourse. Equality between the sexes has become a basic state policy and woman's equal status has been fully confirmed in official discourse. The Chinese government also enacted the Law of the People's Republic of China on the Protection of Rights and Interests of Women in 1992 and published Development Guidelines for Chinese

Women in 1995" (Wu, 2010, p. 160).

Given the above contexts, woman's liberation is closely related to national reform and modernization. Based on this background, the fact that most of critics of *Eat Drink Man Woman* focus on the conflict between tradition and modernity is justifiable. Later, this article will probe how the disobedience to traditional gender discourse represented in the film reflects the social transition.

Pushing Hands and *The Wedding Banquet* never break up the patriarchal value, but *Eat Drink Man Woman* makes a great breakthrough in this aspect. Having discussed the national identity through gender narrative, it is of great necessity to make a deep research on this issue on the basis of the text to see how the deconstruction of gender discourse mirrored in the film is related to national identity.

B. The Deconstruction of Gender Discourse

In *Eat Drink Man Woman*, the disobedience to the gender discourse is mainly expressed at two levels, the rebellious spirits of females and the crumble patriarchal control.

Females' rebellious spirits can be seen through the performance of Jia-chen. The bickering between Mr. Chu and Jia-chen starts from the use of kitchen, gradually developing into a power struggle between parents and child, man and woman. Jia-chen, a promising cook in her own worlds, is never allowed to step into her father's kitchen, which is clearly represented at the outset of the movie.

While Mr. Chu is preparing for dinner, a pan shot directs the viewer to his kitchen, which is a place full of masculine vigor. "One sees various kinds of knives lining up on the wall, making the kitchen more like a war zone or the practice field of a martial artist than a homey domain. In the following shot, dozens of condiments and herbs settled on the shelves and hung on a string resemble the counter of a pharmacist" (Dilley, 2015, p. 178). There is a certain therapeutic effect in this virile display of power, skill, and professionalism, which "de-feminizes the home kitchen by showing off a father's total control of the space" (ibid, p.179).

Most critics interpret Mr. Chu's tyrannical protection as a manifestation of conventional male bias, for the daughter is not allowed to become a chef, which is a male privilege not only in China but in Europe and America as well. In addition to this prejudice, there is still another level of meaning that needs to be considered: his father envisions that his brilliant second daughter is bound to achieve something higher than simply being a good cook. Given the real situation in China that most of parents hope their children own a promising future, the second interpretation obviously makes sense. However, it is worth noting that Mr. Chu's high expectation on his daughter actually reflects the gradually weakened traditional ideology that "a woman without talent is virtuous." (女子无才便是德). In history, females are not allowed to step out of the domestic area, let alone to join into the affairs of the state. Even during the period from 1949 to 1978, females still have no chance for schooling due to poverty-stricken situation. For a long time, males are always privileged to acquire educational resources. From Mr. Chu's education concept, there is no difficulty in seeing the fundamental transition of female's social position. Given the background of shooting time, woman's movements in Taiwan benefited from the momentum created during the democratization phase of the early 1990s. They have since become a powerful force, pushing for gender equality measures such as mandatory gender quotas. "Riding on the wave of momentum created by the democratization trend that first started in the late 1980, woman's organizations have been a powerful force behind gender politics in Taiwan" (Clark and Lee, 2000, p. 32). The female roles in *Eat Drink Man Woman* are to some extent set in accordance with the reality of female situation in the context of social transition.

In the finale of the movie, Jia chen moves back into the old house, returning back to the space of kitchen which is the representative of the patriarchy. Jia chen's rebellious spirit reflects females' resistance to patriarchal control. If Mr. Chu's educational concept unconsciously appeals to equality between man and woman, Jia chen's aggressive intrusion to father's space which has always been dominated by himself, should become a symbol of taking place of the father. This behavior fundamentally deconstructs the traditional gender discourse to some extent.

In addition to females' image, the male's role also deserves to be noticed. When all three of his daughters work, Mr. Chu is always seen moping around the house: he cooks, cleans, and does laundry for the whole family. These domestic activities render him to take up the role of a feminized housekeeper. Simultaneously, his three daughters are outside the house, joining different work forces. They actively participate in the construction of a new female identity in which the gender boundary between the inside and the outside has been reconfigured in the context of the Taiwan's changing economy.

This collapse of spatial and ideological boundary amounts to an important inquiry into the traditional structure of family unit within which father and mother often embody the opposition between inside and outside, femininity and masculinity. The film adopts a progressive perspective that neutralizes the imperious power of Mr. Chu by transforming him into a housekeeper who diligently performs traditionally woman's labor. It is in this sense that we see the promising trans-sexual aspects of Mr. Chu who is willing to adapt and contribute to the progress of society. His action, in a sense, facilitates women's liberation in and from the house and his ambiguous role as an overbearing patriarch and protective matriarch steers the film towards a deconstruction of conventional gender hierarchy.

Since the twentieth century, emancipating females is one of the goals of the New Culture Movement (around the time of the May 4th Movement in 1919). New intellectuals suggest that females being able to receive education and participate into government affairs are the key to the transition of the state. The transition of the state means

optimization of social structure from politics, economy to culture, which contributes to the reconstruction of the national identity.

Having discussed the disobedience to gender discourse from both male and female's image, it is of necessity to discuss it from the perspective of traditional Confucianism. The discontinuing of the male heir that discussed in *The Wedding Banquet* acquires a different interpretation in *Eat Drink Man Woman*. The latter one well explains that females' strong resolution to take care of parents is no less than males. In *Pushing Hands*, the representation of filial piety finds its expression in filial accompany with parents. For instance, whether son or daughter, the only child should live with their parents, giving them enough care and accompany, which is the fuse for the bickering between wife and husband in *Pushing Hand*. In *Eat Drink Man Woman*, facing the reality that the three daughters will eventually leave him, following the reconstruction of their own family, and being unable to live or stay with him forever, the father has to consider the same question that all Chinese parents must face- filial accompany at their senectitude.

Though with the same motif of filial accompany, the two films have a totally different ending. *Pushing Hand* ends up with a comedy that the family reunite, while *Drink Eat Man Woman* witnesses a sad story in which the family is fragmented, two daughters having their own family, one daughter leading her own life without father's company any more. By comparison, it is worth probing the reason why males as an irrevocable bond, are capable of keeping the integrity of a family while females are not. In fact, this question discloses a common phenomenon in China that males as legitimate inheritor, inherit almost all properties from last generation, ranging from estate property to wealth, so they should take responsibility to care for the elderly life of their parents. In contrast, females once getting married, are soon excluded out of the original family scope. Given two different endings, it is worth noting that the reason actually lies in the difference of gender identity. In *Pushing Hands*, in face of the objection from wife, the son insists on living with father, which is representative of the patriarchal authority. In *Eat Drink Man Woman*, the real power, however, is grasped by the hands of father. The rooted ideology that daughters are unable to be counted on forces father to choose a woman who's his daughter's age, which reflects Chinese rural rituals about "raising male children can prevent one from loneliness in old age". In *Pushing Hand*, the son as the male identity is obviously more powerful than the three daughters in *Eat Drink Man Woman*.

However, the ambiguous identity of Jia Chen enables female image to be more powerful. Firstly, at the opening scene of the film, Jia Chen shows independent female image by means of moving out. This behavior illustrates her inner world that she desires to be an independent woman. Jia-chen, of the three daughters, who most likely leaves her father at last moves back and stays in the old house. Between promising job and old father, Jia chen chooses the latter one without any hesitation. In fact, Jia chen's decision proves that she expects to be like father's son to take care of the elderly life of her father. Therefore, though defined in biological terms, father and Jia chen are male and female respectively, their ambiguous gender identity reflected in the labor division, with father playing mother's role, while daughter playing a son's role, breaks the unbalance in gender.

In the reform movement of 1898, the function of female's reproduction to the construction of the state is highly stressed. A healthy woman has a strong bearing on the cultivation of next generations, and a brand-new nation mostly depends on the new generation. However, this standpoint serving up for the patriarchal value, defines female value as cultivating the next generation. Females are limited to the household of domestic area. Jill Vickers argues that "patriarchal social relations can be interpreted as one way of constructing enduring forms of social organization, group cohesion and identity" (Vickers, 1990, p. 483). In another word, female's emancipation, deconstructing the patriarchal center, is of great significance to the transformation of the state.

As to the above two viewpoints, a conclusion can be made at two levels. Firstly, female gender is closely related to national identity. Secondly, a positive viewpoint about female is that a large proportion of uneducated female corresponds to a relatively undeveloped nation, while the increasing number of modern and educated females can contribute to building a progressive and civilized national identity.

The above two points can be demonstrated by a comparison of the female images in Zhang Yimou and Ang Lee's film. In *Raise the Red Lantern* (1991), one of the most representative films by Zhang Yimou, wins the 64th Oscar. This film sets the story at the republic years of China which is during the period from 1912 to 1949. The film highlights that females' miserable fate is due to a tyrannical control by both patriarchal dominance and conservative feudalism. In this sense, the relation between female and nation is constructed. While Ang Lee's *Eat Drink Man Woman*, by elaborating the changeable relations between father and daughter, which is a metaphor of relations between man and woman, on the surface focuses on cultural collision and family matters, actually reflecting the background of the traditional society transiting toward modern society. Therefore, the different female images, either civilized or uncivilized, educated or uneducated, represented through the medium of film, can influence thousands of audiences' imagination of China. Teresa Joseph also evinces that gender and nation are identities based on social and historic that construct, playing an important role in the formation of each other as well.

III. DISOBEDIENCE TO THE NARRATIVE DESIRE

Having discussed the relation between traditional gender discourse and national identity, it is significant to turn to the relationship between national identity and cinema. "Aesthetically, the main features of the 19th century novel according to Anderson's persuasive account become fundamental in allowing readers to consider themselves as members of

national community, namely the idea of simultaneity and the chronotope, were both inherited by cinema, through parallel editing and mise-en-scene respectively, and were all the more effective since they did not require literacy to convey meaning” (Gaines, 2003, p.102). The cinema-going experience is a particularly effective way to interpellate an audience in the complex process of identity-construction, including, of course, the construction of national identity. Zhang Yimou’s *Hero* is understood as a film about the representation of the Chineseness. The Chineseness of *Hero* lies in its embodiment of the philosophy of Tao. The film is interpreted as conveying the message that individual’s sacrifice is the ultimate good if it is for the benefit of the larger group, and that loyalty to the national group overrides everything. Likewise, the disobedience to narrative desire which is a narrative strategy based on gender hierarchy in *Eat Drink Man Woman*, appealing to the equality between man and woman, indicates a prosperous and modern national image.

Discussion of narrative desire and the dynamics of reading pleasure are most often inflected by psychoanalysis, as shown in Peter Brook’s *Reading for the Plot and Teresa de Lauretis’s Alice Doesn’t: Feminism, Semiotics, and Cinema*, both published in 1984. As these two texts “continue to inform discussion of desire in narrative, it is fundamental to return to them in order to contextualize my examination of *Eat Drink Man Woman*” (Brooks, 1984, p.145). For Brooks, narrative desire works at the levels of both story and discourse: “Narrative both tell of desire-typically present some story of desire-and arouse and make use of desire as dynamics of signification” (ibid: 147). Brooks’ theory of narrative desire is founded on gender privilege that takes heterosexual male desire and pleasure as universal, trans-historical, and trans-cultural. In a theory that employs the Freudian model as the foundation for all narrative desire, female narrative desire and subjectivity are always delimited by the masculine Oedipus: “the movement of narrative discourse, which specifies and even produces the masculine position as that of the mythical subject, and the feminine position as mythical obstacle or simply, the space in which that movement occurs” (De Lauretis, 1993, p.143). Female spectators, then are seduced into femininity by identifying with both the masculine subject and the feminine other. Winnett clearly shows how accounts of narrative desire that rely upon gender hierarchies do not adequately account for female narrative desire. This essay presents a reading of *Eat Drink Man Woman* from a perspective that is different from many of the early academic and popular reviews and readings of the film. The film articulates the kinds of resistance that Winnett “proposes and enacts the proliferation of stories from multiple perspectives”(Winnett, 1990, p.123). The film resists militaristic patriarchal master narratives thematically through the refusal of moving sex directly on the screen. Whitney in “Globalization and Cultural Identity in the Films of Ang Lee” voices that in the two pairs of the four-word idiom, *Eat Drink Man Woman*, the larger motif of food and sex, the fundamental components of all human life, are implied in a neat short-hand of translated Chinese. The title refers to a popular classical characterization of basic human needs: drink (yin), eat(shi),and sex(nan nv) are irrepressible human desires. This premise highlights the physical and ideological connection between food and desires in the story.

As the film opens, the viewer is treated to the sights and sounds of all manner of traditional Chinese gourmet cooking, which “presumably involves the use of certain tools, cooking techniques, and animal organs not found in the western kitchen. This may provide a shock or at least a pleasurable voyeurism for the western viewer” (Dilley, 2015, p. 197). This voyeurism aroused by the food, is a metaphor of male’s desire for female. From opening scene to the end of the film, there are so many close-ups on the food, with the family sitting around the table to conduct weekly communication. In communication of the first five times, the topic almost revolves around daughters’ matter, either moving out for independence, or finding their own love one after another. Particularly, in the last family communication that is the sixth time, when Mr.chu declares his love to Jingrong, the news takes everyone aback. Mr.chu’s hidden idea which relates to both sexual desire and passion for a much younger female is simply represented through an implicit way—representing the food, which is human’s original desire.

In “Ang Lee’s film, female body has always been subject to males’ gaze, satisfying voyeurism of the audience. Male as the subject of the gazing while female as the object being gazed, of which the unequal position between man and woman has always been a metaphor of the relationship between the occident and the orient. That is to say, China as the otherness is always gazed by western country. This metaphor relation between gender and national imagination is conducive to breaking up the occidental imagination of China by the disobedience to the narrative desire. Secondly, by reducing to take female’s body as a gimmick, the film in narrative terms weakens the gaze from males and avoids the internalization of this gaze among female groups. This awakes the audiences up, forming a new imagined community, which contributes to the embrace of new national identity.

IV. CONCLUSION

Through a close-reading of *Eat Drink Man Woman*, this article conducts a detailed study on the relation between gender and national identity from two aspects: the deconstruction of gender discourse and the disobedience to narrative desire. By considering the real situation of China in 1990s, which is also the shooting time of the film, this article contends that the ambiguous gender identity reflected in the film accords with the real situation of the historic background, satisfying the requirements of the social transition. In terms of the narrative strategy, the film breaks the traditional gender narrative. Both in content and form, the film helps to break up the binary opposition of gender, contributing to the interaction with audiences, and therefore forms an imagined community, which is eventually representative of a new Chinese national identity.

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Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
 - o Submission of extended version
 - o Notification of acceptance
 - o Final submission due
 - o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at <http://www.academypublication.com/jltr/>

Power-oriented and Rapport-oriented Interruptions Among Professional Women in Small Group Conversations <i>Angelina Subrayan and Chitra Muthusamy</i>	585
Some Linguistic Features of the Baeu Rodo Scriptures <i>Lianzhi Lu</i>	595
Ikhin Tone and Nasality: Autosegmental Effects <i>Oladimeji Olaide A. and Opoola Bolanle T.</i>	603
Ambivalence of Cosmopolitanism: A Study of Kazuo Ishiguro's Writing <i>Tingxuan Liu</i>	611
EFL Learners' Learning Styles and Self-regulated Learning: Do Gender and Proficiency Level Matter? <i>Jahanbakhsh Nikoopour and Mohammad Shaker Khoshroudi</i>	616
The Representation of Chineseness in <i>Eat Drink Man Woman</i> <i>Mengjie Zhou</i>	624
