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Contents

Developing PowerPoint Standards for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language

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Abstract—As we live in a time when standards, frameworks, and benchmarks are becoming increasingly prominent, it makes sense that some sort of teacher technology standards would be desirable. Standards on the state or national levels call for the integrating of multimedia into teaching, but there are not clear guidelines illustrating how integrating a technology into the classroom should be accomplished. Nor is there an evaluation system in place to ensure that teachers possess the multimedia skills and knowledge required in teaching. It is thus important to devise a set of teacher technology standards as a resource for teachers as they attempt to integrate multimedia into their curricula. Therefore, this study provided a set of guidelines and standards for evaluating PowerPoint presentations for use in language teaching to provide more support to language teachers at the institutional level. In this article, four case studies of PowerPoint presentation in Chinese language teaching sample slides are explored to show how the devised standard guidelines and a score assessment system can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of a presentation and thus to help language instructors to develop their skills in making PowerPoint Presentations and improving teaching effectiveness. A proposed teacher PowerPoint standards were developed based on the author's personal experience teaching Chinese using multimedia in classrooms in China, Europe and America will also be shared in this case study.

Index Terms—standards, case study, professional development, PowerPoint presentation, evaluation

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching standards or guidelines have been set at both the national and state levels to promote effective use of technology in the classroom. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) acknowledges and encourages employing the potential of technology as a tool to support and enhance classroom-based language instruction. However, since language is one of the most complex of all human activities and interactions, ACTFL recognizes the pivotal role of a qualified language teacher to incorporate and manage the implementation of technology so that it effectively supports the language learning experience (ACTFL, 2012b). At the state level, the California Commission on Teacher Credentialing (CCTC)'s California Standards for the Teaching Profession: Continuum of Teaching Practice (CSTP) describes the following teaching practices regarding technology use (CCTC, 2014):

- Standard 1.4: "Using a variety of instructional strategies, resources and technologies to meet students' diverse learning needs";
- Standard 3.5: "Using and adapting resources, technologies, and standards-aligned instructional materials, including adopted materials, to make subject matter accessible to all students";
- Standard 5.6: "Using available technologies to assist in assessment, analysis, and communication of student learning."

Hanban[1] (2007) published standards for technology-enhanced Chinese language teaching. It stated that teachers should "demonstrate an understanding of the basic knowledge and operation of computers, be familiar with various kinds of software and multimedia devices in teaching Chinese, and be able to use them appropriately in teaching Chinese to speakers of other languages." These standards appear to realize the value of technology in making learning Chinese an active and engaged experience.

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

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

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[1] Hanban, also known as Confucius Institute Headquarters, is the colloquial abbreviation for the Office of Chinese Language Council International. It was originally called the China National Office for Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language, which was established in 1987.

workshops, lack of personal guidance and consultancy, lack of suitable instructional software and hardware and time constraints.

As we live in a time when standards, frameworks, and benchmarks are becoming increasingly prominent, it makes sense that some sort of teacher technology standards would be desirable. Standards on the state or national levels call for the integrating of multimedia into teaching, but there are not clear guidelines illustrating how integrating a technology into the classroom should be accomplished. Nor is there an evaluation system in place to ensure that teachers possess the multimedia skills and knowledge required in teaching. To address this gap, this study develops a set of teacher technology standards as a resource for teachers as they attempt to integrate multimedia into their curricula. Using four case studies of PowerPoint presentation samples, this study illustrates how a set of devised standard guidelines and a score assessment system can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of a presentation.

II. METHODOLOGY

The proposed teacher PowerPoint (PPT) standards given below are devised based on years of personal experience teaching Chinese using multimedia in classrooms in China, Europe, and America. In addition, several Chinese language instructors in California who teach multiple levels of Chinese have been consulted about their experiences, suggestions, and problems with using multimedia in teaching, who offered me their PPT samples. In addition, the extant literature has been reviewed regarding the preparation and evaluation of effective PowerPoints for teaching. Moreover, information on the standard was gathered during discussions with Dr. David Hemphill from San Francisco State University and Dr. Hui Zhang from Beijing Normal University. In addition, Hanban (2017) provided more information about how to make an effective PPT for teaching and how to evaluate it.

During the period that these guidelines and grading system were being developed in 2014, 40 PPTs from 40 different Teach Chinese as a Foreign Language (TCFL) teachers from all over the world were reviewed. Of those PPT samples, eight of them were downloaded from the Confucius Institute Online Teaching Resources, ten were downloaded from the Hanban Chinese language volunteer teacher training program resources obtained when the researcher was in the training program, ten were from graduate students majoring in Teaching Chinese as A Second Language Teacher who studied at universities in both China and United States, and 12 were from local Chinese language instructors in Northern California. After reviewing all those PPTs, it proves the problems of lacking guidance of using PPT when develop curriculum and prepare teaching materials that the eight Chinese language teachers whom the author interviewed were facing, and strongly supports for the development of standards. The standards of selecting the participants were mainly based on their years of teaching experience, interest of using PPT and other technology in teaching, as well as the PPT slide products that they shared with me. The interview was conducted either over the phone or face to face for about an hour.

As described previously, the number of Chinese language instructors using multimedia to teach Chinese in their classrooms has increased. At the same time, some problems have been discovered in how the TCFL teachers are using multimedia in teaching. After phone interviews with eight Chinese language teachers from different schools in Northern California about their use of PPT in teaching, it became clear that many of them do not yet know how to incorporate appropriate multimedia tools and software to teach Chinese. Among those who reported that they did use PPT very often in teaching Chinese language, most them did not get as good results as they expected. They reported that they had not really realized that PPT is a software that not only can integrate texts and images but also audio, video, animation and other software and links. Also, they revealed a belief on their part that there are not enough related training programs. Therefore, it can be concluded that there have not been enough professional teacher training programs offered to those Chinese language teachers in this field, thus most of them did not know how to incorporate appropriate multimedia tools and software, including PPT, to teach Chinese effectively. Consequently, there is a need to develop a set of standards for Chinese language teachers to employ to incorporate multimedia into their teaching.

To safeguard personal information, teachers who provided the samples of PowerPoint presentations for use in the case studies were also protected from disclosure of school information.

III. STANDARDS

A. Standards to Intergrade PowerPoint into Chinese Language Teaching

Presentation tools allow students and teachers to take text, numerical data, graphs, sounds, and visual images and organize this information into multimedia presentations. While it is possible to use multiple media – for example, audios and images – within a presentation, it is also possible to create a text-only presentation. Although PowerPoint support the creation of complex presentations, the degree of complexity is very much under the control of the creator. This paper introduces a set of standards that provide guidance on how instructors can effectively use PPTs in Chinese language teaching classrooms.

To show how to use the standard along with the grading system to compare effective and ineffective uses of PPTs for creating vital lessons, eight PPT slides were selected out of the 40 PPTs to form four case studies, comparing effective PPTs with ineffective ones based on general rules, technology use, and artistic quality. Moreover, included are analyses explaining the reasons why those slides were selected for this comparison of effective and ineffective PPT slides. By

following this standard and grading scale, they can understand the best ways to take advantage of multimedia use to overcome the disadvantages of traditional teaching and this will also help with improving the quality of their teaching and hone their skills.

The devised standards have two uses: on the one hand, the standards may be used by Chinese language teachers to develop a general idea about common multimedia tools and software for use in classroom teaching and how to use them, as well as general guidelines for creating PPTs for teaching, and how to use multimedia to teach appropriately and effectively; on the other hand, the standards can also be used as a reference when conducting evaluations of teachers' PPTs for teaching Chinese. Based on the two purposes stated above, the proposed standards for multimedia use for Chinese language teaching contain the following categories: (1) general rules; (2) content and curriculum sequence; (3) technology use; and (4) artistic quality. For each of the parts, an original grading system was created as well as a standard based on the functions and rules for a PPT to be used as multimedia in Chinese language classes.

First, the "general rules" part is mainly about the basic rules and skills for making an effective PPT. Those rules can be used for PPTs for any subject and presentation. They are the basic elements of any PPT including font, color, quantity of lines, slides, and other elements. Also, making each slide simple and concise for easy reading by students is a necessity. Another requirement is the use of hyperlinks to insert different multimedia tools in one PPT to save slides and time. Of course, it is important to make sure that each slide contains useful information as well. These basic "grand" rules, which are so important in making the first impression and establishing study attitudes, were assigned a total of 20 points distributed among seven categories. When using this standard as well as the point system to grade a PPT, points can be added or deducted from a category as details are detected.

Second, "content and curriculum sequence", the core part of the standards, consists of four categories: listening, speaking, reading and writing. This very important part displays the significant knowledge and information for the students. Each category has sub-categories showing the detailed contents of each category. For example, "writing" has two sub-categories: "Chinese characters" and "grammar." Also, the description for using different multimedia for each of the sub-categories is different based on the characteristics of each medium. For instance, when teaching how to write a Chinese character, teachers would use "text, animation and Chinese character-writing software to teach Chinese characters" but not audio or video.

Using the grading system to evaluate a PPT depends upon what categories are taught. For example, if a teacher teaches all four categories – listening, speaking, reading, and writing in one lesson, then the PPT would be graded with all 40 points. However, if the PPT is used to teach only listening and speaking in this lesson, the total points used for its total would be 20 points. Therefore, grading a PPT on its content and curriculum sequence should be based on what categories the teacher is teaching.

Third, the part "technology use" includes two categories: "multimedia design and effect" and "operating conditions." Under each of these root categories, there are also sub-categories as well. The "multimedia design and effect" is mainly about the selection, use and design of multimedia which is the basis of integrating multimedia in PPTs. Only by making appropriate and effective selection of multimedia tools can a teacher design and produce good teaching materials to attract students and improve their teaching quality. However, a good PPT alone is not enough; access to operation hardware is also essential because without operating hardware, the most fantastic PPT goes unused and is useless. Therefore, a good operation environment and situation are imperative for ensuring that the software can be used. Since using multimedia in teaching is becoming an integral teaching strategy, this standard is also created for teaching and evaluating how to integrate multimedia in the PPT, so this part is worth 30 points.

The last critique for evaluating a good PPT is the overall artistic quality, the artistic effect of the design. This part consists of three categories including slide effect, aesthetic effect, and extra credit. Its purpose is to evaluate whether the PPT is a clear, united, harmonious, and balanced piece for the whole PPT design. Attractive, unique, and creative elements will gain extra credit for it. The artistic effect is worth ten points.

TABLE 1
TEACHER STANDARDS FOR INTEGRATING POWERPOINT INTO TCFL

Standards	Categories	Sub-Categories	Description
General Rules (20 points)	Only use multimedia when there is a need, don't show any slides that are not related to teaching that waste time (0-2 points)		
	Be Simple and concise, easy for students to follow with no confusion (0-3 points)		
	Use no more than five lines of text on one slide (0-3 points)		
	Use no more than two or three different fonts and at least a 28 font size on one slide (0-3 points)		
	Use between three and six colors per screen (0-3 points)		
	No more than 50 Slides in a PPT (0-3 points)		
	Use hyperlink to insert text, image, video, audio, animation, etc. to save more slides (0-3 points)		
Content & curriculum sequence (40 points)	Listening (10 points)	Pronunciation	Integrate audio and video to teach pronunciation;
		Vocabulary	Integrate text, audio and video to teach vocabulary
		Text	
	Speaking (10 points)	Pronunciation	Use audio and video to teach
		Conversation	Use audio video and image to help students to get output
		Simulation	
	Reading (10 points)	Vocabulary	Use image, text, audio, and video to do reading
		Text	
	Writing (10 points)	Chinese Characters	Use text, animation and Chinese characters writing software to teach Chinese characters
		Grammar	Use text audio, video, and images to teach Chinese Grammar
Technology Use (30 points)	Multimedia Design & Effect (18 points)	Selection of Multimedia (6 points)	Good, appropriate selection of multimedia tools; good balance using text, image, video, audio, animation, etc. (0-6 points)
		The use of multimedia (6 points)	Use good software or online resources; or DIY an appropriate PPT with different multimedia tools for the class (0-6 points)
		Design (6 points)	DIY; Good technical and design skills; teaching materials are appropriate; Production Good and attractive to students (0-6 points)
	Operating Conditions (12 points)	Operation Environment (6 points)	The PPT and the computer will not "shut down" by accident; no mistakes in navigation and links; Good operational conditions (0-6 points)
		Operational circumstances (6 points)	Easy to start and operate, flexible, good interaction, transaction time is short between slides and hyperlinks (0-6 points)
Artistic Quality (10 points)	Effects of the Design (10 points)	Slide Effect (4 points)	Clarity (clear background, appropriate font and text), creativity, unity and harmony, consistency, simple and smart navigation (0-4 points)
		Aesthetic Effect (4 points)	Focal point/Eye catching, balanced colors and background (0-4 points)
		Extra Credits (2 points)	Unique, creative, and attractive, showed independent thinking, creates an interactive (0-2 points)

B. Case Studies: Effective versus Ineffective Presentations

As mentioned above, one reason to develop these standards with the grading system is that they can be used as a reference in evaluating how the TCFL teachers are integrating multimedia in the PPTs they have used for teaching in classes. They should know the criteria for judging an ideal PPT that will integrate multimedia into a PPT. Moreover, they should also learn what and how to integrate multimedia in PPTs for their teaching.

The following are eight PPT slides selected out of the 40 PPTs reviewed as examples to show effective PPTs versus ineffective ones based on general rules, technology use and artistic quality. Moreover, included are analyses explaining the reasons why those slides were selected for this comparison of effective and ineffective PPT slides. By following this standard and grading scale, they can understand the best ways to take advantage of multimedia use to overcome the disadvantages of traditional teaching; this will also help ameliorate the quality of their teaching and hone their skills. Also, for future reference, these authentic examples will provide a visual illustration by which they can see what works and what does not.

Cases 1 and 2 demonstrate both ineffective presentations and effective presentations as evaluated based on the "general rules". Case 3 presents a contrasting presentation based on "technology use", while Case 4 displays a contrasting presentation based on its "artistic quality".

Case 1: Ineffective Presentation

Figure 1 Ineffective Presentation based on the General Rules of Standards (Case 1)

Figure 1 is a slide teaching a text; it does not agree with the following general rules:

1. The standard indicates that a PPT slide should be simple and concise, easy for students to follow without confusion for 0-3 Points. However, this slide has a very messy background and does not show the content clearly. Also, neither the font nor the color of Pinyin above the Chinese characters is easy for students to read. Thus, this may confuse them. For this reason, three points will be deducted during the evaluation.
2. The standard also states that a PPT slide should use no more than five lines of text on one slide (0-3 Point); there are seven lines on this one slide. Therefore, three points will be deducted during the evaluation.
3. The standard also notes that a PPT slide should use at least a 28 font size on a slide; a 20 font size is used here; it does not meet the requirements (0-3 Points).
4. In evaluating the artistic quality, it is also evident that this slide shows neither a good slide effect nor a good aesthetic effect. It does not have a clear, balanced color and background, it does not use an appropriate font, and it is so crowded that it is hard to tell if it has creativity, unity and harmony, or consistency. It is not eye catching at all. In this case, this slide also loses points for artistic quality.

Case 1: Effective Presentation

Figure 2 Effective Presentation based on the General Rules of Standards (Case 1)

Figure 2 is a slide teaching a text; it meets the general rules due to the following reasons:

1. This slide meets the standard that a PPT slide should be kept simple and concise, easy for students to follow without confusion (0-3 Point). The background of this slide is very clear and easily shows the content. Also, both the Pinyin and the Chinese characters are easy for students to see. Thus, this author will receive three points during the evaluation.
2. This slide almost meets the standard that a PPT slide should use no more than five lines of text on one slide (0-3 Point); this one has eight lines on this one slide. However, other aspects cause this not to detract; therefore, the author will get those three points as well.
3. This slide meets the standard that a PPT slide should have at least a 28 font size on one slide.

Case 2: Ineffective Presentation

Figure 3 Ineffective Presentation based on the General Rules of Standards (Case 2)

Figure 3 is a slide teaching the target vocabulary; it does not agree with some of the general rules or with some rules for using multimedia to teach vocabulary. Consider the following:

1. The standard states that a PPT slide should use between three and six colors per screen (0-3 Point) while this slides uses ten different colors which can be confusing to follow. Therefore, three points will be deducted during the evaluation.
2. The standard also notes a requirement to integrate text, audio, and video to teach vocabulary (0-3 Point). However, this PPT does not use any audios or videos. It uses only texts for teaching vocabulary, which is similar to the traditional way of teaching.

Case 2: Effective Presentation

Figure 4 Effective Presentation based on General Rules of Standards (Case 2)

Figure 4 is a slide teaching targeted vocabulary; it meets all the general rules of the standard and shows a contrast with the ineffective presentation:

1. This slide meets the standards that a PPT slide should keep it simple and concise, easy for students to follow without confusion (0-3 Point); and that it should use between three and six colors per screen (0-3 Point) as well as the other rules. In summary, this is a very clear slide for showing its content.
2. This slide meets the standard for integrating text, audio, and video to teach vocabulary (0-3 Point). The picture shows that the author added hyperlinks for inserting audios to teach pronunciation of the vocabulary which displays a difference from using the traditional way where teachers read and students try to repeat. With the audio inserted into the PPT, it is easy and convenient for students to follow the audio any time that they choose to do outside of class if the teachers share their PPT with students.

Case 3: Ineffective Presentation

Figure 5 Ineffective Presentation based on the Technology Use Rules of Standards (Case 3)

Figure 5 is a slide teaching how to write a Chinese Character; it does not meet the rules of using multimedia to teach Chinese characters due to the following reasons: The standard states that a PPT slide should use text, animation, and Chinese character-writing software to teach Chinese characters, but this slide only shows the picture of how to write the Chinese character; the students does not see how to write the character stroke by stroke by means of animation or software. Thus, even though the teacher displayed the pictures showing how to write this word by using separate pictures with the required strokes added in each picture, it is not different from using the traditional way to teach. Also, since this is a two-stroke Chinese character, it is easy to show the writing with only pictures. When it is a complicated character consisting of 20 strokes, it is very difficult to show the writing process with pictures since one picture shows only one stroke movement. Therefore, inserting only pictures to teach the strokes of the Chinese characters does not meet the standards.

Case 3: Effective Presentation
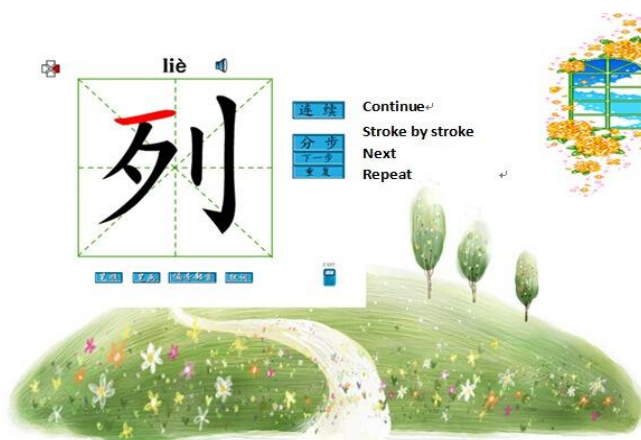
Figure 6 Effective Presentation based on Technology Use Rules of Standards (Case 3)

Figure 6 is a slide teaching how to write a target Chinese character; it meets the standard of using multimedia to teach Chinese characters due to the following reasons:

1. The standard expresses that a PPT slide should use text, animation, and Chinese character-writing software to teach Chinese characters which this slide has done by inserting a hyperlink of the software that shows how to write the Chinese character animated stroke by animated stroke. Also, the student can click on "continue", "next" and "repeat" to see the writing procedure. In this case, the students not only can learn how to write a certain word by themselves, but also all the characters that they want to learn the meanings of and to write with this software at any time they want. It is as if the students have a free teacher writing the Chinese characters. At the same time, the teacher saved time showing the students how to write the characters in class. Therefore, the way that this teacher inserted the animation to teach Chinese characters met the standards and got the points since it proves the advantages of using multimedia in class to benefit both the teachers and the students.

2. This slide meets the technology use standards because the author made a good selection and use of multimedia. For instance, inserting the software for demonstrating the animation of writing Chinese characters made a good, appropriate selection of multimedia tools and it is also good software and online

resources (0-6 Point). In summary, this slide earned points by showing an efficient way of inserting multimedia in teaching Chinese.

Case 4: Ineffective Presentation

Figure 7 Ineffective Presentation based on Artistic Quality Rules of Standards (Case 4)

Figure 7 does not meet the artistic quality standard due to the following reasons:
1. The standard indicates a PPT slide should have clarity with a clear background, appropriate font and text, creativity, unity and harmony, consistency, be simple and have smart navigation. But in this presentation, the background is so messy with its different texts, fonts, and pictures. It is also hard to tell the main points and ideas the teacher wants to demonstrate with this slide. Thus, four points are deducted to account for the slide effect on this presentation.
2. The standard requires eye catching, balanced colors and background. There are too many cluttered pictures and colors in the background of this slide; it is not eye catching at all. Furthermore, the texts and the pictures are not arranged in a symmetrical, balanced way and thus creates a disorganized feeling. Therefore, four points of the aesthetic effects should also be deducted.

Case 4: Effective Presentation
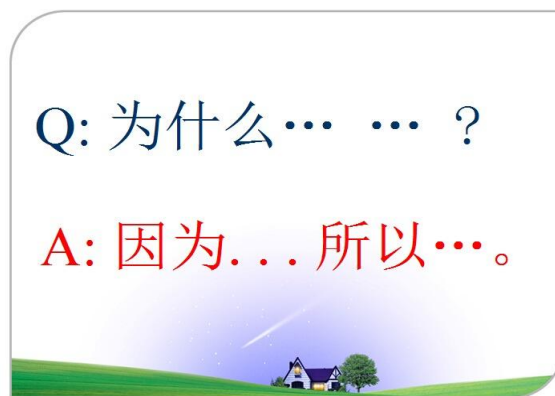
Figure 8 Effective Presentation based on Artistic Quality Rules of Standards (Case 4)

Figure 8 meets the artistic quality standard due to the following:
1. This slide is very simple and clear with a light background. The font and text are also appropriate, exhibiting unity, harmony, and consistency. In this case, the presentation will get four points for the slide effect.
2. The slide also meets the standard requiring eye catching, balanced colors and background. There are few colors in the background of this slide, and the colors of the background as well as the texts are quite cohesive. It is very clear and appealing. Therefore, it earns the four points for aesthetic effects.

IV. CONCLUSION

There are many different specimens to show how Chinese language instructors use multimedia to teach in their classrooms. Some of them use multimedia tools and resources appropriately and effectively, while others do not. Therefore, it is evident that teachers have different levels of multimedia skills. To improve the quality of multimedia in Chinese language teaching for TCFL teachers, there should be more training offered to explain that integrating multimedia in teaching is not just using PowerPoint to show text and images, but to combine appropriate and effective multimedia tools and resources to make a creative piece to attract students to learn as well as to increase teaching quality. Therefore, incorporating multimedia in teaching will doubly benefit both the teachers and students in Chinese

language teaching and learning, the score system can be used for teachers to learn how to integrate multimedia in teaching and to evaluate the effectiveness of a presentation.

To make effective use of multimedia technology to aid teaching and learning of TCFL, it is important to not only think of the advantages of, but also bear in mind the limitations of, multimedia technology. When making multimedia an integral part of TCFL curriculum, instructors should consider what pedagogical problems a multimedia program can solve, and how that program might contribute to successful learning and teaching of TCFL. To that end, PowerPoint (PPT), a popular multimedia tool in teaching, is used to illustrate the ways by which TCFL teachers not only in Northern California but also around the world can make PowerPoint even more effective as an integral part of a successful Chinese language program.

One of the limitations of this case study is that the sample size is too small to conduct statistical tests from the quantitative data collected via the interview. A mixed method of questionnaires and focus group interviews with selected teachers could have resulted in better and more in-depth understanding of the problem. Overall, the PowerPoint samples in this case study was limited. It is recommended future studies validate and extend the sample size and results found in this study.

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

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Motoric Training Alters Speech Sound Perception and Production — Active Listening Training Does Not Lead into Learning Outcomes

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Abstract—**Accurate speech-sound perception and production are prerequisites for communication in a non-native language. Earlier research has shown that new categorization and pronunciation patterns evolve in different learning settings and that these skills can be trained with various methods. We tested the effects of two types of training protocols on the production and identification of L2 vowels embedded in a pseudo-word context. Group 1 (Producers) participated in a listen and repeat training, where they produced the target stimulus /tʉ:ti/ and the non-target stimulus /ty:ti/ after the example in a pseudo-randomized order; Group 2 (Listeners) was instructed to count the number of targets /tʉ:ti/ in the same stimulus train without any motoric production movements. The results showed clearly that listen and repeat training led to plastic changes both in production and in identification, while no learning effects were obtained with the listening paradigm. This suggests a significant role of motoric experience in the acquisition of speech.**

Index Terms—**non-native vowel production, vowel identification, active auditory and motoric training**

I. INTRODUCTION

The acquisition of a non-native language poses demands for the perception and production of speech sounds. Fundamentally, the most severe problems arise from the confusing similarities and dissimilarities between the native and the target language. This is based on the language-specificity of the neural processing of the speech signal, which has led the brain to categorize input according to the L1 phonological system (Näätänen et al., 1997). Models of L2 phonetic/phonological learning explain that the most problematic cases are those that are confused with the native categories. According to Speech Learning Model (Flege, 1987), these difficult speech sounds are termed as *similar*, while the L2LP model developed by Escudero (2005) calls them *new*. In addition, they may also be considered as cases of an equal two-to-one assimilation pattern as in the framework of the Perceptual Assimilation Model, PAM (Best & Strange, 1992).

Despite difficulties caused by the native sound system, learning is possible not only in children, whose brain is malleable in language learning (Peltola, M. S., Kuntola, Tamminen, Hämäläinen & Aaltonen, 2005; Cheour, Shestakova, Alku, Ceponiene & Näätänen, 2002) but also in adults (Flege & MacKay, 2004; Tamminen, Peltola, M. S., Kujala & Näätänen, 2015) and even seniors (Jähi, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2015), and even with maximally difficult targets. Various types of trainings have proven powerful. Jamieson & Morosan (1986) showed that synthetic speech stimuli can be used in training the perception of an L2 dental fricative contrast, and Lively, Pisoni, Yamada, Tohkura & Yamada (1994) showed that training effects induced by a High Variability procedure were also of long-lasting. High variability training has proven valid in several studies (Iverson, Pinet & Evans, 2012; Lambacher, Martens, Kakehi, Marasinghe & Molholt, 2005). A low variability training was also found functional in immigrants training to produce

extremely difficult vowel sounds embedded in pseudo-word contexts (Savo & Peltola, M. S., 2019). Even simpler training protocols seem to lead into plastic changes, since a listen and repeat procedure with only one exemplar per speech category resulted in changes in vowel production (Peltola, K. U., Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2017a). However, reduced amount of training had different degree of learning effects depending on the mother tongue which implies the significant interaction between the native language and the amount of training needed (Peltola, K. U., Rautaoja, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2017b), which implies that the amount of exposure has a critical treshold. Specific pronunciation instructions appear to lead into extremely rapid production changes (Saloranta, Tamminen, Alku & Peltola, M. S., 2015), which may be taken as evidence for the positive role of overt knowledge in pronunciation learning.

The link between production and perception is one of the fundamental questions of speech sciences (Liberman & Mattingly, 1985; Perkell, 2012). In a study using a High Variability method with identification training, the results showed changes not only in the identification (ID) performance, but also in production ratings (Bradlow, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada & Tohkura, 1997). The effect seems valid also into the opposite directions, since motoric training changed identification scores (Lametti, Rochet-Capellan, Neufeld, Shiller & Ostry, 2014). In addition, production training with visual feedback resulted in discrimination and production changes, though not in synchrony (Kartushina, Hervais-Adelman, Frauenfelder & Golestani, 2015). Also, Peltola, K. U., Alku & Peltola, M. S. (2017a) showed that mere exposure to non-native vowels changed production performance in a similar manner as a listen and repeat training.

In the light of earlier findings, it seems that even the most difficult non-native sounds can be trained and that changes in the perception may induce changes in production, or vice versa. The aim of the present study is to determine, whether a listen and repeat training and an active listening training result in similar learning effects in production and identification.

II. METHODS

A. Participants

Altogether 22 subjects participated in the experimental procedure. All subjects were native speakers of Finnish and none of them had lived abroad. They all had a normal hearing and they were all right handed (tested using the Edinburgh Handedness Inventory (Oldfield, 1971)). All subjects reported to be healthy and no speech deficits or hearing disorders of any kind were reported in the background questionnaires. The subject pool was divided into two groups on the basis of the type of training that they were to be exposed: Group 1 (Producers) consisted of 11 subjects (6 females, mean age 24.2 years, range 18−38), while Group 2 (Listeners) contained 11 subjects (5 females, mean age 27.9 years, range 23−38).

B. Stimuli

The stimuli were created using semisynthetic speech generation (SSG), a method that separates speech signals into the glottal excitation generated by the vocal folds and the vocal tract (Alku, Tiitinen & Näätänen, 1999). By using an adaptive two-stage procedure, SSG computes the glottal excitation in form of a digital time-domain signal and the adjustable vocal tract in form of a digital all-pole filter. SSG has been previously used in several studies on speech perception (Ceponiene et al., 2013).

The synthesis began by recording (sampling frequency 22050 Hz, 16 bits) natural speech utterances by a bilingual (Finnish/Swedish) male (age 24 years), with no history of any speech or hearing disorder. He pronounced the target word /tɨ:ti/ and the non-target word /ty:ti/ in an anechoic chamber five times altogether and the middle one was chosen for further processing (high-quality condenser microphone (Bruel & Kjaer 4188)). The signal waveform of both words was cut into three sections: the beginning (/t/), the middle (/ɨ:/ and /y:/) and the end (/ti/). SSG was first used in order to estimate the glottal excitation, denoted by g(n), of the middle section. Second, vocal tract all-pole filters were computed over the middle sections of both /tɨ:ti/ and /ty:ti/. Both of these filters were next transformed to line spectral pairs (LSPs) (Soong & Juang, 1984). The LSPs of the vocal tract filters were converted to Mel frequency domain (Stevens & Volkmann, 1940). A continuum was formed in the LSP space between the point of the vocal tract filter of /ɨ:/ and that of /y:/. By stepping this continuum using a constant step, nine new artificial vocal tracts were created with an equal Euclidean distance between consecutive vocal tracts. We also created one vocal tract by stepping the continuum one step beyond the original end points. By filtering g(n) through the obtained vocal tract models, semi-synthetic vowels were created that had their vocal tracts set according to the described stepping procedure. Next, word-level stimuli were generated by concatenating the beginning section cut from the original waveform of /tɨ:ti/, the semi-synthetic vowel section corresponding to each point in the continuum, and the end section cut from the original waveform of /tu:ti/. Finally, all the generated waveforms were normalized in intensity.

Due to the use of the SSG method, it is worth noting that the generated word stimuli are of equal acoustic and prosodic features (e.g. duration, fundamental frequency, intonation, voice quality) except during the long vowel in the middle of the words when the stimuli differ *only* in terms of their formant frequencies (/ɨ/ F1 338 Hz, F2 1258 Hz; /y/ F1 269 Hz, F2 1866 Hz). This was achieved without compromising the auditory quality of the stimuli due to the use of a glottal excitation extracted from a natural utterance.

C. Procedure

The experiments were conducted in a sound attenuated laboratory, where the subjects were constantly monitored via a video camera. Prior to the actual testing, the subjects filled in a detailed questionnaire, where their linguistic and other background factors were checked carefully. In addition, hearing was evaluated with an audiometer, where the subjects were presented with frequencies relevant for the accurate perception of vowel sounds.

The procedure was conducted on two consecutive days, so that Day 1 began with the baseline tests (identification and production) followed by the training paradigm and Day 2 started with the training and ended in the final tests in the reversed order. In other words, the protocol design was for Day 1: baseline test ID; baseline test production; production or listening training. And for Day 2: production or listening training; final test ID; final test production. The training sets consisted of four blocks on both days, 30 stimuli per block, where the order and probability of the target stimulus varied across the blocks (60 targets and 60 non-targets in total per day). Group 1 (Producers) trained by a listen and repeat exercise, where the subjects were instructed to repeat after the model immediately after the stimulus had been presented (ISI 3 seconds), while Group 2 (Listeners) counted the number of the target stimuli (tʉ:ti) within the block and reported these calculations to the researcher. The order of the training blocks was randomised between Day 1 and Day 2. The stimuli in the production experiment were presented (via SLH-07 head set) in turns using Sanako Lab 100 language lab system with identical 3 second inter-stimulus intervals. In the production tests the subjects in both groups were instructed to repeat immediately after the model. Both the target and the non-target stimuli were repeated 10 times. In the identification experiment, the stimuli from the acoustic continuum with thirteen steps from /y/ to /ʉ/ were delivered using the similar sound system. The subjects were asked to identify the words by pressing a response button. The identification used a forced-choice method and the presentation of the stimuli was self-paced. The continuum consisted of 13 words, each containing a first-syllable vowel with slightly different quality. The participants were presented with 8 repetitions of each token per test and they were instructed to respond immediately without hesitation, but no reaction times were measured. Presentation software (version 16.3) was used for both presenting the stimuli and for registering the responses.

D. Analysis

The production data were first analysed with Praat, version 5.3.01 (Boersma, 2001). Using the Linear Predictive Coding (LPC) Burgh algorithm, we determined the values for the two lowest formant frequencies, namely F1 and F2 (Hz), of the first syllable vowel from the steady-state phase in the acoustic signal. We also calculated the standard deviation Hz values of the F1 and F2 from each subject. A Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (ANOVA, IBM SPSS, version 23) was then performed with both the formant data and the standard deviation values. The data were subjected to further post hoc tests when required.

For the Identification data, we calculated two values for the category boundary, namely the location of the boundary and the steepness value of that boundary. We used the Logit transformation analysis to obtain these values and then subjected these data separately to a Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance (IBM SPSS, version 23). Again, further post hoc tests were performed when applicable.

III. RESULTS

To test the effects of the training protocols we performed a Group (2) x Session (2) x Word (2) x Measure (2) Repeated Measures ANOVA for the formant values and the standard deviations. The formant data (Table 1.) showed the main effect of Measure ($F(1,20) = 2328.435$, $P<0.001$) and a Word x Measure interaction ($F(1,20) = 123.510$, $p<0.001$) indicating that the F1 and F2 values were systematically different in the target and non-target words. More importantly, we discovered the main effect of Word ($F(1,20) = 101.623$, $p<0.001$) showing that the two words were produced consistently differently. The most important discovery was the main effect of Session ($F(1,20) = 4.569$, $p=0.045$), which showed that the training had an effect on vowel production. Further analyses revealed that the training effects were valid only in the target word F2 values (main effect of Session ($F(1,29) = 4.471$, $p=0.047$)). Interestingly, the data from Group 1 (Producers) showed the main effect of Session for the F2 values ($F(1,190) = 5.257$, $p=0.045$), while no such effect was found from Group 2 (Listeners), indicating thus changes in the Producers, but not in Listeners.

The standard deviation data (Table 2.) revealed also the main effects of Measure ($F1,20) = 104.725$, $p<0.001$) and Session ($1,20) = 15.213$, $p=0.001$) as well as the Measure x Word interaction ($F(1,20) = 23.595$, $p<0.001$), but also important interactions of Session x Measure ($F(1,20) = 12.470$, $p=0.002$) and Session x Group ($1,20) = 7.090$, $p=0.015$). Most significantly, we found Group x Session x Measure ($F(1,20) = 10.102$, $p=0.002$) and Group x Session x Word x Measure ($F(1,20 = 4,475$, $p=0.047$)) interactions revealing differences between the groups as a function of training. Further analyses showed that there were no effects in the non-target word /ty:ti/, but several in the target word /tʉ:ti/ (Measure ($F1,20) = 71.691$, $p<0.001$; Session ($F1,20) = 9.126$, $p=0.007$; Session x Measure ($F1,20) = 8.161$, $p=0.010$). The most important discoveries were the Group x Session ($F(1,20) = 7.995$, $p=0.010$) and the Group x Session x Measure ($F1,20) = 11.171$, $p=0.003$) interactions. These findings showed that the groups performed differently as a function of training. Further analysis revealed this to be due to difference in the F2 values ($F(1,20) = 9.813$, $p=0.005$). Interestingly, only Group 1 (Producers) showed the main effect of Session in F2 ($F(1,19) = 14.737$, $p=0.003$) indicating that the standard deviations of target word F2 changed in the Producers but not in the Listeners.

TABLE 1
THE AVERAGE F1 AND F2 (HERTZ) VALUES FOR GROUP 1 AND GROUP 2 IN TWO SESSIONS

	Group 1		Group 2	
	Session 1	Session 2	Session1	Session 2
/tʉ:ti/ F1	421	431	412	412
/tʉ:ti/ F2	1276	1383	1285	1303
/ty:ti/ F1	392	394	367	366
/ty:ti/ F2	1897	1909	1821	1835

TABLE 2
THE AVERAGE F1 AND F2 STANDARD DEVIATION VALUES FOR GROUP 1 AND GROUP 2 IN TWO SESSIONS

	Group 1		Group 2	
	Session 1	Session 2	Session 1	Session 2
/tʉ:ti/ F1	29	23	24	18
/tʉ:ti/ F2	217	119	146	148
/ty:ti/ F1	21	20	28	24
/ty:ti/ F2	88	59	80	62

We analysed the boundary location and steepness data (Table 3.) from ID experiment separately with a Group (2) x Session (2) Repeated Measures ANOVA to test the potential group differences and training effects. The boundary location analysis showed only the significant main effect of Group ($F(1,20) = 5926$, $P=0.024$) indicating an overall difference between the groups. The steepness value data revealed the main effect of Session ($F1,20) = 5.389$, $P=0.031$), which suggested that training altered the consistency of the boundary. Further analysis showed that only Group 1 (Producers) exhibited changes as a function of training (main effect of Session ($F1,19) = 7.235$, $P=0.023$)), suggesting that production training resulted in a steeper category boundary (Table 3., Figure 1. and Figure 2.).

TABLE 3.
THE BOUNDARY LOCATIONS AND STEEPNESS VALUES FROM GROUP 1 AND GROUP 2 ON TWO SESSIONS

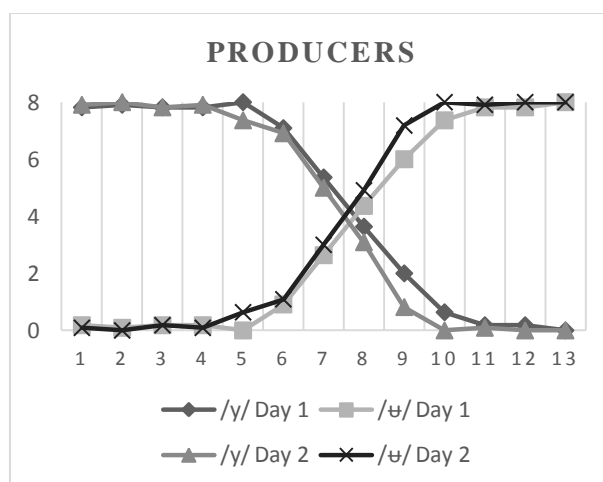|	Group 1			Group 2	
	Session 1	Session 2		Session 1	Session 2
Boundary	7,74	7,40		6,95	6,75
Steepness	1,36	1,78		1,67	1,74

Figure 1. The ID data from Group 1 (Producers) showing the boundary location and its steepness.
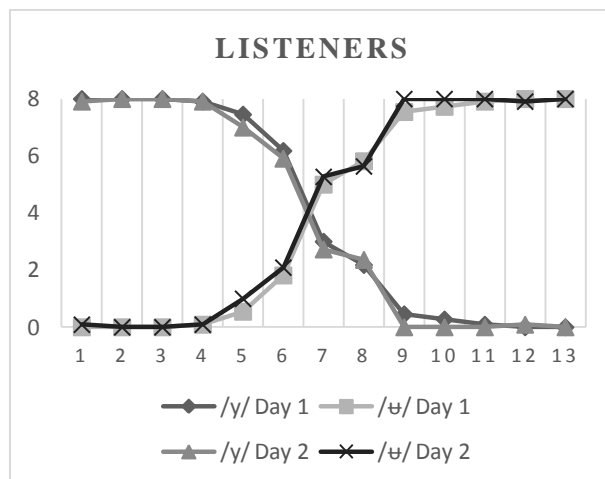
Figure 2. The ID data from Group 2 (Listeners) showing the boundary location and its steepness.

In summary, the statistical analyses revealed that changes both in production and in identification were exclusively present in the subjects, who trained with the listen and repeat paradigm, while no changes were present in the actively listening subjects. We were thus able to show that the motoric practice is required for production improvement and that the acquisition of new motoric patterns is transferred to perceptual categorization accuracy.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Various types of training protocols have been found beneficial for changing either the perception or production of non-native speech sounds (e.g. Lively, Pisoni, Yamada, Tohkura & Yamada, 1994; Tamminen, Peltola, M. S., Kujala, & Näätänen, 2015). The interplay between speech perception and production is of significance in non-native speech learning and earlier studies have shown that motoric training may affect speech perception (Lametti, Rochet-Capellan, Neufeld, Shiller & Ostry, 2014), and that production may be changed with perceptual training (Bradlow, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada & Tohkura, 1997). Our present findings showed that learners who participated in a training protocol involving motoric activities, acquired new production patterns for the non-native vowel very quickly, but active listening did not result in such learning effects. More interestingly, the motoric exercises affected the identification performance so that the categorisation systematicity increased, while mere listening did not have such transferrable training effects.

In the light of earlier studies and the present ones, it seems that the learning of new speech sounds involves operations from both domains, the motoric and the auditory. In addition, since no learning effects were observed when motoric practice was absent, it appears that motor activations are – if not prerequisites – then at least fundamental factors in the acquisition of non-native speech sound categories.

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Implementing Recent Curricular Changes to English Language Instruction in Israel: Opinions and Concerns of Teachers in Israeli Arab Schools

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Abstract—In 2013, the English curriculum of the Israeli educational system underwent a significant reform, aimed to improve students' achievements in English and close the gaps between students' achievements in Israel, and students' achievements in other OCED countries in the subject matter. However, all indicators show that after the implementation of the new program, achievements of most Israeli students' in English, especially those of Israeli Arab students, do not meet expectations. Therefore, we interviewed 10 English teachers working in the Israeli Arabic school system, with at least 13 years seniority, in hope to find out why the new curriculum does not accomplish its goals. The findings of this study reveal that teaching English according to the new curriculum is challenged in several ways, some of which are curriculum related, others relate to the training of the teachers, and other challenges relating to the school, and the students population.

Index Terms—the Israeli educational system, the new English curriculum-NEC, implementation of the NEC, students' achievements in English, Israeli Arabic sector

I. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

"Curriculum" is a general instruction plan for preparation of textbooks, syllabi, teaching materials and lesson plans; it is also the document representing professional consensus. In Hebrew we use a term less picturesque than the word "curriculum", which is "instruction plan" (Chen, D., 2010).

The English curriculum for junior-high school was reformed in 2013, to enable the integration of the new standards and additional requirements. The new curriculum, which was implemented in all levels, from primary to high school, focused mainly on higher-order thinking (HOTS), and vocabulary expansion and mastering.

Data collected indicate that achievements level of all Israeli students has improved significantly (Blass, 2017). This is also true for each sector separately. Changes in achievements recorded, show a significant overall improvement in Math, and moderate improvement in English, which narrowed the gaps between the two sectors in these subjects. The findings regarding the effect of the new curriculum on the achievements of eighth grade students indicate that the gap in science and technology between the two sectors had narrowed while the gap in mathematics increased, and the gap in English remains unchanged (RAMA, 2016).

However, the gap between students from different sectors remained stable. The ratio of students classified as low achievers was higher among Arab pupils compared to the ratio of low achievers among Jewish pupils in approximately 5% in 5th grade and 12% in 8th grade "(Weissblei, 2014, p 3).

The educational committee in the Knesset and the state comptroller discussed the main issues explaining the low scores of Arab pupils in English tests, which are Shortage of teachers and High rate of elderly teachers (ICT). According to data received, the percentage of qualified Arab English teachers is low (RAMA, 2016), the number of weekly English hours is insufficient (only 4 hours a week) (Weissblei, 2014), and as there is a shortage of qualified teachers, the regional inspectors hire non- qualified English teachers (state comptroller's report, p. 784).

Hassanein (2014) examined the cultural content of three English textbooks for junior high grades: "Take Action" taught in seventh grade, "Explorer" taught in eighth grade, and "Horizons", taught in ninth grade, and examined the way these contents affect teaching methods and language acquisition of the subject matter.

The results revealed that although all three books reflect the three cultures required, the focus on international culture is inadequate; the cultural program of each of the three English books promotes English acquisition differently. According to Hassanein, (2014) when dealing with cultural contents, Arab English teachers must cope with many challenges; and these inadequate contents impair their ability to teach English. Thus, when English teachers teach cultural content they think is inappropriate, they use different strategies.

The most recent and up-to-date study of the English curriculum was Adin-Surkis [2016]. This study examined the perceptions of English teachers and their attitude towards the new curriculum in English, which constitutes a

fundamental educational change, since it rests on principles that suit the global status of the English language. The purpose of the study was to find out the English teachers' perception of the new curriculum, their attitude towards it and towards their role as evaluators of students' achievements.

The findings of this study show that important components that had been excluded from the new English curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2013, 2015). Teachers report that they do not have the time required to implement the numerous changes in the schoolbook and the curriculum's goals; they claim that the new teaching program is not flexible; they do not feel as partners in the curriculum change. It was also found that new teachers have difficulty to deal with the changes on their own, since their training was inadequate, and the number of courses offered in the periphery to enable Agrarian teachers to cope with the demands of new curriculum is insufficient.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It is widely recognized that success of curricular reform depends substantially on the professional ability and positive efforts of the teachers. This study was designed to answer the following research questions: What are the beliefs of Israeli Arab teachers regarding the implementation of the NEC? Does the new program in English meet their expectations?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Type

Since the research question aims to obtain better understanding of teachers' professional experience, the issue had been examined in a qualitative method that allow the researcher to shade light on the ways English teachers cope with the curricular reforms in their main teaching subject. The researcher expects and takes into consideration that each single teacher has his/her own view on the matter and his/her own personal perception of the issue at large.

The reliability of constructive qualitative research is determined by its focus on integrity and personal responsibility, indicating ethics of concern, multiple voice texts and dialog with the participants and an effort to provide maximal expression of the interviewee's perception and understanding, with awareness of the limitations of the daily reality surrounding the research conduct [Tsabar Ben-Yehoshua, 2001].

The theoretic approach anchored in the field is an inductive methodical process of theory development, growing from the investigation of a specific phenomenon [Straus & Corbin, 1990]. The researcher phrases conjectures and generalizations based on the data gathered. The data gathering process is often based upon long "field work" in which the researcher and his/her colleagues conduct observations on the subject investigated, speak with and interview associates of the target interviewee, gather all sorts of evidence and conduct an orderly log of the entire data [Byte-Marom & Ashkenazi, 2001].

B. Research Field and Participants

The participants of this study were 10 English teachers employed in Junior High schools of the Arabic sector in northern Israel. The schools belong to the State educational system and their work in the investigated area is conducted according to the new English curriculum. The choice to conduct the study in these schools was made due to researcher and her assistant's access to both the schools and the research population. After receiving the approval of the principals and the consent of the teachers to participate in the research, we conducted interviews in person and with some of the teachers by telephone. Two of the teachers were interviewed by email.

The diversity within the research population is presented by the following table showing the variables of the 10 participants:

TABLE 1
PARTICIPANTS' VARIABLES

Interviewee	Age	Seniority	Education
1	44	11	BA + MA in Management
2	35	9	BA
3	39	15	BA
4	32	10	MA
5	37	15	BA+ MA in counseling
6	47	23	BA
7	46	23, 4 in the research field	BA
8	54	35	BA
9	39	12	MA in teaching English as foreign language
10	44	20	BA

C. Research Tools

The chosen tool was an in-depth semi-constructed interview. "The interview intends to reveal a multi-dimensional, rich and diverse social world of the research subjects" [Herzog & Bader Elarif, 2000] The in-depth interview is based on the will to understand other people's experience and the meaning that they attribute to the given experience [Shkedi,

2003]. The researcher is convinced that this is the right base to this study, because it aims to extract information about implementation and assimilation of the English curricular reform and the factors affecting its assimilation.

D. Data Analysis

The product of this study is a data collection relating to institutions and social activities of a society. The analysis process focuses on the world perception of the participants and the meaning they attribute to the existing reality [Shlaski & Alpert, 2007]. The analysis is based on the Grounded theory/ Field grounded theory that obliges the writer to perform strict control on the data gathering process, and to conduct a categorical analysis that would enable generalization and prediction in other studies of similar properties, combined with known and previously used theoretical knowledge.

Data analysis in qualitative research is characterized as an analytical process, aimed to provide meaning, interpretation and generalization to the investigated phenomenon. Therefore, it contains intuitive characteristics, rather than statistically based results.

Data analysis of this study will include location of common issues that appear in the recorded interviews of the participants and create a comprehensive teaching experience story that will combine the experience of all the teachers that comprised the center of this study.*

IV. RESULTS

The interviews revealed that the participants had to cope with challenges in the following categories: 1). Institutional, 2). Instructional, 3). Socio-economic, 4). Curriculum related.

The participating teachers shade light on diverse school-dependent problems, difficulties relating to school structural design and infrastructure, and schedule related issues. Teacher 1 pointed out that the physical conditions of the building itself are far from ideal, classes are too small, and overcrowded.

Teacher 2 told that in recent years, there were attempts to organize grouping in English; the planning was good and the rational was also clear, but the actual execution was highly problematic: pupils moved from one group to another without monitoring, teachers had difficulties to find an appropriate teaching space for pupil groups they were assigned to, and the schedule was too condensed.

Teacher 4 was very critical saying that: "Our schools are not ready to absorb the curricular reform in English in the spirit of innovative pedagogy. I am expected to activate the pupils by using equipment we do not have. I am expected to expand their vocabulary while I have no available means, time and teaching aids to do so.

Teacher 10 emphasizes the problematicality of his/her schedule: "how am I supposed to assimilate a change in English teaching while my subject schedule contains 3 8th hours? Which means, the pupils start to learn English at 14:30, after a long school day of 7 diverse demanding lessons?" Teacher 8 was also concerned with infrastructure deficiencies and the lack of access to teaching aids; "I wanted to use an interactive approach combining games; I thought it would interest the pupils and enhance their learning experience, but when I asked for some mobile computers the answer was that there is no budget for such things. The school has computers in one room only, and it is used exclusively for computer classes".

Teacher 7 complained about school's priorities: "In my school, in the last 3 years, the emphasis is on Math; thus, for 9th grades, all efforts are channeled to prepare the pupils to take 5 units in Math. The school management had even allocated additional weekly hours, while in English, it has been 4 weekly hours for years".

Another teacher claims that in her school, there is pedagogic flexibility, but the in-school and regional training courses for teachers, are inadequate, and very limited in scope. There is a dire need to add training and completing courses that connect theory and field".

A. Instructional

Teacher 2 stated that he had read the new curricula in English and realized that the optimal sequence was vague, and no specific instructions had been provided. "…we received an official document telling us about a forthcoming curricular reform, and the subject coordinator told the English teachers present, that the new Teaching program in English was published and we should be prepared for it. There are new textbooks and we shall discuss it later. Since the materials arrived, she had given us the freedom to execute the new program the way we see fit, and it did not yield the expected results".

In her interview, the English coordinator admitted that the connection between the new English program and the teacher is unsatisfactory. In her opinion, the program itself is the product of a good planning, but the contribution required from the individual teacher is unclear. The program is not based on the teacher's expertise and most teachers were not given the opportunity to study the way it had been developed.

Teacher 7 emphasizes another aspect regarding the difficulties in the assimilation of the new program: "the teaching sequence is unclear, the overall picture of the program is unclear, and I wonder if there was any research regarding the difficulties of Arab pupils in learning the English language".

Teacher 9 observes that "The designers of the new curricula make the wrong assumption that the teachers will make the decisions regarding adjustments, but how can you expect from a teacher to reach such decisions when he/she is not sure of the program's core, and he/she had no directive training? We heard many times on thinking skills and thinking

methods. I must admit that I do not know the difference between these two concepts, nor how I am implementing it in practice".

Another teacher, who fulfilled the role of subject coordinator some years ago, emphasized the need to train the teachers and not to assume that since they have a degree they will know how to implement a program they were not privy to its development: "…no doubt that teachers have vast important knowledge to impart to the pupils, especially due to current understanding of the pupils and their learning needs. When teachers use teaching aids, they rely upon their experiences, expertise and pedagogic skills and upon the resources they get from their schools and the regional centers, to make the required adaptations. However, when there is no practical and scientific basis for these experiences which had been randomly acquired, the resulting damage could be significant".

The last teacher said that she had difficulties in navigating interactions with the pupils to engage them in the crucial concepts of the new English curricula, because she was unable to stir her pupils to develop their own ideas. She also said she feels that in the new program, everything is made ready for the pupils. So, we all want an independent pupil but on the other hand, we give them all on a silver platter. In her opinion, a learning program should challenge the pupils.

B. The Socio-economic Factor

The teachers who participated in this study perceive the pupils' socio-economic context of extreme importance. All the research participants without exception reported that there is a strong connection between pupils' socio-economic background and their achievements in English at school. A brief investigation of the schools that participated in this study, and an examination of the education map, revealed that the average scores achieved in official exams in English are below the national average. It also revealed that the pupils' economic classification, also called 'the nurture index' was comparatively low.

The researcher asked the research subjects if they think that the economic situation affects the achievements in English in general, and after the implementation of the new program. All the participants answer positively. Following are some of the answers received regarding the existence and relative measure of such a connection:

Teacher 1 said – "I teach in a school where two thirds of the pupils are in some of kind risk situation, most of them are at learning risk. So, with all respect to the new learning program, how can we expect them to possess mental or emotional drive to improve their achievements in English?"

Teacher 2: "I have no doubt that the social economic background of the pupils affects all learning programs, not just the new English program. There are several reasons causing Arab pupils to find learning English difficult. But in my opinion, their background is a dominant factor, since their parents do not speak English and most of them are blue collar workers who make no effort to provide learning experience to their children. The priority of most of these parents is to pass through the month, so how they are expected to help their children to learn a foreign language? What resources are available to them for that purpose, compared to other sectors of the Israeli society?"

Teacher 4: "The new English curricula expects the pupils to activate high level thinking skills' reflective thinking, assertiveness, etc. To reach the required level, these skills should be taught at much earlier educational stage. The pupils I get to teach in Junior High can barely read English and possess very poor vocabulary, which, if we want them to succeed, will obliges the school to invest much more resources and facilitate additional afternoon activities to strengthen the pupils. These resources are unavailable due to economic difficulties of the local municipal authority."

Teacher 7 also notes the gap between pupils who come from economically solid homes and those who come from poor homes, regarding achievements in English: there are pupils whose parents are educated and aware of the importance of knowing English. These parents are willing to invest in their children. But for the others who regretfully are the majority, the parents have no tools…"

Teacher 8: "There are children who come from supportive multi-lingual environment. they are exposed to music and movies, and the parents register them to enhancement clubs. These children demonstrate different thinking levels than other pupils, and it is obvious that in most cases, their social status will determine their future track…"

Teacher 9: "I visited rich schools situated in economically strong communities, where I saw English corners equipped with computers, and allocation of practice hours, while in the school where I teach, the nurturing index is of the lowest level measured in Israel. The children all come from disadvantaged layers and have barely a school to go to. The pupils have no support at all, so it is very clear that the socio-economic background affects both pupil and teacher".

C. Curriculum Related

In a discourse between the researcher and the head of English teaching faculty in the Teachers' College of the Arabic sector, the latter emphasized that learning programs must adapt to the current principles of meaningful learning. According to this view, the current English curricula should contain value to the learner and to the society; it must be relevant to the learner and get both teacher and learner involved. She stated that: "learning program in English as such the program in every other discipline, should include high level thinking skills and be based on teaching learning methods encouraging and promoting profound thinking and understanding of the subject matter.

Today obviously, there is a need to combine digital aspects which would encourage and advance the learning alongside diverse teaching methods, learning modes and learning encouraging and advanced evaluative methods".

The school's English coordinator claimed that the new English curricula lacks the provision of ideological accessibility, methods and tools to enable learning diversity. The program's rational is clear to the teaching team, but it

is inaccessible to many teachers. We have no recommendations regarding the best teaching methods to use, no teaching aids in school and no access to content providers.

"Last year, 10 out of 1000 pupils joined an enhancement class of experiential learning with an external highly contributive content provider and had truly benefitted from the class. But, is it enough to have access to one content provider, as adapted to the program as he may be? And the main question is: "Is the advancement of 1% - 10 out of 1000 pupils is pedagogically sufficient?".

One teacher claimed that the mode of teaching wordlists is very difficult and demanding. She cannot bring the pupils to remember all the word in the lists for long, and she has no tools to verify what has been successfully memorized.

Another teacher referred to the lack of evaluative tools: Yes, the program is good, it contains a lot of materials that could be adapted for the pupils, but its current overall construction does not provide any evaluative tools or assessment measures. I desperately need evaluative methods the program does not offer".

Teacher 5 spoke of the order and organization aspects of the new English curricula and emphasized two major problems: "There is a significant gap between the content taught in Junior High and the high school requirements, especially regarding the matriculation exams. The new program does not offer solution to this gap and it seems that there is no connection between the material taught in Junior High and the materials of the matriculation exams. In addition, the literary requirements of the English program are vague; there is no directive or recommendations or at least some supportive booklet regarding literary demands and preferences of the English program". The teachers also raised the difficulty to adapt the program's contents to the pupils. They generally agree that the new program is better adapted and therefore more relevant to the Arab pupil, compared to the previous program, however, it still contains contents which are culturally unsuitable for the Arab pupil. These contents cause rejection of English and development of negative stance toward learning it.

The researcher asked the interviewees what they would change in the program if they were policy makers. Following are some of the statements received:

1. I would have investigated the field and the existing gap and try to build a program that will provide a suitable answer and bridge the gap.
2. I would design a specific English curriculum for the Arabic pupils.
3. I would have omitted the entire subject of grammar, since it does not exist in the matriculation exam.
4. I would distance myself form the super-target of the program which is the pupils' success in the matriculation exam.
5. I would change only the contents; the program is right for the skills of the Arab pupil, but it has no reference to his world.
6. The pupils have a difficulty to fulfil a sequence of short instruction that come in a regular preset order, the thinking should be adjusted to the pupils' level.
7. Exposing the pupils to the English language within the class context.
8. I would take linguistic issues, such as language phonology into consideration.
9. The hours allocation is insufficient and overload the pupils.

V. CONCLUSION

This assay examines the assimilation difficulties of the English curricular reform in the Israeli Arabic schools. A profound change in an educational program requires simultaneous performance of three processes in three major areas:

1. Adjustment of the existing learning programs and development of learning materials.
2. Teachers' directive training and professional development.
3. Adjustment of the evaluation processes.

Institutional challenges are problems caused by lack of prior organization and lack of support by either the school management or the Ministry of Education. Instructional challenges are problems hindering teachers in providing effective learning environments. Socio-economic challenges are caused by lack of parental understanding the importance of learning a foreign language.

The participants defined two problem categories caused by the schools they work in: 1). Lack of support 2). Lack of understanding the nature of language teaching.

The schools lack the basic infrastructure for teaching communicative English and unwilling to seek solutions to problems brought by teachers. They also complain that the schools burden teachers with heavy workloads and crowded classrooms. In addition, not enough English language teachers are being recruited. The research participants claim that building more schools complicates matters. The research participants reported that implementation of the new curriculum caused a variety of problems. They also said that some of the content studied did not fit the Arab students' culture and that the program did not consider the fact that for Israeli Arabic speaking students, English is a third language and not a second language. Other deficiencies mentioned were the lack of equipment required for the implementation of the new program, and lack of technological infrastructure and content providers.

The findings of the study showed that the new curriculum did not meet the participants' expectations due to the deficiencies in its contribution to the needs of Arab students. Nevertheless, they believe that implementation of the new program could provide answers to several types of problems: (a) institutional, (b) instructional, and (c) socio-economic.

Considering the above, this assay recommends the establishment of professional educational team in all Arabic schools, to maintain discourse, counseling, input, and exchange of thoughts and ideas. Such discourse would facilitate the transformation and adaptation of the new English program's infrastructure proposes and enable the strengthening of HALA processes in classes and in the school at large. It will also provide the professional base for the realization of the pedagogic policy set by the Ministry of education in accordance with the national program for meaningful learning.

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The Impact of Cultural Factors on E-Learning: Practical Teaching of Sanponna Chants among Yoruba Youths in Nigeria

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Abstract—In this paper, sanponna, god of smallpox chants is one of the Yoruba peoples cultural properties. "E-learning approach was adopted by introducing the youths to use of electronic materials like video camera, android phones, and cassette tape recorders in collation of sanponna chants analyzed in this study. Few Ṣànpọ̀nná chants were recorded, written out and stylistically analyzed with ten Yoruba secondary school students in Nigeria. The need for this research is that attention of many Yoruba and African scholars is recently concentrated on teaching foreign oral traditions without been mindful of the inherent advantages of teaching learning and documentation of African traditional chants like Sonponna and other chants especially for the present generation of youths. Also, the positive impacts of e-learning has not been maximally utilized in the teaching and learning of Yoruba orature such as the language's numerous traditional chants. This study further strengthened the fact that African education was in existence before the advent of Arabic and European education in Nigeria and must be preserved and saved from going to extinction. The study electronically taught the youths some poetic devices employed by Ṣànpọ̀nná chanters which include: simile, hyperbole, onomatopoeia, irony, paradox, sarcasm, euphemism, and repetition.*

Index Terms—smallpox, e-learning, programmed instruction, initiation, youth, chants, poet

I. INTRODUCTION

This research study is an expansion of the earlier work on Sanponna god and chants in Yoruba land in Opoola (2006).While Opoola (op cit) traced the history and practices of Sanponna, the present effort is on the teaching of Sanponna chant as one of the Yoruba poetry and chants from the traditional memorization methodology to modern day teaching technique using e-learning approach. The Yoruba people historical origin has been severally traceable to three possible sources ranging from the mythological belief of originality directly from heaven through the descending trip of Odùduwà, the Yorùbá ancestor of Ilé-Ifẹ̀ in the present Ọ̀sun State, Western part of Nigeria to migration from Saudi Arabia through Egypt. Surrounding histories of the origin of Yorùbá people appears apparently contradictory so much that Johnson (1976) once submitted that:

"The origin of the Yorùbá nation is involved in obscurity"

According to Yorùbá oral tradition, the Yorùbá people history also stretches it further that Odùduwà sojourned from Mecca through Egypt and landed at Ilé-Ifẹ̀ after departure with his brothers; Gògòbírí and Kúkàwá in a 90 day journey. Odùduwà gave birth to Ọ̀kànbí the father of seven children that later settled in separate Yoruba places and towns. In analyzing these historical facts, the following critical were pointed out in (Johnson (op cit): points

1. (1.) That it appears impossible to link Yorùbás and Arabs together considering their different distant places in the world map;
2. (2.) That, it is equally impossible for anybody in the past to travel between Mecca in Saudi Arabia and Ilé-Ifẹ̀ in Nigeria for only ninety (90) days,
3. (3.) That the fact that none of the writers in the history of Arabs made mention of the story though there appear to be resemblance in the habit, manners, architectural designs of Arabs and Yoruba people..

Jonson (o.p cit) once mentioned Sultan Bello of Sokoto reference to Yoruba people as inhabitants of (Yoruba), a province said to have originated from the remnants of the Nianoid Tribe. With this historical version, the Yoruba people were believed to have been the children of Nianoid (Lámúrúdu) who predominantly settled in West Africa to the Western Coast between Egypt and Abysinia. The seven children of Ọ̀kànbí became the founders of the following seven Yoruba kingdoms: TheOlówu of Òwu, Onísàbẹ of Sàbẹ, Alákétu of Kétu, Ọba of Benin, Onípópó of Pópó, Ọ̀ràngún of Ìlá, Ọ̀rànmíyàn (the Aláàfin of Òyo.The religion of the Yoruba is a bit complex. The Yorùbá major belief is that Olódùmarè-God created the world and can only be appeased through the divinities such as: god of iron,god of thunder, ancestor god, Ifá-oracle, god of small pox and several others. In the words of Jerimiye (1975), Yoruba people are of valuable sense of dedication and total ordering of everyday practical life with intense degree. The Yorùbá people have functional departmental headings in the form of divination, vocational gods, legends and myth, object of worship, principles and methods of unusual communication , places of worship designs and structures (Jemiriye op cit).

II. STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

In Nigeria, like many African nations emphasis in the recent time has shifted to research works mostly on foreign languages and traditions especially English in Nigeria. This study has served as another positive attempt towards preservation of African oral renditions and Yoruba oral literature through formal educational approach.

III. THEORETICAL FRAME AND DESIGN

Hadge and Kress 1991 speech act theory that centers on relationship between non linguistics semantic system which accompanies speech or writing, performance and bodily texts was adopted for this paper.. The selected youths were taking to Sanponna shrine and allowed to tape record the chants as rendered by the Priests, worshippers and believers of Sanponna god in the Yoruba ancient town, Oyo. In addition, the modern oral literary analytical strategies such as isolation of simile, metaphor, alliteration in the chants were taught using the rendered sanponna stanzas. The research was designed to expose the Yoruba Youths to Sanponna renditions as traditionally presented by the real disciples of the god.

IV. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In forming the expected base for this research, our review of literature centers on the following concepts: E- leaning; Performance Utterances, Communication, Register and Linguistic borrowing and Yorùbá religious beliefs. E-learning is a learning system based on formalized teaching with the help of electronic resources. According to Tech Term Computer dictionary, it is an umbrella term that describes education using electronic devises and digital media. The delivery of a learning, training or educational programs by electronic means in the words of Stocley (2003) is called e-learning. In other words, e learning basically boils down to learning that is facilitated and supported via information and communication technology (ict). The American Society for Training and development (ASTD) defines E-learning as a broad set of applications and processes which include web-based learning, computer based learning, virtual classrooms and digital. Opoola and Jelili (2019) once cited Elitia definition of the three speech act types succinctly thus: "speaker utter sentences with a particular meaning (locutionary act) and with a particular force (illocutionary act) in order to achieve certain effect (perlocutionary act) or hearer. In the course of driving home points, poets in Sànpònná chants do utilize these performance utterances in their utterances, phrases and stanzas in addition with physical actions to impress their audience and exhibit their prowess as custodian of knowledge of Sànpònná chants. Communication as a concept also has a primary place in the context of this study, hence its brief definition remains germane. Several definitions of communication indicate that it is an act of expression through different medium (vocal and non-vocal). In the opinion of Olubodede (1999), communication can be defined as the art and science of transmitting or exchange of ideas, information, opinion and messages between one person and another or many people. It is an art that occurs in several forms through writing, talking, non-verbal communications such as facial expression, body language or gestures. The Sànpònná chanters communicate frequently using the chants at home, at the shrine and during entertainment session, at social gatherings of members, naming, burials,, wedding and other ceremonies. Creativity remains the act as the Sànpònná poets present their chants in line with whatever situation for which the chants are meant. This assertion aligns with Wikipedia 2019 discussion of Laswell's Linear communication model which says that: 'The art of communication postulates the following questions:Who Says what? In which Channel? To whom ? With what effect?" Linguistic borrowing also reflects in the skills of Sànpònná chanters and deserves brief explanation in our review of related literatures. The term "register" has been variously defined. Many literatures see register as the specialized vocabulary common to a particular trade, occupation, topic or activity. Ogundepo (2002) linked register as a lexicon that should sometimes be a synonym of 'Jargons'. Ogundepo (op.cit) defined register as the specialized or technical language part of a particular professional body or other social group. Chuka (2003) once described register thus:

> *"group varieties of language which lead to accurate and speedy*
> *communication among those that know and use them but confuse those who*
> *do not". pp109*

In the data collected on Sànpònná chants the poet made use of specialized register and words commonly used as instrument of expressing their minds on situations and particularly to entertain the audience. Some of these words are only peculiar to Sànpònná chants and could be perceived as 'jargons whose existence conveys meanings as in the following lines:

"Sànpònná turns wife's vagina to useless softened calabash
My god rendered the husband penis incapacitated''

Above lines are meant to express ageing and effects of small pox on whoever is unlucky to be effected by the disease irrespective of gender. Linguistic borrowing also reflects prominently in the context of this presentation. Loan words are the resultant effects of languages in contact. The relationship between the Arab Moslems and Yorùbá traditional Sànpònná religion has been expressed through the use of some carved Arabic words and noticeably prominently in Sànpònná Chants.

> *The moslems*
> *Zuhr prayer in Islam*

Arabic words in Ṣànpọ̀nná were restructured to suit the Yorùbá language. linguistics features: Among the resultant effects of contact between languages is the bilinguals strategy of restructuring of loaned words such as use of code-switching and code mixing described in Opoola (1998) as two social-linguistic terms used interchangeably despite being separate though related concepts. Afolayan(1986) asserted that there could be distinction between loan words and code switching thus:

> *'Borrowing which occurs in code-switching is found only in the speech of Yorùbá language speakers while loan words i.e. borrowing already accepted as part of Yorùbá vocabulary are used by monolingual and bilingual Yorùbá speakers.'*

In this study, Ṣànpọ̀nná poets made use of the linguistic varieties Arabic and Yorùbá in the same conversation. This appears to be in line with Xiaoping (2007) impression of code mixing as a socio-linguistics concept in his study of how participants of his study in local and Putonga in their daily conversation used English and China like Cantonese and Dongbeihua(Dialect in north east China). Code –mixing is *the use of two or more linguistic varieties in the same conversation or interaction.*

Ṣànpọ̀nná chant is a Yorùbá traditional oral poem likened to Eulogies described by Thompson Denys (1974) as:
"*Only type of poem whose aim was to strengthen position of a tribal leader by celebrating his deeds in war, glorifying his ancestors or listing the allies on whom he might rely". P112.*

Bringing to fore, sànpọ̀nná chant is associated with the Yorùbá god of small pox. A stylistic study of Ṣànpọ̀nná chants serves as another reference document in African studies and literatures. Kamsaran (1974) describes the importance of traditional documentation with respect to African literature in the following way:

> *No account, therefore of African literature can be adequate without some considerations of the part played in the present renaissance by literature in the indigenous language which are nearer the heartbeats of the masses than one of the adopted European languages like English, French, Portuguese and Spanish". P5*

Ogunsola (1970) described occasional festival songs in relation to Yorùbá modern days thus:

> *In many communities in Yorùbá land, purification festivals have undergone change. It is conceivable that in the distant past perhaps a thousand year or more ago, they might have been mainly ritualistic, taking the form of symbolic action and gesture to expel evil from a community.*

Teaching and analysis of Ṣànpọ̀nná chant is a research work carried out as an additional effort on studies inYorùbáoral poetry. Olatunde (1984) once assessed the nature of numerous Yorùbá oral literature thus:

> *"Much has been written on Yorùbá oral poetry, though until fairly recently emphasis has been on supplying sociological and information rather than analysis" pp.3*

This piece of work on sànpọ̀nná stands out as an exemplary project with mild distance to the past of for oral poetry work devoted to seeking only the sociological information. Bamgbose (1966) once submitted that

> *"Traditional grammar can be seen in the work in the study of Yorùbá oral poetry".*

Ṣànpọ̀nnáas a Yorùbá divinity had chants meant for her praises and adoration in Yorùbá land. In the Yorùbá traditional spiritual realm, Ṣànpọ̀nná was a brother to Ṣàngó (god of thunder) and Ògún (god of iron). In connection with the migratory story that forced the Yorùbá ancestors out of Saudi Arabia and Islam, Ṣànpọ̀nná among his followers had direct link with Islam and the Moslems religion known among the Yorùbá people as "the religion of Moslems. The following few lines of Ṣànpọ̀nná chants affirmed the link between Islam and Ṣànpọ̀nná.

> *Ṣànpọ̀nná, the disciple of God*
> *It is time for Suhr (Moslem afternoon prayer)*
> *Suhr in progress*
> *The heaven Moslem is around*
> *Let the worldly ones tread carefully*
> *Ọbàlùfọ̀n observes 'rakat' (Moslem prayer) with lion skin.*

Ṣànpọ̀nná god in Yorùbá land is not restricted to Yorùbá of ancient Ọ̀yọ́ town (Ọ̀yọ́ Àjàká). There are more Nigerians and foreigners initiated into Ṣànpọ̀nná cult with their carved Ṣànpọ̀nná symbols and shrines. Outside Nigeria, Ṣànpọ̀nná symbols and shrines are in Cuba, America and some other nations of the world. Therefore, this study is delineated to finding out facts about Ṣànpọ̀nná in the palace of Ṣànpọ̀nná Priest which is the historical headquarter of the god in the world, in Ọ̀yọ́ town. Apart from briefs received on initiation and the myths about Ṣànpọ̀nná, attention was on few chants of the god recorded at the shrine as it has more chant tittles and unlimited number of hymns depending on the chanter and his/her chant context situation, audience, personalities and inanimate objects for which the chant must have been composed. Ṣànpọ̀nná followers believe that the there exists affiliation with Islamic religion. They also consider themselves as Moslems. The underlined words in one of the chants attests to this faith. Here are samples of Islam Arabic words in Ṣànpọ̀nná chants; See the following:

1. *AilahSuhr: Muslim afternoon prayer daily prayers.*
2. *Adhan   -Pèrun: Moslem call to prayer*
3. *Moslem   -Onímòle: The Moslems*
4. *Jìjì: Temporary mosque like tent or marked ground with either bamboo or bottle Mosque.*

Myth about Ṣànpọ̀nná makes it look like a dreaded god in Yorùbá land. It is a deity associated with smallpox especially among its non believers. Its Priests and the followers 'however, rely on his magnanimity as a savior. Among the forbidden acts as pronounced by Ṣànpọ̀nná in relation to her temple, and doctrines are:

1. Use of whistle, modern electronic gadgets especially camera and phones: Tongue whistling around Ṣànpọ̀nná shrine or in the afternoon especially during dry season under bright sun is forbidden by Sanponna god The use of whistle within the temple of Ṣànpọ̀nná is considered to be an insult to the god. In their believe, Ṣànpọ̀nná used to whistle round the world during his life time and regarded same act by any other person as insult and forbidden.
2. Palm kernel oil**:** This is a Yorùbá liquid pomade derived from palm kernel. It is used for treatment of illness like high blood pressure and body temperature. It is also approved as traditional pomade after bath. As good and valuable it is, it should not be poured on Ṣànpọ̀nná symbol/statue.
3. Tobacco**:** Ṣànpọ̀nná loved smoking when he was in human form but disapproved of his followers the right to smoke cigarette or any form of tobacco. Ṣànpọ̀nná worshippers should not move near his shrine with tobacco or cigarette.
4. Shrine Location**:** Ṣànpọ̀nná shrine is usually located in a separate apartment with his wooden statue that increases in height as years roll by. The shrine and Ṣànpọ̀nná symbols accept and reject visitors and instruments as it pleases. For instance, it breaks camera lens if photograph shots of his wooden symbol is made without the consent and approval of his priests.
5. Broom (Ọwọ̀): In Yorùbá land, we cut bunch of broom into small sizes of about one quarter of the normal sweeping broom for mixing soup such as green leaf, melon mixed with leaf or okro. The short broom is used for blending hot soup. The use of broom in blending soup is an abomination for Ṣànpọ̀nná worshippers. The priest must not eat soup blended with short broom. On no account must any follower of god of small-pox beat children or adult with bunch of broom. It is a forbidden act.
6. The Sun:Sanponna discourages man from walking under the sun in the afternoon.

Ṣànpọ̀nna's Relevance to Mankind According to his worshippers

Ṣànpọ̀nná is a healing god. In Ọ̀yọ́ town, The Royal Majesty, the Aláàfin of Ọ̀yọ́ has special regard for this god as a cleansing god of the land especially during the dry season. The King provides items of sacrifice to the god while the priests choose special days for festival and prayer for prevention of disaster on the Land. Ṣànpọ̀nná festival day is on same days with the market days of Sóró hill in Ọ̀yọ́ (i.e. on five days interval).

1. This god is believed to be the protector of mankind from illness like smallpox, blindness, cripple/polio and mental sickness.
2. The use of items of worship like cold palm oil *usually* poured on Ṣànpọ̀nná symbol is for treating fever, headache and marrow pain. This makes the god more important among his disciples and the Yorùbá people.
3. Ṣànpọ̀nná is the god of justice and fair play. It uses its numerous spirits to punish traitors' thieves, adulterers, and enemies of Yorùbá kingdom. It attacks sinners with all sorts of illness and makes sinners become mentally sick, covered with smallpox or feverish to the point of death unless the confess as their sin(s) to mankind.
4. Sanponna saves mankind from the devilish attack of witches and witchcrafts. It works hand in hand with evil spirit and appeases them for forgiveness whenever they attack people
5. Sanponna assists the barren to have children. The barren parents only need to provide sugarcane, banana, groundnut, corn snacks, special open kolanut, bitter kola, cock, honey and cow breast milk. Priest of Ṣànpọ̀nná god in Yorùbá land lives in special palace built for him by the Aláàfin of Ọ̀yọ́. He is one of the King's high Chiefs respected in hierarchy and recognized as one of the pillars of the land because of his spiritual roles in Ọ̀yọ́ Kingdom in cleansing the community of communicable diseases In the past, and in recognition of the traditional importance of Ṣànpọ̀nná, the Yoruba people used to sacrifice it with human-being. However, in the recent time, Sanponna's sacrificial items have been reduced to use of goats, cocks and other edible items. The choice of Ṣànpọ̀nná Priest is not by appointment or popular elevation. It is a family god. There is a particular family of long historical connection with Ṣànpọ̀nná since the origin of Yoruba race. Therefore, at the demise of each Baálè, the male children are subjected to the rigour of oracle consultation among whom the new Priest is spiritually chosen by Ṣànpọ̀nná for headship. Ṣànpọ̀nná priest is the chief Executive officer of the administration of Sanponna temple and activities. He should traditionally be a young man, who is knowledgeable to direct the affairs of the god. He attends to whoever needs Ṣànpọ̀nná's assistance in solving his/her problems and presides over initiation and it is upon him that Ṣànpọ̀nná spirit for prediction of happenings and curative methods and medicine for the sick ones falls. Initiation into Ṣànpọ̀nná traditional cult is done at any time of any day of the week. It is however generally carried out during the annual festival day. The night preceding the chosen day is for vigil. The worshipers and intending followers must sing Ṣànpọ̀nná praise chants, dance, dine and wine with each other till daybreak using 'bàtá' drums. The priest appears in Ṣànpọ̀nná regalia known for red colour.

The night vigil is also known for special bathing which in Yorùbá land. Ṣànpọ̀nná Priest initiates each person into the spirit with the following materials procured separately by each intending member: water bird, vulture, fowl, pigeon, pounded yam, guinea fowl, jackal, snail, white chalk, palm wine, red pomade, white cloth, goat and palm oil. The people to be initiated must have their pubic and head hair shaved before initiation. At the completion of initiation, the accepted worshippers are collect regalia of 'red color with 'the special bead 'Ṣànpọ̀nná bead' tied round the left hand ankles, of those to be initiated.

V. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In the past, worshippers of Sanponna used to train their children to become vast in its chants through memorization and mimicking strategies as their poets perform in traditional functions. There was no means of using electronic materials since almost every Yoruba community had no regular modern electricity supply nor other modern gadgets needed for such educational project. Also, there exists controversy over the historical linkage between the Yorùbá people and the Arabs. This more or less has created a kind of controversy since there is no known historical clause on origin of the Yorùbá people in Arabs history of origin till date though there were cases of resemblance in the habits, and some aspects of Yoruba and Arab cultures and traditions especially in areas of architectural designs on buildings, textile materials and fashion designs among others. Teaching sanponna chants with e-learning method provides the opportunity of coming across some Ṣànpọ̀nná chants that presented certain information on links between the Yorùbá people and Arabs. There are Ṣànpọ̀nná chants stanzas that elementally link the Arabs Islamic religion and with Ṣànpọ̀nná divinity in Yoruba land. This study therefore is set to establish the fact that with Ṣànpọ̀nná chants, it is evident that the origin of Yorùbá people is traceable to Saudi Arabia since Ṣànpọ̀nná chants consist of linking verses that relate Islam and Yorùbá traditional divinity. This paper also identified some cultural factors that need to be handled for promotion of Yoruba culture using e learning approach.

VI. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The essence of this study is to demystify t he traditional believe and phobia that modern gadgets like camera phones . tape recorders and other electronic materials cannot be taken to Sanponna temple without been damaged by the superior supernatural power of the god of small pox. This traditional faith among others constitute cultural factors militating against modern means of promoting African oral literatures. Therefore teaching and stylistically working on the collated chants proved that e- learning and teaching are effective means of transferring cultural knowledge of several historical heritage in Africa to modern generations of Africans. This therefore serves as another way of saving African languages extinction sojourn. This work introduces Yoruba youths and other readers to more interesting stylistic features in Ṣànpọ̀nná chants. In carrying out this study, the beauty of Yorùbá linguistic features were established as embedded in how Ṣànpọ̀nná chants were rendered. The intent of the study also covers sourcing for how Ṣànpọ̀nná chants are used as songs for traditional entertainments in areas of naming, marriage, funeral and other cultural programs especially among Ọ̀yọ́Yorùbá speaking of Ọ̀yọ́ Nigerians. It is also a project that promotes the use of modern e learning devises in encouraging Yoruba youths' interest in learning the chants

VII. METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

Programmed instruction teaching method involving consistence reading and repletion of the chants stanza by stanza was also adopted as a reliable teaching technique. Each student privately played his/her recorded chants before the group rendition and analysis in the class. In the end of two weeks training more than eight of the students had mastered the collated chants. In other words e-learning approach assisted in promotion of individual differences in learning among the used students. There was also a direct observation of the shrine of Ṣànpọ̀nná and its accessories with the students involved in formal teaching of rendition and analysis of Sanponna chants. Every student tape recorded the collated chants and responses of the Priest at Sanponna temple without the priest knowledge. Android Techno phones were used by all participants in the project. At the formal class room, participants compared their recorded chants and collectively analyzed them with the leading researcher.. The Priest and his deputy were orally interviewed in gathering necessary information for the research. Also engaged for discussion were twenty five worshippers of Ṣànpọ̀nná among whom the selected chants were gathered. In keeping adequate and unadulterated data only the use of phone was adopted in recording the selected chants. The recorded chants were written out, translated into English and literarily analyzed by the e learning teacher in the classroom. The theoretical frame of reference adopted was Abimbola (1966) style of analysis of god of oracle chants in an expository way in which verses of Ifa were written out in Yoruba, translated into English and literarily analyzed stanza by stanza. Ṣànpọ̀nná Temple where his symbols and objects of sacrifice are kept was visited and video recorded with participants mobile phones. Poetic devises employed by Ṣànpọ̀nná poets during oral renditions were also identified and discussed in the classroom with the students. These devises include metaphor, simile, personification, hyperbole, and Onomatopoeia among others. This study took six weeks as many visitations to Ṣànpọ̀nná shrine were initially to no avail due to indisposition of the Priest and the Chanters. We, however witnessed the initiation of worshippers during the research period. The cultural factors identified in teaching and learning of Sanponna chants are: 1; general cultural phobia of the super natural power of god of small-pox in Yoruba land. People

fear carrying out research work in this area of oral literature for the feeling that it is a dangerous and dreaded God. 2; Except with the support received from individual donors , unavailability of e –learning teaching materials is considered as another cultural factor that would have prevented the idea of carrying out this research work, 3; Location and limited access to the Temple and The Priest is a factor that almost hindered the achievement of the objectives of this study. It is a notable cultural factor that almost marred efforts put in place while on this empirical study. The chants analyzed include the following translated into English:

> Òtítí, owner of warrior garment
> Dress me in your attire
> The large spiritual garment owner
> Father of the youth and Moslems
> He, on whose head crown fits 5
> The man with bead fitted neck
> The Ṣànpọ̀nná priest with lágídígba bead
> The boastful one with the commanding tune
> The mother's sacrifice is smaller in quantity than his father's sacrifice
> He that refuses sacrificing the spirit shall pay dearly 10
> You failed to call me Moslem?
> Since I am not with rosary?
> Moslems are no longer faithful to god
> A submissive one feeds well
> My holy god, accept him 15
> I've been ordered, to carry masquerade
> I accepted
> I was ordered to fast
> My fast stands at sixteen
> To go for transits animal 20
> That was how the Moslem was caught
> The faithful Moslems
> Remains blessed and feed fat
> The unfaithful Moslems 25
> The unrepentant youths
> The holy father, please hear them
> The Youth that listens to me
> Agbada the son of Ayẹni 30
> The unlimited palace wealth
> Àlàbí's house masquerade provides it for me
> The numerous children in Àlàbí palace
> Accept my request for them
> The Youth children of Ìyálòde 35
> Who is the Youthful father of all Moslems
> The mighty servant descendant of palm wine drinker
> The junior brother of Ògún Moslem
> I have customers for native medicine
> I have customers for palmwine 40
> Entered into rebellion with palmwine tapper
> If you negotiate with palm wine seller
> lt's time for suhr(Moslem prayer) the king of suhr
> That is how wealth filled Islam
> Agbada the son of Ayẹni 45
> The great Moslem that pray with the lion skin
> The sermon Priest is most qualified to snatch my wife
> The greatest masquerade likened to Adégbàyi, the hunter
> Àkànní, on my kneel I hung the bag
> In standing position, my hand could not reach same bag
> I suspect the witches at play 50
> People planted their seed on the boundary
> Adégba the great planted his own in the open space
> Should we oblige, Ọya(goddess of river)
> Ọya used a basketful of okro (ilá)
> The Queen with one hundred and twenty boxes 55

As servant rests on the mat in the morning, so also are the servants(Ìwòfà's)
The masters son also reclines
Elders on tour of Òrìṣà world
Never clean the statue with cotton leave,
Lattan Leaves scratchiness
The problem with the spirit goes with it 60
The spirit problem deserves sacrifice
The great masquerade that speaks like human being
Father, the war-lord of heaven
The messenger of death,
The lord, You are a great man 65
You turned bride's vagina to flatten calabash,
Ewéjẹ́, my husband, you turned husband penis into lifeless rod,
You turned old woman's vagina into moisture
You visited your farm behind Dàáké
Ewédìmọ́, my husband, we felt it is a dried wood 70
Touch Ṣànpọ̀nná statue with axe and hear the voices of the witches,
Touch Olúbáyọ̀dé with axe and hear the voice of heaven,
The great masquerade with cloth attached leave,
Ṣànpọ̀nná is the lord of open junction
Should you descend on the head 75
The creator, take not my own
Should you take the neck
The voice shaker
The great masquerade with clothe attached leave
The owner of knowledge 80
Expose me to knowledge with your axe,
Lord,you are too great a man
You provide wealth without intimidation
Ṣànpọ̀nná, the open junction lord
On Kọláwọlé's arrival ,I became strong 85
The war-lord with two he-goats in the same trouser mouth,
Before the trouser warns out
May god provide us additional two
Thank god, the lágídígba(beeds) my father
The spirit that saves his children from thebarren world 90
You rear lonely sheep,
He that needs children must appease to the spirits
As small as pounded yam
Ọlọ́lá, the war-lord will not eat cornmealie(ẹ̀kọtútù) 95
Èpè,the war-lord will reject cornmealie
Sacrifice for the head with matured items
Throw away the immature ones
Aponímoró descendant of gàngàngúdú
Alágúdú man, the great
Should my mother accepts witches,
As daughter, I accept chalk (white witches)
                                                                                102

VIII. Poetic Devices Employed by of Ṣ à n p ọ̀ n n á Chants Poets

Linguistics is the scientific study of languages. It exposes languages in contact and change with their resultant effects. Language is employed in both modern traditional oral and written literatures. Ṣànpọ̀nná chants fall within Yorùbá people notable oral literatures for traditional worships, entertainments and feasting. The few collected chants show the beauty of the Yorùbá language particularly when they are stylistically analyzed sourcing for the following poetic devices: simile, metaphor, personification hyperbole, onomatopoeia, irony, paradox, sarcasm euphemism, repetition.

1. Simile**:** It is the act of direct comparison and a regular concept employed by Ṣànpọ̀nná poets in expressing themselves. Nwasambe and Agbade (2005) defined simile as:

> *an expression that describes something by comparing it with something else using the words: 'as', 'like', 'as if', 'as though', 'as, 'as….so'. This is direct comparison between two objects that shares at least one quality (p.5)*

In the Ṣànpọ̀nná chant, the following comparisons were made using simile devise.

The greatest masquerade like Adégbàyi, the hunter.

The great masquerade that speaks like human being

2. **Metaphor:** Metaphoric expressions are for comparison of personalities, event or things in an indirect manner. The Ṣànpọ̀nná poets and chants analyzed also applied this devise in lines 31, 67, and 70

The unlimited palace wealth

Turns bride's vagina to flatten calabash

Turns bridegroom penis to lifeless rod

3. **Personification:** This devise gives the attribute of life and understanding to inanimate objects. It poses non-living things as if capable of playing the roles of animals or human being. In Ṣànpọ̀nná chant, the following were observed in lines 84, 90 and 95.

Ṣànpọ̀nná, the open junction lord   ……   *84*

The spirit that saves his children from the barren

world   ……   *90*

* Olólà, the war-lord will not eat cornmeal*   ……   *95*

4. **Hyperbole:** Among the devises employed by Ṣànpọ̀nná poets is hyperbole in providing exaggeration. It has to do with exaggerated statements. In the studied chants, the poet made use of exaggerated statements in praising Ṣànpọ̀nná and her priest. See lines 1, 3, 8, 32 and 73.

Òtítí, owner of medicinal garment   ……*1*

The large spiritual garment owner   ……*3*

The boastful one with commanding tune   ……*8*

The unlimited palace wealth   ……*32*

Touch Olúbáyọ̀de with axe and hear the witches voices   ………*73*

5. **Onomatopoeia:** This has to do with correlation between words whose sounds suggest their meaning. Appraised Ṣànpọ̀nná chants have fewer examples of words whose sounds suggest meaning. Lines 66 and 67 provide good illustration of onomatopoeia:

You changed bride's vagina into wide open calabash   ………*66*

You rendered the husband's penis into lifeless rod   ……*67*

The words 'kólòbó'(wide opened calabash) and 'robọdu'(lifeless rod) suggest their meaning as applied in the contexts of lines 65 and 66.

6. **Irony:**This has to do with expression meant to be opposite of poet's intention. In fact, such words or expressions are satiric. We discovered that Ṣànpọ̀nná priest presented a number of ironical expressions particularly where it links Ṣànpọ̀nná with Islamic religion in lines 11-18

You failed to call me Moslem

Since I am not with rosary

Moslems are no longer faithful to god

A submissive one feeds well

I've been ordered, to carry masquerade

I accepted

I was directed to fast

My fast stands at sixteen

7. **Paradox:** A statement is termed paradox if it appears as contradiction at the surface level but have some truths on closer scrutiny.Lines 11-19 also fixed appropriately as paradoxical statements. A close observation of Ṣànpọ̀nná mode of worship and discipline shows resemblances to Islamic religion doctrines. Ṣànpọ̀nná worshippers observe fasting just as it is done in Islam though differently in number of days i.e (10&30). Ṣànpọ̀nná forbids drinking of alcohol as it is forbidden in Islam.

'You failed to recognize (call) me as Moslem'   ……   *11*

'Since I do not have rosary'   ……   *12*

8. **Sarcasm:** Expressions under this category are though irony but used with contempt. It is a direct ridicule to show annoyance'' (21). He provided the following example:

''A flight was delayed for two hours. Somebody then remarks: ''Good and efficient service''.

Lines 41- 45 of the analyzed Ṣànpọ̀nná chants sounded sarcastic in the analyzed chants below:

'I have customer for palm wine   ……   *40*

Entered a rebel with palm wine tapper   ……   *41*

If you negotiate with palm wine seller   ……   *42*

It's time for suhr(Moslem prayer) the king of suhr   ……   *43*

That is how wealth filled Islam   ……   *43*

Agbada the son of Ayẹni   ……   *44*

The great Moslem that pray with the lion skin   ……   *45*

9. Euphemism**:** When a figure of speech presents an unpleasant fact in a pleasant way to cover its real nature, then euphemism is used as a stylistic and poetic devise. e.g.

> *''He politely sent his father out of his house''*

The following lines in Ṣànpọ̀nná chants are examples of euphemism statements.

> *'The sermon presenter is the only most qualified person to snatch*
> *my wife'* *46*
> *'People planted their seeds on the farm boundaries'* *51*
> *'Adégbà, Ṣànpọ̀nná,the great, planted hissed in the*
> *open space'* *52*

10. Repetition**:** When a word, phrase or idea is expressed more than once by a poet, repetition has taken place. Some repetitions are 'partial' while others are 'full'. The essence of repetition is to lay emphasis .In the appraised Ṣànpọ̀nná chants, the poet applied repetitive strategy to draw home some salient messages as in lines 21 and 22 and 39 and 40.

> *That was how the Moslem was caught* *21*
> *That was how the Moslem was caught* *22*
> *I have customers' for native medicine* *39*
> *I have customers' for palm wine* *40*
> *Touch the statue with axe and hear the voice of*
> *the witches …………………………………………… …………81*
> *Touch the statue with axe and hear the voice*
> *From heaven ………………………………………….. … …………..82*

IX. RECOMMENDATIONS

An empirical and stylistically study of Ṣànpọ̀nná and its chants have taken us practically to historical background of one of the African traditional gods in Yorùbá land and use of e-learning combined with programmed instruction teaching methods. This can be adopted in further research works on African orature. Having visited the temple, interviewed the priest and other worshippers of Ṣànpọ̀nná, recorded and analyzed few of Ṣànpọ̀nná chants, another additional research opportunity has been opened in the study of Yorùbá and Africa traditional religion onthe beauty of the linguistic properties and interest in the Yorùbá traditional religious chants. While we are not ruling out past studies on Ṣànpọ̀nná god that may have been in existence, this study is adding to the crop of literary attention on the god of small pox in Yorùbá land. The following points deserve special scholastic attention:

1. Ṣànpọ̀nná god had its own contributions to peace and healthy condition of the environment going by Africans traditional beliefs and religion. Therefore, protecting the existing natural artifact of Ṣànpọ̀nná will be in the interest of Nigeria and Yorùbá nation. The National commission for Museum and National Emolument in Nigeria therefore needs to enlist Ṣànpọ̀nná shrines as Tourist Centre.

2. Ṣànpọ̀nná chant is one of the dying Africa oral poetry. Nigerian Government needs to encourage more research studiesin this area and sponsor more publications on Ṣànpọ̀nná and other African religion chants if the old poets will not be allowed to die with their wisdom and traditional talents. This research work has provided a kind of preservation of one of the Africans traditional poems with its collection of chants from the agreed ones since the younger folks appear not too keen again in African traditional chants and songs.

3. Institutes of Africans studies, and Departments of Linguistics and African languages in Nigerian Universities are also encouraged to promote studies in African languages and traditional religions. More Student's projects and term papers are to be encouraged on Ṣànpọ̀nná chants particularly beyond the present coverage (Ọ̀yọ́)

4. A survey of priests of African religions is inevitable with the desire to provide them with positive incentives. In the course of this research, it was discovered that many foreigners especially Americans and Cuba people are daily coming to Ṣànpọ̀nná Temple in Ọ̀yọ́for research investigation. This work has opened more sensitization for stakeholders in African studies to re-focus good attention to this Yorùbá deity.

5. Yoruba language teachers should be specially trained on the use of electronic devises in the teaching of Yoruba oral traditional literature. This will assist in no small way in the documentation of traditional chants and others.

X. CONCLUSION

In this study, we have physically visited Ṣànpọ̀nná Temple at Àgùrè, Ọ̀yọ́ where we video recorded the chant as rendered by the disciples of the god of small-pox in Africa. Stylistics devises such as simile, metaphor, hyperbole, euphemism, sarcasm and other were identified as features of Ṣànpọ̀nná chants being literarily appreciated while teaching the selected students in the formal classroom setting using e-learning and programmed instruction techniques. Recommendations for preservation of the chants, Ṣànpọ̀nná Temple and priests were proposed hoping that their timely usage will add to protection of African Artifacts, religions and oral poetry.

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Kahoot! In an EFL Reading Class

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Abstract—**Game-based learning has attracted considerable attention over the past few years. Mobile apps are welcomed by the digital generation. Debate continues regarding the approach that will most benefit students in English language classrooms, and the impact of mobile applications, particularly on English as a foreign language (EFL) learning, remains unclear. Specifically, little is known about EFL learners' perceptions of mobile applications. The main purpose of this study was to understand Chinese students' attitudes toward the application of Kahoot!, a mobile game-based learning app, in a college EFL class in Taiwan. No gender differences were found in students' perceptions of the use of Kahoot! for English learning. Although the participants expressed positive attitudes towards the application of Kahoot! in the EFL reading class, several negative opinions were expressed regarding the use of Kahoot! as a testing tool. These results provide support for the affective filter hypothesis. Implications for EFL teachers and future research are discussed.**

Index Terms—**Kahoot!, game-based learning, reading class, adult EFL learners, assessment tool**

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, game-based learning, or gamification, has become a popular trend in education (Graham, 2015; Ismail & Mohammad, 2017), as it achieves more positive effects than traditional learning methods (Wang & Lieberoth, 2016). Although game-based learning is not a new method, when merged with technology, it becomes a powerful teaching and learning approach for the internet generation (Bicen & Kocakoyun, 2018). The appropriate integration of technology into the language classroom has received increasing attention in recent years (Medina & Hurtado, 2017), and studies on game-based learning have generally presented convincing results regarding the benefits of implementing gamification in language learning and teaching. Researchers have strongly suggested that to improve learning, it is necessary to use technology appropriately in language classrooms, especially for gamification (Medina & Hurtado, 2017). While the last five years have witnessed a steady increase in mobile-assisted language learning and research on this topic, the influence and acceptance of mobile-game-assisted language learning is not fully understood (Herodotou, 2018).

II. GAME-BASED LEARNING

Technology is increasingly being integrated into teaching to improve learners' motivation and their interaction with learning content (Licorish, Owen, Daniel, & George, 2018; Premarathne, 2017; Wang & Lieberoth, 2016; Zarzycka-Piskorz, 2016). The use of educational games to supplement teaching and learning has been steadily increasing over the last few years, and the use of mobile apps is becoming the current state of the art (Licorish et al., 2018). The use of games as learning tools is known as game-based learning or gamification. Licorish et al. (2018) distinguish gamed-based learning and gamification techniques as follows: game-based learning is a pedagogical approach that involves incidental learning via games to accomplish educational outcomes, whereas gamification techniques refer to methods that engage students in intentional learning through a non-gaming system that integrates game elements. For the purpose of this study, game-based learning, as defined by Licorish et al. (2018), is adopted to solicit the perceptions of students regarding the application of Kahoot! before and after their lessons.

The theoretical foundation underlying game-based student response systems (GSRSs) can be traced to Novak's (1998) concept of meaningful learning, which involves deep rather than surface learning. GSRSs require learners to experiment, reflect, evaluate, and apply their prior knowledge to selected meaningful content, enabling them to become more engaged in their study practices, which leads to deeper learning (Kolb & Fry, 1975; Licorish et al., 2018; Novak, 1998). Kiili's (2005) experiential gaming model (Figure 1) offers another theoretical model in which challenges (problems) and the experience of flow are the two key elements in achieving learning objectives. More specifically, learners achieve objectives by moving between the ideation loop and the experience loop, engaging in the detection of ideas during problem solving, reflection, and observation to construct schemata. Learners gradually develop skills by controlling the game and adjusting to challenges, enabling them to achieve flow in the game, which indicates the success of the game design.

Figure 1. Experiential gaming model (Kiili, 2005).

Previous studies have shown the effectiveness of game-based learning with respect to students' learning performance (Yien, Hung, Hwang, & Lin, 2011), motivation (Burguillo, 2010; Cerasoli, Nicklin, & Ford, 2014; Ebrahimzadeh & Alavi, 2017; Erhel & Jamet, 2013; Hanus & Fox, 2015; Papastergiou, 2009; Yien et al., 2011; Zarzycka-Piskorz, 2016), engagement in learning (Hakulinen, Auvinen, & Korhonen, 2015; Huizenga, Admiraal, Akkerman, & Dam, 2009; Kiili, 2005; Lee & Hammer, 2011; Poondej & Lerdpornkulrat, 2016; Wang & Lieberoth, 2016), and feedback (Charles, Charles, McNeill, Bustard, & Black, 2011). Many researchers support the potential effectiveness of GSRSs (Plump & LaRosa, 2017; Wichadee & Pattanapichet, 2018), and Kahoot! is one of the most widely used education applications of the 21st century (Licorish et al., 2018; Wichadee & Pattanapichet, 2018).

III. Kahoot!

The idea of Kahoot! originated from the "Lecture Quiz" developed in 2006 by Dr. Alf Inge Wang, a computer science and game technology professor at the Norwegian University of Technology and Science (NTNU) in Trondheim, and his student, Morten Versvik. Building on Versvik's master's research and with the help of co-founders Jamie Brooker, Johan Brand and Asmund Furuseth, Kahoot! was formally launched in August 2013. Within a few months, Kahoot! already had more than a million users. With its mission to make learning fun, engage learners through games, and unlock the learning potential of every learner, the Kahoot! platform is basically free for classroom use. Both teachers and students can create an account to develop and share learning games with others; they can also search millions of public, preexisting Kahoot!s on the platform. After gaining full support from educators and learners, Kahoot! Pro for schools was released for teachers and school administrators and carries a one US dollar per month fee for K-12 teachers. Kahoot! Pro for schools offers features such as collaboration with other teachers, advanced game-creation tools, student progress tracking, and customization with school logos. Kahoot! Plus, a premium paid version, was launched for workplace training purposes in 2017 (see https://Kahoot!.com/welcomeback/). Despite the powerful features of Kahoot! Pro for schools and Kahoot! Plus, this article focuses only on the entirely free version, Kahoot! for schools (Figure 2).

Figure 2. Kahoot! for schools.

Kahoot! in Language Learning

Kahoot! for schools is a free website whose popularity has spread rapidly since it was first launched in 2013 (Pede, 2017). Among new online apps for the classroom, Kahoot! ranked thirty-sixth out of one hundred (Kapuler, 2015). Kahoot! has three salient characteristics. First, Kahoot! offers a game-like response platform (Johns, 2015; Medina & Hurtado, 2017) and a multimedia tool promoting participation (Siegle, 2015) for learners, which provides a competitive learning format (Dellos, 2015) and leads to easy acceptance by the "click generation". Additionally, Kahoot!, a game-

based learning app or gamification app (Bicen & Kocakoyun, 2018), is an effective tool that promotes learning by engaging learners through problem learning (Wang & Lieberoth, 2016), meta-cognitive support (Plump & LaRosa, 2017), critical thinking (Bicen & Kocakoyun, 2018; Coca & Slisko, 2013; Johns, 2015), and meaningful and fun activities; by challenging learners in the learning process; and even by reviewing content knowledge (Dellos, 2015; Icard, 2014).

Ismail and Mohammad (2017) applied Kahoot! as a formative assessment tool to promote learning among 113 freshman medical school students in Malaysia. The study investigated the effectiveness of two assessment platforms, Kahoot! and an e-learning portal, and gender differences in Kahoot! use. The results indicated that Kahoot! is effective as an assessment tool because it is easy to use, practical, fun, and enjoyable. Regarding gender differences in Kahoot! use, males seemed to score higher on motivation and knowledge retention than females. Both males and females agreed that using Kahoot! could promote engagement and motivation, enhance the focus on learning, facilitate learning, offer effective feedback and promote reflection. However, the students did not view Kahoot! as a good tool for simplifying complex subjects.

Wichadee and Pattanapichet (2018) conducted a quasi-experimental study with 77 sophomore students at a private university in Thailand to investigate the impact of Kahoot! on students' learning performance, motivation, and attitudes towards gamification in language learning. Thirty-eight students were assigned to the experimental group, and thirty-nine were assigned to the control group. Ten vocabulary quizzes and five grammar quizzes were designed to help the students review each lesson. The experimental group engaged in Kahoot! assessments, while the control group was tested through traditional paper quizzes. The results showed that students in the experimental group exhibited better learning performance and motivation than students in the control group. Moreover, students in the experimental group expressed positive views and attitudes regarding Kahoot!. They seemed to favor Kahoot! as a learning tool because it made the course more fun, promoted a competitive atmosphere, and increased students' interest in the lessons.

Medina and Hurtado (2017) conducted a quasi-experimental study with 70 university students on the effectiveness of using Kahoot! for vocabulary learning in the classroom. Vocabulary assessments were administered to the students as a pretest in the fifth week of the research process. Later, the students were divided into a control group and experimental group, each with 35 students. For the experimental group, the vocabulary review assessments were administered via Kahoot! at the end of every unit. The two groups of students took a posttest after ten weeks of the experimental procedure. The results indicated that students in the experimental group performed better on the posttest than those in the control group. On the satisfaction survey regarding using Kahoot! to learn vocabulary, the students agreed that Kahoot! was easy to use (100%), that they enjoyed playing Kahoot! (95%), that Kahoot! kept them on task (84%), and that they preferred to use technology in the classroom (83%). Thus, the authors concluded that Kahoot! improved students' engagement, motivation, interaction with content, and vocabulary acquisition. Furthermore, they recommended that educators apply Kahoot! to teach any subject, especially vocabulary at the university level.

Licorish et al. (2018) conducted a qualitative study on fourteen university students' perceptions of Kahoot! as part of an information systems strategy and governance course in New Zealand. Kahoot! served as a tool to understand how students experienced the use of GSRSs and to delve into how Kahoot! influences classroom dynamics and students' engagement, motivation, and learning process. Kahoot! was used in seven of thirteen lectures that had an average duration of 30 min. Semi-structured interviews were conducted at the end of the course. The results revealed that Kahoot! improved the quality of the learning process in terms of students' attention, focus, participation, knowledge retention, revision, and enjoyment.

Kahoot! is a positive tool that increases learning energy, competition, and ease of learning (Bicen & Kocakoyun, 2018; Medina & Hurtado, 2017). Furthermore, Kahoot! is a simple assessment tool that teachers can use to create game-based assessments such as quizzes and surveys and track learners' ongoing formative learning process (Bicen & Kocakoyun, 2018; Ismail & Mohammad, 2017; Johns, 2015; Licorish et al., 2018). It can also be used to facilitate the teaching process before, during, and after instruction, and it can provide real-time learning experiences (Johns, 2015) and contribute to a fun learning environment for learners (Dellos, 2015; Ismail & Mohammad, 2017; Licorish, Li George, Owen, & Daniel, 2017; Licorish et al., 2018; Zarzycka-Piskorz, 2016).

The use of Kahoot! and other gamification techniques or GSRSs has been found to be effective for learners in terms of promoting cognition, motivation (Wang & Lieberoth, 2016; Zarzycka-Piskorz, 2016), engagement (Ismail & Mohammad, 2017; Licorish et al., 2018; Matthews, Matthews, & Alcena, 2015; Wang & Lieberoth, 2016), socialization (Wang, 2015), and interpersonal interactions (Coca & Slisko, 2013; Wang, 2015) through the learning process (Papastergiou, 2009). In addition, related studies have proven that Kahoot! is a beneficial tool for assisting learning (Ismail & Mohammad, 2017). However, Licorish et al. (2018) note that one potential drawback of a game-show learning environment is that students may grow bored once they are accustomed to it; however, because Kahoot! requires only a short amount of time during a class period, it is less likely to result in boredom. Nevertheless, how students feel about using Kahoot! in the classroom remains unclear, especially in the university setting (Licorish et al., 2018).

The present study used qualitative surveys to solicit college learners' perceptions of the use of Kahoot! in the English language classroom. The goal was to investigate how students feel about Kahoot! when it is implemented, particularly in an English as a foreign language (EFL) reading class.

IV. METHODS

A. Purpose of the Study

As mentioned above, previous studies on GSRSs have shown that they are effective in terms of promoting engagement, motivation, and learning performance and are well accepted in K-12 classrooms; however, their use in the university setting has seldom been evaluated. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of EFL learners regarding GSRSs, particularly Kahoot!, by using Kahoot! as an icebreaker and unit review tool. To achieve this aim, the study focused on answering the following questions:

1. What are EFL learners' general perceptions of Kahoot!?
2. Are there any gender differences in the EFL learners' perceptions of Kahoot!?
3. What advantages and disadvantages do EFL students perceive regarding the use of Kahoot! as a testing tool in the classroom?

B. Setting

Kahoot! was incorporated into the lessons. Specifically, Kahoot! was used at the beginning each lesson as an ice breaker to arouse interest in the topic and at the end of each lesson to review and reinforce the unit concepts. The questions used in the Kahoot! app were designed or modified based on research on open resources and content knowledge related to the lessons; the question sets typically consisted of 8-10 questions.

C. Participants

In this study, perceptions of the use of Kahoot! in the language classroom were captured using convenience sampling and quantitative methods. Sixty-five sophomore students from a private college agreed to participate in the study. Fourteen male students and forty-six female students who were studying in the department of applied foreign languages participated in the study. The students were told at the beginning of the study that anything they expressed on the survey would not affect their grades and that they were welcome to provide their opinions to aid in improving the use of Kahoot! in the language classroom.

D. Instruments

A questionnaire with a total of 29 questions was adapted from Bicen and Kocakoyun's (2018) study. Participants responded to questions 1 to 27 on a 5-point Likert-type scale (5-completely agree, 4-agree, 3-no opinion, 2-disagree, and 1-completely disagree); these questions collected students' perceptions on the application of Kahoot! in the English classroom. Questions 28 and 29 were open-ended questions designed to solicit students' opinions about the advantages and disadvantages of using Kahoot! as a testing tool.

E. Procedure

Kahoot! was employed in a warm-up activity at the beginning of each unit and to administer a unit quiz at the end of each theme in an English reading class. Unit titles included *The Fair Trade Movement*, *How to Avoid Impulse Shopping*, *Solar Energy*, *Hypnosis Help*, *Aging*, and *Alzheimer's Disease*. When each unit began, the students were told that the Kahoot! activity was just a warm-up to help them assess how much they knew about the selected topic. Each warm-up activity included 8-10 questions with four choices. The students were required to choose an answer to each question from the four options within 20 seconds. The students were told that the scores they achieved on the warm-up Kahoot! activity would not count toward their final grades. The selected articles contained information relevant to the Kahoot! questions. Each unit lasted 2-3 weeks. Before the end of each unit, the same questions used in the warm-up activity were administered to the students through the Kahoot! unit quiz.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This paper presents research results regarding students' perceptions of the implementation of Kahoot! in the language classroom. The results are divided into three sections: first, students' general perceptions of using Kahoot!; second, gender differences in perceptions of Kahoot!; and third, perceptions of the use of Kahoot! as an assessment tool derived from the open-ended questions. As shown in Table I, 14 males (23%) and 46 females (77%) participated in this study. The participants were mainly females, which may have been due to the convenience sampling method, as the majority of students in the foreign language department are female.

TABLE I.
PARTICIPANTS

		N	%	Valid percentage	Cumulative percentage
Valid	Male	14	23.3	23.3	23.3
	Female	46	76.7	76.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

A. General Perceptions of Kahoot!: Effective Learning

The participants' responses to the questions about the implementation of Kahoot! in EFL classrooms are arranged by

theme. As shown in Table II, some of the questions focused on learners' learning. When comparing the traditional learning environment with Kahoot!, the students seemed to agree that Kahoot! helped them retain what they learned for a longer time (M=4.07, SD=.69). Additionally, the students seemed to have a positive view of Kahoot! in terms of the app's ability to improve the effectiveness of the course ((M=4.18, SD=.68), promote learning persistence in classroom activities (M=4.17, SD=.67), motivate cooperative learning (M=4.12, SD=.87), achieve active learning (M=4.12, SD=.72), and increase successful learning (M=4.00, SD=.78). Moreover, the students strongly agreed that using Kahoot! can cultivate students' confidence to participate in classroom activities (M=4.23, SD=.56).

TABLE II.
GENERAL PERCEPTIONS OF KAHOOT!: EFFECTIVE LEARNING

	Items	N	Mix	Max	Mean	SD
Q01	Compared with the traditional learning environment, Kahoot! helps students retain learning for a longer time.	60	2.0	5.0	4.07	.69
Q03	Kahoot! increases successful learning.	60	2.0	5.0	4.00	.78
Q05	Kahoot! motivates cooperative learning.	60	1.0	5.0	4.12	.87
Q06	Kahoot! improves the effectiveness of the course.	60	3.0	5.0	4.18	.68
Q09	Kahoot! can achieve active learning.	60	3.0	5.0	4.12	.72
Q12	Kahoot! can promote learning persistence in classroom activities.	60	3.0	5.0	4.17	.67
Q21	Using Kahoot! can cultivate students' confidence to participate in classroom activities.	60	3.0	5.0	4.23	.56

As shown in Table III, the participants seemed to agree that Kahoot! was a beneficial application that can increase interest in curriculum topics (M=4.32, SD=.70) and make activities more fun (M=4.30, SD=.70).

TABLE III.
PERCEPTIONS OF KAHOOT!: INTEREST

	Items	N	Mix	Max	Mean	SD
Q02	Kahoot! increases interest in curriculum topics.	60	2.0	5.0	4.32	.70
Q04	Kahoot! makes activities more fun.	60	2.0	5.0	4.30	.70

Table IV shows that the participants seemed to strongly agree that using Kahoot! in class encourages learners (M=4.28, SD=.61) and that using Kahoot! in teaching activities can improve learning motivation (M=4.13, SD=.70). Moreover, the incorporation of social media sharing activities can improve learning motivation (M=4.13, SD=.65). Similarly, Kahoot!'s timed answer method can stimulate students' excitement (M=4.25, SD=.75), and Kahoot!'s scoring system motivates students to become one of the top five students (M=4.15, SD=.76).

TABLE IV.
PERCEPTIONS OF KAHOOT!: MOTIVATION

	Items	N	Mix	Max	Mean	SD
Q08	Using Kahoot! in teaching can improve students' learning motivation.	60	3.0	5.0	4.13	.70
Q13	Kahoot!'s timed answer method can stimulate students' excitement.	60	2.0	5.0	4.25	.75
Q18	Through social media sharing activities, learning motivation can be improved.	60	3.0	5.0	4.13	.65
Q19	Kahoot!'s scoring system motivates students to become one of the top five students.	60	2.0	5.0	4.15	.76
Q20	Using Kahoot! in class encourages learners.	60	3.0	5.0	4.28	.61

As Table V shows, the participants agreed that Kahoot! can provide students with richer thematic content (M=4.27, SD=.67), that using Kahoot! in activities enables students to easily comprehend the theme of the course (M=4.20, SD=.63), and that the use of pictures in Kahoot! makes it easier for learners to understand content (M=4.10, SD=.71).

TABLE V.
PERCEPTIONS OF KAHOOT!: LEARNING CONTENT

	Items	N	Mix	Max	Mean	SD
Q14	Kahoot! can provide students with richer thematic content.	59	3.0	5.0	4.27	.67
Q15	The use of pictures in Kahoot! makes it easier for learners to understand content.	60	3.0	5.0	4.10	.71
Q22	Using Kahoot! to carry out activities enables students to easily comprehend the theme of the course.	60	2.0	5.0	4.20	.63

Table VI shows that when comparing Kahoot! as an assessment platform with traditional paper and pencil tests, the participants tended to agree that taking tests via Kahoot! is better than taking tests using the traditional paper and pencil method (M=4.13, SD=.81). The participants somewhat disagreed about whether they preferred to take a test using paper and pencil (M=2.93, SD=1.06). Additionally, the students disagreed that using Kahoot! to take a test is too complicated (M=2.47, SD=1.08). In other words, the students perceived that Kahoot! is not too complicated for use as a test platform. However, the participants seemed to only slightly agree about their preference regarding the use of Kahoot! to take tests (M=3.87, SD=.79).

TABLE VI.
PERCEPTIONS OF KAHOOT!: TAKING TESTS

	Items	N	Mix	Max	Mean	SD
Q24	Using Kahoot! to take a test is better than using a traditional paper and pencil test.	60	1.0	5.0	4.13	.81
Q25	I prefer to take a test with paper and pencil.	60	1.0	5.0	2.93	1.06
Q26	I prefer to use Kahoot! for tests.	60	2.0	5.0	3.87	.79
Q27	Using Kahoot! to take a test is too complicated.	60	1.0	5.0	2.47	1.08

The data presented in Table VII suggest that the meaning of the button colors in Kahoot! is clear (M=4.25, SD=.68), Kahoot! can improve students' ability to think quickly (M=4.23, SD=.65), and the use of video in Kahoot! can attract learners' attention (M=4.20, SD=.63). In addition, Kahoot! enables learners to express themselves easily (M=4.20, SD=.68), and questioning skills in Kahoot! can provide students with different perspectives (M=4.13, SD=.79). Furthermore, the results revealed that the participants did not agree that Kahoot!'s background music is distracting (M=3.20, SD=1.19).

TABLE VII.
PERCEPTIONS OF KAHOOT!: OTHER

	Items	N	Mix	Max	Mean	SD
Q07	Kahoot! enables learners to express themselves easily.	60	3.0	5.0	4.20	.68
Q10	Questioning skills in Kahoot! can provide students with different perspectives.	60	1.0	5.0	4.13	.79
Q11	Kahoot! can improve students' ability to think quickly.	60	3.0	5.0	4.23	.65
Q16	The use of video in Kahoot! can attract learners' attention.	60	3.0	5.0	4.20	.63
Q17	Kahoot!'s background music is distracting.	60	1.0	5.0	3.20	1.19
Q23	Button color harmony in Kahoot! is obvious.	59	2.0	5.0	4.25	.68

B. Gender Differences in Perceptions of Kahoot!

T-tests were carried out to examine gender differences in the participants' perceptions of learning through Kahoot!. As Table VIII shows, there were no differences between male and female students regarding their perceptions of learning via Kahoot!.

TABLE VIII.
GENDER DIFFERENCES IN PERCEPTIONS OF KAHOOT!

Qs	Gender	N	Mean	SD	Mean Difference	*t* value	*Sig.*(2-tailed)
Q1	Male	14	3.929	.92	-.18	-.859	.394
	Female	46	4.109	.60			
Q2	Male	14	4.214	.98	-.13	-.485	.089
	Female	46	4.348	.60			
Q3	Male	14	4.071	.83	.09	.388	.699
	Female	46	3.978	.77			
Q4	Male	14	4.286	.83	.02	-.087	.493
	Female	46	4.304	.66			
Q5	Male	14	3.929	1.00	-.24	-.928	.357
	Female	46	4.174	.82			
Q6	Male	14	4.143	.86	-.05	-.213	.834
	Female	46	4.196	.62			
Q7	Male	14	4.214	.80	.019	.089	.930
	Female	46	4.196	.65			
Q8	Male	14	3.857	.95	-.36	-1.342	.198
	Female	46	4.217	.59			
Q9	Male	14	4.000	.96	-.15	-.557	.585
	Female	46	4.152	.63			
Q10	Male	14	4.286	.73	.20	.821	.415
	Female	46	4.087	.81			
Q11	Male	14	4.357	.74	.16	.815	.419
	Female	46	4.196	.62			
Q12	Male	14	4.143	.77	-.03	-.151	.880
	Female	46	4.174	.64			
Q13	Male	14	4.357	.84	.14	.607	.546
	Female	46	4.217	.73			
Q14	Male	14	4.286	.83	.019	.093	.926
	Female	46	4.267	.62			
Q15	Male	14	4.214	.80	.15	.689	.494
	Female	46	4.065	.68			
Q16	Male	14	4.071	.83	-.17	-.867	.390
	Female	46	4.239	.57			
Q17	Male	14	3.286	1.14	.11	.305	.761
	Female	46	3.174	1.22			
Q18	Male	14	4.000	.78	-.17	-.88	.385
	Female	46	4.174	.61			
Q19	Male	14	4.214	.80	.08	.361	.719
	Female	46	4.130	.75			
Q20	Male	14	4.214	.80	-.09	-.393	.699
	Female	46	4.304	.55			
Q21	Male	14	4.286	.73	.07	.328	.747
	Female	46	4.217	.51			
Q22	Male	14	4.286	.83	.11	.474	.642
	Female	46	4.174	.57			
Q23	Male	14	4.357	.74	.13	.641	.524
	Female	46	4.222	.67			
Q24	Male	14	4.286	.73	.20	.799	.427
	Female	46	4.087	.84			
Q25	Male	14	2.714	1.07	-.29	-.885	.380
	Female	46	3.000	1.05			
Q26	Male	14	3.786	.89	-.11	-.434	.666
	Female	46	3.891	.77			
Q27	Male	14	2.286	.99	-.24	-.712	.479
	Female	46	2.522	1.11			

*p<.05; **p<.01

C. Advantages of Kahoot! As a Testing Tool

According to Geer (1991), the concept mapping analysis technique appears to be particularly well suited for organizing open-ended survey data. Concept mapping was therefore used in this study as a text analysis method to capture and confirm the opinions that students expressed in response to the open-ended questions, namely, Question 28: Advantages of Kahoot! as a testing tool and Question 29: Disadvantages of Kahoot! as a testing tool. The students' opinions about the advantages of Kahoot! as a testing tool were organized into a concept map, as shown in Figure 3.
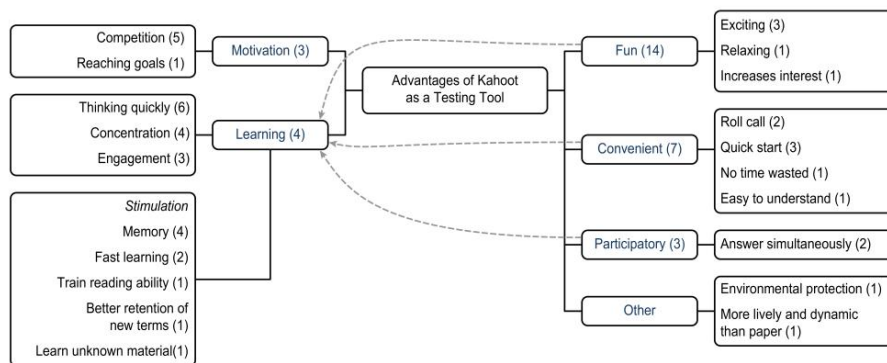
Figure 3. Advantages of Kahoot! as a testing tool.

The students answered Question 28, an open-ended question, enthusiastically and seemed delighted to share their opinions. As the concept map (Figure 3) shows, opinion concepts regarding the advantages of using Kahoot! as a testing tool were classified into six categories: fun, convenient, participation, learning, motivation, and other, as shown in Table IX below. The first column presents these six categories, and the second column includes the opinion concepts associated with the first column. The frequency of each subitem is presented in brackets. There are no duplicate counts between the first and second columns. As Table IX shows, among the opinion concepts related to the advantages of using Kahoot! as a testing tool, the opinion that Kahoot! promotes learning was observed most frequently (26), followed by fun (19), convenient (13), motivation (9), participation (5), and other (3).

TABLE IX.
OPINION CONCEPTS FOR THE ADVANTAGES OF LEARNING ENGLISH VIA KAHOOT!

Opinion Concept (Frequency)		Total Count	Frequency
Fun (14)	excitement (3)	19	
	increase interest (1)		
	relaxing(1)		
Convenient (7)	call roll (2)	13	
	quick start (4)		
Participation (5)	participate in class	5	
Learning (4)	think quickly (6)	26	
	concentration (4)		
	attraction (3)		
	stimulation (5)		
	memory (4)		
Motivation (3)	competition (5)	9	
	reach the goal (1)		
Other	environmental protection (1)	3	
	more lively and dynamic than a paper quiz (1)		
	easy to understand (1)		

Students' opinions about open-ended Question 29: Disadvantages of Kahoot! as a testing tool were classified according to the relationship between the opinions on the concept map, as shown in Figure 4. The opinions were classified into the following concepts based on the attribution of responsibility: none (12), student (25), network speed (6), teacher (5), and the app itself (2). The dotted arrow lines indicate that there may be a relationship between the opinions.
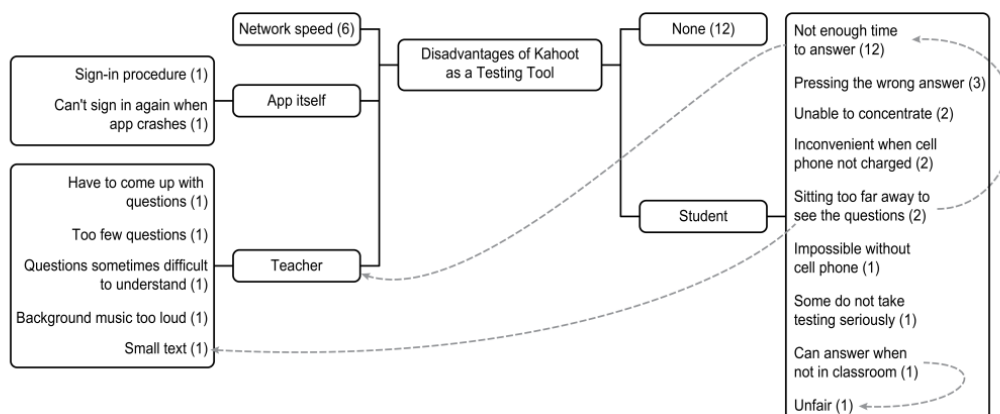
Figure 4. Disadvantages of Kahoot! as a testing tool.

Table X shows that both "no" disadvantages related to learning English through Kahoot! and "not enough time to answer" had a frequency of 12, followed by network speed (6), pressing the wrong answer (3), and various other opinions.

TABLE X.
DISADVANTAGES OF KAHOOT! AS A TESTING TOOL

Opinion Concept (Frequency)		Total Frequency Count
None (12)		12
Student	not enough time to answer (12)	25
	press the wrong answer (3)	
	unable to concentrate and think (2)	
	inconvenient when the cell phone is not charged (2)	
	too far away to see the questions (2)	
	can't play without a cell phone (1)	
	some don't take it seriously (1)	
	can answer Kahoot! even when not in the classroom (1)	
	unfair (1)	
Network speed (6)		6
App itself	can't re-sign in when app crashes (1)	2
	sign-in procedure (1)	
Teacher	have to come up with questions (1)	5
	too few questions (1)	
	questions are sometimes difficult to understand (1)	
	background music is too loud (1)	
	text is too small (1)	

VI. DISCUSSION

First, all of the participants had positive perceptions regarding the benefits of Kahoot! for learners and the classroom atmosphere. In other words, the participants enjoyed the game-like learning environment. This finding further supports earlier studies indicating that Kahoot! makes learning more fun and enjoyable (Dellos, 2015; Ismail & Mohammad, 2017; Licorish et al., 2018; Medina & Hurtado, 2017; Wang & Lieberoth, 2016; Zarzycka-Piskorz, 2016). One possible reason for this finding is that students in the digital age are able to access a variety of online content and communication methods, such as social media, videos, games, e-mail, and text. These students feel very comfortable with technology-based applications such as Kahoot! (Kahoot, 2018), and Licorish et al. (2018) mentioned in their study that students feel safer in this kind of game-based learning environment.

Second, the students seemed to accept the use of Kahoot! as an evaluation tool in the classroom. Based on the findings, this study is consistent with previous studies indicating that Kahoot! is a useful assessment tool for teachers when creating quizzes or surveys and for students when taking exams in the classroom (Bicen & Kocakoyun, 2018; Dellos, 2015; Ismail & Mohammad, 2017; Medina & Hurtado, 2017; Plump & LaRosa, 2017). This result implies that the participants accepted the use of Kahoot! as a quiz tool. One possible explanation for this finding is the notion that students who are digital natives reap innumerable benefits from being online, and taking surveys or quizzes via Kahoot! is a multimedia activity even though it involves assessment. Another possible interpretation is that learning through Kahoot! is still something of a novelty for students. Wang (2015) states that the disadvantages of Kahoot! might become apparent if students become bored with gamified technology. It is worth noting that one student mentioned environmental protection issues, which could be related to the benefits of preserving paper when using Kahoot! as a testing tool instead of the traditional pen and paper method.

For every advantage, there is a disadvantage, and this holds true for administering assessments through Kahoot!.

Some students felt that it was unfair to use Kahoot! as a testing tool or a tool to track attendance, as students can reply on Kahoot! even if they are not in the classroom. Furthermore, in the process of using Kahoot! for a quiz, one or two students became excited and spoke the answers aloud. In addition, cell phones must be well charged before students go to class; otherwise, they may feel excluded from the mobile-based learning environment. Finally, one issue that must be carefully considered when using Kahoot! as a testing tool is the appropriate time allotted to answer each question. The opinion "not enough time to answer" was expressed by both students and teachers. Teachers can establish a response time for each question ranging from 5 to 120 seconds. In this study, all the questions had a response time of 20 seconds. The most appropriate length of time for answering a question may depend on the subject and content. Allowing too little time for each question may cause students to feel frustrated or, as mentioned in Table X, "press the wrong answer (3)" or be "unable to concentrate and think (2)." On the other hand, students may feel bored if given too much time to respond to each item.

In addition to network speed and the challenges of the app itself, teachers who want to adopt Kahoot! as a testing tool in an English class should consider the following. The number of questions should be appropriate, as the opinions expressed in this study indicated that 8-10 questions may be too few for a Kahoot! activity. Font size should be adjusted in accordance with class size to avoid the problem of students being seated too far away to see. Additionally, teachers should ensure that each Kahoot! question is comprehensible and that the volume of the background music is not too loud.

Third, regarding the effectiveness of Kahoot!, the students' opinions aligned with those reported in a review of the literature that Kahoot! stimulates learning and improves language learning in a game-like competitive environment (Bicen & Kocakoyun, 2018; Dellos, 2015; Ismail & Mohammad, 2017; Licorish et al., 2018; Zarzycka-Piskorz, 2016). It seems likely that these results are in fact due to the influence of the game-based technique, which involves affective factors such as attitude, motivation, and feeling. Previous studies on the affective factors involved in learning a foreign language have found that motivation and anxiety are strongly linked to English achievement (Henter, 2014; Robinson, 2005). The notion of affective factors is based on the affective filter hypothesis proposed in 1982 by linguist Dr. Stephen Krashen in his Monitor Model (Krashen, 1982). The affective filter hypothesis accounts for the effects of emotional variables such as nervousness, boredom, anxiety, and resistance in the success or failure of acquiring a second or foreign language. It is believed that when the invisible affective filter is high, learners may experience negative feelings that can either facilitate or block language production. Affective filters can be lowered through an engaging, interactive, and positive environment in which learners feel motivated, confident, welcomed, etc. (Ataiefar & Sadighi, 2017).

Fourth, the findings are consistent with studies by Pede (2017) and Licorish et al. (2018), who illustrated that learning via Kahoot! can focus attention (Bicen & Kocakoyun, 2018; Licorish et al., 2018; Pede, 2017; Premarathne, 2017) and further increase participation (Bicen & Kocakoyun, 2018; Medina & Hurtado, 2017; Mineo, Ziegler, Gill, & Salkin, 2009; Pede, 2017; Premarathne, 2017) and motivation (Johns, 2015; Medina & Hurtado, 2017; Premarathne, 2017; Zarzycka-Piskorz, 2016). It is worth noting that one participant commented that vocabulary was more memorable if it had appeared previously on Kahoot!. In other words, students may be more likely to remember words that have appeared in questions on the Kahoot! application. This finding may be the result of the benefits that Kahoot! brings to the language classroom, including increased interest, participation, effective learning and motivation. This finding further supports Huang's (2015) study, which examined vocabulary development through technology and traditional (paper-pencil & textboard (PPT)) methods. Huang found that students in the technology group outscored those in the traditional group.

Lastly, the study surprisingly revealed no statistically significant gender differences in the students' perceptions of the use of Kahoot! as an English learning tool in the language classroom. In other words, there were no differences found between the genders, and all of the items were rated positively by the participants. Both male and female students strongly agreed that Kahoot! makes learning English interesting and fun, enables students to learn richer content more easily, increases motivation, and encourages engagement. Moreover, they expressed positive perceptions of the use of Kahoot! as an assessment tool. The results of this study differ from those of Ismail and Mohammad (2017), who found that male and female Malaysian medical students had different perceptions of the ability of Kahoot! to motivate students to learn; specifically, males scored higher than females ($p < .05$) on motivation. Students' majors, learning content, and even cultural differences may also have different effects on motivation.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the goal of this paper was to assess college students' perceptions of the application of Kahoot! in an EFL reading class. Gender differences in these perceptions were discussed, as were the advantages and the disadvantages of Kahoot! as a testing tool. To achieve the best teaching and learning results, the affective filters hypothesis should be considered when using applications with EFL learners. The results of this study have led to a better understanding of how EFL college students think about the use of Kahoot! in a reading class for presenting warm-up activities and administering assessments. However, every coin has two sides, and Kahoot!-assisted language learning is no exception; thus, teachers should leverage the app's advantages appropriately and avoid its disadvantages.

A. Limitations

The limitations of this study derive from its use of convenience sampling and the small sample size. The study is therefore a case study on applying a mobile application, Kahoot!, in an EFL college reading class in Taiwan. The results may not be generalizable to other teaching fields. Larger samples and more interviews are needed as part of future research. There may also be several other factors that influence the effectiveness of Kahoot! and perspectives towards adopting Kahoot!, such as English proficiency, learning styles, preferences for learning or taking a test, and mobile-assisted language learning culture (Cojocnean, 2016).

B. Future Research

As Nacke, Drachen, and Göbel (2010) suggested, qualitative survey-based methods are more suitable than quantitative methods when seeking to solicit learners' experiences with game-based technology. Thus, in addition to the survey method, interviews could be conducted to elicit learners' deeper thoughts on the use of Kahoot! in the language classroom. Further studies considering learners' learning styles that account for mobile-assisted language learning variables need to be undertaken, as several researchers have mentioned that technology-related learning tends to be beneficial for kinesthetic learners (Johns, 2015; Valiente, 2008). Finally, taking English proficiency into consideration may provide EFL educators who are interested in applying Kahoot! in their language classes a more comprehensive reference. Specifically, studying the attitudes of EFL learners with different levels of English proficiency towards learning and testing through Kahoot! and determining the differences among them could be informative. Further studies about applying Kahoot! in EFL learning are needed.

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Kuwaiti Parents' Perceptions towards Introducing a Foreign Culture into Their Children's EFL Textbooks in Public Elementary Schools

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Abstract—**This study aims to investigate Kuwaiti parents' views and opinions towards introducing native speakers' and international cultures into their children's' EFL textbooks in public schools in the light of recent debates that discuss the relationship between culture and English language teaching. It also intends to explore and discover their perceptions towards the current cultural content being taught in Kuwait public elementary schools. For this purpose, questionnaires were distributed among Kuwaiti parents whom their children study in the government public schools followed by semi-structured interviews to get more detailed and in-depth information about the topic discussed. The findings of this study show that the vast majority had negative opinions and views towards exposing their children to native speaker's cultures for social and religious reasons. One of which is their underlying concern about the negative impacts of native speakers' content on their children's cultural and national identity. However, most of them agreed their children learn EFL through the prism of the international multicultural cultural content to prepare them use the language in different cultural contexts when they grow up. The results also showed that most of them preferred to keep the current ELT syllabus which uses the host cultural content rather than replacing it with the native speakers' one for the same reasons and also in view of growing awareness of the role played by culture in the EFL classroom which propound the nature of the Kuwaiti society of being conservative and cautious.**

Index Terms—**applied linguistics, EFL, ESL, language and culture, English language curriculum**

I. INTRODUCTION

The English language is now widely spoken in most countries across the globe, and, hence, is often referred to as "Global Phenomenon", "World Englishes" or "Lingua Franca English". Although it is not the official language in most countries, it is taught as a foreign or a second language almost everywhere. According to Graddol (1997), English is no longer considered as the exclusive cultural property of the native speaking countries but as a language that is absorbing aspects of cultures worldwide as it continues to grow.

English is now indispensable in all transnational aspects of life including technology, commerce, telecommunications, medicine, pursuing higher academic achievements and obtaining better employment opportunities in addition to a very important way of communication across cultures in many countries and regions. As Devrim & Bayyurt (2010) aptly articulate: *"It is an undeniable fact that English has become a global lingua franca. It is the most commonly spoken foreign language, language of media, language of technology, and language of science"* (p.4). However, there are some researchers such as Modiano (2001) who argue that the spread of the English language and its culture today is a kind of linguistic imperialism which we have to be vigilant against. Others like Cooke (1988) use the metaphor of the **Trojan horse** to describe the way that the English language and its culture may be welcomed at first in a country but after some time, cause fear once it begins to dominate the native language(s) and culture(s).

Some countries in the Middle East encourage the teaching of English as a second or foreign language through the prism of the buttressed host culture. It might be preliminarily proposed that because of cultural, religious or political reasons, a foreign language should best be taught and presented with minimal reference to Native Speakers' Cultures. For cultural reasons, some cultures might have their special traditions and habits, which are carefully guarded in the face of a perceived or real threat from outside. To protect the identity of their people, decision-makers might refuse some practices and perspectives presented in a range of foreign textbooks and other materials. For religious reasons too, some cultures might not share the same beliefs and behaviors such as male/female illegitimate relations, music, and mixed dancing, and co-education. To protect the beliefs of their people, some countries prefer to design their text and course books which represent the host nation's religious beliefs and practices. Similarly, for political reasons, some countries might consider the teaching of a foreign language as a kind of political imperialism, especially if it is the language of superpower (Shaw 1981).

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Being a conservative country with strong traditional and religious values, Kuwait has structured the teaching and representation of English in the country public schools in conformity to the host culture and providing a conducive

platform of practicality of the language being learnt. However, this has resulted over the years in a potentially negative outcome of denuding English of its international dimension, with unsatisfactory effects on learners' performance outside Kuwait.

Since one key role and function of English in Kuwait is to enhance capacity for international higher education and employment, this policy towards ELT in public schools in Kuwait in the current age of globalization needs to be addressed, deliberated and discussed further. This urgent concern has arisen in many significant discussions between parents, decision-makers who call for a re-evaluation of this policy (EFL education) and the need for changes, improvement or retention of the *status quo*.

III. NATURE OF THE KUWAITI SOCIETY

Because the nature of a country might determine what to be taught and not to be taught, the researcher believes that it is very important for the readers to understand the subtle nature of the Kuwaiti society from the inside to get a comprehensive understanding of the topic discussed.

Kuwait's population which is almost a million and a half makes it very unique. Some like Hajaj (1981) think it is a conservative society whereas others like Zughoul (2003) believe it is a religious one. As I am part of that society, I, in the fitness of things, would like to describe the way I live and this could give a clear idea about its nature. I live with my family which consists of six members, my wife, two sons, and two daughters and I. The house I live in is a two storey building that has a separate sitting room for men and another one for women. This is because men are **not** allowed to enter the house, instead, they go to their private room called "Dewaniya". They are also not allowed to see or to speak with my wife or my daughters unless they are very close relatives like uncles or aunts, grandfathers or grandmothers. My wife always wears long black cloth and a mask to cover her face. My daughters wear black Hijabs (hair cover) and long black clothes. Because girls and boys study in separate schools, my daughters study in the girls' schools in my area and when I go to pick them from there, there is always a police car to secure the place and to be sure that no boys or young men come and behave inappropriately, e.g. by flirting or dating. This does not mean that the society Kuwait is closed. In contrast, the free elected parliament and women's rights make Kuwait distinguished among its neighbors. Women play a very important role in Kuwait, there is one lady member in the parliament in addition to a minister in the government (minister of public works). In my opinion, the Kuwaiti culture contains both the religious and the conservative people as a majority and the liberal as a minority.

IV. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The EFL learners have their own set of cultural experiences and objectives of using the target language by acquiring language proficiencies from the beginning to advanced levels through a gradual, step-by-step but effective approach. They have their own cultural amalgamation which has to be addressed during target language learning process to make it effective, meaningful and relevant to the learners. Despite this governing fact, the researcher puts forward his keen interest in developing and improving the ELT curriculum in Kuwait.

Primarily, it is to assume that integration of localised culture and contexts is inevitable while learning English as a foreign language. Against this backdrop, the results of this study might provide some insights and supportive information towards introducing foreign cultures (native or international) in public schools textbooks in the country. Decision-makers and EFL textbook designers in Kuwait might find this study and its conclusions a useful start towards evaluating and redefining the current EFL host curriculum in Kuwait putting into consideration issues like language and its relation with culture and its greatest role as an international language in the global world.

V. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1) What are Kuwaiti parents' views and attitudes towards including **Native Speakers'** culture in their children's EFL textbooks in public schools?

2) What are Kuwaiti parents' views and attitudes towards including **international cultures** in their children's EFL textbooks in public schools?

3) What are Kuwaiti parents' views and attitudes towards the current host EFL **curriculum taught** to their children in public schools?

VI. LITERATURE REVIEW

The researcher thinks it would be pertinent and adequate to define what *culture* is before going further in the study. In this regard, Nemni (1992) and Street (1993) believe that it is not easy to answer the question: *What is the meaning of the word culture?* Long-time ago, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1954) discovered more than three hundred definitions of culture in their study, which in turn emphasize the difficulty of understanding the issues involved in culture and teaching about culture.

Among the various definitions of culture is the one developed by Spardley (1980) who defines culture as:

Culture is comprised of three basic features of peoples' experience: what they do (**cultural behavior**), what they know (**cultural knowledge**), and what things they make and use (**cultural artifact**).

Studies on introducing foreign cultures into ESL and EFL classrooms and its connection with language have produced many different views and opinions of agreement and disagreement towards this hot and worth-pondering topic. Among the views supporting and rejecting which cultural content to be introduced in course books, this debate of the relation between language and culture is still unresolved and is still considered to be a conflict among researchers. Adaskou et al. (1990), for example, summarize the following arguments for having a foreign cultural content in EFL/ ESL course books:

1) It can promote international understanding.
2) It deepens an understanding of one's own culture.
3) It facilitates learners' visits to foreign countries.
4) It motivates EFL/ ESL learners to learn English.

There has been a shift toward the conception of 'culture' which is considered more open to the variety of cultures and social existence (Pieper 2016). Jenkins (2000) describes it as a phenomenon which has become the subject of considerable debate during the past few years.

This debate on the importance of English language and culture evolved about twenty years ago when different researchers from different countries have raised the question of "role and ownership of English language and its culture" in the globalized world or the "small village". It was only in the 1990's that the issue came to the surface with essays, surveys, books, and conferences trying to explain how it is that English can become truly a global language, what the consequences will be if it happens and why English became the main candidate for an international language (Crystal 2003). This resulted in different views and opinions among researchers which have created different schools of thought.

In this regard, here are two schools of thought regarding this issue; **the first one** is in favor of introducing native speakers' culture in EFL textbooks as it believes that the relation between the English language and its native-speaking culture is inseparable. Examples for supporters of this school are Seelye (1994), Byram and Fleming (1998), Bennet (1997) and Hendon (1980). **The second school** can be divided into 2a a group which supports the introducing of the host culture only; and 2b which supports introducing of a range of representative cultures from around the world which would include both those of native speakers of English and of others where English is used as a second or foreign language. This latter school of thought with its two divisions opposes the first one and sometimes considers teaching native-speaking culture in English language education as a kind of linguistic or cultural imperialism. Those who hold the latter opinion are usually supporters of what is known at present English as an International Language (EIL) or the supporters of presenting the foreign language according to the host culture. Examples of supporters of this school are Alptekin (2002) & (1993) and Modiano (2001).

VII. OVERVIEW OF THE CULTURAL CONTENT OF INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL (GRADE 6-9) EFL TEXTBOOKS IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO GRADE 7 TEXTBOOK

The coursebook is called **Target English** by Keddle & Hobbs (2008) and is designed to meet the needs of EFL learners at the intermediate school level in Kuwait. If we take the textbook of year 7, we find it consists of 6 units and are called (modules) in this textbook. Unit one titled **My friend and I** deals with the family life and relations in Kuwait in addition to discussing the favorite things of the Kuwaiti character Ahmad such as his mobile, his favorite Kuwaiti singer (Abdullah Ruwaished), chocolate, sports team, and other thing. On page 13 there is a small section called Reading and Speaking which has few lines about tradition houses in Kuwait. Module **2 School Days** discusses Khalid's planning for the week, his activities, his painting training and his visits with his friend Jassim. The module also dwells on the safety in the science laboratory classes and precautions, what Khalid's mother say about him, the school circus and the map of the Kuwaiti place called Wattya. Module 3 **Free Time Festivals** presents the camping trip to the desert by Ahmad, Hassan, Salma, and Hiba with their parents Nawaf and Mariam. It also deals with the names of local Kuwaiti dishes and plates such as Hommous, Fattoush, Kebab and names of famous Kuwaiti restaurants such as The Garden Cafe in the capital. Module 3 also discusses the festival in Kuwait such as Eid Al-Fitr and also the Chinese New Year. There is a small paragraph about the famous Harrods and its history on Page 40. Module 4 **Journey to the Past** takes the EFL learners back to the history of science and almost turns to a science subject: translated to English. It begins with the history of the Arabic scientist Al-Idrisi and others; Leonardo Da Vinci and Brothers Wright. It also discusses the ways of spending holidays by some young Kuwaiti students named Rakan, Eman, Faris, Ali, Anwar, and Dalia. It continues dealing with spending holidays in the historic Jordanian city of Jerash. Module 5 **World of Work** begins with a discussion between a Kuwaiti father and his son rewarding him for his good behavior and reminding him about the good morals of the Kuwaiti society like honesty and helping other people. Then it goes to the weather condition in the country and the temperature of the neighboring gulf countries.

Except for a small amount of information about two Arab countries, the cultural content of the textbook **Target English** grade 7 seems to be nearly local. This is shown by the character names in the textbook which are all Kuwaiti names in addition to the activities done by the heroes like traveling and camping in the Kuwaiti desert. Also, mentioning the names of Kuwaiti restaurants, meals, and dishes seems to be very local.

VIII. Methodology

To get answers for the four research questions, the researcher used the quantitative method and the qualitative method in his study as follows:

1) **Quantitative method**: Questionnaires were distributed to 100 Kuwaiti parents whom their children study EFL in public schools from different parts of the country to investigate:

a- Kuwaiti parents' views and opinions towards exposing their EFL children to **native speakers' culture.**

b- Kuwaiti parents' views and opinions towards exposing their EFL children to **international culture.**

c- Kuwaiti parents' views and opinions towards the current cultural content being taught to their EFL in schools**.**

2) **Qualitative method**: Semi-structured interviews for 5 parents were conducted to get more in-detailed information about the research questions and to give a chance for parents to add more contributions to the topics discussed.

In this regard, only 70 parents agreed to participate in the questionnaires. 5 parents only agreed to participate in the semi-structured interviews.

IX. Results & Discussions

As mentioned earlier, this study aims to investigate Kuwaiti parents' views and attitudes towards including **Native Speakers' international cultures** in their EFL children's syllabus and their views and attitudes towards the current host EFL **syllabus being taught** to their children in public schools.

To get answers for such inquiries, a questionnaire was distributed for 80 parents from different parts of the country; 70 parents participated in the questionnaire and were asked to participate in a semi-structured interview; only 5 agreed to be interviewed.

The data collected from question1 posit that the majority of parents (39:55.7%) think that teaching English in isolation from its native culture doesn't affect negatively the process of EFL teaching in schools and doesn't create EFL underachievement(see diagram1). In contrast, the minority of parents (20:28.6%) believe that teaching EFL without any reference to its native culture might have a negative impact on EFL learning. In regard of this point, one of the parents during his interview stated that the English language nowadays became a means of communication between different nations rather than a British or American belonging, for this reason, as he claimed speakers from different countries of the world no longer need native speakers' culture to communicate. Another participant said that he sees no contact between the teaching American daily practices or lifestyle and between failures in EFL learning.

1- Teaching English language in isolation from its native culture doesn't have a negative impact on learners' language achievement.

70 responses
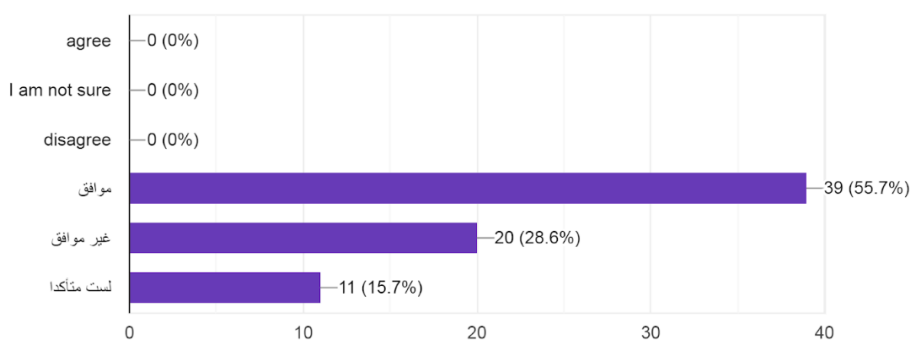
(diagram1)

As for question2 which tested the parents' opinion toward teaching EFL to their children through the prism of the native speakers' culture, the vast majority of participants (41:58.6%) were against this option (see diagram2). The participants who agreed did not even halve the ones who disagreed (20:28.6%). The reasons behind parent's huge objection toward exposing their children to native speakers' culture could be associated with social or religious reasons.

As for the participants of this study, 4 of 5 interviewees informed the researcher that the reasons behind the disinclination of introducing native speakers' culture (American or British) in their children's EFL textbooks could be embedded to religious reasons. They think that learning Native speakers' culture can be a great threat to their children's Islamic beliefs and morals. One of the parents stated "I *am not ready to see my children Americanized ".* He continued to warn from a new kind of colonialism called "the cultural colonialism of the western countries" which could affect the Kuwaiti children's cultural beliefs. This could be very similar to what Modiano[22] (2001) calls " linguistic imperialism".

2- I have no objection against teaching my children EFL through the prism of the native speakers' culture.

70 responses
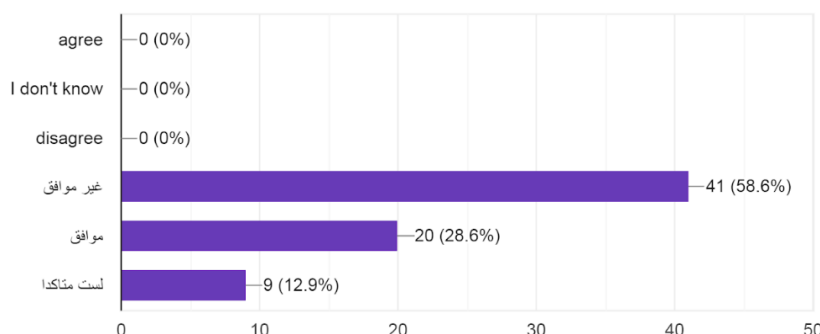
(diagram2)

Question3 was served to examine parents' opinions and views about the possibility of having a negative impact on their children's cultural or national identity when teaching EFL through the native speakers' culture. Again, the vast majority (49:70%) believed that introducing native speakers' culture in EFL classrooms might have a negative impact on their children's cultural and national identity(see diagram3). They underpinned the focal point pertaining to maximizing and manipulating EFL learning to the high expectations in the propensity of localized contexts.

Only a few of them (7:10%) were against this belief. During the interviews with parents, two of them opined that they want their children to be like their fathers and to be patriotic and stick to their national identity. They want their boys to wear the Arabic uniform and not the jeans, to be far from illegitimate contact or relations with girls in the future and to be good Muslims. For this reason, as they proposed, they don't need their children to be exposed to American or British cultures that are widely deemed open, flexible and liberal in comparison.

3- Exposing my children to native speakers' culture in ESL classroom might have a negative impact on their cultural and national identity.

70 responses
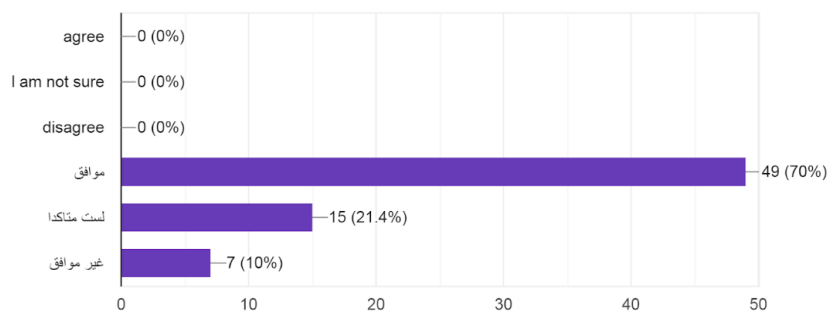
(diagram3)

Regarding question4 the data collated probed the parents' views and opinions about the possibility of having a social or a public opposition for any proposal for introducing American and British culture in EFL in public schools. Again, the responses indicated that the great majority of participants (50:71.4%) believed that the proposal would be faced by great opposition from the Kuwaiti society for religious and social reasons (see diagram4). One parent told the researcher while the interview a very interesting example of the sensitivity of the Kuwaiti society which happened before two decades. It started in1998 when the Minister of Education proposed a plan to introduce teaching EFL (according to the host culture) but in grade 1 in public schools instead of grade 5. He added that the proposal created a big debate among the Kuwaiti society and the Minister was nearly lost his trust by the parliament. Only a few of the parents (7:10%) agreed to expose their children to native speakers' culture. Their views could be justified in that some parents studied in the USA or the UK and liked the culture there.

4- The proposal of introducing and teaching ESL through its native culture in Kuwait public schools, will face a public and social objection from most of the Kuwaiti society.
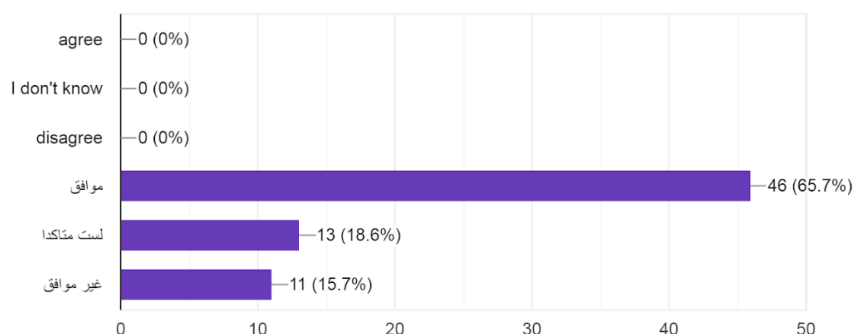70 responses
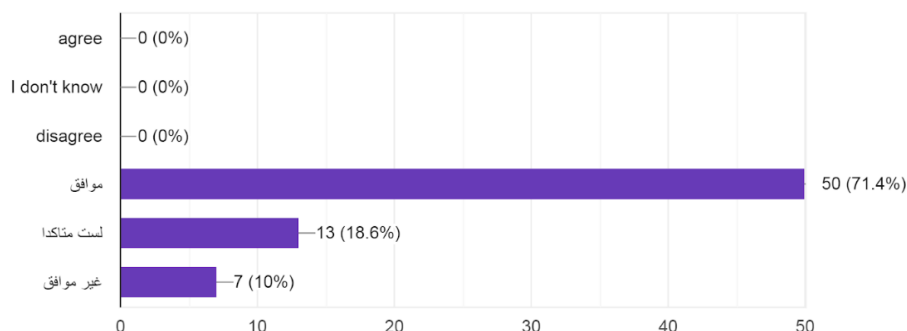
(diagram4)

Regarding question5 of the questionnaire which examined the parents' opinions and views about the impact of introducing native speakers' culture in EFL education on their children's lifestyle, the vast majority of the participants (46:65.7%) agreed that it has a negative impact on their children's lifestyles (see diagram5). Only the (11:15%) of them disagreed with this belief and did not think that exposing EFL children to native speakers' culture would result in a negative impact on their children's lifestyle.

5- Teaching ESL to children in public schools might have a negative impact on their lifestyle.
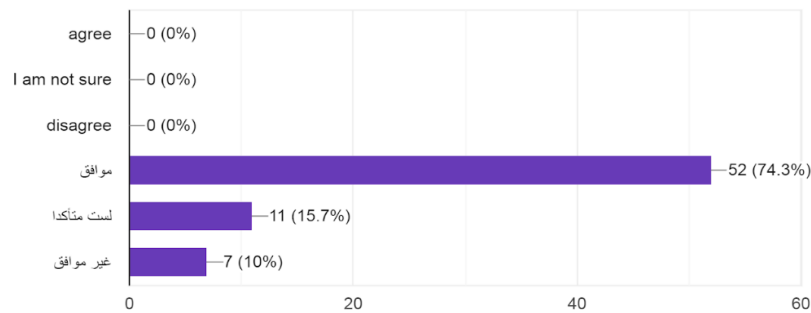70 responses

(diagram5)

In contrast to parents' views and opinions towards introducing the native speakers' culture to their EFL children in public schools, most of them in response to question 6 expressed their positive and encouraging attitudes towards teaching international (mixed) culture in their children's textbooks. The big majority of them (52:74.3%) were in favor of teaching EFL through the prism of the international culture) whereas a little minority (7:10%) refused that option (see diagram6). This inclination towards the international (mixed) culture and the disinclination towards the native speakers' culture could be justified by some parents' answers in the interview. One parent, for example, explained that the Kuwaiti society has red boundaries and considered to be one the most conservative societies in the middle east where alcoholic drinks are forbidden, discos do not exist, government segregated education is implied, the legitimate relationship between the two sexes is the only one allowed. This fact will accordingly lead people to refuse any American or British culture in ELT. He added that they instead could agree to use the international (mixed) cultures as an alternative because they are safer and controllable. A second parent explained that being in a global world where English is the main way of communication, international cultural content with careful selection could be a good choice for the EFL curriculum.

This inclination towards introducing the international (mixed) cultural content to EFL learners in public schools is obvious in the parents' responses in question8 and 9.

6- I support teaching ESL in schools to my children through international mixed cultural content because it prepares them for using it in multicultural contexts in the future.

70 responses

agree —0 (0%)

I am not sure —0 (0%)

disagree —0 (0%)

موافق —52 (74.3%)

لست متأكدا —11 (15.7%)

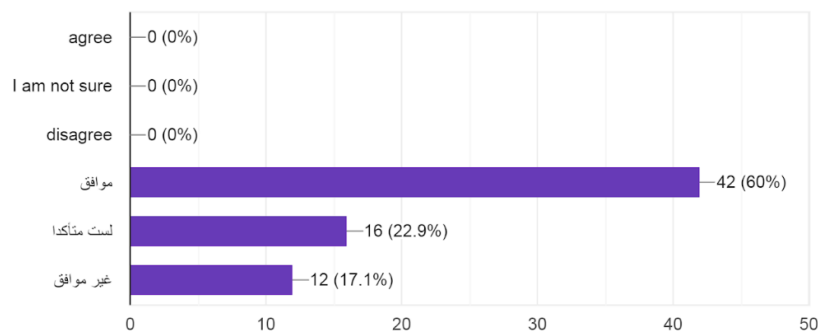غير موافق —7 (10%)

0   20   40   60

(diagram6)

For question7, the vast majority of parents (42:60%) agreed that the option of introducing international cultural content to their children's EFL textbooks would not be faced by great opposition from the society. Only (12:17%) disagreed (see diagram7).

7- Teaching ESL through multicultural content will not be opposed by most of the Kuwaiti society.

70 responses

agree —0 (0%)

I am not sure —0 (0%)

disagree —0 (0%)

موافق —42 (60%)

لست متأكدا —16 (22.9%)

غير موافق —12 (17.1%)

0   10   20   30   40   50

(diagram7)

Again, in question8, the support for teaching English through the international (mixed) culture is very obvious. The great majority of parents (46:65%) agreed that their children can be taught EFL through the prism of the international (mixed) culture due to globalization and the need for using English in different cultural contexts in the future when they grow up (see diagram8). only (14:65%) disagreed with the question.

8- I support teaching EFL to my children through international multicultural content because I think it is safer and is the right option for the age of globalization.

70 responses

agree —0 (0%)

I am not Sure —0 (0%)

disagree —0 (0%)

موافق —46 (65.7%)

غير موافق —14 (20%)

لست متأكدا —10 (14.3%)

0   10   20   30   40   50
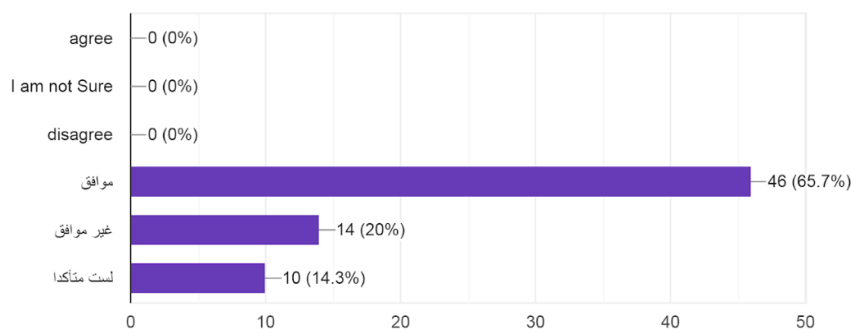
(diagram8)

To examine the parents' attitudes towards the current cultural content being taught to their EFL children in public schools, question9 gave them the chance to choose between introducing the native speakers' culture and keeping the

current EFL syllabus which is locally designed. The results were (36:51.4%) of the parents preferred to keep the current syllabus rather than introducing English through the native speakers' culture (see diagrm9). (19:27%) were against it. This could be evidence that the teaching EFL through the native speakers' culture is not welcome in the society in Kuwait.
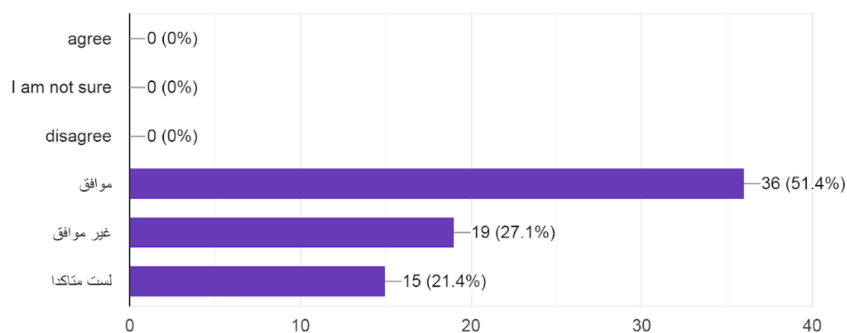
9- I prefer to keep teaching my children the current EFL syllabus which is locally designed rather than teaching them ESL through the native speakers' culture.

70 responses

(diagram9)

As we can notice from the parent's responses from the questionnaires and the interviews, the great and high percentages of parents' agreement were for:

9. a. teaching the international (mixed) cultural content to their EFL children as delineated in their answers for question6 (52:74.3%).

9. b. keeping the same current host cultural as shown in their answers for question9 (36:51.4%).

The great opposition was for introducing the American and British cultural component (native speakers' culture) as illustrated in the answer for question5 (46:65.7%). This shows and proves that Kuwaiti parents are cautious in terms of dealing with foreign cultures in their children's EFL syllabus. We find them prefer to introduce their EFL children to international multicultural content as a first choice for improving their children's EFL learning in the global world or to keep the current curriculum rather than exposing them to native speakers' culture for social and religious reasons.

X. Conclusions & Recommendations

It is very obvious from the overview done by the researcher in number7 on elementary school textbooks particularly grade 7, that EFL is taught and presented to learners through the host culture with very few references to cultures from Arabic neighboring countries. One of the reasons for implementing this host and local cultural content could be religious or social including the public opinion of parents which could be an obstacle for developing a new syllabus for EFL learners in a conservative society like Kuwait.

However and due to the debates that English is now widely spoken by almost every country in the globe and some time is referred to as "lingua franca", the need for redefining the EFL syllabus in Kuwait elementary public schools is essentially warranted.

The findings of this study show that the views and opinions of parents towards introducing a multicultural international cultural content with careful selection in their children's textbooks are **positive**. For this reason, the researcher recommends that syllabus designers in the Ministry of Education in Kuwait should start necessary measures in line with practicality and utility of language learning to introduce new EFL syllabus in public schools which should entail careful and sagacious selection of multicultural content that is intended and envisaged to promote fruitful awareness of source culture, target culture and international culture and that, by stirring a curiosity for more knowledge and by offering a wide variety of informative themes, accommodate diverse learning and thinking styles, but certainly not at the cost of national and moral interests.

Appendix

Interview questions:
1- How many years have you been teaching EFL?
2- Could you tell about the cultural component of your textbooks?
3- Why do you think the reasons behind teaching EFL through the host cultural component in public schools?
4- What, in your opinion, are the advantages and disadvantages of using this sort of syllabus?
5- What, in your opinion, is the most suitable option to introduce EFL in the age of globalization?

6- What's your opinion about exposing your children to native speakers' (American or British) culture in their EFL classrooms?

7- What do you think about teaching English through international multicultural content?

8- If you have to choose between these 3 options, what would be your answer?

a- Teaching EFL in public schools through the native speakers' culture.

b- Teaching EFL in public schools through the international culture.

c- Teaching EFL in public schools through the host culture.

8- 8- If you have to choose between these 2 options, what would be your answer?

a- Teaching EFL in public schools through the native speakers' culture.

b- Keeping the current EFL syllabus in public schools which is designed through the host culture

9- Would you like add any comments regarding this issue?

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A Cross-cultural Comparative Study of Requests Made in Chinese by South Korean and French Learners[*]

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Abstract—**This study aims to examine the differences of pragmatic strategies of requests made in Chinese by South Korean and French learners, in comparison to those made by Chinese native speakers (CNS). Using a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) questionnaire as the research tool, 20 Chinese, 20 French students and 20 South Korean students from the Shanghai International Studies University (SISU) were randomly selected to complete the questionnaire. The response data from the Chinese student questionnaires were used as the baseline data for comparison as well as generating a modified coding scheme. The results show that Chinese speakers and South Korean learners tend to be more direct by using "query preparatory" and "mood derivable" as head acts, while French learners tend to be indirect by primarily using "query preparatory." In terms of sociopragmatics, the results show that Korean learners and Chinese tend to be hierarchical and collectivistic, while French students are prone to be egalitarian and individualistic. L2 transfer, inductive/deductive mindset, unfamiliarity, and varied perceptions of politeness could be possible reasons for the differences in request strategies. This study concludes with suggestions for future research and pedagogy.**

Index Terms—**interlanguage pragmatics, speech act, requests, pragmalinguistics, sociopragmatics**

I. INTRODUCTION

Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) studies focus exclusively on comparing non-native speakers' production and comprehension of speech acts (Schauer 2009). In ILP, the *request* speech act, containing an illocutionary act, remains as one of the most widely examined speech acts, and it is regarded as one of the most face-threatening speech acts (Sabzalipour et al. 2017). Many studies have explored request speech acts across cultures (Economidou-Kogetsidis 2008; Kahraman & Akkus 2007; Koc 2011; Kotorova 2015; Rasouli Khorshidi 2013). However, only a few studies on requests were focused on Chinese (Chen 2015; Gao 1999; Hong 1996; Lee-wong 1994). Moreover, all these studies explored requests made by learners of same cultural background. Thus, this study examines the request strategies of Chinese used by L2 learners of varying cultural backgrounds, aiming to explore different pragmatic strategies of Chinese requests and the effects of varying cross-cultural and cross-linguistic scenarios.

Appropriate realization of request speech act calls for speaker's perception of the politeness in that particular community. However, the transfer of pragmatic strategies from L1 to L2 seems unavoidable, which results in variations of L2 learners' speech act performance of different speech communities, especially concerning the level of directness of their request realization (Phindane 2017). Non-native speakers, such as learners from South Korea and France, are likely to encounter problems in a particular speech act realization in Chinese. Inappropriate use of words and phrases in speech acts tends to evoke unpleasant impression in Chinese native speakers. However, to date, there is no study focusing on requests made in Chinese by learners from South Korea and France.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Chinese Requests

Many studies have been carried out to examine requests in various languages and cultures, while a few studies have investigated requests made in Chinese language. Hong (1996) examined the use of linguistic politeness of requests made by Chinese. Data was collected with production questionnaires, and the findings revealed that the choice of linguistic usage heavily depended on social distance and power relations between speakers and hearers. Lee-wong (1994) conducted a study to investigate requests made by Chinese native speakers (CNS) from Mainland China. Using adopting interview and questionnaire as data collection methods, the results show that CNS preferred to use direct

strategies and internal modifications over indirect ones and external modifications, which reflected the phenomenon that Chinese culture attaches much importance to sincerity and solidarity. Wang (2014) explored the request strategies based on corpora of contemporary Chinese television dramas videos. The study shows that mood derivable, query preparatory, and hedged performatives are the most used request strategies, and Chinese tend to be more straightforward in real life. However, Zhang's (1995) study of Chinese requests via DCT produced inconsistent results with Lee-won's and Wang's. Zhang argues that Chinese requests preferred indirect strategies rather than direct ones.

Few comparative studies have been conducted on requests in Chinese made by L2 learners, and the results were inconsistent. Rue and Zhang (2008) conducted a comparative analysis of requests in Mandarin Chinese and South Korean, using naturally occurring conversational dialogue as the main data source. Adopting the coding scheme of Cross-cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns (CCSARP), they found that CNS were more indirect in producing requests than their South Korean counterparts, and the former preferred more indirect head acts, such as interrogative and imperative, than the latter. Findings were inconsistent when comparing with pragmatic strategies of requests made by L2 learners from Western cultures. Huang (1996) examined request strategies between Taiwanese Mandarin and American English. According to the analysis of the Discourse Completion Test (DCT), the study revealed that Taiwanese preferred direct strategies and used more alterters and supportive moves than American English speakers. Li & Jiang (2019) examined requests between Australian learners of Chinese and CNS by adopting a written DCT, and the results indicate that both learners and CNS preferred to use indirect strategies. Thus, this study examines pragmatic strategies of requests made by L2 learners from both Eastern and Western cultures to better undersand their different preference of requestive strategies in Chinese.

B. Pragmalinguistics and Sociopragmatics

Pragmatic competence is regarded as an essential component of foreign or sencond language proficiency. It refers to language learners' ability to choose appropriate linguistic forms in a variety of contexts (Tuguchi et al. 2016). It requires learners' access to the knowledge of linguistic forms and functions as well as the situational factors of certain contexts, while making a particuluar speech act. More specifically, pragmatic competence consists of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge. The former emphasizes linguistic structures for utterances in a language, and describes how we must use them in a correct way for a language; the latter emphasizes the sociocultural respects of social interaction, and focuses on situational factors, such as power, social distance, gender, etc. (Leech 1983; Thomas 1983). Thus, both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge are important for learners' interpretation and performance of request speech acts in Chinese. The operating definitions of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge in this study are as follows: pragmalinguistic knowledge refers to the type of semantic formulae used in varying contexts; and sociopragmatic knowledge refers to request strategies, i.e. the directness level of Head Act (HA) in relation to power and social distance.

This study aims to investigate both South Korean and French learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge of Chinese requests to understand the different usage tendency of semantic formulae in requests, which can in turn offer pedagogical implications for classroom instructions, and also raise L2 learners' awareness of their own pragmatic strategies in Chinese. The research questions are posed as follows:

1. What are the pragmalinguisitic differences in requests used by South Korean and French learners, in comparison to those of CNS?
2. What are the sociopragmatic differences in requests used by South Korean and French learners, in comparison to those of CNS?
3. What reasons account for the above differences?

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

This section elaborates participant selection, describes the instruments, illustrates the data collection process, and demonstrates the modified coding scheme and the analytical protocol.

A. Participants

The participants in this investigation included 60 students from the Shanghai International Studies University (SISU). Among them were 20 Chinese students, all of which were sophomores and majored in international education, with an average age of 21. There are 20 South Korean learners of Chinese (KLC) and 20 French learners of Chinese (FLC) chosen respectively as participants, who studied at SISU, with an average age of 20.5. In order to ensure the reliability of the data, the selection requirements were: 1) they had just arrived at SISU in September of 2015, and they had passed the third level of the Chinese Proficiency Test (Hanyu Shuiping Kaoshi, aka HSK); 2) they have grew up and lived in their home countries based on their background information.

We received the name list of Chinese, French, and South Korean students, and chose the participants randomly from different classes at the beginning of the semester in September 2015. With assistance from the dean of the School of Chinese Studies and Exchange at SISU, 20 KLC and 20 FLC were eventually chosen from Language Course Programs. Cross-sectional data was collected to compare their pragmatic strategies and linguistic forms from the cross-cultural perspective.

B. Instruments

DCT was employed as the research instrument in this study. If carefully designed, it is an effective way to examine speaker's pragmalinguistic knowledge of semantic formulae and the pragmatic strategies they used to achieve their intention in speech acts, and to assess their sociopragmatic knowledge of the situational factors under which certain strategies and linguistic forms are proper (Kasper 2000; Hong 2005). This study aims to find the differences in requests made by KLC and FLC in terms of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects. Thus, the written DCT was chosen as an appropriate instrument for the study. Some informal interviews were also carried out for accurate interpretation of learners' sociopragmatic knowledge.

Imposition was controlled for the scenario design in DCT focusing on systemic variations of two situational factors: power and distance, since the choice of linguistic usage in Chinese requests depended heavily on social distance and power relations between the speaker and the hearer (Hong 1996). Eventually, six combinations of these two situational variables were formed: [D-, P+], [D-, P=], [D-, P-], [D+, P+], [D+, P=] and [D+, P-] (Table 1).

TABLE 1
SOCIAL VARIABLES EMBEDDED IN SCENARIOS

Distance	Referent in questionnaire	Relative social ranking with reference to speaker
Unfamiliar [D+]	University administrator	Higher [P+]
	Stranger	Equal [P=]
	Group member	Lower [P-]
Familiar [D-]	Professor	Higher [P+]
	Good friend	Equal [P=]
	Roommate (good friends' younger sibling)	Lower [P-]

(Cited from Ying 2019)

Twelve scenarios were designed with two situations for each variable combination (see Appendix A). In the scenario design, the following issues were considered. First, the scenarios should frequently occur in the learners' daily life. Second, all scenarios should be valid to grasp the differences and features of the pragmatic strategies of the two selected cultures.

C. Data Collection

Data collection with KLC and FLC took place in September 2015. Three instructors distributed questionnaires to students in class. In order to capture their real response, participants were required to write down what they would really say in such situations without hesitation. The whole data collection took roughly 30 minutes.

As for the Chinese baseline data collection, one of the researchers worked as a part-time lecturer at SISU, so the 20 Chinese questionnaires were collected at the end of the class in September 2015, and all Chinese students completed the questionnaire in about 15 minutes.

D. Coding Scheme

Semantic formulae "represent the means by which a particular speech act is accomplished, such as a reason, an explanation, or an alternative" (Beebe et al. 1990). The examination of semantic formulae has been conducted extensively in request speech acts (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1984; Byon 2004; Cohen & Shively 2007). As for the coding scheme of request speech acts, we referenced previous studies in English, mainly of Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) in CCSARP. According to their manual, a request speech act could be divided into three moves: openers, head act (HA), and supportive moves (SM) or external modifications (EM). The HA of a request is categorized as Direct (D), Conventional Indirect (CID) or Non-Conventional Indirect (NCID), which are further grouped into 9 subcategories according to the level of the directness (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989).

In order to examine whether this coding scheme was appropriate for Chinese requests, the data of 20 CNS were collected and analyzed. Adjustments to the coding scheme of CSSARP were made, which are demonstrated below.

Mood derivable: The grammatical mood of the head act determines by its illocutionary force as a request, e.g. 借我拷一下课件！ (Lend the courseware to me!)

Performative: The speaker conveys the implied means by using a specific verb, making the request an order or a plea, e.g. 我恳请您能同意延迟交作业的时间？ (I beg you to agree on postponing the deadline of submission.)

Want statement: This formula reveals the speaker's desire, concern or want that the utterance is made, e.g. 我想换寝室 (I want to change a dormitory).

Suggestive formulae: The speaker uses suggest conveying the illocutionary intent, with an open answer to the question, e.g. 帮我们组做课件，怎么样？ (How about helping us make a courseware?)

"Query preparatory (1)": the speaker asks the feasibility of the request by a preparatory question, asking the hearer's

ability, willingness, or possibility as conventionalized in the given language, e.g. 能帮我们拍张照片吗？ (Can you take a photo of us?)

"Query preparatory (2)": the referential meaning of the utterance is the same as the query preparatory (1). However, its social meanings such as formality, politeness, power, and solidarity are encoded differently because of the different syntactic structure. The general syntactic structure is "want statement/statement + short question formulae", and the answer to it is always closed, e.g. 你来负责做 PPT ， 好不好? (Could you take charge of PPT design?)

Hint: The intended meaning of the request is not formed explicitly. The speaker offers strong clues to make the hearer understood, e.g. 有多余的笔吗？ (Do you have an extra pen? Intent: asking the hearer to lend a pen to the speaker.)

Regarding EM, in addition to "preparatory", "cost minimizer", "promise of reward", "apology", "humbling oneself", "self-introduction", "gratitude", "begging for help", "sweetener", "disarmer", and "asking the hearer's opinion", the type of "ending words" is added to EM, and "grounder" is divided into two groups, which is described as follows:

"Ending words": the speaker expresses remorse for possible burden the request would cause to the hearer by saying some polite words, e.g. Bu-hao-yi-si! (不好意思, I am sorry), Xin-ku-ni-le! (辛苦你了, That's very kind of you).

"G + H": a grounder (reasons, or justifications for his or her request) is first uttered, and then a request is made, e.g. 我校园卡丢了，想要补办一张。 (I lost my student identity card. And I want to get a new one.)

"H + G": a request is first made, and then a grounder is presented, e.g. 你能不能把上课的内容录音发我? 今天我肚子痛没去上课 (Could you send me the audio recorder of the course? My stomach aches, so I didn't go to the class).

Regarding openers, Byon (2004) identifies the following formulae for openers: "title", "name", "greeting" and "attention-getter". Based on the data collected in this study, two types of formulae are added as openers: "kinship terminology" and "popular alerters".

"Kinship terminology": an element in the form of "kinship terminology" whose function is to alert hearer's attention, e.g. a-yi (阿姨, aunt), xiong-di (兄弟, brother).

"Popular alerter": an element in the form of "popular alerter" whose function is to alert hearer's attention, e.g. Mei-nv (美女, beauty), shuai-ge (帅哥, handsome man), qin-ai-de (亲爱的, dear).

E. Data Analysis

In response to the research questions, the data collected through the DCT questionnaires were carefully marked, coded, and double-checked. The questionnaires with incorrect responses or unanswered questions were regarded as invalid. The steps of the analysis were as follows: 1) From the pragmalinguistic perspective, we examined and counted the number of semantic formulae for openers, HA and EM by FLC and KLC, in comparison to that of CNS; and Chi-square test was also employed to examine the significant differences between FLC, KLC and CNS; 2) From the sociopragmatic perspective, we mainly focused on level of directness, i.e. semantic formulae of the HA, based on variations of the power and distance; 3) we figured out the main reasons for the differences in semantic formulae that were used by learners according to the analysis of DCT data.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section displays the quantitative data to illustrate the different use of semantic formulae for openers, HA and EM between KLC, FLC and CNS. Pragmalinguistic differences and sociopragmatic differences are respectively described.

A. Differences in Semantic Formulae of Request Strategies

1. Pragmalinguistic differences

In general, Chinese speakers employed more formulae for openers (266) than FLC (168) and KLC (175). And they used only one HA in each request behavior, resulting with 240 in total. However, both French and Korean students employed more HAs than Chinese, the total number were 241 and 259 respectively. KLC had a strong tendency to use EM to modify HA. They employed 239 EM, which were more than those of Chinese (229) and French users (213).

Differences in formulae for openers

Table 2 shows that the total number of semantic formulae for openers by foreign learners was less than that of CNS. The three most popular formulae for openers of CNS were "title" (30.5%), "greeting" (22.6%), and "name" (18.0%). As for KLC, the three most favored formulae were: "title" (24.6%), "attention-getter" (22.9%), and "greeting" (18.9%). And FLC's were "greeting" (38.7%), "attention-getter" (22.0%) and "title" (17.9%).

TABLE 2
SEMANTIC FORMULAE OF OPENERS FOR THE THREE CULTURAL GROUPS

		CNS	KLC	FLC
Title	Title	**(30.5) 81**	**(24.6) 43**	**(17.9) 30**
	Title+PM	(12.0) 32	(5.1) 9	(10.1) 17
Name		**(18.0) 48**	(13.1) 23	(5.3) 9
Greeting		**(22.6) 60**	**(18.9) 33**	**(38.7) 65**
Attention-getter		(5.3) 14	**(22.9) 40**	**(22.0) 37**
Kinship terminology		(3.4) 9	(11.4) 20	(6.0) 10
Popular alerters		(8.2) 22	(4.0) 7	0
Total (openers)		(100) 266	(100) 175	(100) 168

(Data partially cited from Ying 2019)[1]

SPSS was employed to examine the significant difference by log-likelihood ratio. P<0.05 is regarded as significant difference. Both KLC and FLC differed significantly from CNS in the use of "title+PM" (P=0.000; P=0.000) "attention-getter" (P=0.049; P=0.000) and "popular alerter" (P=0.007; P=0.000). Learners did not use "title+PM", such as "lao-shi nin-hao" (老师您好， hello teacher) as much as CNS. As for "attention-getter", the KLC tended to use "bu-hao-yi-si" (不好意思, excuse me), "dui-bu-qi" (对不起, pardon), and "da-rao-yi-xia" (打扰一下, excuse me) to address strangers or administrators. However, FLC were prone to use "hei" (嘿, hey), "dui-bu-qi" (对不起, pardon) and "bu-hao-yi-si" (不好意思, excuse me) to address others in various situations. And all learners seldom employed popular alterters such as "qin-ai-de" (亲爱的，dear), which has been a newly corned popular words among Chinese youth in recent years.

Moreover, the use of openers by French subjects differed from that of Chinese more significantly than their Korean counterparts, since FLC with 5 indicators and KLC with 4 indicators differed from CNS significantly.

Differences in strategy types for head act

As mentioned above, the learners produced more than 240 valid HAs. The three most popular HA formulae of CNS were "QP (1)" (49.2%), "mood drivable" (18.3%), and "QP (2)" (15.4%). As for KLC, the three most favored formulae were the same as that of Chinese subjects, but the proportion differed: "QP (1)" (50.2%), "mood drivable" (21.6%), and "QP (2)" (18.9%). And FLC were "QP (1)" (67.2%), "mood drivable" (8.3%), and "want statement" (7.1%) (see Table 3).

TABLE 3
STRATEGY TYPES OF HA FOR THE THREE CULTURAL GROUPS

		CNS	KLC	FLC
Mood derivable		**(18.3) 44**	**(21.6) 56**	**(8.3) 20**
Performative		(2.5) 6	(1.2) 3	(4.6) 11
Want statement		(10.8) 26	(8.9) 23	**(7.1) 17**
Suggestory formulae		(2.1) 5	0	(2.5) 6
Query	QP(1)	**(49.2) 118**	**(50.2) 130**	**(67.2) 162**
preparatory	QP(2)	**(15.4) 37**	**(15.4) 40**	(6.2) 15
Strong hint		(1.7) 4	(1.9) 5	(3.3) 8
Mild hint		0	(0.8) 2	(0.8) 2
Total (HA)		(100) 240	(100) 259	(100) 241

(Data partially cited from Ying 2019)

Only two indicators, i.e. "suggestory formula" (P=0.008) and "QP (2)" (P=0.003), showed significant difference between KLC and CNS, while three indicators used by FCL, i.e. "mood derivable" (P=0.023), "want statement" (P=0.018), and "QP (2)" (P=0.001), were significant different from that of CNS. All learners preferred "query preparatory", but they were all distinct from CNS for "QP (2)". KLC preferred to use "…, hao-bu-hao" (…, 好不好; …, is it ok) or "…, ke-bu-ke-yi" (…, 可不可以; …, is it ok) rather than "neng-bu-neng…..?" (能不能…; could you…). In contrast, FLC were prone to use QP (1) far more than QP (2). CNS and KLC often used direct request strategies towards roommates or good friends, While FLC employed far less "mood derivable" and "want statement", and regarded as the most indirect ones, which confirmed Mulken's (1996) results.

Differences in formulae for external modifications

As for EM (see Table 4), the most popular formulae among the three cultural groups (in the order of CNS, KLC, and FLC) were "grounder"(58.0%; 55.5%; 60.1%), "preparatory" (11.4%; 13.4%; 12.7%), "gratitude"(11.4%; 6.7%; 12.2%), and "sweetener" (8.7%; 7.1%; 4.7%). As for "grounder", FLC differed from CNS significantly (P=0.042), who tended to use much more "H+G" (37.6%) than Chinese (19.6%) and KLC (12.2%). Moreover, the types of formulae CNS and KLC used were more diverse, while FLC tended to be more monotonous. And some types of formulae had not been

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[1] Data are partially cited from the published PhD thesis written by the first author.

covered by FLC, such as "promise of reward", "disarmer", and "ending words".

TABLE 4
SEMANTIC FORMULAE OF EM FOR THE THREE CULTURAL GROUPS

		CNS	KLC	FLC
Preparator		**(11.4) 25**	**(13.4) 32**	**(12.7) 27**
Grounder	G+H	**(38.4) 84**	**(43.3) 103**	**(22.5) 48**
	H+G	**(19.6) 43**	**(12.2) 29**	**(37.6) 80**
Cost minimizer		(2.7) 6	(2.5) 6	(0.5) 1
Promise of reward		(0.9) 2	(4.2) 10	0
Apology		(1.8) 4	(0.5) 1	(4.2) 9
Humbling oneself		(0.5) 1	(0.5) 1	0
Self introduction		(0.9) 2	(4.6) 11	(1.4) 3
Gratitude		**(11.4) 25**	**(6.7) 16**	**(12.2) 26**
Begging for help		(1.8) 4	(0.4) 1	(0.9) 2
Sweetener		**(8.7) 19**	**(7.1) 17**	**(4.7) 10**
Disarmer		(0.5) 1	0	0
Asking for the hearer's opinion		(0.5) 1	(0.8) 2	(3.3) 7
Ending words		(0.9) 2	(3.8) 9	0
Total (SM)		(100) 219	(100) 238	(100) 213

(Data partially cited from Ying 2019)

Interestingly, the use of EM by KLC was more different from CNS than FLC from CNS. In general, KLC tended to overuse those formulae in requests, which resulted in the significant difference of some types of the formulae, such as "promise of reward" (P=0.028) and "self-introduction" (P=0.012), while French subjects were prone to use less, which caused the significant difference of some type of EM, namely "cost minimizer" (P=0.030) and "sweetener" (P=0.017). The reason might be that KLC had a better command of linguistic forms, and attempted to show their language proficiency, which led to the overuse of EM.

Scenarios		Administrator [D+, P+]			Stranger [D+, P=]			Group member [D+, P-]		
		CNS	KLC	FLC	CNS	KLC	FLC	CNS	KLC	FLC
Mood derivable		(12.5) 5	(21.7) 10	(10) 4	(2.5) 1	(6.8) 3	(2.6) 1	(25) 10	(23.3) 10	(7.9) 3
Performative		(2.5) 1	(2.2) 1	(7.5) 3	0	(2.3) 1	0	(5.0) 2	0	(15.8) 6
Want statement		(42.5) 17	(32.6) 15	(22.5) 9	(2.5) 1	(2.3) 1	(7.6) 3	0	(2.3) 1	0
Suggestory formulae		(2.5) 1	0	0	0	0	0	(10) 4	0	(15.8) 6
QP	QP (1)	(32.5) 13	(37.0) 17	(40) 16	(87.5) 35	(72.7) 32	(87.2) 34	(30) 12	(41.9) 18	(39.5) 15
	QP (2)	(7.5) 3	(6.5) 3	(15) 6	(7.5) 3	(15.9) 7	(2.6) 1	(27.5) 11	(18.6) 8	(10.5) 4
Strong hint		0	0	(5) 2	0	0	0	(2.5) 1	(9.3) 4	(10.5) 4
Mild hint		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(4.6) 2	0
(HA)		(100) 40	(100) 46	(100) 40	(100) 40	(100) 44	(100) 39	(100) 40	(100) 43	(100) 38

Scenarios		Professor [D-, P+]			Good friend [D-, P=]			Roommate [D-, P-]		
		CNS	KLC	FLC	CNS	KLC	FCL	CNS	KLC	FLC
Mood derivable		(2.5) 1	(2.2) 1	0	(23.7) 9	(43.3) 16	(21.4) 9	(41.9) 18	(37.2) 16	(7.3) 3
Performative		0	0	0	(2.6) 1	(2.7) 1	(4.8) 2	0	0	0
Want statement		(2.5) 1	(13) 6	(9.8) 4	0	0	(2.4) 1	0	0	0
Suggestory formulae		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
QP	QP (1)	(70) 28	(63) 29	(82.9) 34	(63.2) 24	(32.4) 12	(66.7) 28	(39.5) 17	(51.2) 22	(85.4) 35
	QP (2)	(22.5) 9	(19.6) 9	(2.4) 1	(7.9) 3	(21.6) 8	(4.7) 2	(9.3) 4	(11.6) 5	(2.4) 1
Strong hint		(2.5) 1	(2.2) 1	(4.9) 2	(2.6) 1	0	0	(9.3) 4	0	0
Mild hint		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	(4.9) 2
(HA)		(100) 40	(100) 46	(100) 41	(100) 38	(100) 37	(100) 42	(100) 43	(100) 43	(100) 41

In summary, the formulae for openers, HA and EM that KLC employed were similar to those of Chinese, while FLC differed from CNS considerably.

2. Sociopragmatic differences

This section presents the types frequency of request strategies, i.e. directness levels of HA, by FLC, KLC, and CNS, based on variations of power and distance.

Table 5 shows that CNS obviously changed their use of request strategy types according to the variations of power and distance. In general, power worked more systematically than distance. CNS tended to use 92.5% of "QP" in professor situations, while they use 48.9% of "QP" in roommate situation. Moreover, in the hearers with lower power situations, such as [D-, P-] and [D+, P-], speakers were prone to be more direct with higher percentage of "mood derivable" (41.9%, 25%). When facing with hearers with equal power, distance considerably affected their use of

request strategies. They preferred more indirect strategies in stranger situations than in good friend situations.

As shown in Table 5, Korean subjects acted significantly similarly to the Chinese users, but differences were still observed. KLC preferred "QP (1)" (63%) and "QP (2)" (19.6%) in professor situations ([D+, P+]), while they tended to employ "mood derivable" in good friend ([D-, P=])(43.3%), roommate ([D-, P-])(37.2%), and group member ([D+, P-])(23.3%) situations without much differences. French subjects were not so sensitive to these two variables and tended to use "QP" in all situations. Apart

from "QP", they sometimes employed "performative" (15.8%) and "suggestive formulae" (15.8%) in group member situations and good friend situations.

Table 5 Frequency of request strategy types in relation to power and social distance

B. Main Reasons for Above Differences

This section illustrates the main reasons to account for the differences in semantic formulae used by CNS, KLC and FLC, based on the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data in terms of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects.

1. Reasons for pragmalinguistic differences

Analysis of differences in openers

According to the analyzed data, French subjects produced 168 formulae for openers, KLC employed 175, while CNS produced 266. Unfamiliarity with the target language in different languages could explain the far less formulae for openers used by L2 learners.

CNS tended to use "title" such as "lao-shi" (老师, teacher), "tong-xue" (同学, classmate), or "greeting" such as "ni-hao"/"nin-hao" (你好/您好, how are you) and "name" for openers. However, KLC sometimes tended to use "attention getter" for openers, namely, "bu-hao-yi-si" (不好意思, excuse me), "dui-bu-qi" (对不起, pardon) and "da-rao-yi-xia" (打扰一下, excuse me). It is because Koreans tend to use "실례지만" (不好意思打扰一下, excuse me) and "죄송하지만" (对不起, sorry) to address others in Korean. Regarding FLC, "greeting" was used as the most frequent formulae, since French people tended to use "comment va tu?" (你好吗？How are you?), followed by "attention-getter", namely "hei" (嗨, hey), "dui-bu-qi" (对不起, pardon), and "bu-hao-yi-si" (不好意思, excuse me). It is because the formulae, such as "hey", "pardon", and "excuse me" are frequently used to address others in conversations in French. Furthermore, Chinese users tended to employ the order of "title+ PM", such as "lao-shi nin-hao" (老师您好; teacher, how are you?), while FLC preferred to use "nin-hao or ni-hao lao-shi" (你好或您好老师；how are you, teacher?).

In addition to unfamiliarity, L1 transfer could be another important reason. The participants in this study were all mature language users of their mother tongue, and some of them had multilingual backgrounds. Therefore, they had developed the habit of using their first language or the frequently used one in their daily life. They had a strong tendency to unconsciously translate their L1 into the L2 context. Coulmas (1981) states that transfer occurred when L2 learners tend to translate certain norms, strategies of their first language into the targeted language to achieve a particular purpose.

Analysis of differences in head act

According to the analyzed data, the total number of semantic formulae for HA by KLC and FLC was more than that of CNS. One reason can be explained by "reduplication". Learners were prone to use two or more head acts in one scenario for clarifications or confirmation of understanding. Warga and Schölmberger (2007) point out that L2 learners overused some types of strategies to make themselves understood correctly. Examples were given as follows:

1) KLC:

Tongxue, ni shi   dian-zi-xin-xi zhuan-ye   de,   suo-yi wo xiang   qing   ni zuo
同学   你是   电子信息   专业   的，   所以 我 想   请   你 做
Classmate you are electronic information   major Prt[2],   so   I   want   please   you make
ke-jian.   Ni neng-bu-neng bang-mang zuo   ke-jian?   Xie-xie.
课件.   你 能不能   帮忙   做   课件？   谢谢
courseware. you can-not-can   help   make courseware?   thanks
"Classmate, as you major in electronic information, I want to ask you to make courseware. Could you help make courseware? Thanks."

2) FLC:

Jiao-shou, wo xiang kao-bei zhe-men ke   de ke-jian,   hui-qu   zai hao-hao xue-xi.
教授，   我 想 拷贝 这门   课 的 课件，   回去   再 好好 学习
professor,   I want copy   this   course Pos courseware, go back again good   study

---

[2] Prt: Sentence final particle.

Nin neng-bu-neng rang wo kao-bei zhe-men ke   de   ke-jian?

您　能不能　　让　我　拷贝　这门　课　的　课件

You can   let me copy   this   course Pos courseware?

"Professor, I want to copy the courseware for this lecture, because I want to review after I go back home. Could I copy the courseware of this lecture?"

CNS, KLC, and FLC were all prone to use "QP" as head acts. However, both CNS and KLC tended to use "mood derivable" in both good friend and roommate situations, while FLC were still prone to use "QP" in these situations for L1 transfer, such as follows:

3) CNS:

xx, ni zai xue-xiao ma? Wo you   ge kuai-di dao   le. Bang wo qu-yi-xia bei!

xx, 你在 学校　吗？我 有 个 快递 到   了。帮　我 取一下　呗！

xx, you at school Prt? I have a parcel arrive Prt. Help me fetch   Prt!

"xx, are you in the school? I have a parcel arrived. Help me get it, please!"

4) FLC:

xx, ni-hao.   Wo de yi-ge kuai-di dao-le, dan-shi wo bu-zai.   Ni ke-bu-ke-yi bang-mang

xx,你好。   我 的 一个 快递 到了，但是　我 不在。 你 可不可以　帮忙

xx, how are you. I Pos one parcel arrive, but   I not here. you may-not-may help

qu-yi-xia?

取一下？

fetch?

"xx, how are you? I have a parcel arrived, but I am not in the school. Could you help me fetch it?"

In addition, FLC did not use "QP (2)" more than "QP (1)" mainly because of L1 transfer. Moreover, overgeneralization could be another explanation for some misuses in such formulae. L2 learners preferred to use the syntactic structure, such as ke-bu-ke-yi…? (可不可以…?, could you please…?), and they seldom used the other alternatives, such as neng-bu-neng…? (能不能…?, are you able to…?). They assumed these two phrases were synonyms. In fact, they had subtle differences in making requests, as the former one focusing on hearers' willingness and the later one on hearers' capability (Lin 2009).

Analysis of differences in external modifications

In this current study, CNS preferred to give justifications or reasons before making a request (G+H 36.7%, H+G 18.8%), and so did KLC (G+H 43.1%, H+G 12.1%). However, FLC tended to give reasons after requesting (G+H 22.5%, H+G 37.6%). E.g.

5) CNS

xx, wo dian-nao si-ji   le,   ni ke-yi   ba   dian-nao jie wo yong yi-wan   ma?

xx, 我 电脑 死机 了，你 可以　把　电脑　借 我　用 一晚　　吗？

xx, I laptop broken Prt,   you may Ba-C laptop lend me use one night Prt?

"xx, my laptop doesn't work. Could you lend me yours for one night?"

6) KLC

Didi,   wode dian-nao huai le,   ni ke-yi jie wo nide   dian-nao ma?

弟弟，　我的 电脑 坏 了，　你　可以 借 我　你的　电脑　吗？

Little brother, my laptop broken Prt,   you may lend me your   laptop Prt?

"Little brother, my laptop doesn't work. Could I use your laptop?"

7) FLC

Buhaoyisi,   keyi yong nide diannao ma?   Wo yao zuowan zuoye,   keshi

不好意思，可以 用　你的 电脑 吗？我 要 做完　作业，　可是

Excuse me, may use   your laptop Prt?   I   want complete homework, but

wode dian-nao huan le.

我的 电脑　坏 了。

my laptop   broken Prt.

"Excuse me, could I use your laptop? I need to finish my homework, but my laptop broke down."

This could be explained by the different mindsets of Chinese and Westerners. Sapir & Whorf Hypothesis (Hu 2011) argues that human beings' language help mold their way of thinking, and as a result, different languages may convey speakers' worldview. Liu (2014) states that when Chinese talk with others, they tend to adopt inductive pattern, while the westerners, deductive. In other words, Chinese are likely to illustrate sufficient background of the topic before coming to the point, while westerners tend to introduce the main point followed by background and reasons. Consequently, different mindsets between Chinese and Western people might account for the differences in using

"grounder" in requests.

As mentioned above, CNS and KLC tended to use more diversified EM than French users. French subject did not use such formulae for EM for their unfamiliarity of the linguistic forms and functions of the formulae. Therefore, it is essential to teach pragmatic knowledge explicitly in the classroom.

2. Reasons for sociopragmatic differences

As shown in Table 5, the findings show that FLC tended to be most indirect. However, they only employed 85.3% of "QP" in professor scenario ([D-, P+]), while CNS used 92.5% of "QP", and KLC used 82.6%. Moreover, CNS were prone to use more "honorific", such as "nin-hao" in professor situation. On the contrary, CNS became more direct and employed 48.8% of "QP" and 41.9% of "mood derivable" in roommate scenario ([D-, P-]), KLC uses 62.8% of "QP", and French employed 87.8% of "QP".

The differences could be explained by politeness phenomenon in Chinese. Social connection (Guan-xi) works as a key word for better understanding politeness phenomenon in China. In fact, it is the social network, the size of which is determined by the position or positions an individual wins or captures in the society (Xie et al. 2005). In other words, both guanxi (distance) and power are influential factors to investigate politeness phenomenon in Chinese, but power works as a more important and systematic factor than distance. Chinese tend to be a vertical society with a special emphasis on power. Chinese and Korean cultures all originated from Confucius culture, and both belong to Eastern cultures. That is why Chinese and Korean users show more respect to professors regarding power than French subjects in this study. Thus, it could be concluded that Korean and Chinese tend to be hierarchical, while French was found to be egalitarian as other westerners, which is consistent with previous studies (Byon 2004; Mulken 1996).

In addition to the hierarchy, Chinese are collectivist and group-based (Lee-wong 1994). According to Table 5, Chinese were more direct by using "mood derivable" (41.9%) in group-member situations and so did Korean subjects (37.2%), while French subjects only applied 7.3%. It indicates that French are individualistic and egalitarian in comparison to Chinese. It seems that the differences in formulae produced by learners originated from deeply rooted varied perceptions of politeness across Western and Eastern cultures.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Investigating pragmatic strategies of requests in Chinese, this study contributes to ILP in that it identifies cross-cultural and linguistic differences between South Korean, French and Chinese culture. If L2 learners were not acknowledged with Chinese request strategies and sociocultural norms, they would cause misunderstandings and multicultural communication failures. Accordingly, it is necessary to raise L2 learners' awareness of cross-cultural differences in request speech acts and facilitate the tolerance towards different characteristics of requestive patterns.

Furthermore, this study offers the following practical implications for language teaching and learning.

1) The findings suggest that teachers need to be aware of the different pragmatic features of international students from various cultural backgrounds. As mentioned in this study, learners from France and Korea had a strong tendency for certain types of semantic formulae for openers, HA, and EM. Therefore, teachers need to guide and correct learners' misuse of such formulae in requests and keep an eye on the input of pragmatic knowledge and cultural conventions to enhance learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence.

2) L2 learners should be aware of the pragmatic rules in the target language, under which the cultural norms regulate. Learners with a mature system of pragmatic knowledge in their native language could easily fall back on their pragmatic knowledge of L1 in learning and use of L2 (Li 2009). The results of this study could also help learners with various cultural backgrounds to be aware of the misuse of formulae or transfer in requests.

3) Textbook content should be compiled with students of different cultural backgrounds in mind and reflect the Chinese way of speaking and thinking. Future research is needed to understand various speech patterns and to apply the knowledge for the development of textbooks.

4) Teachers should be more tolerant towards the mistakes made by L2 learners from cultural backgrounds that are far from Chinese culture and lay the same stress on their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence. To those learners from a cultural background similar to Chinese culture, teachers should mainly focus on their linguistic aspects since they could better understand Chinese ideology, cultural norms, and conventions.

The limitations of this study mainly lies in three aspects: 1) the result of the limited number of participants might not translate to a wider scenario; 2) comprehensive interview data should be added to enhance the validity of the study, when analyzing the reasons for the differences in formulae produced by L2 learners; 3) DCT was used to capture L2 learners' request strategies, which was questioned for failing to generate real data from natural settings. Future research should target to collect naturally occurring data of speech acts to validate the DCT elicited data to reinforce the reliability of the result. Moreover, this study can be repeated to examine whether the same results can be captured in other languages, and other speech acts such as apologies, refuse, compliments, etc.

APPENDIX: DCT QUESTIONNAIRE

1. You found your student identity card missing. You've looked everywhere for it, but still couldn't find it. You're going to the Foreign Affair Office to report the loss and apply for a new one. What would you ask?

2. You went to visit your friend who lives in the dormitory in another university. When you came to his/her university, you couldn't find the location of the dormitory. You see a student coming towards you at that moment, and you want to ask him for directions. What would you ask?

3. This semester you've chosen an optional course. Accordingly, you're not familiar with others at the beginning of the semester. The teacher divided students into groups and asked groups to give presentations in turn. Since you were elected as group leader, it's your job to assign tasks to each group member. One of your group members majors in computer science. Now you ask him to design PowerPoint slides for the group presentation. What would you ask?

4. You're interested in the course of intercultural communication lectured by Professor Jin. You've asked him some questions about intercultural communication before, so you're familiar with each other. When the class is over, you want to copy the PowerPoint slides for after-class reviewing. What would you ask?

5. Your parcel has arrived. The messenger called you to fetch it before 17:00, but you were not there and couldn't return on time. So you want to call your good friend (Xiuming Jin) and ask him to get the parcel for you. What would you ask?

6. You roommate is the younger sister/brother of your friend. When you were doing your homework on the laptop, your laptop crashed and didn't work anymore. But you are supposed to hand in your homework tomorrow. You are going to ask your roommate to lend you his/her laptop. What would you ask?

7. You roommate stays up late almost every night. She usually turns up music loudly and makes telephone calls at later night sometimes, so you couldn't sleep well. You've talked with him/her several times, but he/ she has not changed much. So you decide to ask the dormitory management office to change a room for you. What would you ask?

8. Your best friend has come to China. You are showing him/her around the campus and Luxun Park. Both of you want to take pictures together. You see a strange student coming towards you. You are going to ask him for help. What would you ask?

9. This semester you've chosen a course. However, you're not familiar with others at the beginning of the semester. The teacher divided students into groups and asked groups to give presentation in turn. Since you were elected as group leader, it's your job to assign tasks to each group member. You want to ask one of the group members to take notes of your discussion. What would you ask?

10. You're supposed to hand in the homework of Chinese intensive reading, but you're unable to make it on time. You want to ask the teacher to postpone the deadline. You know the course teacher, Miss Wang, very well. And you're going to talk with her about it. What would you ask?

11. Today you have a stomachache, so you couldn't go to the history class. But you like the course so much that you don't want to miss it. So you are going to ask one of your classmates who is close to you to audio record the class and send it to you. What would you ask?

12. Your roommate is your friend's younger sister/brother. You go to the lecture together. When you would like to take notes, you don't have a pen on hand. So you are going to borrow one from him/her. What would you ask?

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Project-based Language Learning in China: A Literature Review

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Abstract—**Project-based language learning (PBLL) has great potential for language education because PBLL would be able to make learning relevant, personalized, and engaging. This is particularly true under today's circumstances where language learners' are expected to reach the five goals in areas of communication, cultures, comparison, connection and communities as put forward by the ACTFL (www.actfl.org). This paper presents a content analysis of 39 PBLL research studies published between 2002 and 2017 in the English-as-a-Foreign-Language (EFL) context in China. The studies were collected from the two most frequently used Chinese academic journal databases—CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure) and Wanfang Data. This paper presents a synthesis of the PBLL approach as applied in EFL instruction in China, discusses the research results, gaps, and future directions for PBLL research and pedagogy.**

Index Terms—**project-based language learning, China, EFL, Literature review**

I. Introduction

Project-Based Learning (PBL), as a learner-centered approach, was applied to English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) teaching/learning in the 1980s in Europe and in the latter 1990s in North America. Beckett (1999) defined PBLL (Project-Based Language Learning) as a series of individual or group activities that involve language/content learning through planning, researching (empirical and/or document), analyzing and synthesizing data, and reflecting on the process and product orally and/or in writing by comparing, contrasting, and justifying alternatives (p. 4). Since then, numerous studies on PBL as an approach to ESL/EFL learning and instruction have been conducted (see Alan & Stoller, 2005; Beckett, 2002, 2005; Beckett & Slater, 2005; Beckett & Miller, 2006). In China, PBLL studies began to appear in publications in 2002. Since then, PBLL pedagogy and research have attracted an increasing number of scholars, as evidenced by the increasing number of publications.

This paper seeks to address how the PBLL approach is applied in the Chinese EFL context, what the representative PBLL studies have investigated, and the problems and challenges facing PBLL in China. The answers to these questions are important for us to understand the potential benefits of PBLL in China, an important component of the world's language education community and PBLL research in general. To address these questions, this paper presents a synthesis of the PBLL approach as applied to EFL instruction in China between 2002 and 2017, discusses the research results, gaps, and suggests directions for future studies. By examining the challenges of PBLL as presented in the Chinese literature and identifying the future directions of PBL research in the China context, this paper attempts to provide information for the international academic community, of which China is a part, although still at the peripheral. Such a discussion can help inform other peripheral communities in similar contexts.

II. Research Methodology

A. Data Selection Process and Criteria

The PBLL studies for this literature review were first collected from the most frequently used CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure), which is a collection of several databases, including academic journals, theses and dissertations, newspapers, and conferences. Another database group, Wanfang Data, was also searched as a supplementary data source. The author manually searched the databases entering the theme 'project learning' confined by subcategory of 'foreign languages and literature'. The time period was set from 2002 through 2017, a span of sixteen years since the first PBLL peer-reviewed article was published in 2002. The theme, project learning, is searched together with its subcategories, such as project-based learning, project instruction, project-based language learning and project-based language teaching. 38 master's theses and two doctoral dissertations were also found since 2003 but this literature review solely focused on published journal articles to avoid possible duplicity, due to the fact that they might be included in the published journal articles.

This preliminary search and subsequent reading of the studies found that in spite of the large number of papers found, the large majority lacked rigor as indicated by their missing literature reviews, methodology, inadequate discussion, and length, which were only 1 or 2 pages (see Zhao, Beckett, & Wang, 2017, for what constitutes a good research article). The search is then narrowed down to those published in key academic journals as identified by PKU index (the eighth edition of A Guide to Chinese Key Journals, published by Peking University, a nationally recognized index of key

journals across disciplines) or CSSCI (Chinese Social Sciences Citation Index, another nationally recognized index of key journals published by Nanjing University). Eventually, 39 studies were selected for the current review. Among these, 17 articles were published in the key language education journals and 22 articles published in other key journals, which not only publish English language learning and teaching issues, but also other topics.

B. Coding and Analysis

After selecting relevant articles, the studies were then classified, based on four categories: empirical studies, topic discussions or theoretical explorations, practice papers, and research reviews as shown in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
CATEGORIES OF ARTICLES REVIEWED

Articles reviewed	Categories	Number of Articles
	Empirical studies	23
	Topic discussions or theoretical explorations	10
	Practice papers	3
	Reviews	3
Total		39

Three review studies were found concerning the PBLL in China. The first, by Zhang (2010), reviewed the thirty-year PBLL research outside China. The author found though PBLL was still at an early stage of experimentation and theoretic exploration, international PBLL researchers' work has attracted more attention in the applied linguistic field. The second, Zhu (2010), discussed PBL in general, with some discussion of PBLL in foreign language teaching and learning. Zhu found that among the 659 studies on PBL (PBL studies across all subject areas from 1998 through 2009), only 10 were language-related, indicating the start of the field. The third, Liu (2011), pointed out the issues of PBLL studies in China, including an uneven distribution of research participants, a lack of systematic studies as well as a lack of depth in the studies. For these reasons, Liu suggested that researchers in this field should produce more rigorous studies in the future so that the research results could better guide the practice. These reviews help us understand the topic of PBLL in general, but an up-date review will help track the latest development in the field and see whether the issues mentioned in Liu (2011) has been addressed.

Besides the review articles, the empirical studies were coded in accordance with the research topics, research questions/problem, research participant groups, methodology, theoretical background or elaboration, and findings. 'Topic discussions or theoretical explorations' refer to articles that discussed or analyzed PBLL, but did not follow the procedure of good empirical research article. 'Practice paper' refers to studies that mainly introduced applications of PBLL in teaching with little or no analysis or discussion. These studies were analyzed based on their study focus and several themes emerged as described in the next section.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. PBLL Studies in China: Quantity and Quality

A preliminary search showed that there were more than 500 papers published in PBLL and the number on PBLL increased rapidly from 2002-2017. Yet the current literature review finally decided to limit the number to the 39 studies published on PKU Index or CSSCI articles because many of the articles lacked research vigor required. Within the 39 studies in this literature review, there were 9 articles published from 2002 to 2009, and 30 from 2010 to 2017, an indication of an increased interest. The articles published in the language education journals are in general of higher quality than those published in other key journals as indicated by more empirical studies, better research design and more thorough discussion. The existence of practice papers and topic discussions also indicated the increasing interest in PBLL. At the same time, it should be noted that these articles, except a few, were still only sketchy discussions of PBLL, probably due to their limited length of two or three pages, without enough space to elaborate on the topic.

TABLE 2
CATEGORIES OF ARTICLES REVIEWED

Articles	Categories	2002-2009	2010-2017	Total
Language key journals	Empirical studies	4	8	12
	Topic discussions or theoretical explorations	2	1	3
	Practice paper	1	0	1
	Review	0	1	1
Other key journals	Empirical studies	1	10	11
	Topic discussions or theoretical explorations	1	6	7
	Practice paper	0	2	2
	Review	0	2	2
Total		9	30	39

B. PBLL Applications in Diverse Scenarios

PBLL has been applied in college English teaching and instruction (Gao, 2010) where English is taken as a compulsory course for non-English major students. The literature also shows that this approach has been applied to other more specified scenarios, such as academic English (Li & Du, 2014), ESP (English for Specific Purposes) such as business English (H. Wang, 2013), content courses, such as linguistics (M. Zhang, 2012), and Chinese culture teaching (Gu & Ye, 2017). Gao (2010) described the application of PBLL in a group of 96 medical students who learned to conduct a small-scale research project to fulfil partial requirements for their English course. Findings indicated that besides improving the students' motivation and collaboration, PBLL also improved their overall academic literacy and abilities to use language. Gao also pointed out that language use in the project was relevant to the students' foundation in English, and the instructors played a key role in management of the project. M. Zhang (2012) brought PBLL into a linguistics course. Two groups of third-year English majors were selected for the study with one as the control group. The experimental group had both PBLL and traditional lectures, while the control group had only traditional lectures. For this project, the participants selected their topics and questions to explore, outlined their plans and procedures in their problem solution, specified the resources needed, and presented the final results of their projects. The author concluded that the PBLL approach raised learners' intrinsic motivation in linguistics mostly in two components: (1) reaching their goals and (2) achieving emotional satisfaction experience during the process. The experimental group gained a better understanding of linguistic knowledge and were better able to apply this knowledge as shown through the analysis of four kinds of data collected: (1) pre-test and post-test questionnaires, (2) test on linguistics knowledge learned, (3) portfolio which included the student's study plan, process diary and evaluation package, including self-evaluation and group evaluation, and (4) instructor evaluation. For the research population, among the 23 empirical studies reviewed, 18 focused on college students, including English majors and non-English majors. Two studies researched post-graduates (Chen & Zhao, 2015; Fu, 2009). Only one study (Xu & Luo, 2012) examined PBLL with middle school students, and one study (Liu, 2013) examined the application of PBLL with vocational students.

C. PBLL: Learners' Motivation, Collaboration and Autonomy

Starting with Gu and Zhu (2002), several studies examined the general effects of PBL on language teaching (e.g., Feng & Zhu, 2003; Gu, 2007; Gu & Fang, 2003, Huang, 2004). Gu and Zhu (2002) conducted a case study examining a collaborative writing project via the Internet between a group of Chinese college students and their American counterparts. The authors explored the potential of PBLL, when mediated by technology, in motivating Chinese EFL learners by providing authentic writing and explicit purposes, and achieving positive learning results. As an extension, B. Wang (2013) focused more specifically on the features of PBLL that affected learner motivation. Wang researched 167 non-English-major college students in a university in northeastern China to explore the relationship between PBLL and learner motivation. Wang summarized nine features of PBLL that affect learners' motivations in language learning and divided these into primary and secondary factors. If 80% of the students tested by the three measurement tools (surveys, interviews, and students' own reflections) considered a factor as important after the quantification of the relevant data, this factor would be considered as a primary factor; otherwise, it would be a secondary factor. According to Wang, the primary factors included collaboration, autonomy, accumulation, exploration, and scaffolding, while the secondary factors include authenticity, reflectivity, cross-disciplines, and technology-relevance. Wang recommended that future PBLL users should take full advantage of the primary factors and improve the secondary factors. Shi (2009) found PBLL to be particularly useful in facilitating students' collaborations, while Deng and Wang (2009) found it to be effective in developing students' autonomy skills. Using an experimental approach, Deng and Wang (2009) compared an experimental group of 61 sophomore students with a control group of 60 to determine whether Internet-mediated PBLL could make a difference in the students' autonomous learning. They found PBLL could improve students' autonomous learning in three aspects: attitudes, abilities, and environment. But the authors also noted that within the EFL context, college students still need much of the instructors' scaffolding to develop their autonomy.

D. PBLL: Learners' Satisfaction, Efforts and Perceptions

Earlier studies (Feng & Zhu, 2003; Gu, 2007; Gu & Fang, 2003; Gu & Zhu, 2002; Huang, 2004, Li, 2009; Shi, 2009) explored the effects of PBLL. Several more researchers continued this by focusing more on the learners' experiences such as satisfaction, efforts and perceptions. Wang (2012) investigated students' satisfaction of their learning achievement using the PBLL approach. Using a questionnaire and self-reports for 167 college students, Wang pointed out that PBLL helped students meet multiple learning achievements, including language skills, subject content, and twenty-first century skills. Xia and Zhang (2017) researched learners' efforts and factors influencing the efforts during PBLL. They found students invested large amount of time in PBLL though the efforts differ at the different stages and different activities of PBLL. Students indicated engagement which increased with the progress of the projects. The factors that influence their efforts include the difficulties of activities, goals, and affective experience. Another study (Yu, 2017) presented the perceptions of 250 college students towards PBLL in a Chinese university who used *New Experiencing English*, a textbook based on the PBLL framework. Yu divided students into four groups (A, B, C, and D) based on their general evaluation of PBLL through a six-point scale survey at the end of the course. Students in Group A (23.3%) were very positive about PBLL and were categorized as 'active learners' by the author. Group B (40.20%) were quite positive about PBLL and were categorized as 'adaptable learners'. Those in Group C (28.40%) were moderately positive about PBL and were categorized as the 'accepted learners'. Group D students (9.20%) were categorized as

'passive learners'. Yu found that the PBLL approach was heralded as beneficial by the students. At the same time, Yu reported that the more active students were more positive while the more passive learners showed a more defensive or resistant attitude towards the PBLL approach. These studies, by investigating deeper into the aspects of PBLL, could help acquire more empirical evidence of the working system for PBLL.

E. PBLL and Language Development Research

When examining the effectiveness of PBLL, almost all studies reviewed focused on the general macro effects of the approach, such as improving motivation, collaboration, and autonomy in terms of the learning effect with little emphasis on language focus. In the literature reviewed, only one study examined the role of PBLL in the specific language learning process for writing. Yang and Han (2012) conducted an empirical study on college academic English writing taught in China within the context of college English reform. They divided 267 students from ten different colleges into six classes with three classes as the control group and the other three as the experimental group. Participants were required to write an academic paper on an assigned or self-chosen topic, including conducting a literature review, collecting and analyzing data, and writing a research paper. The PBLL approach was utilized for the experimental group, where the process was emphasized and the students were provided more systematic assistance and feedback from the instructors. The project process also included guidance by instructors who organized tutoring sessions, where students presented and discussed their project progress with group members. In contrast, students in the control group were given an assignment at the beginning of the semester and submitted their paper at the end of the semester, when they received feedback. There was no interaction with the instructors regarding their assignments in between. This meant that for the control group, the task was result/product-oriented. The study found that the experimental group outperformed the control group in topic selection, investigation procedures and methods, data analysis, and writing norms and strategies. The linguistic data collected showed that the papers written by the experimental group were longer, used more complex syntax and more accurate vocabulary, and illustrated a better sense of cohesive devices. However, the authors pointed out that the experimental group made more errors in their use of the language. The study concluded that the experimental group had more chances for authentic use of English and improved their abilities for creative exploration as well as academic English writing. Yet, the authors stopped at the discussion of the general benefits of PBLL without furthering the issue of language forms for EFL learners.

F. PBLL: Theoretical Explorations

Most of the studies reviewed, both practice papers and empirical studies, were practice-oriented rather than theory oriented. Three practice papers included in this review (Huang, 2004; H. Wang, 2013; Zhu & Zhang, 2011) introduced the application of PBLL in their practice, with a purpose of providing practice examples for PBLL with little or no theoretical discussion. For the 10 topic discussion studies in this literature review, six were introductions of PBLL, summaries of PBLL practice, or explorations of PBLL procedures (e.g. Chen, 2017; Feng & Zhu, 2003, Xu & Luo, 2011).

The four theoretical exploration studies were contributed by three scholars who had conducted both empirical studies and theoretical explorations on PBLL. The first of these four theoretical pieces, Gu (2007), investigated how technology can be integrated with PBLL as a pedagogy for language learning. Gu studied the effects of what she termed 'project-based CALL' (computer-aided language learning) and stressed that PBLL, when integrated with technology, could afford authentic, extensive language communication, plenty of language input and output, multi-channel feedback which would benefit thinking and language, and an improvement in motivation, collaboration, and autonomy.

The second of these four theoretical pieces, Zhang (2011), analyzed the micro contexts, features, and influencing factors of PBLL, and put forward a PBLL framework for foreign language teaching in China. This framework takes language, content, abilities, and emotional factors into its core with possible integration with different courses or extension with other abilities.

The third of these four theoretical pieces, W. Zhang (2012), used the term PBLI (project-based language instruction) to distinguish from PBL-based work in his practice and research on PBLL. Zhang identified differences between PBLI and traditional language classes in terms of teacher-student relationships, the content of teaching, teaching methods, and the roles of teachers and students in the Chinese EFL context where the teachers tend to dominate the class. Zhang argued that traditional language teaching in China emphasized language skills training more strongly and lacked the environment and tasks that would enable the students to implement what they learned into practice. Students were expected to improve their comprehensive abilities, critical thinking, and innovation skills, all of which were difficult to do in the traditional way of teaching. By clarifying the key issues in PBLI, Zhang demonstrated the advantages of implementing PBLL as a pedagogy.

The fourth of these four theoretical pieces, Zhang (2015), stressed the need to localize the PBLL approach in China. Zhang suggested an iPBL model (innovation-oriented projected-based learning) and applied it to English-major education in the Chinese EFL context. The iPBL model tends to orient itself to the development of students' innovations through 'course as projects and projects as part of the course' (Zhang, 2015, p. 21, original in Chinese). The author noted that functioning as a platform, the iPBL model features six stages with what he called "milestones"—the key point for each stage—and promotes integrated comprehensive training for students, including critical thinking and innovative training as well as language and other skills for the newer generation. These three scholars' works identified

three important processes in PBLL studied in China: the integration of PBLL and technology, the analysis of the relationships in PBLL teaching and learning, and the offering of frameworks for future studies.

IV. CHALLENGES, GAPS AND FUTURE DIRCTIONS

The literature for PBLL in China reviewed here have corroborated the value of PBLL in EFL teaching and learning. The flexibility and feasibility of PBLL to enable students to experience authentic materials and learning by doing makes it a useful approach for language instructors. Researchers in China have applied it to EFL teaching within diverse scenarios, including general college English teaching, EAP, ESP, and vocational teaching. There is a trend in the PBLL research that suggests that studies are moving from a more general exploration to a more specific investigation, and from a majority of college students study groups to a more diverse student body group. As Yu (2017) mentioned in his study that textbooks have been published based on PBLL, indicating a growing acceptance of PBLL in EFL teaching and an increasing interest in PBLL in applied linguistics in China. At the same time, the PBLL research in China are still facing some challenges and there are many areas remain to be explored.

A. Improving the Research Quality of PBLL in China

As mentioned previously, a large number of the PBLL studies are still in the early stages in terms of academic rigor. Many studies were repetitive, very brief discussions of the topic, or short practice reports. For this reason, only those published in the key journals were selected for this review. Even within such confining terms, there is still a quality variation, particularly between key journals in language education and those in vocational education, an area where the author's preliminary search showed a large quantity of articles but were eventually left out except only a few because of their lack of rigor. More rigorously conducted studies can help the increasing number of PBLL researchers in China make more contribution to the international PBLL research community.

B. Instructor Factor in the PBLL Approach

The review of the studies shows that the current research of PBLL China mostly still focus on learners. Although studies, such as Gao (2010), Shi (2009), and Zhang (2015) briefly mentioned that instructors played a key role in the application of the project, future studies need to focus more on the roles instructors play when implementing PBLL. Since projects have been proven to be effective for language instruction (Gu & Zhu, 2002; B. Wang, 2013), it would be an important issue to design projects appropriately when applying it into language teaching. Compared to traditional teaching approaches in which the instructors dominate, PBLL requires a role change of instructors. Studies such as Zhang and Liu (2010) showed the role change of students when PBLL was used, but there is little research on the beliefs or practices of these instructors who are key agents in PBLL pedagogy. Their perceptions and concepts about PBLL and how to design PBLL effectively is worthy of investigation.

C. Language Development Focus of PBLL

Almost all the studies reviewed for this paper focused on the relatively macro aspects of PBLL by highlighting motivation, collaboration, and autonomy of the learners. Some of the studies went a step further to explore factors affecting learner motivation or learners' efforts and perceptions. Yet no study so far, except Yang and Han (2012), has focused on the language development issue during PBLL implementation. Even the study by Yang and Han (2012) did not elaborate sufficiently on language development, probably because the project may not have lasted long enough (one semester) to determine noticeable improvement. If we argue the value of PBLL in language teaching and instruction, language acquisition is still an important component even though other aspects, such as motivation and autonomy, cannot be ignored. Future studies need to address this issue of formal language development. With technology, it may be possible for researchers to record or demonstrate language development through the implementation of PBLL.

D. K-12: An Area Waiting for Exploration

The current literature of PBLL in the Chinese EFL field is mostly concentrated on higher and vocational education. As mentioned before most of the vocational education papers were excluded because of the lack of research rigor. For the studies reviewed here, 37 of the 39 were published by researchers in universities or co-authored with researchers in universities with university students as their participants. With the exception of Xu and Luo (2012), who explored middle school students, and Chen (2017), who explored PBLL for elementary students, there is little PBLL research on the K-12 language education for a country of about 108 million (Ministry of Education, 2017). The vast majority of Chinese students are required to learn English as a foreign language from at least Grade 3, with most urban students starting English courses from Grade 1 or kindergarten (Yang, 2014). Within the context of dramatic social and economic change in China, education is also experiencing continuous reforms. PBLL, as an effective approach, has great potential for language education in K-12 classrooms.

E. Theory Development

Theories used in the literature reviewed in this paper are mostly influenced by social constructivism (Gu & Zhu, 2002; Liu, 2013; Wang, 2010, 2012, Zhang, & Liu, 2010). Other theories applied include multiple intelligence (Wang, 2010), situational cognition (Zhu & Zhang, 2011), and social activity theory (Gao, 2010). However, these studies are still

exploratory and weak on theoretical foundation (Fu, 2009; Shi, 2009; Yang & Han, 2012). Quite a number of studies even did not provide a section on theories or provide any information about the theories they used. Here there are two problems with theories. One is that many studies did not present the theoretical framework which to a certain extent, decreased the rigor of their research. Another problem is that many of the studies just limit their research scope to the practice introduction without much discussion on the implications or theoretical development (H. Wang, 2013; Zhu & Zhang, 2011). So far, only two scholars explored the possibility of building localized PBL theories in the Chinese context (M. Zhang, 2011; W. Zhang, 2015). Yet, theory building about PBLL, as an important part of academic research, should be worthy of more attention from the Chinese EFL research communities.

V. CONCLUSION

This literature review shows that PBLL studies in China have been growing quickly in terms of quantity, particularly during the past decade. Research quality is improving but many still fall short of vigorous research standards. PBLL as an instruction approach has been applied to a wide range of scenarios and with a variety of populations from primary students to post graduate students. The studies have been focusing on the general effects including motivation, autonomy, collaboration and students' experiences including satisfaction, perceptions and efforts. PBLL studies in China are also found generally more practice-oriented. A few attempts to develop theories and provide localized frameworks for PBLL.

At the same time, it can be seen from the review that PBLL learning and instruction in China is still in its early stage of development. Research quality is improving but still need to be further strengthened. Although the studies are expanding to different populations, they are mostly with college students. K-12 is a virgin land needs to be explored. In terms of the focus of research, the existing studies focused more on the macro-level of the topic with little discussion on the effect of this approach to language development. The studies mostly centered around the students while relatively little is known is investigated about the instructor factor in the PBLL, including their beliefs and attitudes to PBLL, the design and management of projects, specific difficulties or challenges in the application of PBLL in China, and possible solutions to these problems. PBLL as an effective approach would benefit the Chinese EFL learners if it is more widely adopted in the language education of China. More research should be conducted to exert this approach to its greatest potential.

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The Effects of Visualization Training Techniques on Reading Comprehension Ability of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—The present study was conducted to investigate the impact of visualization on reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. To fulfill the purpose of the study, 40 out of 100 intermediate learners of an English language institute were chosen by means of administering a PET Test. Based on the results of the homogenizing test, two groups were formed, and learners were not randomly assigned to an experimental group and a control one. Then, both groups were provided with seven teaching sessions. A pretest was given to all examinees to capture the initial differences. Learners in the experimental group were taught to visualize the words using a variety of visualization strategies before, during, and after reading the text in class. However, students in the control group were provided with a conventional instruction in traditional classes like reading the text aloud, translating the text, and providing synonyms and antonyms, if it was needed. After teaching sessions, a posttest was given to students of both groups. The statistical analysis of obtained results using paired t-test and ANCOVA revealed that the participants in the experimental group outperformed the participants in the control group. The findings of this study showed that the effect of visualization as an instructional technology on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension was extremely noticeable. The findings of the present study may have some theoretical and practical implications for both Iranian EFL teachers and students, as well as for curriculum designers and developers.

Index Terms—visualization training techniques, reading comprehension ability, Iranian intermediate EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading comprehension is defined as "the understanding of the written word, the understanding of the content that is being read, and the construction of meanings of the text. Reading is a purposeful and active process" (as cited in Pang, Muaka, Bernhardt, & Kamil, 2003). Nunan (2003) defines "reading" as "a dynamic process of reader merging information from a text and bridge it to his own background knowledge to generate meanings". Therefore, the goal of reading is "comprehension". Nunan (2003) further amends his definition by claiming, "The text, the reader, fluency, and strategies combined together define the act of reading" (p. 68). Carrel and Grabe (2002) hold the similar perspective by stating that readers need to develop 'reading for understanding' and 'reading to learn'. Hence, reading can be regarded as "the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language via the medium of print" (See Urquhart & Weir, 1988, p. 22). Grabe (2009) offers a more comprehensive definition of reading. He defines reading in terms of complex combination of processes. From the processes cited in his framework, reading as 'a comprehending', 'interactive', 'strategic', 'evaluative' and 'purposeful' process is very important. Smith (2004) takes a rather drastic view by claiming that reading is 'thinking'. He defines reading as "any attempt for making sense of the world or interpretation" (p. 2). He states, "no one who didn't try continually to make sense of the world could be considered a functioning human being" (Smith, 2004, p. 2). According to Chastain (1988), in order to have a full understanding of the reading materials, students must have a productive interaction with the reading part so that they could determine meaning even when some words or patterns are not immediately meaningful.

Reading in foreign language learning has an important place. This can be attributed to the host of reasons. First, foreign language learners have a little direct access and exposure to the target language outside of classroom context; hence, most of their interactions come through reading (Boss, 2002, as cited in Altamimi, 2006). Second, foreign language students themselves consider reading as a special priority and they want "to be able to read for information and pleasure, for their career, and for study purposes" (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 273). Put in other words, the ability to read in a target language is the focus of many foreign students and what they crave to have (Grabe, 2009). Another equally important issue that justifies the significance of reading in foreign language is that teaching written texts can fulfill manifold pedagogical purposes (Richards & Renandya, 2002). This means that an extensive exposure to written texts can facilitate the process of language acquisition. Furthermore, an appropriate reading text can serve as a platform for introducing new topics, to stimulate discussion, and to consolidate different aspects of language (e.g., vocabulary, structure, and idiom). (Richards & Renandya, 2002)

Considering aforementioned reasons and many others that need adequate time and space to cover, the critical role of reading proficiency in EFL context can be quickly concurred. However, fluent reading comprehension as a complex endeavor poses the learners in the dilemmas which can be traced back to the "lack of appropriate reading strategies, lack of background knowledge, related to the topic of the target language, or lack of attitudes toward reading, to name a few" (Altamimi, 2006, p. 24). Nevertheless, these problems can be alleviated, if not eradicated, by giving due attentions and appropriate instructions. One way to tackle these problems is by introducing and teaching reading strategies to foreign language learners. Reading strategies can be defined as "plans for solving problems encountered in constructing meaning" (Duffy, 1993, p. 233). Reading strategies range from "bottom-up vocabulary strategies, such as looking up an unknown word in dictionary, to more comprehensive actions such as connecting what is being read to the reader's background knowledge" (Janzen, 2002, p. 288).

From the host of reading strategies, recommended for boosting reading comprehension, the role of visualization training techniques has sparked good body of research in recent decades. "Visualization training technique" has been defined as "the process of seeing picture in the mind" (Tomlinson, 1997, p.1). The term refers to all types of mental representations of image in the mind, specifically throughout reading process (Ghazanfari, 2009). In the present study by "visualization training technique", a range of activities (i.e., drawing, illustration, and miming) was meant which was given throughout the treatment sessions. Lexical items left learners with pictures, echoes, and feelings when they entered, through reading a text. The ability to create and see these pictures in the mind, commonly known as 'visualization raining technique' in literature, has been hypothesized to be one of the fundamental features in reading process (see Ghazanfari, 2009). However, while it is generally believed that those second language learners who are able to produce images in their minds during reading process have far greater comprehension and recall than those who do not. Research findings show that L2 learners fail to transfer this capability to second language context (see Tomlinson, 1997).

Since the 1980s, a number of grand breaking advances have been made in pieces of research on reading. While advances in L1 contexts have introduced a more comprehensive picture of the nature of reading, the similar studies in L2 context have not had the same impact (Grabe, 2009, as cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002). Furthermore, although in the last decade, a vast number of studies have been developed in second language reading, the shortage of research on reading strategies and their roles in L2 reading comprehension have been witnessed. According to the problems previously stated and importance of reading comprehension in L2 context, it was vital to investigate whether a visualization-training technique has any effect on improvement of reading comprehension in L2 context. Accordingly, the present researcher tried to observe and investigate the effect of visualization training techniques on reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

As a limitation for this study, finding 40 homogenous students with characteristics suitable for the purpose of this study seemed a hit; therefore, the present researcher had to go ahead with intact groups. The participants were delimited to 40 EFL learners. As a result, generalization about findings could not be made to all Iranian EFL learners. Cooperation of the learners in the process of the research was another limitation. Therefore, some delimitations made the research more manageable. Forty intermediate students participated in this study; therefore, learners with higher or lower proficiency levels were not included. This study investigated the effect of visualization on reading comprehension skill and no other skills.

As discussed earlier, the present study aimed to explore whether the incorporation of visualization had any effect on reading comprehension ability of EFL language learners. Interest in L2 reading comprehension research and instruction has expanded a lot in the last fifteen years in the field. This can be attributed to the recognition of the fact that reading comprehension ability plays a pivotal role in academic achievement and is the main source of interaction and learning for foreign language learners beyond the classroom context (Grabe, 2009). The reading goal is to comprehend the text and not just improve pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary; in other words, readers are actually reading when they comprehending (Chastain, 1988). Reading, like all aspects of language knowledge and use, is complex and undertaking, involving many levels of processing; hence, enhancement of L2 reading ability requires a good degree of time and attention (Grabe, 2009). Considering the increasing importance of reading in foreign language context, it is evident that sufficient degree of attention must be focused to reading comprehension learning and teaching. Therefore, the purpose of the present study was to investigate how visualization-training techniques influence reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

The importance of the present study was multifarious: firstly, it was in the line with current studies carried out in teaching and learning L2 reading comprehension (e.g., Grabe, 2002, 2009). Secondly, one of the concerns of instructors especially in reading classes was that they wonder if visualization strategies would help their students' comprehension. The key point was that not enough knowledge was provided to teachers regarding this fact (Tomlinson, 2011). Finally, it was generally agreed that visualization might foster students' imagination and this, in turn, would enhance students' comprehension (McNamara, 2007). Therefore, the present study would shed some lights on the murky issues of visualization as an alternative approach to L2 reading instruction. Based on the objectives of the study, the following research question was proposed:

Research Question: Do visualization-training techniques have any effect on reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

According to the above research question, the following research hypothesis was formulated:

Research Hypothesis: Visualization training techniques do not have any effect on reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In order to conduct this study, 40 male and female EFL learners within the age range of 14 to 24 were selected out of 100 participants via double sampling in *Ayandeh* Language Institute in Tehran, Iran. All the participants were from Tehran and Farsi was their native language. They had been studying English for at least three years. The different branches of this English language institute have been in operation for over 10 years with an average of 1800 learners in each semester distributed in different language proficiency levels. The focal teaching approach in the institute was communicative approach and all of language skills; speaking, listening, reading, and writing were of significance, but speaking skill was of paramount importance.

The learners, taken as the participants in this study, were at intermediate level of proficiency. First, they were selected conveniently and then they were homogenized based on their scores on Preliminary English Test (PET). That is, they had proceeded into this level after passing PET.

To account for the homogeneity of the participants, 40 participants, among the 100 test takers, whose scores on the homogeneity test fell one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean (Mean ± SD) were chosen. Accordingly, 60 test takers who had extremely high, or extremely low scores on the test were disqualified for the present study Therefore, the remaining 40 participants who scored between one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean were sorted out into two intact groups to receive the two different instructional methods, namely visualization (i.e., the experimental group) and conventional method (i.e., the control group). It is noteworthy that participants were both male and female and their gender was not taken as a variable of this study.

B. Instrumentation

The effectiveness of employing visualization for boosting students' reading comprehension was investigated through the administration of the following research instruments.

1. PET as Proficiency Test

PET, as one of the Cambridge English exams, was administered to the participants prior to treatment to compare the means and make sure that the participants were homogeneous in terms of proficiency. The test has four sections: *Reading* (35 items), *Writing* (8 items) *Listening* (25 items) and *Speaking* (4 items). The time allotted was 130 minutes. PET is usually used to identify whether the target participants are intermediate or not. The reliability of the proficiency test (was calculated using Cronbach's alpha consistency, which reveals the PET test enjoyed an acceptable internal consistency (r = 0.97).

2. Reading Pretest

Before treatment, a researcher-made pretest was administered to the participants to elicit the initial differences among the learners. The pretest consisted of 20 multiple-choice reading items selected from *New Headway* (Fourth Edition, Intermediate) by Soars and Soars (2013). To prepare passages of appropriate level of difficulty for reading comprehension, enough care had been exercised. In effect, the passages were selected from reliable sources that offer passages of an appropriate length, content, and difficulty. When the tests were prepared, they were reviewed by the instructors, teaching these courses to make sure that the tests were geared toward the course objectives. In order to establish the reliability of the pretest, it was piloted prior to the main administration. In doing so, 15 young EFL learners who were different from the main sample learners, but whose proficiency levels were the same as the main sample were asked to take the test. Having collected the data of the study, KR-21 formula was employed to calculate the reliability that turned out to be 0.872. This, in turn, indicates high reliability of the test. The validity of the pretest was calculated by using the correlation coefficient of the designed pretest and Nelson's (1976) English Language proficiency test reading part. The result was 0.722. Thus, it can be concluded that the pretest was valid (see Bachman, 1990).

3. Reading Posttest

After the treatment, a researcher-made posttest, piloted in advance (r = 0.812), was given to all participants, based on the materials or content covered during the treatment or teaching program. The posttest consisted of 20 multiple-choice reading items, selected from materials covered throughout the course. To prepare the test, the same steps previously introduced were followed. In order to pilot the posttest, 15 young EFL were chosen whose proficiency level was as the same as the main group. After taking the test, the reliability was measured using KR-21 formula and it turned out to be 0.812. The validity of the posttest was calculated by choosing the correlation coefficient of the designed posttest and Nelson's (1976) English language proficiency test reading part. The result was 0.689. Thus, it can be concluded that the posttest was valid (see Bachman, 1990).

4. Nelson's (1976) Proficiency Test

Reading part of Nelson's (1976) proficiency test (see Nelson, 1976) was administrated to the pilot sample group who were 15 young learners with the same proficiency level as the main group. Nelson's (1976) proficiency test was used in order to measure the validity of the pretest and posttest (i.e., concurrent validity). The test consists of 20 multiple-choice

reading items. The reliability of Nelson's (1976) proficiency test was measured by Cronbach's alpha (r = 0.688). The result shows that Nelson's (1976) proficiency test was significantly reliable.

C. Instruction Materials

To conduct the present study, the present researcher has used the two materials: "New Headway" (Fourth Edition, Intermediate) by Soars and Soars (2013), "Select Readings Intermediate" by Lee and Gunderson (2013).

D. Procedure

To achieve the objectives of the study, the following steps were taken:

1. At the beginning and before the instruction began, PET was given to a population of 100 EFL learners in order to make sure that there was no significant difference between the participants. The students were informed in advance how the study in different groups would be carried out. After scoring homogeneity tests, the data were analyzed and 40 learners, whose scores fell one standard deviation above and one standard deviation below the mean, were selected to serve as the main participants of the study. The participants were, then, assigned to an experimental and a control group equally, i.e., one group focused on visualization and the other was instructed based on conventional methods.

2. The pretest was administered to measure the reading comprehension of the participants before receiving the instruction. Following the pretest, the students in both experimental and control groups received the intended instructional materials. Prior to the instruction, the learners were informed of how the instruction would be carried out.

3. Students in experimental group were exposed to a variety of visualization activities. As for Session Two, there were about 20 students in the classroom seated at individual desks, facing the teacher at the front of the class. The teacher was giving the guidelines and preparing the students for a reading passage in their textbooks about "Fixing the House". The classroom interaction was heavily teacher-led. First, the students were told that good readers made pictures in their heads to go with the words in a book and this helped them understand the story. They made pictures of the people and places described in books. Then, the students were told that they were going to read aloud a short reading passage entitled "Fixing the House" from "Select Readings" by Lee, and Gunderson (2013). The teacher asked students to turn their attention to a cloud of the key lexical items of the text. The printed cloud was colorful with the most common words larger. Each word was carefully tagged and was led to URLs (Uniform Resource Locators). This gave the teacher to integrate the key vocabulary items in a visually appealing and productive manner. Then, students closed their eyes and tried to make a picture in their head about what they were reading. Next, the teacher read the following reading passage aloud:

> *Fixing things in a house can be difficult. You see water in the sink draining slowly. Then, you have to fix the drain. Something thick and rigid is inside the pipes. Pipes can be delicate. You have to fix leaks carefully. +Heavy rain can make leaks in the roof. Sometimes, trees drip water onto the roof. Leaks are not good for the ceiling or floor. If water leaks through electrical things, it is dangerous. You can get electric shock with water and electricity. It is vital to stay away from places where there is water and electricity. Even trees may need repair. Wide and old branches can fall and make a lot of damage. You have to cut those branches. The curious squirrels and birds will watch from other trees.*

5. After the teacher read the passage, students were asked to tell the teacher what they saw in their heads. He asked them to tell about their house. It was not important that they had all or even most of the objects in their house mentioned in the passage. What was important was that they were able to see the house with different parts and fixing. Their house may include elements not mentioned in the passage.

6. Having covered the text, the teacher reflected on the key lexical items of the text through referring to the word cloud. If students had a hard time describing their house, he would model an example. He might say, "*I see a big, old wooden house that has some leaks in its ceiling, it is located in the middle of jungle, in a rainy night,*" etc. Then, the teacher gave students a chance to share again after teacher is modeling.

7. In Session Three, students were told in advance not to study the text or to translate the key words, but to imagine pictures as they read it and then to change these pictures as they found further information in the text. They were also told to focus their attention initially on what was familiar in the text and then to use these images to help them work out what was unfamiliar in the text. At the end of the course, the students were exposed to the main words through word cloud projected on the board. This gave the students an opportunity to brush up on the new words through an interactively innovative approach.

8. In Session Four, a different approach was adopted. Students were given a reading text from their course book entitled "Headway" that contained explicit visualization instructions in the margin within the text. These instructions were designed to help students achieve interactive imaging which would facilitate interpretive connections between different parts of the text. Again, to bolster students' comprehension, a word cloud containing the key features of the text was presented. The word cloud profoundly helped the teacher share thoughts or notes, display creativity, and summarize points.

9. Students were exposed to a different technique in Session Five. Pre-reading drawing has been frequently advocated by scholars in the field (e.g., Tomlinson, 2012). This helps students have relevant images in their minds, when they start to read the text and study the words. These drawings help students trigger their schemata. To this end,

students were encouraged to apply this strategy when they were reading a short text in "Select Readings" (Lee, & Gunderson, 2013) on page 66, describing people appearance. The present researcher herself observed a sense of accomplishment in students' eyes, when students were reading a phrase like "*curly blond hair*" and drawing a curly blond girl with too much joy and enthusiasm.

10. Another useful activity that was practiced in Session Six, was asking learners to connect a text or some related words to an incident in their own lives or to one in another text. To this end, they automatically used visual imaging in order to achieve the connection.

11. The control group, however, was exposed to conventional teaching methods in the process of reading the text. The traditional reading practices were applied in this class. Here, one of the sessions is explained below. For the rest of the sessions, the present researcher replicated the same set of conventional teaching techniques common in traditional reading classes. The following paragraphs are the stages that a teacher went through during the term.

- First, the teacher wrote the topic of the text on the board and asked the students whether they knew what it meant or not, if not the title would be explained.
- Next, the teacher read the text and asked the students to listen and pay attention closely to the pronunciation of each word and repeat after the teacher slowly for themselves.
- Then, the present researcher read the text aloud again and gave some definitions or synonyms for the new words when it was needed.
- Finally, the students were asked to paraphrase the whole reading part for the next session.

12. This was practiced for 7 sessions, each an hour long for all groups. After the treatment, the posttest was administered to all participants.

E. Design

This study aimed at providing insights into the effectiveness of using visualization techniques for boosting EFL learners' reading comprehension. In order to explore the aforementioned area of inquiry, the present researcher has employed the experimental method to be carried out and the data were collected quantitatively. However, the participants were not randomly assigned into two experimental groups; therefore, the study utilized a quasi-experimental design with pretest-posttest control group in order to look into the topic under investigation. The schematic representation of the design is shown as follows:

EG (visualization)	T1	X1	T2
CG	T1	---	T2

X stands for the treatment given to the experimental group, EG represents the experimental group, CG stands for the control group and T1 & T2 for the pre/posttests.

F. Data Analysis

Since a pretest was used in this research, ANCOVA was run to adjust the effect of the covariate (i.e., pretest) on the posttest.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To achieve the objectives of the study and answer the research question as "Do visualization-training techniques have any effect on reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?", ANCOVA statistical procedure was used, but as using ANCOVA requires checking the normality assumptions, first, the following assumptions were checked.

A. Pilot Study

1. Pilot Study of the pretest

Pretest was piloted to ensure the reliability and validity on ambiguousness and to specify any probable problems. The environment in which the test was piloted was similar to the real one. 15 participants, who resembled the main sample regarding their English language proficiency level and gender, completed the test. After two sessions, these participants took part in a reading Nelson's (1976) English language proficiency test in order to determine the validity of the pretest. In order to ensure the reliability of the pretest, KR-21 reliability analysis was run. Table 1 shows the reliability (r =. 872) for the 20-item designed pretest in this study.

TABLE 1
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF THE PRETEST

KR-21	N of Items
.872	20

According to Table 2, the correlation coefficient of the designed pretest, i.e., modified Nelson's (1976) English language proficiency test was 0.722. Thus, it can be concluded that the pretest was valid (Bachman, 1990). Table 2

displays the descriptive statistics for the Pearson correlation coefficient of the pretest and Nelson's (1976) English language proficiency test, conducted during the pilot study.

TABLE 2
CORRELATION COEFFICIENT OF THE PER-TEST AND NELSON ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

Correlations			
		Pretest	Nelson Pretest
Pretest	**Pearson Correlation**	1	.772**
	Sig. (2-Tailed)		.001
	N	15	15
Nelson Pretest	**Pearson Correlation**	.772**	1
	Sig. (2-Tailed)	.001	
	N	15	15
**. Correlation Is Significant At The 0.01 Level (2-Tailed).			

2. Pilot study of the posttest

15 participants, who resembled the main sample regarding their English language proficiency level and gender, completed the test. In a similar way, the reliability of the posttest was measured through KR-21 analysis, the results of this 20-item test turned out to be .812 (See Table 3).

TABLE 3
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF THE POSTTEST

KR-21	N of Items
.812	20

Table 4 displays the descriptive statistics for the reliability of 20-item Nelson's (1976) English language proficiency test reading part through Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis that was .668.

TABLE 4
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE RELIABILITY OF 20-ITEM NELSON ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.668	20

In order to prove the validity of the designed posttest, the present researcher held Nelson's (1976) English language proficiency test and by the use of Pearson correlation coefficient concluded that the posttest was valid and it was .689. Table 5 displays the descriptive statistics of the Pearson correlation coefficient of the posttest and Nelson's (1976) English language proficiency test administrated during the pilot test.

TABLE 5
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT

		posttest	Nelson posttest
Posttest	**Pearson Correlation**	1	.689**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004
	N	15	15
Nelson posttest	**Pearson Correlation**	.689**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.004	
	N	15	15
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

The descriptive statistics of the participants' pretest and posttest scores in control and experimental groups are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6
PARTICIPANTS' PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES IN CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
The Visualization -Group	Pretest	20	1.00	10.00	6.00	2.58
	Posttest	20	16.00	40.00	27.00	6.47
The Control Group	Pretest	20	0.00	13.00	7.45	3.55
	Posttest	20	10.00	21.00	17.85	2.48

Table 6 presents the experimental groups' descriptive statistics in the pretest and the posttest. According to Table 6, the mean score of the control group's pretest is 7.45, which changed to 17.85 in the posttest. On the other hand, the mean score of the visualization group's pretest is 6.00, which changed to 27.00 in the posttest. The data obtained from Table 6 is illustrated in Figure 1. This Figure 1 shows the experimental and control groups' mean score in the pretest and the posttest.
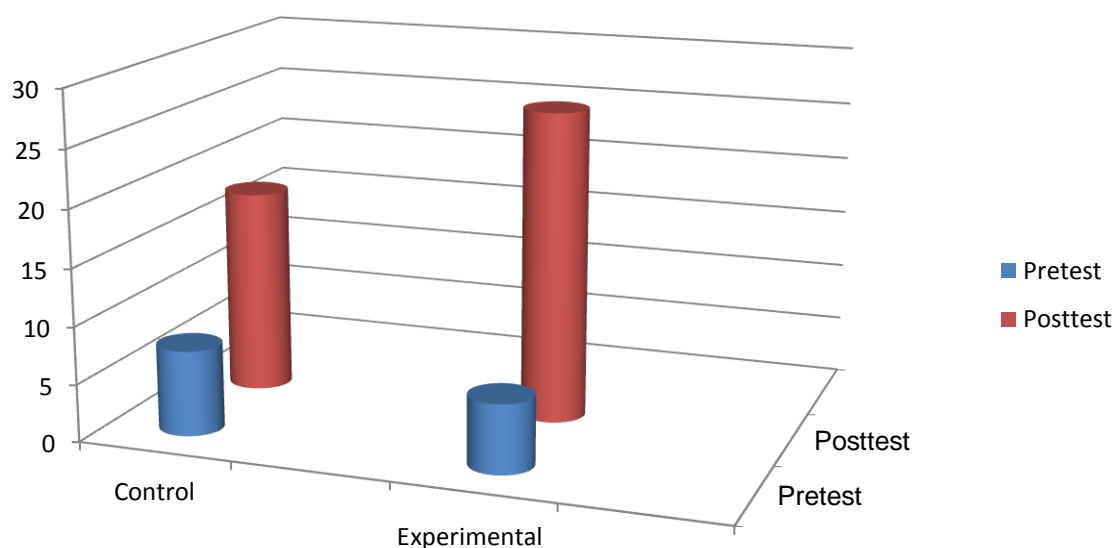
Figure 1. The Descriptive Statistics of the Participants' Pretest and Posttest Scores in Control and Experimental Groups

As it is illustrated in Figure 1, the students' posttest scores were higher than their scores in the pretest. The distribution of scores for dependent variables should be normal for each value of the independent variable. To check this assumption, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was utilized. Table 7 shows the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test.

TABLE 7
KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV AND SHAPIRO-WILK TEST FOR NORMALITY OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE DATA

		Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	N	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre test	visualization	.101	20	.200*	.958	20	.503
	control	.169	20	.137	.946	20	.309
Post test	visualization	.139	20	.200*	.967	20	.688
	control	.174	20	.114	.851	20	.600

Given that, the statistics of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk test were not meaningful. Table 7, as illustrated in Figure 2, shows that the assumption of normality of variables has been observed (P>.05).
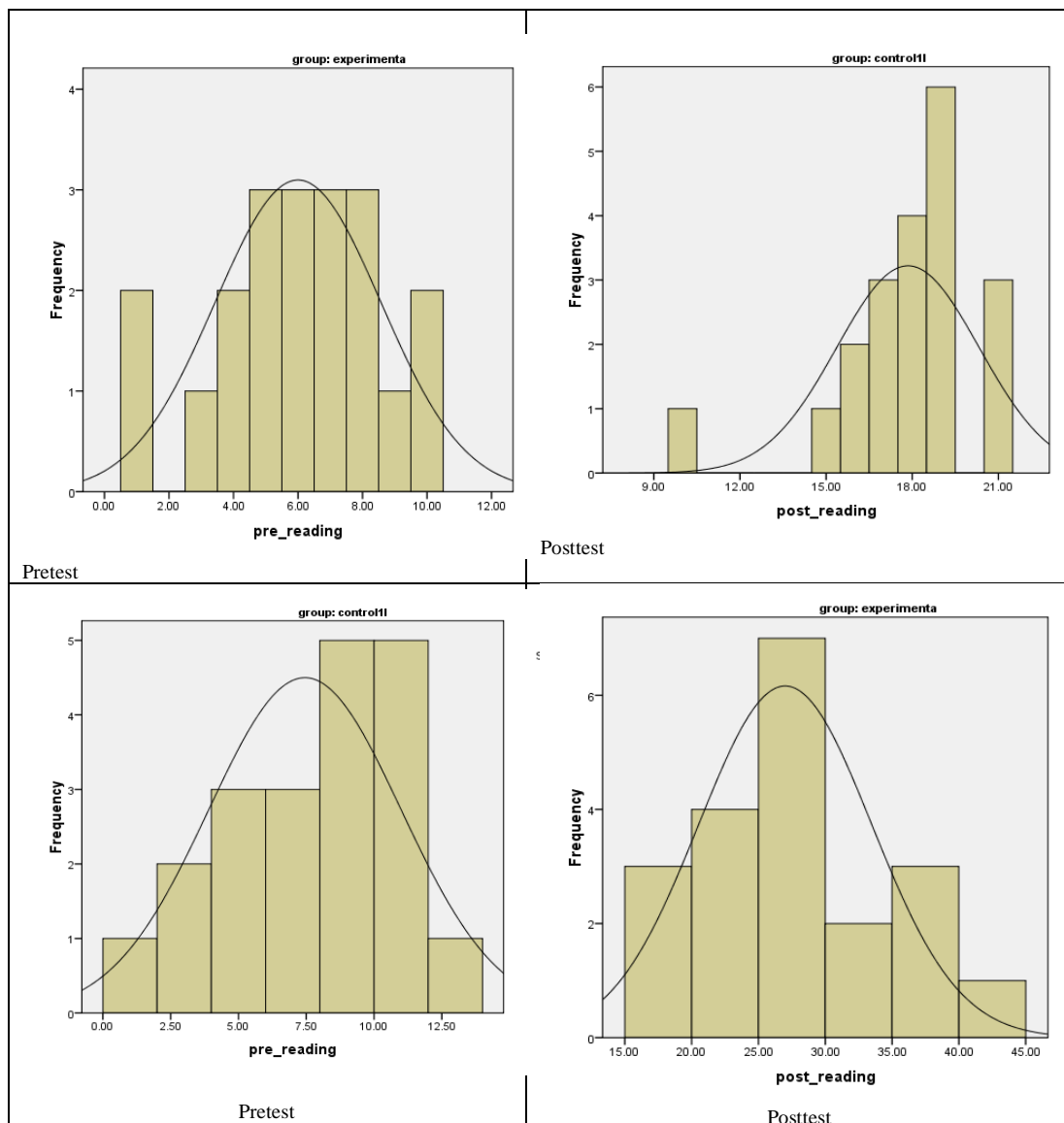
Figure 2. Normality of the Distribution of the Data

B. Homogeneity of Error Variances

To check the homogeneity of variances, Levene's statistic was used. Leven's statistic tests the assumption that the error variance of the dependent variable was equal across groups.

TABLE 8
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

test	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Pretest	2.679	1	38	.110
Posttest	3.156	1	38	.100

As displayed in Table 8, the results of Levene's test were not significant for the pretest (F = 2.67, Sig= .110, P > .05) and posttest (F = 3.15 Sig= .100, P > .05). Based on these results, it can be concluded that there were not any significant differences between the variances of the groups. This assumption was checked by measuring the interaction between group and the covariate (pretest).

TABLE 9
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	843.470a	3	281.157	11.168	.000
Intercept	3053.975	1	3053.975	121.309	.000
group	100.731	1	100.731	4.001	.053
pretest	4.443	1	4.443	.176	.677
group * pretest	3.721	1	3.721	.148	.703
Error	906.305	36	25.175		
Total	21865.000	40			
Corrected Total	1749.775	39			

As the data shows in Table 9, the value obtained was found to be Sig= .703, P> .05. This means that there is a linear relationship between the pretest and the posttest scores. Although, from Figure 3, it was notable that the lines did not show a complete linear relationship especially in the pretest, there seemed to be no interaction between the lines; therefore, it might be argued that the assumption of linearity of regression lines was also held. The interaction between the independent variable and covariate was not significant and the assumption of the homogeneity of the slope of regression lines was met.
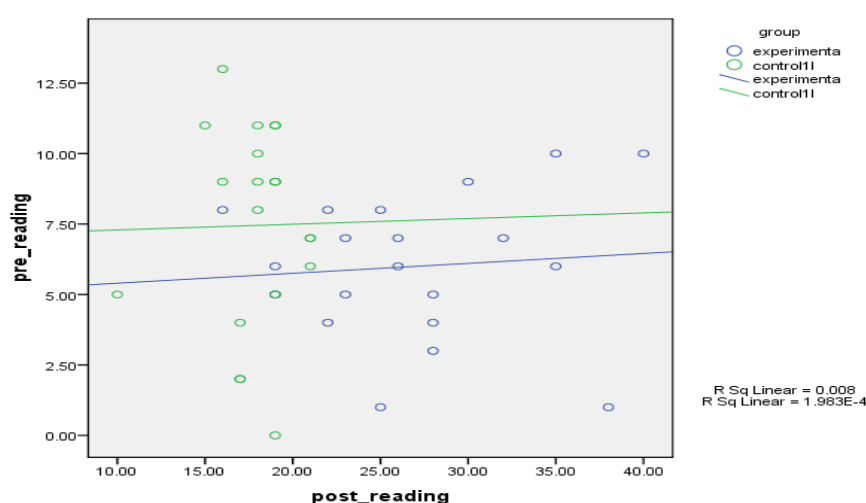

Figure 3. Linear Relationship among Regression Lines

C. Analyzing the Research Hypothesis

With regard to the null hypothesis, "Using visualization training techniques do not have any effect on reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners", the descriptive statistics showed that there was a difference between the control group and the experimental group in reading comprehension (i.e., for the control group mean and standard deviation are M=17.85 and SD=2.48, respectively and for visualization group M=27.00; SD=6.47). In order to assess whether this difference was meaningful or not, the ANCOVA analysis was utilized. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 10.

TABLE 10
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Corrected Model	839.749a	2	419.874	17.071	.000	.480	.999
Intercept	3210.458	1	3210.458	130.531	.000	.779	1.000
Pretest	2.524	1	2.524	.103	.751	.003	.061
Group	812.622	1	812.622	33.040	.000	.472	0.999
Error	910.026	37	24.595				
Total	21865.000	40					
Corrected Total	1749.775	39					

Based on the results, it can be concluded that there was a meaningful difference between the two groups (F=33.04, p<0.05). In other words, it can be stated that the treatment had a significant impact on the experimental groups. Furthermore, the results of Table 5 indicated that the teaching method (i.e., Visualization Training Technique) was able to determine 47% of changes in reading comprehension. The value power of test (1-β = .99) showed that ANCOVA analysis was able to reject the null hypothesis.

The effect size was calculated by dividing the difference between two mean scores (in both pretest and posttest) of the experimental or visualization group and the control group on the standard deviation of the control group.

The mean of experimental group _ the mean of control group = 9.27

The standard deviation of the control group = 2.48

$$ES = \frac{9.27}{2.48} = 3.74$$

The effect size was 3.74. This shows the impact of treatment on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. Based on the Cohen Table (as shown in Figure 4), the variation range of scores was very large.
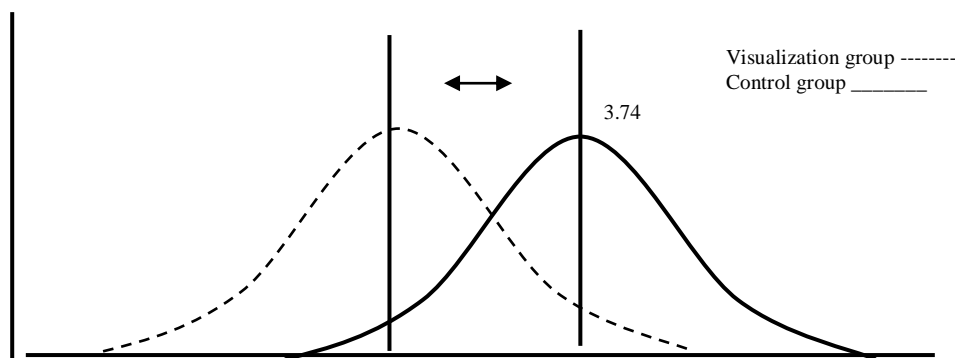

Figure 4. he Variation Range of Scores

Figure 4 shows the distribution of the subjects' scores in the visualization group and the control group. The difference between the visualization group and the control group is 3.74 of the standard deviation. This means that using visualization had a significant impact on students' reading comprehension. Figure 5 indicates that the visualization group performed better in the posttest in comparison to another group.
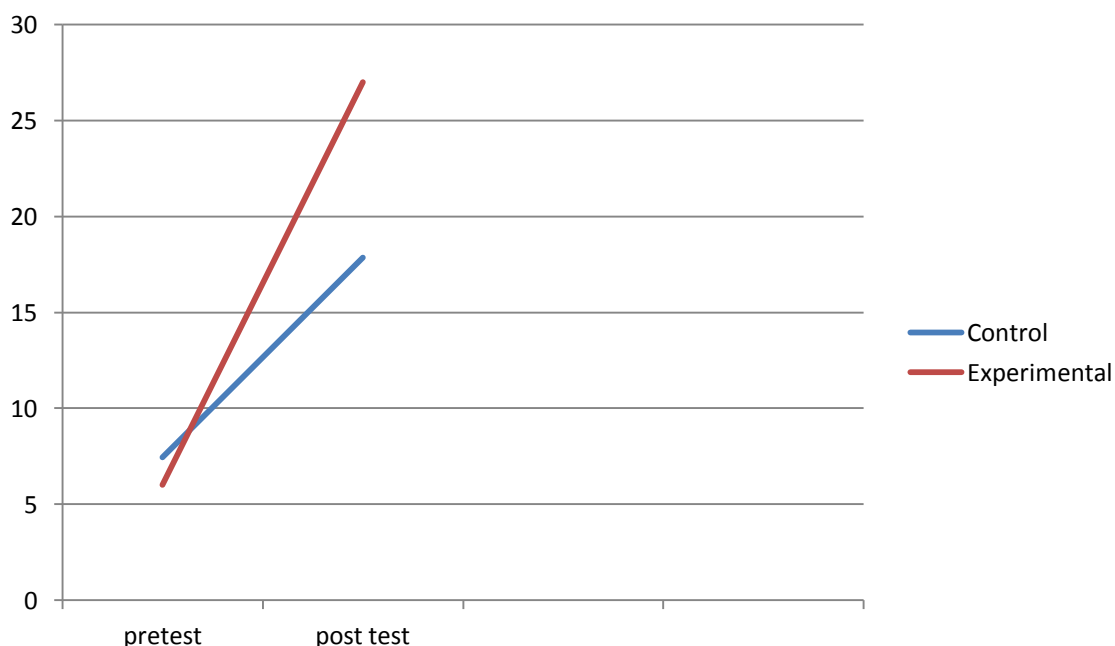

Figure 5. The Control and Visualization Groups' Mean Score in Pretest and Posttest

IV. DISCUSSION

An effective reading is essential for success in acquiring a second language. After all, reading is the basis of instruction in all aspects of language learning: using textbooks for language courses, writing, revising, developing vocabulary, acquiring grammar, editing, and using computer-assisted language learning programs. Reading instruction, therefore, is an essential component of every second-language curriculum (see Brown, 2001).

Although reading has been scrutinized a lot by different experts, no magic formula to the good efficient reading has yet been found (Ziahosseiny, 2009, as cited in Khaki, 2014). Unfortunately, in Iran, the typical reading classroom scenario is that the teacher first reads the passage and then, more often translates the passage into the mother tongue,

before asking students to answer the questions related to the passage, posed by the author. In fact, most of these students do not know what the actual purpose of reading is. Subsequently, when they can translate the text literally, they think that they have comprehended the passage.

Of course, as Kaplan (2002, as cited in Khaki, 2014) argues, this translation technique can have a purpose in reading, but it is nonetheless a skill outside of the standard reading purposes. In this respect, the learners are expected to be passive objects of the learning process. On the other hand, the contemporary approach to learning points out the importance of deep learning and rejects the idea of memorizing the information presented by the instructor. Within this view, the learner is not the passive recipient of the transferred knowledge but is the active participant of the learning process.

Regarding the research question, which aimed at seeing if using visualization has any effect on reading comprehension ability of Iranian intermediate EFL learners, the findings of this study revealed that visualization had a positive impact on reading comprehension of language learners (F=33.04, p<0.05). To come up with a more precise result, Bonferroni's (1933) test was run. The results revealed that mean score of experimental group on the reading posttest was higher, to the extent of 0.95, than that of the other control group. That is, the experimental group, which received visualization, performed better on reading posttest in comparison to the other experimental group. Therefore, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected. Hence, the difference was significant (p>0.05).

The results of this study showed that visualization training had a significant impact on reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Tomlinson's (1997) finding is also in line with the findings of this study. Tomlinson (1997) observed that those students, who reported visualizing while reading a text, tended to achieve a greater comprehension and recall than those who did not. This can be explained in the light of the fact that visualization helps students create mental images or pictures in their minds and makes a solid connection between when students have already known and what they actually learn (Arnold, 1999). Moreover, visualization techniques assist language learners to convert words into images in their mind (Tomlinson, 1998). This mental image, which learners form in the mind, is the combination of what we recognize as the result of the interaction between what we have in our schemata and what is going on at the moment - which is not only seen in the mind's eye, but also that may be heard and felt; they are mental pictures or impressions which are triggered when a language learner is exposed to a reading text (see Arnold, 1999; Richards & Schmidt, 2002; Stevick, 1986). In a similar vein, Lee (2012, p. 22) posits:

> *The main characteristics of visualization are as follows: it requires the human mind to be simultaneously alert, yet physically relaxed. This relaxed-alertness helps maintain the best learning state for the brain. During the process of visualization, it also helps to involve personal experience and engage personal emotion. We can use visualization to stimulate positive thinking by seeing the good outcomes of our researcher's effort in the mind's eye and imagining the smoothness and success of fulfilling the task. Visualization can also stimulate the creative potential through making connections between different aspects of life experience. The main reasons for using visualization in the language class then are to keep learners' minds in a state of relaxed alertness and to encourage them to process their experiences actively in multiple ways. In addition, using visualization also engages learners emotionally in the process of meaningful learning, enhances creative thinking, and stimulates the curiosity to explore fresh new ideas. Furthermore, visualization is a personal mental process that uses the individual self as an inexhaustible resource for exploring different perspectives on the world. This also helps to personalize language learning by promoting individuality and self-expression.*

The findings of this study are also in line with Hiedemann (1996) and Tomlinson (1997) who advocated visualization techniques in second or foreign language reading comprehension. In a similar vein, Tomlinson (2013) claimed that visualization could create personal connection in students' minds. This can be attributed to the fact that increasing an L2 learner's ability to visualize can facilitate positive engagement with the text and can increase the learner's ability to comprehend and hence successfully process a text.

It was also turned out that the traditional teaching approach did not have any significant effect on reading comprehension of intermediate language learners. It can be argued that translation and providing synonyms and antonyms, as the highly decontextualized activities, would not trigger access and by no means would form any solid association between different sets and pieces of language in teaching context. (See Hashemi & Aziznejad, 2011)

V. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

A. Conclusion

The fundamental position of reading comprehension in EFL settings has turned this skill to the most important one, needed for the learners' success in a way. It is often known as the main goal of English language learning in such contexts (Nunan, 2003). Despite the importance of reading comprehension in both first and second language learners' academic success, the predominant approach toward L2 reading has mostly relied on traditional approaches.

The available findings in this scope show that focusing on reading based on traditional approaches has been the source of many problems. In Shokouhi's (2005) words, inadequate approaches, including Grammar Translation Method (GTM), have been the major focus of language teachers for many years, thus significant approaches, strategies and

techniques which have shown to be effective in enhancing learners' reading comprehension ability, have mostly been neglected in language classes.

Recent advances in instructional technology have made it possible to design instructional material that incorporates varied visualizations. Diagrams and images, in both print and computer-based environments, can now be animated or programmed to be dynamic to vividly present abstract concepts or phenomena that are appealing to human eyes.

Accordingly, this study addressed the impact of visualization as an instructional technology on reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Regarding the research question raised as the focus of the study, the results of the data analysis and discussion revealed that, Iranian EFL learners , trained how to visualize, had significantly better marks on the reading comprehension test than did the students who were only exposed to the conventional methods. The findings presented by this study are encouraging regarding the usefulness of visualization techniques in enhancing students' reading comprehension.

Visualization enables any perspective language teacher to scan through the text and pulls out the most frequently used words. This, in turn, assists language learners to focus on those vocabulary items that are primary and take prominence over the others (Tomlinson, 2013). Furthermore, both teachers and language learners have an instant visual representation of key words from the article, and hence language teachers can ask their students to spend a few minutes, either individually, or in groups, to try to figure out how and why all these words might be related. This allows for an immediate, directed, and pre-reading assignment that could very easily turn into some lively discussion.

B. Implications

The present study has some implications for Iranian EFL teachers, students, and curriculum developers. The findings of this study suggest that visualization can potentially have a positive impact on reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. Therefore, the integration of visualization activities can foster students' learning process.

Visualization might provide a unique reflection tool throughout the teaching process. Students can be encouraged to compile a list of the main terms or ideas they have learned over the term, and to weight the list by repeating the most important terms to make them more prominent. Therefore, this study strengthens the idea that visualization is useful for self-reflection. One of the hazards of reading comprehension is that students can get carried away, and go off the point completely, or contradict themselves. Furthermore, visualization as a key effective reading comprehension strategy can be a useful alternative for university classrooms.

Visualization could also be used by language teachers to assign amusing reading assignments. A teacher who knows that he or she works with a population of struggling readers could generate word clouds before reading assignments and ask students to circle the words from the cloud that they do not understand or are the least familiar. The students can return the word clouds to the teacher before reading so that the teacher can address these issues before students get lost in a difficult reading assignment.

Teachers ought to make students aware of the notion of visualization, expose students to different types of visualization activities, and raise their awareness of such activities through exposing them to different exercises. Teachers would find some advantages in teaching words through visualization activities rather than solely relying on conventional methods. Teachers can encourage students to reflect on what they think, express, and learn from different ideas. Students can be encouraged to write reflective journals after class. Through this process of exploration, students may come to a deeper understanding. They will then be motivated to start a new circle of learning and thinking. Without the mental process of visualization and reflection, the input may not easily become output and rote learning and memorization may happen in this direct transfer of information.

Textbook writers and course book developers should keep in mind the importance of visualization activities in successful acquisition of lexical items. Therefore, it is highly recommended that lexical items be presented in a meaningful context and be accompanied with appropriate, visually triggering materials.

C. Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings obtained in this study, the following research agendas are suggested to be investigated by other researchers:

- Future studies should clarify whether visualization techniques have any facilitative impact on students' motivation.
- In the future, it will be important to explore the potential use of visually triggered technology as an assessment tool in foreign or second language learning.
- It is recommended that further research to be undertaken to explore the role of visualization in enhancing students' critical thinking and improving their creative writing.

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The Possibility of Weak V-DE-(NP)-A Constructions in Chinese

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Abstract—**According to Washio's (1997) strong and weak resultative analysis, Chinese resultative V-A-(NP) compounds allow both strong and weak resultative constructions while Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions allow only strong resultative constructions, i.e., weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are not accepted in these constructions when the result predicate is a stage-level predicate + *le*. However, it can be found that these ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are possible to be grammatical in Chinese when the result predicate is an individual-level predicate or is modified by a degree word. A natural question to ask here is why so. In the paper, I will suggest a reason for it in terms of the function of DE and the aspect marker *le* in Chinese resultative constructions and the syntactic structures of V-DE-(NP)-A constructions.**

Index Terms—**Chinese resultative constructions, strong resultatives, weak resultatives**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Resultative Constructions in English and Chinese

In resultative constructions, besides the main verb (V), there is a secondary predicate called the result phrase (XP), including an adjective phrase (AP) or a preposition phrase (PP) or even a verb (V), that is, V-V compounds in Chinese. For example:

(1) a. The gardener *watered* the flowers *flat*.
   b. John *broke* the vase into *pieces*.
   c. Zhangsan   *sha-si*   le   Lisi.   (Chinese)
   Zhangsan   kill-dead   ASP   Lisi
   'Zhangsan killed Lisi dead.'

(1a) means that the flowers became flat because of gardener's watering it, and (1b) means that the vase went to pieces because John broke it. (1c) means that Lisi was dead because Zhangsan killed him. Depending on these sentences, it can be observed that they mainly describe a state which results from the action rather than simply describe the action typically expressed by the main verb.

Resultative constructions in Chinese were first proposed by Ding (1961). As he points out, it is composed of two parts – the verb and the complement, in which the latter supplements the former and indicates the result of the action demonstrated by the former part. In other words, the primary one denotes the event of an action and the secondary one denotes the event of a consequence or a state accompanied by the action. As Li (1998) noted, a resultative construction illustrates a superevent constituted by two subevents, the cause and the result, as demonstrated in (2), we refer to such a construction as '*dong bu* (verb-complement)' construction in Chinese.

(2)

Superevent

Cause   Result   (Li, 1998: 293)
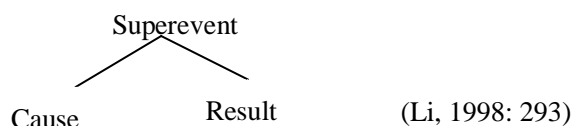
And sometimes the auxiliary DE exists between the main verb and the result phrase, as highlighted by Li (2003: 7). He claims that a resultative construction can be divided into types with or without "*de*" from the viewpoint of form, that is, resultative V-C(omplemet)-(NP) compounds and V-DE-(NP)-C constructions. Zhang (2019) use a tree diagram to make clear of the relations between two types of Chinese resultative constructions, as shown in (3).

(3)

Chinese resultative constructions

V-C-(NP) compounds   V-DE-(NP)-C constructions

V-V-(NP) compounds   V-A-(NP) compounds   V-DE-(NP)-V constructions   V-DE-(NP)-A constructions

Transitive   Intransitive   Transitive   Intransitive   Tranistive   Intransitive   Transitive   Intransitive
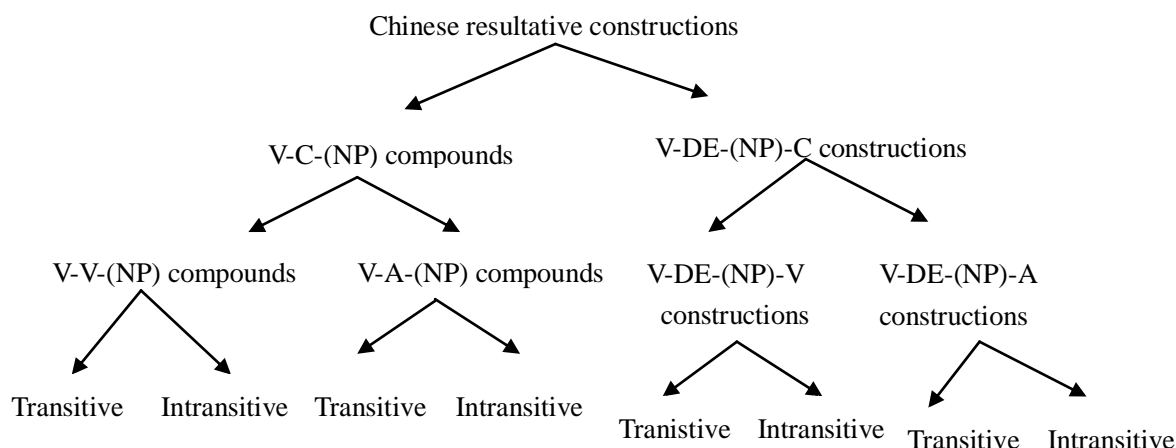
A resultative V-V-(NP) compound in Chinese is constructed by compounding two verbal morphemes, the first morpheme indicating a causing event, marked by V_1 and the second one indicating the resulting event, marked by V_2. Different from the resultative V-V-(NP) compound in Japanese, V_1 is the head of the compound in Chinese. The V-DE-(NP)-V construction is also constructed by two verbal morphemes, with V_1 denoting the cause and V_2 the result, but V_1 and V_2 are separated by DE. Different from the couple of the resultative V-V-(NP) compound and the V-DE-(NP)-V construction, the result predicate is an adjective in the resultaive V-A-(NP) compound and the V-DE-(NP)-A construction. Based on the diagram in (3), the specific divisions of Chinese resultative constructions and some specific examples are shown in (4).

(4) **the V-V-(NP) compound**
     a. NP$_1$ V$_1$-V$_2$ (intransitive)
       Mary   qi-si   le.
       Mary   anger-die   ASP
       'Mary angered herself dead.'
     b. NP1   V1-V2   NP2   (transitive)
       Wusong   da-si   le   laohu.
       Wusong   hit-die   ASP   tiger
       'Wusong hit the tiger dead.'
     the V-A-(NP) compound
     c. NP$_1$ V-A   (intransitive)
       Taotao   ku-lei   le.
       Taotao   cry-tired   ASP
       'Taotao cried himself tired.'
     d. NP$_1$ V-A   NP2   (transitive)
       John   kan-lan   le   nabenshu.
       John   see-broken   ASP   that book
       'John read that book so frequently that it was broken.'
     the V-DE-(NP)-V construction
     e. NP$_1$ V$_1$-DE-V$_2$ (intransitive)
       John   qi   de   yaoyaqiechi.
       John   anger   DE   gnash the teeth
       'John gnashed her teeth with rage.'
     f. NP1   V1-DE   NP2   V2   (transitive)
       John   qi   de   wo   yaoyaqiechi.
       John   anger   DE   me   gnash the teeth
       'John angered me gnashing my teeth.'
     the V-DE-(NP)-A construction
     g. NP1   V-DE-A   (intransitive)
       Zhangsan   kan   de   hen lei.
       Zhangsan   read   DE   very tired
       'Zhangsan read very tired.'
     h. NP1   V-DE-A   NP2   (intransitive)
       John   kan   de   na ben shu   po   le.
       John   read   DE   That CL book   broken   ASP
       'John read that book till that book became broken.'

The resultative V-V-(NP) compound is constructed by compounding two verbal morphemes, as in (4b), in which V$_1$ *da* 'hit' indicates a causing event and V$_2$ *si* 'dead' indicating the resulting event. The resultative V-A-(NP) compound is constructed by compounding two morphemes: a verbal one and an adjectival one, as in (4d), in which the verb *kan* 'see' indicates a causing event and the adjective *lan* 'broken' indicating the resulting event. The V-DE-(NP)-V construction is also constructed by two verbal morphemes, as in (4f), with V$_1$ *qi* 'anger' denoting the cause and V$_2$ *yaoyaqiechi* 'gnash the teeth' denoting the result. The V-DE-(NP)-A construction is constructed by a verbal morpheme *kan* 'see' and an adjectival one *po* 'broken', as in (4h). In (4f and h), V$_1$ and V$_2$/A are separated by DE and the postverbal object *wo* 'myself' and *nabenshu* 'that book', whereas without the postverbal object, V$_1$ and V$_2$ / A are only separated by DE, as in (4e and g).

B. Washio's (1997) Strong and Weak Resultatives

Washio (1997) claims that resultative constructions can be classified as strong and weak resultatives at least in terms of the meaning of the main predicate. Strong resultatives means that the meaning of the verb and the meaning of the adjective are completely independent of each other. In strong resultatives, it is impossible to predict what kind of state the patient comes to be from the semantics of the verb in as the result of the action named by the verb. For example:

    (5) a. Mary *watered* the flowers *flat*.
       b. John *danced* his feet *sore*.

In (5a), the verb *water* doesn't imply any state of the result phrase that might result from the action it names, i.e. *flat*. In (5b), the verb *dance* is unergative, so it cannot contain anything like the notion *sore* denoted by the adjective that is predicated of the 'fake object' in its lexical semantics. So examples in (5) are strong resultatives.

Washio (1997) points out that weak resultatives refers to those ones the meaning of the verb entails the meaning of the adjective, that is, in weak resultatives, if the states of the patients change, verbs will imply that they would change in certain fixed directions to reach the final states. For example: (cited from Washio (1997))

    (6) a. I *dyed* the dress *pink*.
       b. Mark *froze* the ice cream *solid*.
       c. John *painted* the wall *white*.

In (6a), although the verb *dye* doesn't specifically contain the notion *pink*, it clearly contains the notion 'color'. If so, the adjective *pink* cannot be completely independent of the verb *dye*. In (6b), the notion *solid* is closely related to the meaning of *freeze*. In (6c), the meaning of the verb *paint* entails the change of the *wall*'s color; the adjectival result phrase *white* denotes the result. It can thus be said that examples in (6) are weak resultatives. Therefore, it can be said that both strong and weak resultatives are allowed in English.

II. STRONG AND WEAK RESULTATIVES IN CHINESE RESULTATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS

There are two main types of Chinese resultative constructions focused in the paper, that is, resultative V-A-(NP) compounds and V-DE-(NP)-A constructions. In section 2, strong and weak resultatives are examined in Chinese two types of resultative constructions, respectively.

A. Strong and Weak Resultatives in Resultative V-A-(NP) Compounds

Let us consider examples in (7) and (8) at first.
    (7) Strong resultatives in V-A-(NP) compounds
      a. Mary   *ku-shi*   le   shoupa.
         Mary   cry-wet   ASP   handkerchief
         'Mary cried to a extend as a result the handkerchief got wet.'
      b. Lisi   *jiao-ta*   le   hua.
         Lisi   water-flat   ASP   flowers
         'Lisi watered the flowers flat.'
    (8) Weak resultatives in V-A-(NP) compounds
      a. Zhangsan   *tu-bai*-le   qiang.
         Zhangsan   paint-white-ASP   wall
         'Zhangsan painted the wall white.'
      b. Mary   *ran-hong*-le   qunzi.
         Mary   dye-red-ASP   the dress
         'Mary dyed the dress red.'

(7a, b) are strong resultatives, which shows that they are allowed in Chinese resultative V-A-(NP) compounds. (8a, b) are weak resultatives, which shows that they are allowed in resultative V-A-(NP) compounds. Based on examples in (7-8), it can be said that like English, both strong and weak resultatives are allowed in Chinese resultative V-A-(NP) compounds.

After many examples of Chinese resultative V-A-(NP) compounds are allowed, which shows that they are productive in Chinese, for example, some strong resultatives are grammatical in Chinese, but they are ungrammatical in English, as shown in (9).

(9) a.Zhangsan   *chi-huai*   le   duzi.
    Zhangsan   eat-bad   ASP   stomach
    'Zhangsan has eaten (something bad or too much, as a result he has an) upset stomach.
    *Zhangsan ate his stomach bad.
  b. He   *ti-po*   le   qiuxie.   (Cheng and Huang (1994))
    He   kick-break   ASP   sneaker
    'He kicked so much that the sneakers were broken.'
    *He *kicked* his sneakers *broken*.'

The examples in (9) cannot be acceptable in English while they are grammatical in Chinese. In (9b), as Cheng and Huang (1994) points out, *qiuxie* 'sneaker' is not the actual object of V *ti* 'kick'. What John kicked may be a football. In this case, V *ti* 'kick' thus functions like an intransitive verb. If so, it can be said that Chinese allows some wider range of strong resultatives, the reason of which still remains a mystery in the contemporary Chinese linguistic.

B. Only Strong Resultatives in V-DE-(NP)-A Constructions

After strong and weak resultatives are examined in Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, it can be found that only strong ones are allowed in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, without weak ones, as shown in (10).

    (10) a. Mary   *ku de*   shoupa   *shi*   le.
        Mary   cry DE   shoupa   wet   ASP
        'Mary cried to a extend as a result that the handkerchief got wet.'
      b. Zhangsan   *jiao*   *de*   hua   *ta*   le.
        Zhangsan   water   DE   the flower   flat   ASP
        'Zhangsan watered the flower flat.'
      c. *Wo   *tu*   *de*   qiang   *bai*   le.
        I   painted   DE   the wall   white   ASP
        'I painted the wall white.'
      d. *Lisi   *dong*   *de*   bingqilin   *ying*   le.
        Lisi   freeze   DE   the ice cream   solid   ASP
        'He froze the ice cream solid.'

In (10a, b), the adjective *shi* 'wet' and *bian* 'flat' are not implied by the verb *ku* 'cry' and *jiao* 'water', namely, they are strong resultatives. The examples in (10a, b) indicate that strong resultatives are acceptable in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions. In (10c, d), the adjectives *bai* 'white' and *ying* 'solid' can be implied by the verbs *tu* 'paint' and *dong* 'freeze', but the sentences are ungrammatical, which shows that weak ones are unacceptable in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions. By contrast, both strong and weak resultatives are acceptable in Chinese resultative V-A-(NP) compounds, so this sharp difference must be noted.

More examples of ungrammatical weak resultatives in Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are shown in (11).

    (11) a.*Mary   *ran*   de   qunzi   *hong*   le.
        Mary   dyed   DE   the dress   red   ASP
        'Mary dyed the dress red.'
      b. *John   *da*   de   wan   *shui*   le.
        John   broke   DE   the bowl   into piece   ASP
        'John broke the bowl into piece.'
      c. *Zhangsan   *ca*   de   panzi   *liangjingjing*   le.
        Zhangsan   polished   DE   the dish   shiny   ASP.
        'Zhangsan polished the dishes shiny.'
      d. *Mary   *zhu*   de   jidan   *ying*   le.
        Mary   boiled   DE   the egg   solid   ASP
        'Mary boiled the egg solid.'

The examples in (10c-d) and (11) show that weak resultatives are unacceptable in Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, but interestingly, these ungrammatical weak resultatives can be allowed in Chinese when the result predicate is an individual-level predicate (hereafter ILP) or the result predicate (a stage-level predicate (hereafter SLP)) is modified by a degree word. Why so? In section 3, I will suggest a reason for this question.

III. THE POSSIBILITY OF GRAMMATICAL WEAK V-DE-(NP)-A CONSTRUCTIONS IN CHINESE

After inquiring many Chinese native speakers, I pay attention to an interesting phenomenon that when the result predicate is a combination of a SLP + the aspect marker *le*, weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are ungrammatical, whereas when the result predicate is an ILP or it is modified by a degree word, ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions become grammatical, as shown in (12).

    (12) a. *John   *tu*   de   qiang   *bai*   le.
        John   paint   DE   wall   white   ASP
        'John painted the wall white.'

    b. John   *tu*   de   qiang   *xue-bai*.
      John   paint   DE   wall   snow-white
      'John painted the wall snow-white.'
    c. John   *tu*   de   qiang   <u>tebie</u>   *bai*.
      John   paint   DE   wall   especially   white
      'John painted the wall especially white.'

In (12a), when the result predicate is the combination of SLP + le, weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions in Chinese are ungrammatical, whereas when the result predicate is an ILP or is modified by a degree word, these ungrammatical weak ones become grammatical in Chinese. Why so? Considering the ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A construction deeply, it can be realized that this question may be related to the function of the time-phased auxiliary *le* in Chinese, because in the case of the result predicate as a ILP or is modified by a degree word, *le* disappears, that is, *le* cannot be combined with an ILP or the combination of the degree word + SLP, as shown in (13).

    (13) a. *John   *tu*   de   qiang   *snow-bai*   le.
          John   paint   DE   wall   snow-white   ASP
          'John painted the wall snow-white.'
      b. *John   *tu*   de   qiang   <u>tebie</u>   *bai*-le.
          John   paint   DE   wall   especially   white-ASP
          'John painted the wall especially white.'

In (13a), the ILP *xue-bai* 'snow-white' is an ILP, corresponding to dynamic adjectives, proposed by Zhang (1995). Based on the definition of the dynamic adjective, it cannot be followed by the time-phased auxiliary *le*, which leads to (13a) ungrammatical. In (13b), when the degree word *hen* 'very' modifies the combination of SLP + le '*bai-le*', it can only modify the SLP *bai* 'white' but not *le*. Thus, when the degree word appears, the time-phased auxiliary *le* must be deleted. If not so, the sentence will be ungrammatical, as shown in (13b).

    Before discussing the question why ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions become grammatical when the result predicate is an ILP or is modified by a degree word, it is necessary to clarify the definitions of SLP and ILP in English and dynamic adjectives and static adjectives at first.

A. Stage-level and Individual-level Predicates in English

    Carlson (1977) argues that predicates can be classified into two natural classes: stage-level predicates (SLPs) and individual-level predicates (ILPs) in English. At first, let us consider two pairs of examples from Carlson (1977), as shown in (14) and (15).

    (14) a. He saw the president naked.
        b. *He saw the president intelligent.
    (15) a.Mark saw Mary talk to Bill.
        b. *Mark saw Mary know Bill.

Carlson (1977) proposes that the predicates like *intelligent* in (14b) or *to know Bill* in (15b) are unacceptable in these constructions, because these predicates are 'individual-level predicates' that usually express permanent and essential properties. The predicates that are acceptable, like *naked* in (14a), *talk to Bill* in (15a), which are called 'stage-level predicates', tending to denote transitory and accidental properties.

B. Kratzer's (1995) Distinguishment of SLPs with ILPs by Event Argument

    The event argument, as introduced by Dividson (1967), has not only been used for the analysis of action sentences, but also for a variety of purposes in the recent literature. According to his analysis, a sentence like (16) below states the existence of a past event which is a purchase of those books by Mary, and which takes place in the book store.

    (16) Mary purchased those books in the book store.

    In (16), the verb *purchase* is a three-place predicate. In addition to an event argument, it has an argument denoting the agent *Mary* and the other one denoting the theme, the object of the purchase. Namely, the subject and the direct object correspond to arguments of the main predicate, while the locative argument *the book store* is introduced by a secondary predicate, the preposition *in*. Davidson suggests that verbs describe events or states with the logician's way of thinking about verb denotations is by adopting the logician's view and add an extra argument, the event argument. As a result, verb meanings determine a verb's arguments while they also characterize a set of events or states.

    Based on Dividson's (1967) event argument analysis, Kratzer (1995) argues that the difference between SLPs and ILPs can be captured in terms of presence and absence of the event argument. She illustrates this claim with the help of the following examples, for instance, SLPs like *hit* contain an event argument ("location" in her terms) as in (17a), and ILPs like *know* lack it as in (17b).

    (17) a. hit < location, agent, theme >
        b. know < experience, theme >

Specifically, she believes that SLPs are distinct with ILPs in that they contain an explicit reference to a place and a time. For example:

    (18) a. John was tired / nervous in the car.   (David 2007)
        b. *John was intelligent / a linguist in the car.

(19) a. John was drunk yesterday/last month/a year ago.   (Carlson 1977)

b. *John was tall yesterday/last month/a year ago.

In (18a), stage-level predicates, like *tired*, *nervous* can be combined with the locative modifier *in the car*, while individual-level predicates, like *intelligent*, *a linguist* don't seem to accept a location in (18b). In (19a), *drunk* is a stage-level predicate, which can be combined with the temporal adverbials, like *yesterday, last month and a year ago*, while *tall* is an individual-level predicate and cannot be combined with these adverbials as in (19b).

C. SLPs and ILPs in Chinese Adjectives

According to Zhu (1982), in addition to a few unaccusative verbs that represent changes of state, the result predicates are basically adjectives in Chinese resultative constructions. Thus, the study of Chinese adjectives becomes very important in Chinese contemporary linguistics.

Zhang (1995) refines the result predicates in Chinese resultative constructions and proposes that adjectives in Chinese can be divided into 'dynamic adjectives' and 'static adjectives' and he also analyzes the semantic structure of adjectives in details. Here, based on Carlson (1977) and Kratzer (1995), I assert that dynamic adjectives in Chinese resultatives are parallel to SLPs, which have temporary or accidental properties, while static adjectives are parallel to ILPs in Chinese resultatives, which have permanent or inherent properties.

According to Zhang (1995), most of dynamic adjectives (SLPs) in Chinese adjectives are monosyllable and their time structures are heterogeneous, which means that SLPs have intrinsic natural start and end points. Thus, SLPs can appear together with some time-phased auxiliaries "*le*" or "*zhuo*" in syntax of Chinese. For example:

(20) Dynamic adjectives (SLPs): *bai* (white), *hei* (black), *hong* (red), *chang* (long), *duan* (short), *da*(large), *xiao* (small), *gao* (high), *di* (low), *chen* (heavy), *chou* (stinky), *cu* (thick), *fei* (fat), *gan* (dry), *kong* (empty), *lan* (bad), *shui* (broken), *shi* (wet), *yuan* (round), *teng* (sore), *ying* (hard), etc.

By contrast, most of static adjectives (ILPs) in Chinese are double syllables and their time structures are homogeneous, which lack intrinsic time start and end points. And ILPs cannot appear together with some time-phased auxiliaries "*le*" or "*zhuo*" in syntax of Chinese. For example:

(21) Static adjectives (ILPs): *duanzan* (short), *manchang* (long), *haofang* (unrestrained), *benzhong* (unwieldy), *anggui* (expensive), *feida* (hypertrophy), *huanle* (joy), *jianxin* (hardships), *meimiao* (wonderful), *minggui* (luxurious), *ningjing* (quiet), *qinrao* (hardworking), *qingwei* (slight), *xiangjin* (detailed), *youxiu* (excellent), *zhengdang* (legitimate), *zhuangli* (magnificent), *xuebai* (snow-white), etc.

Depending on the definitions of dynamic and static adjectives, Zhang (1995) gives the following examples to distinguish SLPs with ILPs in Chinese adjectives, as shown in (22).

(22) a. Zhangsan   tu-*bai*   le   qiang.   (SLP)

Zhangsan   paint-white   ASP   the wall

'Zhangsan painted the wall white.'

b. *Zhangsan   tu   *xue-bai*   le   qiang.   (ILPs)

Zhangsan   paint   snow-white   ASP   the wall

'Zhangsan painted the wall snow-white.'

The result predicate *bai* 'white' in (22a) is a SLP, which represents the change of temporary state of the thing, and it can appear together with the time-phased auxiliary *le*. In (22b), however, *xuebai* 'snow-white' is an ILP in Chinese, which indicates the constant and static state of the thing, and it cannot appear together with the time-phased auxiliary *le*, so (22b) is ungrammatical.

Moreover, depending on Kratzer's (1995) event argument analysis, only SLPs have the event argument in their argument structure and ILPs lack it in Chinese resultatives, as shown in (23).

(23) a. Yi xiao shi nei, qiang   bei   *tu-bai*   le.

In an hour,   wall   was   paint-white   ASP

'The wall was painted white in an hour.'

b. * Yi xiao shi nei, qiang   bei   *tu*   *xuebai*.

In an hour,   wall   was   paint   snow-white

'The wall was painted snow-white in an houe.'

In (23a), *bai* 'white' is a dynamic adjective, i.e. a SLP, which can contain an event argument *yi xiao shi nei* 'in an hour', while in (23b), *xue-bai* 'snow-white' is a static adjective, i.e. an ILP, in which an event argument, like *xiao shi nei* 'in an hour' is not allowed. Thus, (23b) is unacceptable. Until now, the definitions and distinguishes of SLP and ILP in English and Chinese are introduced, and the focused question will be accounted for in the following subsections which is related to the functions of DE and the aspect marker *Le* in Chinese resultative constructions.

D. The Function of the Aspect Marker Le in Chinese

Chinese has a rich aspectual system. Aspect markers refer to the elements contributing to the outer viewpoint of a verbal event, such as *le* (了)*, guo* (過)*, zhe* (着) in Chinese. These three aspect markers show the different telicity information on the verb. As a perfective aspect marker, *le* expresses the completion of an action, and *guo* indicates more on the past experience of an action or state. Z*he* is taken as a durative aspect marker which indicates an imperfective event, as shown in (24).

(24) a. Ta   chi-wan-*le*   fan.
        She   eat-finish-ASP   meal
        'She finished her meal.'
     b. Ta   chi-*guo*   wufan   le.
        She   eat-GUO   lunch   ASP
        'She has had lunch.'
     c. Ta   chi-*zhuo*   wufan.
        She   eat-ZHUO   lunch
        'She is having lunch.'

In (24a), the compound *chi-wan* 'eat-finish' already denotes the result, which means that she finished her meal because of her eating action. *Le* imposes an endpoint to the event, emphasizing the completion of the event. In (24b), *guo*, as a perfective verbal suffix, indicates the whole action as a past experience with absolute completion. (24b) thus means that she experienced the action of eating her lunch and as a result this action has been completely finished. In (24c), *zhe*, as a verbal suffix, denotes the continuous state of an imperfective event, and (24c) means that she is eating her lunch and this action is not over. Here I only simply introduce the function of aspect marker *guo* and *zhuo*. In the thesis, I focus exclusively on the aspect marker *le*.

The perfective marker *le* can highlight a change of state, denoting the boundaries of an event either at the starting point or at the endpoint. If the event itself is telic, *le* denotes the endpoint of the event, as in (24a). When *le* follows a SLP, it denotes the starting point of change of a temporary state expressed by the SLP, as in (25). In a word, *le* co-occurs with verbs or adjectives that involve a change of state, where the event has reached an end in the case of co-occurring with verbs, while the event is being initiated in the case of co-occurring with adjectives.

(25) Qiang   *bai*   le.
        Wall   white   ASP
   'The wall became white.'

In (25), *bai* 'white' is a SLP which denotes the temporary state. When the SLP *bai* 'white' is followed by *le*, the meaning of the sentence is changed and *le* here denotes the starting point of change.

We can say that *le* denotes the result semantically and it indicates a change of state -- either it can end a previous state or can initiate another state. When *le* follows the SLP, *bai* 'white' denoting the temporary state will begin to change. Without the appearance of *le*, the sentence *qiang bai* 'the wall white' just describes the temporary state of the wall and no change happens.

E. The Function of DE in Chinese Resultative Constructions

As to the function of DE in Chinese resultative V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, based on Folli's (2001) three-layer analysis, Lin (2003) proposes that DE can be indicated as one of layers, a Process. Folli (2001) proposes that in addition to the causing and resultative events, there is an intermediate event denoting a process in English resultative constructions. It thus can be said that a resultative construction has three semantic layers, that is, the cause, the process and the result, and Folli (2001) shows his claim in syntactic structure, as shown in (26).

(26)
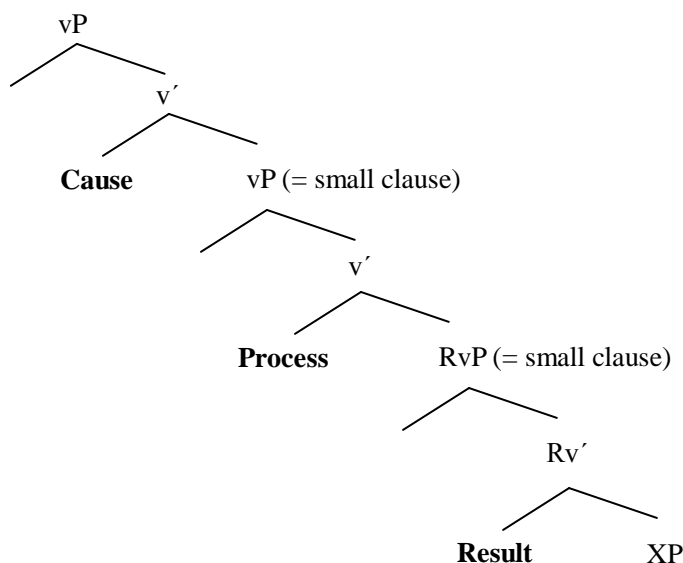
Folli provides a piece of evidence to show that the process should be separated from the cause and the result, as in (27).

(27) John rolled the ball to the wall very fast.

      a. John very *quickly* rolled the ball so that it reaches the wall.   (cause)
      b. John pushed the ball so that it rolls to the wall very *fast*.   (process)
      c. John pushed the ball to the wall as a result it rolls very *fast*.   (result)

The sentence (27) can be interpreted from three aspects, i.e., cause, process and result. Folli argues the adverbial word (*fast, quickly*) can modify different parts of a complex event. When it modifies the cause, (27a) means that John's action of causing the ball to roll was very fast. When it modifies the rolling process, (27b) means that the action of the ball rolling was very fast before reaching the wall. When it modifies the result, (27c) means that John's action of rolling the ball to the wall made the ball roll very fast. Folli (2001) points out that the cause, the process, and the result of the action can be modified respectively, so it can be said that these three subevents should be separated in the syntactic structure, as in (26).

Lin (2003) proposes that DE can be indicated as a process head in Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions based on Folli's three-layer analysis. Take an example from Lin (2003) in (28).

    (28) He   *qi*   de   toupi   *fa   ma.*
        He   angry   DE   scalp   get   numb
        'He was angry to the point that my scalp got numb.'

The sentence (28) means that *I was angry to the extent that my scalp became numb*. Thus, here DE can indicate a process in which anger leads to the physical (scalp-becoming-numb) reaction.

Lin's analysis of DE as a process head is reasonable, I think, because Hein & Kuteva (2002) propose that the English verb *get* or *obtain* often grammaticalizes to mean the process of change cross linguistically. And DE in Chinese actually means 'get' or 'obtain', as in (29).

    (29) wo   shuxue   de   le   100   fen.
        I   mathematics   got   ASP   100   marks
        'I got 100 marks in the mathematics examination.'

The sentence (29) further indicates that DE can be indicated as a Process in Chinese resultative constructions based on Folli's three-layer system.

F. The Similarities between the Functions of DE and Le in Chinese Resultatives

Folli and Lin's proposal has been adopted that DE can serve as the process head in the syntactic structure of the V-DE-(NP)-A construction in Chinese, that is, DE can be indicated as a process in Chinese resultative constructions. Repeated Folli's three-layer syntactic structure in resultative constructions here as in (30).

    (30)
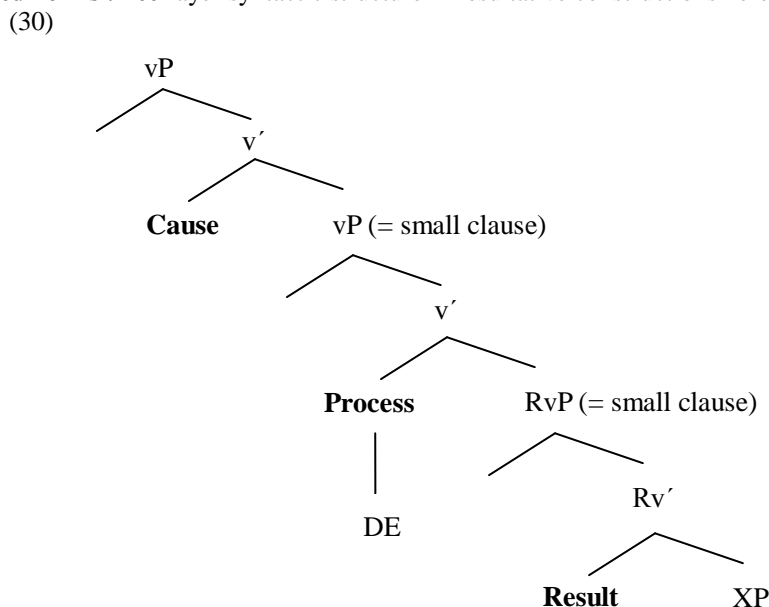
According to Folli (2001), the process and the resultative event can be seen as small clauses embedded within the causative event, as in (30). Here Lin (2003) focuses on the resultative function of DE, considering it as the process head in Chinese resultative constructions. The fact that the process head is filled by DE in Chinese resultative constructions keeps the resultative head (V_2) from moving upwards as in the resultative V-V-(NP) compound. Thus, DE can be seen as the intermediate between the cause and the result, as shown in (30).

Folli (2001) proposes that as a process, it can be considered as the result of V_{cause} (V_1), and further leading to V_{result} (V_2). Namely, I interpret her view as DE can denote the endpoint of the change on the main verb expressing Cause and it can also denote the starting point of the change of Result. For example:

    (31) Mary   *ku*   de   shoupa   *shi*-le.
        Mary   cry   DE   the handkerchief   wet-ASP

'Mary cried as a result that the handkerchief got wet.'

In (31), DE indicates a process between her crying and the result that the handkerchief got wet. Here DE has no lexical meaning but can be indicated as a functional word, which means the completion of the action denoted by V₁ *ku* 'cry' and the beginning of the action denoted by V₂ *shi* 'wet'.

The function of the aspect marker *Le* has been accounted for in section 3.4, that is, *le* can also indicate a change of state -- either denotes the endpoint of change on the main verb V₁ or the start point of change on the result predicate V₂. Associating the function of DE with the aspect marker *le* here, it can be found that their functions are similar, because both DE and *Le* can indicate a change of state and DE denotes the endpoint of change on the main verb expressing Cause and the start point of change on Result while *Le* denotes either the endpoint of change on the main verb expressing Cause or the start point of change on Result. I thus assume that like DE in Chinese resultative constructions, the aspect marker *le* can also be indicated as a process. If so, the syntactic structure of the following sentence can be illustrated in (32), in which the null verb denoting a process can be replaced by the aspect marker *le*.

(32) Ta   *ku-shi*-le   shoupa.
     She   cry-wet-ASP   handkerchief
   'She cried as a result that the handkerchief got wet.'
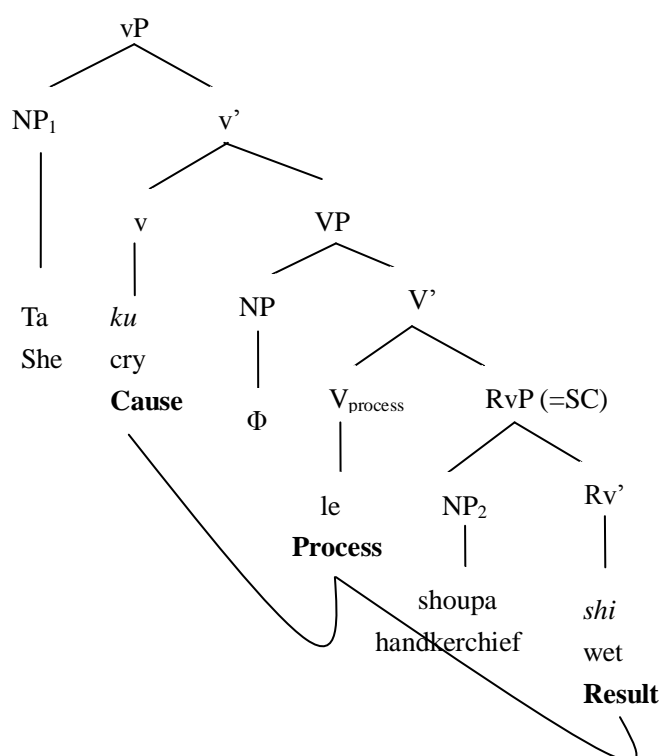
The structure (32) shows that the aspect marker *le* is indicated as a process. A bit different from DE in the V-DE-(NP)-V constructions, in (32), when *le* is the head of the SC *shoupa shi* 'the handkerchief wet', the SC is not a complete sentence, without tense, which leads V₂ *shi* 'wet' to be moved out to the place of le and then is moved to the place of the main verb together to compose the compound *ku-shi-le* 'cry-wet-ASP'.

Therefore, if both DE and the aspect marker *le* can be indicated as a process in Chinese resultative constructions, the ungrammaticality of weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions can also be explained here. For example:

(33) *Ta   tu   de   qiang   bai-le.
      He   paint   DE   wall   white-ASP
      'He painted the wall white.'
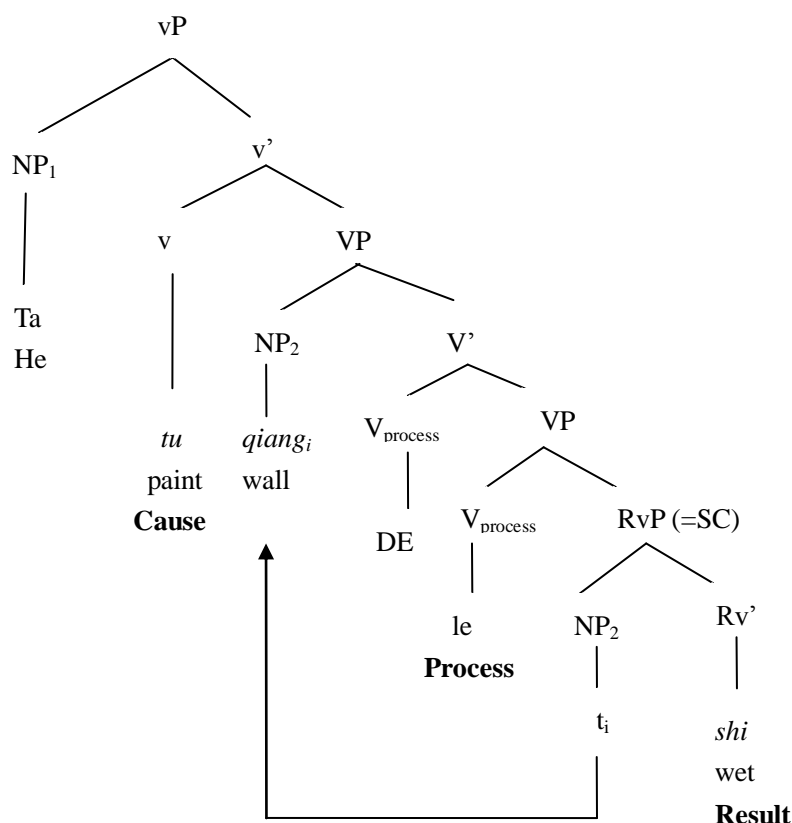
According to the assumption that the aspect marker *le* in Chinese resultatives is indicated as a process, in the structure of (33), it can be observed that there are two elements denoting a process, that is, DE and *le*. According to Folli (2001), as a Process, both DE and *le* can indicate change of state. Both DE and le are heads of the following SC, that is, SC has two heads in (33). In addition, the main verb *tu* 'paint' entails the meaning of the result predicate *bai* 'white'. Therefore, the sentence (33) seriously violates the formation of a sentence in Chinese and so it must be ungrammatical.

G. The Differences between DE and Le in Chinese Resultative Constructions

It is illustrated that weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are ungrammatical in Chinese when the result predicate is the combination of a SLP + le, as in (34), but a fact is neglected that strong V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are grammatical in Chinese even if the result predicate is the SLP + le, as shown in (34).

(34) a. * John *ran* de qunzi *hong*-le. (weak)
          John dye DE dress red-ASP
          'John dyed the dress red.'
    b. Ta *ku* de shoupa *shi*-le. (strong)
          She cry DE handkerchief wet-ASP
          'She cried to an extent as a result the handkerchief got wet.'

Both DE and Le can be indicated as a Process, based on Folli and Lin in the paper, which denoting the change of state, i.e., semantically speaking, DE and Le can lexicalize the semantic element [BECOME]. In addition, in weak resultatives, it can be assumed that a covert verb, like DE or Le in V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, denotes a process, expressing a change of state, because of the definition of weak resultatives that the meaning of the main verb entails the meaning of the result predicate. In a short, in weak resultatives, a null verb can lexicalize the semantic element [BECOME]. If so, there seems to three semantic elements [BECOME] appearing in (34a). The sentence (34a) thus cannot be accepted. (34b), however, should be ungrammatical, because there are also two semantic elements [BECOME] appearing, i.e. DE=[BECOME] and Le=[BECOME], but in fact (34b) is acceptable. A question arises here as to how to explain the ungrammaticality of (34a) and the grammaticality of (34b). It can be realized that there is only one possibility that DE-le represents only one semantic element [BECOME]. In order to support this view, it is necessary here to distinguish DE with *le* and then discuss the possibility to combine them together to denote the semantic element [BECOME].

DE can serve as the process head in the syntactic structure of the V-DE-(NP)-A construction, proposed by Folli (2001) and Lin (2003), but I find that a fact that DE and Le co-occur in a sentence with restricted word orders, that is, DE always has to precede Le in the sentence. For example, the syntactic structure of the sentence (35) is the following tree

diagram.

    (35) Ta   *kan*   de   na-ben shu   *lan*-le.
         He   read   DE   that book   broken-ASP
         'He read that book as a result that it was broken.'
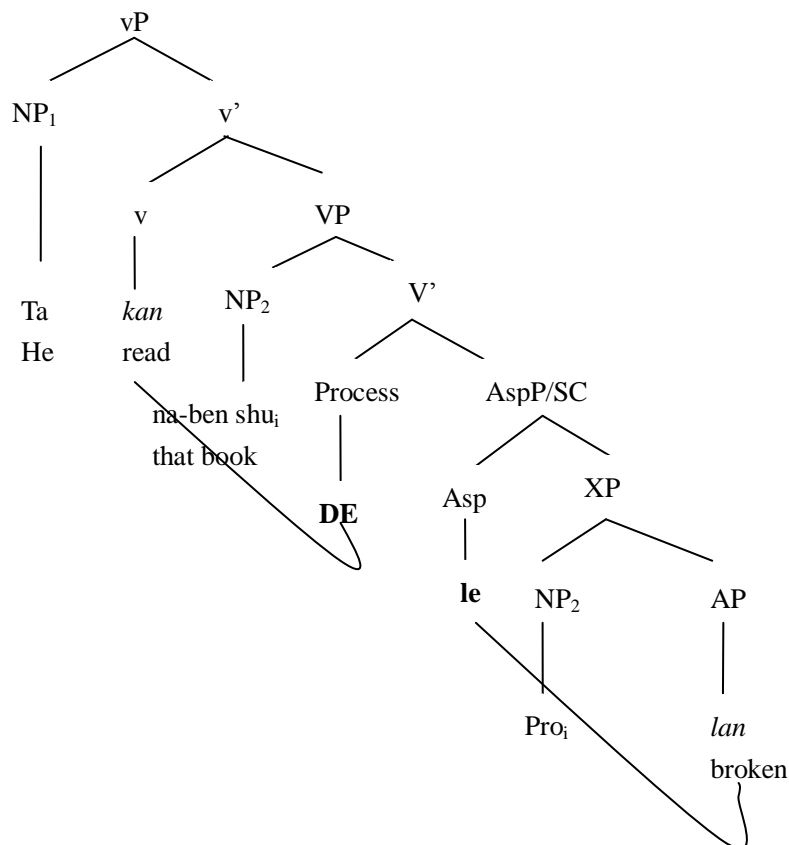
In (35), it can be found that DE, as a process head, occurs at a higher position than Le in Chinese V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, which shows a fact that Le cannot denote a process when DE appears in the sentence. On the other hand, in the SC, the result predicate SLP can be moved to the place of Le to compose the compound SLP+le, but this compound cannot be continuously moved to the place of the main verb, because of the block of DE. Thus, only DE can be moved to the place of the main verb.

It is certain that the sentence is ungrammatical when Le precedes DE, as in (36).

    (36) a. *Ta   *kan*   le   de   na-ben shu   *lan*.
           He   read   ASP   DE   that book   broken
        b. *Ta   *kan*   le   na-ben shu   *lan*   de.
           He   read   ASP   that book   broken   DE
           'He read that book as a result that it was broken.'

The example (36) testifies to the assumption that Le cannot be indicated as a process in Chinese resultative construction.

To sum up, DE can be denoted as a semantic element [BECOME] in the V-DE-(NP)-A construction in semantics. In addition, I also argue that the aspect marker Le can also lexicalize the semantic element [BECOME] in semantics. Although both DE and Le can lexicalize the semantic element [BECOME], indicating the change of state, it can be realized that DE indicates the action denoted by the main verb has arrived at a state but this action is not completed, whereas Le can indicate the endpoint of the action but not be denoted as a process. For example:

    (37) a. * Ta   *ku*   de   shoupa   *shi*.
           He   cry   DE   handkerchief   wet
        b. Ta   *ku*   de   shoupa   *shi*-le.
           He   cry   DE   handkerchief   wet-ASP
           'He cried as a result that the handkerchief got wet.'

In (37), the lack of *Le* leads to the sentence ungrammatical even if DE appears in the sentence, which shows that only when both DE and Le appear in the sentence, the sentence is grammatical. Thus, it can be assumed that DE cannot be separated from *Le* when we want to express the change of the state and the endpoint of the action in a Chinese resultative construction at the same time, that is, only DE or *Le* cannot completely indicate the action denoted by the

main verb has arrived at a state and this action has been completed. If so, the ungrammaticality of weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions can be explained now. Although weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are ungrammatical in Chinese, when the result predicate is an ILP or is modified by a degree word ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions can be acceptable. Why so? Section 4 will focus on this question.

IV. THE POSSIBILITY OF GRAMMATICAL WEAK V-DE-(NP)-A CONSTRUCTIONS IN CHINESE

In section 3, under the assumptions that both DE and Le in Chinese resultative constructions can be indicated as a process, the question is accounted for why weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are ungrammatical. In fact, when the result predicate is an ILP or is modified as a degree word in weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, it can be found that ungrammatical weak ones can be acceptable in Chinese. Consider a pair of sentences in (38) at first.

(38) a. * Ta *tu* de qiang *bai*-le.
  He paint DE wall white-ASP
  'He painted the wall white.'
 b. Ta *tu* de qiang *xue-bai.*
  He paint DE wall snow-white
  'He painted the wall snow-white.'
 c. Ta *tu* de qiang <u>tebie</u> *bai*.
  He paint DE wall especially white
  'He painted the wall especially white.'

(38a) is ungrammatical when the result predicate is the combination of a SLP+Le, i.e., *bai-le* 'white-ASP', whereas the sentence becomes grammatical when the result predicate is an ILP *xue-bai* 'snow-white' in (38b). And when the result predicate is the combination of a degree word + SLP, i.e., *tebie white* 'especially white', the sentence (38c) also becomes acceptable in Chinese. At first, I will account for the question why ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are acceptable when the result predicate is an ILP in section 4.3.

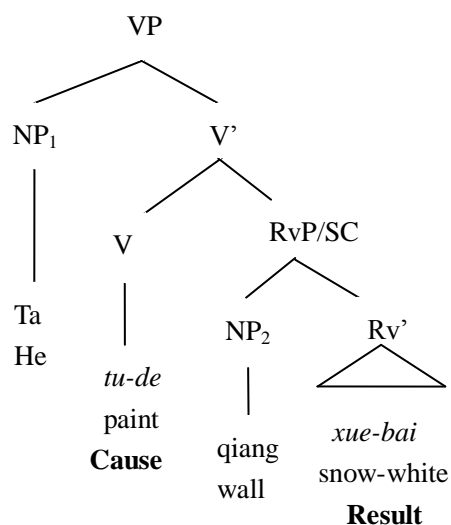*A. The Possibility of Grammatical Weak V-DE-(NP)-A: On the Occasion of ILP*

Consider a pair of sentences in (39) at first:

(39) a. * Ta *tu* de qiang *bai*-le.
  He paint DE wall white-ASP
  'He painted the wall white.'
 b. Ta *tu* de qiang *xue-bai*
  He paint DE wall snow-white
  'He painted the wall snow-white.'

In (39a), in weak resultatives, I repeat, the meaning of the main verb entails the meaning of the result predicate. Thus, it is assumed that there is an originally covert semantic element [BECOME] in weak resultatives. If DE-le appears in weak resultatives, the sentence will be ungrammatical, as in (39a), because DE-le can indicate a complete semantic element [BECOME] in Chinese resultative constructions. In (39b), the result predicate is an ILP *xue-bai* 'snow-white' not a SLP+le and the sentence is grammatical. I argue that the ILP indicates the state and DE-ILP, i.e. DE-State cannot be denoted as a semantic element [BECOME], while the covert semantic element [BECOME] is implied in weak resultatives, the sentence (39b) thus is grammatical.
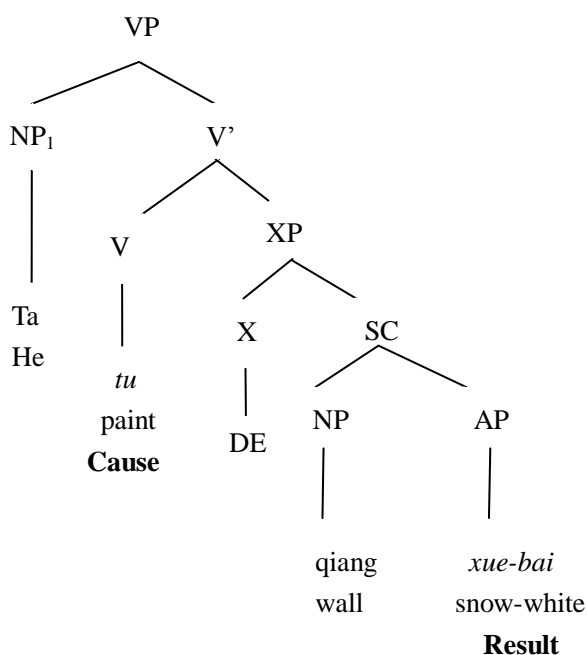
The syntactic structure of the ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A construction has been discussed, like (39a) in section 3, that is, the syntactic structures of weak resultative V-A-(NP) compounds can be illustrated in terms of two-layer system (Cause and Result).When DE, as a process, appears, it can obstruct the connection of the meanings of the main verb and the result predicate. Thus, weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are ungrammatical in Chinese. As to the syntactic structure of (39b), I will give my own analysis here. (39b) is still a weak resultative, in which the meaning of the main verb *tu* 'paint' implies the meaning of the result predicate *xue-bai* 'snow-white'. The syntactic structure of (39b) thus can be analyzed based on my two-layer-system proposal. However, DE is allowed in such sentences. A question arises as to how to deal with DE in (39b). I suggest a reason for this question. It is assumed that when the result predicate is an ILP in weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, two properties of DE are restricted, that is, as a process and as a semantic element [BECOME], indicating change of state. And I assume that DE here appears to be a verbal suffix, which means that DE can be combined with the main verb to compose a compound V-de. If so, depending on the two-layer system, the syntactic structure of (39b) can be illustrated in (40).

(40) Ta *tu*-de qiang *xue-bai*.
  He paint-DE wall snow-white

```
                              VP
                            /    \
                         NP₁      V'
                          |      /  \
                         Ta     V    RvP/SC
                         He     |    /    \
                               tu-de NP₂   Rv'
                               paint  |    /\
                               Cause qiang xue-bai
                                     wall  snow-white
                                           Result
```

The syntactic structure of (40) shows that DE, as a verbal suffix, following the main verb, is more reasonable than as a head of the SC, followed by the result predicate when it is analyzed from the perspective of the two-layer system. If DE is indicated as the head of the SC, the syntactic structure of (40) will be illustrated as in (41).

    (41) Ta   *tu*   de   qiang   *xue-bai*.
        He   paint DE   wall   snow-white

```
                       VP
                     /    \
                  NP₁      V'
                   |      /  \
                  Ta     V    XP
                  He     |   /  \
                        tu  X    SC
                      paint |   /  \
                      Cause DE NP   AP
                               |    |
                             qiang xue-bai
                             wall  snow-white
                                   Result
```

In (41), if DE, as the head of the SC, is followed by the SC, the two-layer system (Cause and Result) will be against, because DE adds a new subevent X in the syntactic structure. Compared with (40), (41) is untenable. Thus, the reasonable syntactic structure of the weak V-DE-(NP)-A construction is shown in (40), in which the result predicate is an ILP.

B. The Possibility of Grammatical Weak V-DE-(NP)-A: On the Occasion of Degree Words

    There is another possibility to make ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions acceptable, that is, when the result predicate is modified by a degree (Deg) word. For example:

    (42) a.* Ta   *tu*   de   qiang   *bai*-le.
           He   paint DE   wall   white-ASP
           'He painted the wall white.'
        b. Ta   *tu*   de   qiang   <u>hen</u>   *bai*.
           He   paint DE   wall   very   white
           'He painted the wall very white.'

In (42b), it can be found that when the result predicate SLP + le is modified by the degree word *hen* 'very', the aspect marker *le* disappears. Why so? I claim that *le* is the head of the combination of SLP + le, which can be indicated as the semantic element [BECOME]. When the degree word modifies the compound SLP + le, only the SLP is modified by the degree word but not *le*, namely, *hen [bai-le]* is equal to very [become white] in English and it is vivid that the degree word *very* cannot modify the verb *become* in English. This situation is the same in Chinese. Thus, the aspect marker, denoting the change of state, must be deleted when the degree word appears, as in (42b).

Consideration of the example (42b) again, a question arises as to why the sentence (42b) is grammatical. It is realized that this question must be related to the property of the combination of Deg + SLP. I argue here that when the SLP is combined with the degree word, the property of the SLP is lost, like denoting transitory and accidental properties. The combination of Deg-SLP can function as an ILP, denoting permanent and essential properties. For example:

(43) a. Shui   *liang-le*,   keyi   he   le.
         Water   cold-ASP,   can   drink   le
         'The water has been cold and can drink.'
     b. Shui   *hen*   *liang*,   buneng   he.
         Water   very   cold,   cannot   drink
         'The water is very cold and cannot drink.'

In (43), the SLP *liang* 'cold' is ambiguous. When it combines with the time-phased auxiliary *le*, a compound *liang-le* 'cold+ASP' can be formed, which means BECOME COLD in Chinese, as in (43a). The sentence *shui liang le* 'the water has been cold' describes the temperature change of water and expresses the complete event structure. In (43b), when only the SLP *liang* 'cold' is modified by the degree word *hen* 'very', *hen liang* 'very cold' can be interpreted as an ILP, which means that the semantic element [BECOME] cannot be allowed. The sentence *shui hen liang* 'the water is very cold' describes the temperature property of the water and expresses the static event structure. Thus, it can be said that the appearance of the degree word *hen* 'very' can suppress the semantic element [BECOME] and conversely highlight the semantic element [BE], as an ILP, as in (43b). More one simple example is given in (44) in Chinese.

(44) a. Ta   *mei*   *le*.
         She   beautiful   ASP
         'She becomes beautiful.'
     b. Ta   hen   *mei*.
         She   very   beautiful
         'She is very beautiful.'

In (44a), the combination *mei+le* 'beautiful+ASP' in Chinese means BECOME BEAUTIFUL in English. When the degree word *hen* 'very' modifies the compound *mei+le* 'beautiful+ASP', it only modifies the SLP *mei* 'beautiful', as in (44b), the combination of *hen mei* 'very beautiful' can function as an ILP to express permanent or inherent properties. If so, I propose that the syntactic structure of the weak V-DE-(NP)-Deg + SLP construction is the same as one of the weak V-DE-(NP)-ILP construction, as shown in (45).

(45) a. Ta   *tu*-de   qiang   hen   *bai*.
         He   paint-DE   wall   very   white
         'He painted the wall very white.'
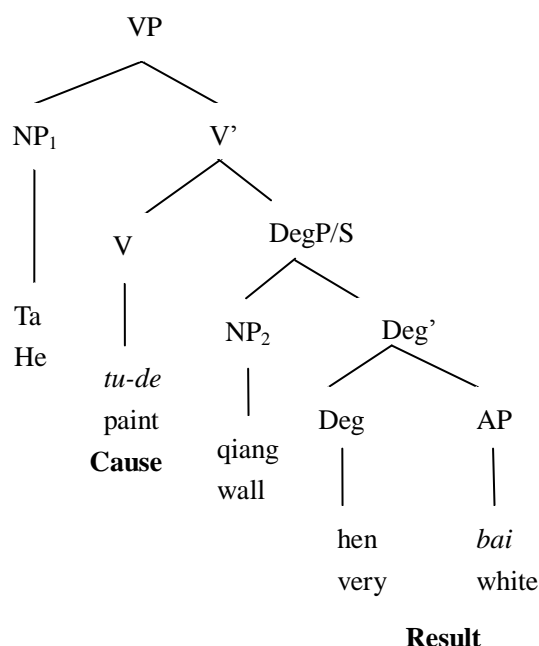
In (45), because the combination of Deg-SLP can function as an ILP, the syntactic structure of the V-DE-(NP)-Deg + SLP can be illustrated in terms of the two-layer system, in which Cause is denoted by the combination of the main verb + DE and Result is expressed by the combination of Deg + SLP.

To sum up, as to ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions, an interesting linguistic phenomenon shows that these ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions can be acceptable in Chinese when the result predicate is an ILP or is modified by the degree word. Why so? I suggest a reason for this question in this section, that is, DE-SLP + le = [BECOME], ILP= [STATE] and Deg-SLP= [STATE] and then DE-ILP≠ [BECOME], DE-Deg-SLP≠ [BECOME]. Based on these formulas, it can be said that ungrammatical weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are possible to be acceptable in Chinese.

V. CONCLUSION

The paper focuses on discussing the possible weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions in Chinese resultative constructions, when the result predicate is an ILP or is modified by a degree word. In general, when the result predicate is the combination of a SLP + le, weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions are ungrammatical, because both DE and Le can function as a Process, denoting a change of state, which can be indicated as a semantic element [BECOME] in Chinese resultative constructions. In addition, the meaning of the main verb entails the meaning of the result predicate in weak resultatives, so there is a covert semantic element [BECOME] in these constructions. However, when the result predicate becomes an ILP or a degree word + SLP, weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions become grammatical, which is related to the property of ILP and Deg+SLP, opposing to the property of SLP+le. Because DE-ILP and DE-Deg+SLP cannot lexicalize the semantic element [BECOME] and a covert semantic element [BECOME] is allowed in a weak resultative because of the entailment of the meanings of the main verb and the result predicate. Therefore, weak V-DE-(NP)-A constructions become grammatical when the result predicate is an ILP or is modified by a degree word.

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A Study on the Anti-preemptive Usages of Person Deixis—Taking Instances from Cyber Language

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Abstract—Although numerous researches have been conducted to probe into the anti-preemptive usages of person deixis, few researches have been carried out on that of cyber languages. Therefore, this paper mainly investigates the anti-preemptive usages of person deixis in cyber language, collects the linguistic data of buyers and sellers on Taobao and the discursive practices posted on Weibo, and analyses the pragmatic functions of the anti-preemptive usages of person deixis with relevant pragmatic theories. The study applies the egocentricity of deixis as theoretical framework and makes a comprehensive analysis of the data, aiming to provide a new perspective for the study of deixis. The study yields four influencing factors of anti-preemptive usages of person deixis: lack of deictic context, pragmatic intention of the speaker, social factors and register factors. This paper bears both theoretical and practical values. Theoretically, it is an empirical attempt to the study on anti-preemptive usages of person deixis in the field of computer-mediated communication. From a practical point of view, the findings of the study are conductive to provide interlocutors with guidance on the use of person deixis whether in virtual context or real life communication.

Index Terms—deixis, anti-pre-emptive, cyber language

I. Introduction

Cyber language, the language on the Internet, is not only the carrier but also an important part of network culture. In recent years, with the rapid development of the Internet, the business industry based on the Internet has been booming. Taobao, a new online shopping mode in China, has emerged. It gradually accounts for a large part of people's daily life and is deeply loved by people. More and more people do shopping on Taobao and the communication between buyers and sellers becomes more frequent. Language is the reflection of the times. To some extent, network language is also the reflection of the current "network age", which is closely related to people's living style and the mode of thinking. For example, Taobao Style——sellers often use friendly and lovely language to communicate with buyers, which shortens the distance between buyers and sellers. Taobao Style has played an important role in promoting the relationship between the two sides and building a bridge of mutual benefit. Of course, there will also be language conflicts between buyers and sellers, such as Taobao bad reviews.

In addition, both buyers and sellers use deixis frequently when they write comments or reply comments. Deixis is a technical term (from Greek) for one of the most basic things we do with utterances. It means 'pointing' via language. Any linguistic form used to accomplish this 'pointing' is called a deictic expression. Deixis involves person deixis, place deixis, time deixis, discourse deixis and social deixis (Fillmore, 1997).

Deixis has a common property of pre-emptiveness, which refers to forestalling deixis in advance of non-deictic expressions in certain contexts. However, in some specific contexts, there exists the phenomenon of replacing deixis with non-deictic words. This phenomenon is called anti-preemptive usage, that is, the pre-emptiveness disappears. In recent years, many scholars at home and abroad have studied the anti-preemptive phenomenon of deixis, but few scholars have combined the research of deixis with cyber language. This paper collects the linguistic data of buyers and sellers on Taobao and the discursive practices posted on Weibo, analyses the pragmatic functions of anti-preemptive usages of person deixis with relevant pragmatics theory, and provides a new perspective for the study of deixis.

More specifically, the research question is addressed as follows: What are the pragmatic functions and the influencing factors of the anti-preemptive usage of person deixis used in cyber language?

This paper is composed of five parts: introduction, literature review, theoretical framework, data analysis and summary. The first part is a general introduction to the whole paper, including research background, purpose and significance of this paper. The second part is a review of existing research on deixis, especially on the anti-preemptive usages of person deixis. The third part introduces the theoretical framework adopted in the study. The forth part makes an analysis of anti-preemptive usages of person deixis in cyber language, and yields four influencing factors of anti-preemptive usages of person deixis. The last part summarizes the full text and puts forward the shortcomings and future research directions.

II. Literature Review

Deixis is a technical term (from Greek) for one of the most basic things we do with utterances. It means 'pointing' via language. As early as in 1940s, Russell has noticed the priority of deixis over non-deictic words in natural language, and he gave an example to illustrate this phenomenon. He supposed he was lost with his friend in the dark and they could not see each other, so the friend asked: "where are you?" He would respond: "I'm here", instead of answering in an exact and scientific way like "Russell is at latitude 53.16'N and longitude 4.03'W" (cited from Liu Hong, 2004). Lyons (1977) found that children in English speaking countries master tense and deictic adverbs before they master non-deictic expression, i.e. calendrical time and clock time. Fillmore (1975) pointed out that the prior usages of deixis can eliminate the ambiguity in some expressions. Afterwards, Levinson coined the term pre-emptive in 1983 when he was studying the projection nature of time deixis. He said: "Perhaps this pre-emptive nature of pure deictic words is a general tendency: it takes special conventions to make it appropriate for a speaker to refer to himself by name, and it would be strange to say 'Do it at 10:36' instead of 'Do it now', when now is 10:36" (Levinson, 2001, p.75).

However, Levision only put forward the term pre-emptive, but did not carry out a systematic explanation and in-depth study. In 1994, a Chinese professor Zhang Quan makes some researches on the preemptive nature of deixis and put forward another term "anti-preemptive usage" to refer to the phenomenon of non-deictic words substituting deixis, or in his words is the "disappearance of preemptive usage of deixis" (Zhang Quan, 1994, p.10. cited from Hao Xueling, 2016). After that, more researches are carried out into this phenomenon.

Researches on anti-preemptive phenomenon mainly focus on the cause, pragmatic function and English-Chinese comparison of this phenomenon based on the adaptation theory, accessibility theory and so on. In addition, some scholars investigate person deixis in special contexts, such as court discourse and real people show.

Zhang Quan (1994) explores the property of the pre-emptive phenomenon and factors restricting the pre-emptive phenomenon. In addition, by presenting pre-emptive examples in Chinese, he points out that in certain contexts, the pre-emptive phenomenon will disappear and the anti-preemptive phenomenon will occur.

Yang Li (2011) explores the process and causes of the anti-preemptive phenomenon of personal deixis in communicative context and linguistic context from the perspective of adaptation theory, and points out the importance of the anti-preemptive usage to achieve successful communication.

From the perspective of pragmatic cognition, Tang Ying (2010) tries to provide a reasonable mechanism for the pre-emptive phenomenon of deixis, taking the Ariel's accessibility theory and the egocentricity of deixis as the theoretical framework. She also examines the pragmatic factors that cause the anti-preemptive phenomenon.

Liu Chenghua (2006) expounds the pragmatic value of the anti-preemptive usage of person deixis with a large number of Chinese linguistic data. Jia Hui (2008) and Cao Lili (2013) further discuss and analyze the anti-preemptive phenomenon by enumerating English person deixis.

Lin Yingying (2013) studies the pragmatic factors that cause the anti-preemptive phenomenon under the guidance of context adaptation theory.

Zhao Hongwei (2006) analyzed the similarities and differences between English and Chinese about the pre-emptive and anti-preemptive usages of personal deixis, and then analyzes the role of such phenomena in the process of English-Chinese and Chinese-English translation.

Through the analysis of lawyer's defense statements, Li Bing (2015) finds that the anti-preemptive phenomenon exists in personal deixis, time deixis and place deixis. The anti-preemptive phenomenon of deixis is not only a linguistic form, but also a pragmatic strategy. It is a linguistic choice made by lawyers in order to adapt to specific contexts and achieve certain communicative purposes.

Peng Shan (2015) discusses the pre-emptiveness and anti-pre-emptiveness of deictic expressions in court context, which requires high accuracy of language expression. The result shows that the pre-emptive usage of deictic expressions in courtroom interaction slightly differs from it in daily communication, but the anti-pre-emptive usage of deictic expressions shows a higher rate to appear in courtroom discourse.

By analyzing the utterances between adults and children in speaker's perspective of subjectivity in the real people show—*Dad, where are we going* (2013), Hao Xueling(2016) compares and analyzes preemptive and anti-preemptive usages of person deixes and finds that the frequency of preemptive usages is higher than anti-preemptive usages.

III. Theoretical Framework: The Egocentricity of Deixis

Austrian psycholinguist Buhler K's deictic field theory (1990) has a far-reaching influence on the history of deictic research. In his classic work *Deixis Field and Deixis*, Buhler puts forward the research questions and basic theories of deixis, and points out that deixis field is the here-now-I system of subjective orientation in speech acts.

Later, many scholars followed Buhler's "here-now-I" system and acknowledged that deixis has self-centered characteristics. Russell B.(1983, p.102-103) calls deixis "egocentric particulars" in his book *Human Knowledge*. He believes that the meaning of egocentric particulars varies with the change of the speaker and his location in time and space. Four basic egocentric particulars are "I", "this", "here" and "now". "Every time I use the word 'now', I mean a different point in time; every time I move, the word 'here' represents a different place; and when different people say the word 'I', it represents different person. 'This' and 'that' are obviously self-centered words. We can say 'I' means

'the person who has experienced 'this' event, 'now' means 'this time', 'here' means 'this place'. If we know the speaker and the time, there is no ambiguity of the word 'this'. But if we don't know the person and the time, we don't know what it means." (Cited from Yu Xiaoxia, 2005, p.101-103)

Lyons pointed out that the typical context is ego-centered. The speaker regards himself as ego and everything is narrated from his own point of view. He is at "origo" of the space-time coordinate of context (Cited from Sun Lei, 2002, p.73).

Generally speaking, deixis is organized in an egocentric way. That is, unless otherwise stated, the deictic center is assumed to be as follows: (i) the central person is the speaker, (ii) the central time is the time at which the speaker produces the utterance, i.e. CT, (iii) the central place is the speaker's location at CT, (iv) the discourse center is the point which the speaker is currently at in the production of his utterance (Levinson, 2001, p.63-64). The closer the deixis is to the deictic center, the more likely it is in pre-emptive usage. For example, "today" is seldom used in a coding time, while "the day after tomorrow" is more likely to be replaced by a coding time. However, in some cases, the usage of deixis will deviate from egocentricity, thus producing special connotative meaning. The egocentricity of deixis can help us understand the preemptive phenomenon of deixis and explain the anti-preemptive phenomenon.

## IV. THE ANALYSIS OF ANTI-PREEMPTIVE USAGES OF PERSON DEIXIS

In pragmatics, pre-emptiveness refers to forestalling deixis in advance of non-deictic expressions in certain contexts. However, in some special contexts, there exists the phenomenon of replacing deixis with non-deictic words, which is called the anti-preemptive usage. In this chapter, the pragmatic functions of person deixis will be analyzed with relevant pragmatics knowledge based on the linguistic data of buyers and sellers on Taobao and the discursive practices posted on Weibo.

A. Anti-preemptive Usages of Person Deixis

1. Anti-preemptive usages of first person deixis

(1)亲，感谢您支持<u>小宅家</u>哦，很抱歉咱们的宝贝没有让您满意呢，您的反馈是我们最大的动力，咱们也会在以后上新更多优惠又好用的宝贝给小伙伴们呢……

Dear Customer, thank you for supporting my Taobao shop Xiaozhaijia. I'm sorry that our commodity didn't satisfy you. Your feedback is our greatest motivation. We'll also give more preferential price and useful commodities to our friends in the future.
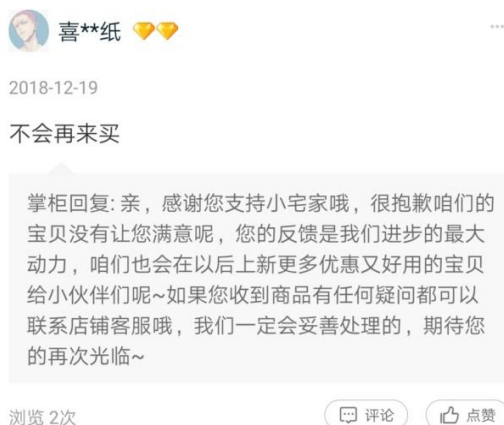
In this case, "Xiaozhaijia" is the anti-preemptive use of the first person deixis "we", which can shorten the psychological distance between the seller and the buyer, showing the intimacy of the seller's language. In addition, the social deixis "dear Customer" and the plural form of first person deixis "our" also show a gracious attitude, so that the buyer may have a good shopping experience. The first person deixis "our" here merely refers to "me" or "I", but it has the function of pragmatic empathy. From the perspective of pragmatics, the seller violates egocentricity of deixis, i.e. does not regard himself as the deixis center, and speaks from the buyer's point of view. In this way, the social relationship has been improved, and the communication has been promoted. Therefore, the personal deixis "our" also has the communicative function of social deixis.

(2)……商家态度极其恶劣，对客户进行人身攻击，差评！……

... The seller's attitudes are extremely bad, with personal attacks on customers, terrible!...

In this case, the buyer uses the word "customers" to refer to "I", expressing his or her power status by words, deliberately keeping the psychological distance from the seller, and showing his or her anger by the usage of pragmatic de-empathy. Ran Yongping (2007) first proposed the concept of "pragmatic de-empathy", which refers to the separation of emotion between the two sides of the communication. Instead of putting himself in the position of the addressee, the speaker deliberately expresses his attitude and emotion towards the addressee by some words. Ran Yongping (2007: 334) pointed out that the pragmatic de-empathy in interpersonal communication can reflect the emotional or psychological differences between the speaker and the addressee, thus create a psychological and social distance between the two parties.

(3)——我是个处女座，追求完美。纸张很好，快递太暴力。然后书脚坏掉了。所以....物流给三颗星。

——好吧，本处女座原谅一切。

—— I am a Virgo who pursues perfection. Paper is good, but express delivery is too violent. The corner of the book was broken. So... logistics is only worth three stars.
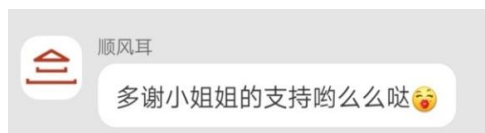
—— Well, I, a Virgo, forgive everything.

In Example (3), the buyer uses "Virgo" to refer to "I", suggesting that I am a Virgo like you, but you cannot forgive the mistake which "I" can forgive, using the irony in the words to express his dissatisfaction.

2. Anti-preemptive usages of second person deixis

(4)多谢小姐姐的支持哟么么哒

Thank you for your support, lass. Mua.

In this case, the seller replaces the second person deixis "you" with "lass", which is a popular Internet slang to describe tender and lovely girls. This address also shows a kind intimacy and shortens the psychological distance between the two sides.

(5) ——我要的姨妈色和车厘子色，但给我发了一支不喜欢的颜色，真是不就业！

——麻烦姐姐看清楚图片哈，姨妈色和车厘子色就是同一个颜色，都怪我没有及时看到你看错颜色了，都怪我......

——I want brick-red and cherry-red, but the seller sent me a color I don't like. He is not conscientious!

——Please see the picture clearly, my sister. Brick-red and cherry-red are the same color. It's my fault that I didn't notice that in time that you see the wrong color. I'm to blame…
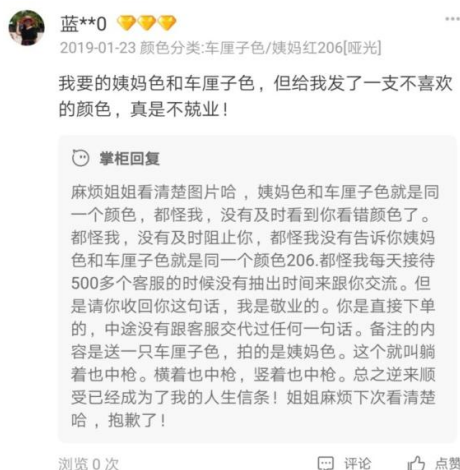
In Example (5), the seller uses the word "my sister" instead of the second person deixis "you", but here we can hear the satirical tone of the seller by analyzing the following series of parallel sentences and humorous words. It can be seen that the seller intentionally distances himself from the buyer and achieves the expected pragmatic effect.

3. Anti-preemptive usages of third person deixis

(6)——收到货一个星期有了，洗了不知道是三次还是四次，掉色还是有点严重，烦死了……

——此人行为非常的不合理，手机号码一直是关机状态从没开机过，我们客服发过两次信息给他，消息都显示已读了但一句话也没回复我们，还被他拉入黑名单了……

——I received the goods a week ago. I don't know whether it's washed three or four times, but the color fading is still a bit serious. I'm tired of it...

——This person's behavior is very unreasonable. His mobile phone has been turned off and never turned on. Our customer service staff has sent him two messages. He read the message but replied no word to us. We were blacklisted by him....

In this case, although the seller is responding to the comment, he regards the addressee as the other people who see this comment, and uses "this person" to refer to the third person deixis "he", which not only keeps the psychological distance with this buyer, but also expresses the reproach to the buyer. In this way, other people may empathize with the seller.

B. The Influencing Factors of Anti-preemptive Usages of Person Deixis

1. Lack of deictic context

A deictic word or expression can be used in three different ways: gestural, symbolic, and anaphoric. Gestural use means indicating something by body language and the addressee should be in the communication situation; by the symbolic use we merely need to know certain aspects of the speech communication situation; and the anaphoric use relates to other portion of the same discourse the expression is coreferential with (Fillmore, 1997). So the lack of deictic context can lead to the lack of deixis. For example, if a person you are not familiar with is knocking at the door and you ask "who is it", he or she will answer by name instead of "me".

2. Pragmatic intention of the speaker

The speaker's pragmatic intention is often reflected in unconventional usages in discourses, and the anti-preemptiveness is one of them. The speaker often intentionally violates the egocentricity of deixis to shorten or keep the psychological or social distance between himself and the addressee in order to show friendship or indifference. In addition to pragmatic empathy and de-empathy, anti-preemptive usage can also achieve pragmatic effects such as humor, reproach, irony and so on. Several examples above illustrate this point.

3. Social factors

Social factors include social class and individual differences. For example, in order to show respect for the superiors, the rank or title is often used to replace the second person deixis "you", e.g. "Captain, this way, please!" The similar pragmatic usage also exists in cyber language. After the death of Jin Yong, who is a martial arts novelist, Ma Yun wrote on Weibo:

(7)先生其文也大，其人也真。……若无先生，不知是否还会有阿里。……

Mr. Jin's writing is magnificent and he is a very real man…Without Mr. Jin, I wonder if there will be Ali.
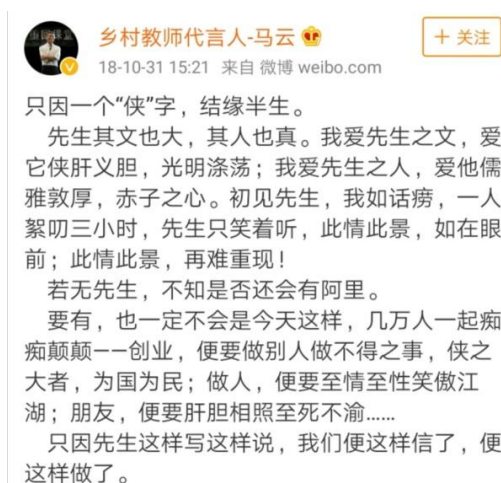
Ma Yun used the word "Mr Jin" instead of "you" to hold Mr. Jin in high esteem.

Individual differences are influenced by age, speech habits and so on. For example, children often use nicknames to refer to themselves.

4. Register factors

People use different languages in different occasions and for different addressees. Thus the anti-preemptive usage of personal deixis is common in formal occasions. For example, in news, the third person deixis is often replaced by the name directly. There are also anti-preemptive usages in cyber language influenced by register factors. The picture shows a statement issued by a Taobao store.

(8)本店遭遇同行商家高价雇佣请人到本店刷恶意差评……

Our shop came across problems that people in the same line hired somebody at high price to write negative comments about our shop.
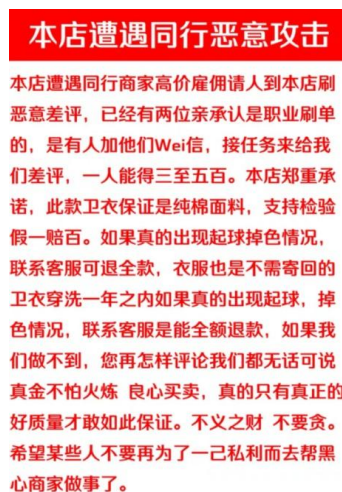
The word "our shop" is written in formal style and used in a text similar to a notice. Thus, register factors are also one of the factors that cause the anti-preemptive usage of person deixis.

V. SUMMARY

This paper analyses the pragmatic function of anti-preemptive use of person deixis with relevant pragmatics theory based on linguistic data from cyber language. Anti-preemptive use of person deixis in cyber language includes first person deixis, second person deixis and third person deixis. The result shows that the influencing factors of anti-preemptive use include 1) lack of deictic context, 2) pragmatic intention of the speaker in order to shorten or keep the psychological or social distance between himself and the addressee, 3) social factors which consist of social class and individual differences and 4) register factors. This paper still has some shortcomings: strong subjectivity and less linguistic data. It is hoped that future research will explore the pragmatic function of anti-preemptive phenomenon of person deixis based on more linguistic data in order to be more scientific. In addition, the study mainly investigates the anti-preemptive usage of person deixis in cyber language. Further research should explore the different usages of person deixis between the virtual world and real life.

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Predictive Validity of Saudi Admission Criteria for Freshmen Students' English Performance: Experience of King Saud Bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences

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Abstract—This study examines the relationship and correlation between initial admission criteria and English performance of first year students at King Saud bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences. The performance of 1,595 English language students was compared to the initial academic admission criteria to determine if a correlation exists between academic achievement pre and post admission. Admission criteria include high school grades, General Aptitude Test score (GAT), and Scholastic Achievement Admission Test scores (SAAT). Deep statistical analyses, including independent t tests and multiple linear regression reveal a correlation between pre and post admission performance. For this student population, GAT score was more predictive of English performance than SAAT scores, while the high school grade had no significant relationship to performance on the course. Furthermore, GAT had a higher predictive weight of 7% when compared individually with other admission criteria. However, in a combined model, all of the admission tests cumulatively predicted 17.3% of English performance. Such power is relatively low and requires additional variables to accurately predict a student's final English score. This study provides unique analyses of performance within the Saudi higher education system and provides insight for those teaching or studying English as a second language. This study is therefore relevant for educators in universities using English for the instruction of non-English, native students and raises questions as to the value of current admission criteria.

Index Terms—standardized tests, English competence, predictive validity, medical education, college admission

I. INTRODUCTION

Freshmen students are required to fulfil admission criteria in order to be considered for admission to King Saud bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences (KSAUHS). These criteria, as for other Saudi universities, include the attainment of High School Grades and the taking of the General Aptitude Test (GAT) and the Scholastic Achievement Admission Test (SAAT), to calculate the "corrected percentage of admission." The GAT focuses more on students' analytical reasoning skills, irrespective of the specific major they wish to enroll in, while the SAAT focuses on students' understanding of basic science subjects learned throughout their high school years.

Students' high school grades, GAT, and SAAT are calculated together in the following formula to produce the corrected percentage, a score which often advises University admission. The score is calculated as follows: (high school grade $\times 0.30$) + (GAT $\times 0.30$) + (SAAT $\times 0.40$). Students receive their corrected percentage and must then compete with other applicants for available spaces in the university.

Once a student attains the required corrected percentage score and meets the seats requirement of the university, the student is accepted. Health sciences courses in all Saudi universities use English as a medium language to teach the subject material in. Therefore, students start their academic study with an intensive focus on acquiring the English language and mastering essential skills (e.g. grammar, the learning of specific scientific terminology). The KSAUHS English Program is intensive, spanning over the 1st preparatory year of the university and then further extending into an additional semester in the 2nd year.

This study aims to: 1) measure whether any of the current admission criteria (i.e. GAT, SAAT, high school grade, and corrected percentage) accurately predict students' English performance, and 2) determine the degree of association and difference between each criterion and English performance. This study is, to our knowledge, the first study in a Saudi learning environment examining the impact and prediction of admission criteria on English performance.

Although, it must be stated that there are existing Saudi-based studies which investigate the overall relationship between admission criteria and student college performance (Albishiri et al., 2012; Murshid, 2013; Alwan et al., 2012; Al-Rukban et al.,2010).

This study aims to contribute towards the wider discussion of the relevance of current admission criteria for medical colleges and to evaluate whether current procedures are a fair and accurate prediction of future performance. This topic is divisive amongst researchers in the field, with much disagreement surrounding the best predictors of performance (Schwartz 2004; Roberts and Prideaux 2010; McManus et al. 2011; Prideaux et al. 2011).

Currently, medical colleges use different tools to assess students' capability prior to admission. Other research highlights that admission criteria for medical school currently focuses on cognitive achievements and other personality qualities in prospective students (Evans and Wen, 2007; McManus et al. 2003; Groves et al. 2007; Albanese et al., 2003; Benbassat et al., 2007). However, students' high school grades are seen, in some contexts, as a more predictive and reliable tool (Ferguson et al, 2002; McManus et al, 2003; Coates, 2008; Wright and Bradley, 2010; Wilkinson et al., 2008).

Universities usually prefer to combine these admission criteria and differ in terms of which components are included, or in the weighted numerical value assigned to each component (Parry et al. 2006; Julian, 2005; Peskun et al., 2007). When these components are calculated together, they are then used to predict a students' performance in college (Ferguson et al., 2003).

Based on this existing research, this study will attempt to understand the college admission process in Saudi Arabia and analyze the relationship between the admission criteria and students' English performance.

II. OVERVIEW

Before elaborating on research questions and methods, it is important to provide an overview of the English Program in KSAUHS. The English Language Program aims to develop students' general English skills. Students start at the lower-intermediate level and progress through to the advanced level in the 2nd year. The English Language Program provides students with daily practice in academic reading, vocabulary, oral communication, grammatical structures and writing.

The study focuses on the students' performance in their first year of English courses. These courses include two courses in reading and vocabulary, two courses in grammar, and two courses in oral communication and writing, distributed over two semesters and delivered daily.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research questions for this study are:
1. Do admission criteria of GAT, SAAT, high school grade, and corrected percentage predict students' English performance in their first year of college?
2. Are there any associations or differences between the admission criteria and English performance?

IV. METHOD

There are four samples in the study. Two samples collected in 2015 and two from 2016, of both males and females in KSAUHS. They completed their first year at the university and completed all of the English courses. Sample 1 (2015) consists of 264 female students, sample 2 (2016) 357 female students. Sample 3 (2015) consists of 481 male students, sample 4 (2016) consists of 493 male students. The total number of all participants is 1,595 students. Their English total score was extracted and used in this study. Descriptive statistics and independent samples t tests were used. Multiple linear regression was used for predictive validity.

V. RESULTS

A. *Sample 1*

Table 1 provides descriptive statistics of high school grades, GAT, SAAT and corrected percentage in order to calculate an English total score. These total scores were categorized into two categories ranging from $0.00 - 0.99$ coded as 1 (e.g. the lower range) and a second category of $1.001 - 1.999$ coded as 2 (e.g. the upper range). Therefore, all students have a score which falls between $0 - 2$.

Independent samples t test results indicated a significant difference in mean high school grade ($t(262) = 4.083$, $p = <.001$), GAT ($t(266) = 5.043$, $p = <.001$), and SAAT ($t(266) = 5.607$, $p = <.001$) between the two total score categories of English classes. Scores in the range of $1.001 - 2.000$ reported significantly higher mean grades than those between $0.000 - 0.999$.

A significant difference in mean corrected percentage between the two total score categories of the English classes was reported ($t(262) = 7.180$, $p = <.001$). Students' total score in the range $1.001 - 2.000$ was also significantly higher than those in the lower range of $0.000 - 0.999$.

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADES, GAT, SAAT AND CORRECTED PERCENTAGE ACROSS ENGLISH TOTAL SCORE.

	Code	N	Mean	SD	minimum	maximum	t	p
High school grade	1	116	98.11	1.61	93	100	4.083	<.001
	2	148	98.83	1.24	94	100		
GAT	1	116	84.88	4.14	75	94	5.043	<.001
	2	152	87.50	4.27	76	98		
SAAT	1	116	81.44	3.51	74	92	5.607	<.001
	2	152	84.32	4.88	74	96		
Corrected percentage	1	116	87.44	1.92	85	93	7.180	<.001
	2	148	89.56	2.86	85	97		

B. Sample 2

As shown in Table 2, there was a significant difference in mean high school grades ($t(365) = 3.510$, $p = <.001$), GAT ($t(354) = 5.780$, $p = <.001$), SAAT ($t(354) = 2.887$, $p = .004$) between two total score categories of English classes. Students' total score in the upper range reported significantly higher mean grade than those in the lower range.

A further significant difference in the mean corrected percentages between two total score categories of English classes was also reported ($t(365) = 5.228$, $p = <.001$). Students' total score in the range $1.001 - 2.000$ reported significantly higher mean corrected percentages than those in the lower range.

TABLE 2
COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADES, GAT, SAAT AND CORRECTED PERCENTAGE ACROSS ENGLISH TOTAL SCORE

	Code	N	Mean	SD	t	p
High school grades	1	160	98.11	1.783	3.510	<.001
	2	197	98.70	1.417		
GAT	1	159	84.47	4.130	5.780	<.001
	2	197	87.03	4.174		
SAAT	1	159	87.64	3.610	2.887	.004
	2	197	88.93	4.621		
Corrected percentage	1	160	89.79	1.981	5.228	<.001
	2	207	91.17	2.834		

C. Sample 3

As indicated in Table 3, no significant difference was observed in the mean grades between two total score categories of English total score ($t(479) = 1.773$, $p = .077$).

Nevertheless, there is a significant difference in mean GAT ($t(477) = 5.420$, $p = <.001$), SAAT ($t(477) = 3.552$, $p = <.001$), and the corrected percentage scores ($t(479) = 4.464$, $p = <.001$) between two total score categories of English classes. Students' total score in the upper range reported significantly higher mean GAT than those in the range $0.000 - 0.999$.

TABLE 3
COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADE, GAT, SAAT AND CORRECTED PERCENTAGE ACROSS ENGLISH TOTAL SCORE

	Code	N	Mean	SD	t	p
High School Grades	1.00	58	96.52	2.722	1.773	.077
	2.00	423	97.17	2.596		
GAT	1.00	58	81.24	4.740	5.420	<.001
	2.00	421	85.48	5.681		
SAAT	1.00	58	74.017	4.2529	3.552	<.001
	2.00	421	77.409	7.0932		
Corrected percentage	1.00	58	83.02	2.585	4.464	<.001
	2.00	423	85.72	4.506		

D. Sample 4

Table 4 illustrates the significant difference in mean high school grades ($t(491) = 2.398$, $p = <.001$), GAT ($t(496) = 4.846$, $p = <.001$), SAAT ($t(496) = 4.423$, $p = <.001$) between two total score categories of English classes. Students' total score in the upper range had significantly higher mean grade than those in the lower range.

Significant differences in the mean corrected percentage between two total score categories of English classes were also found ($t(486) = 5.292$, $p = <.001$). Students' total score in the upper range also had significantly higher mean corrected percentage than those in the lower range.

TABLE 4
COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADE, GAT, SAAT AND CORRECTED PERCENTAGE ACROSS ENGLISH TOTAL SCORE

	Code	N	Mean	SD	t	p
High School Grades	1.00	66	96.03	2.75	2.398	<.001
	2.00	427	96.86	2.58		
GAT	1.00	66	81.65	5.02	4.846	<.001
	2.00	432	85.13	5.49		
SAAT	1.00	66	79.20	4.87	4.423	<.001
	2.00	432	83.12	6.95		
Corrected percentage	1.00	66	84.97	2.74	5.292	<.001
	2.00	422	87.85	4.29		

E. Combined Samples

As shown in Table 5, no significant differences in the mean high school grade between the two total score categories of English were observed (t (1593) = 0.145, p = .885).

However, there are significant differences between the mean GAT (t (1599) = 7.448, p = <.001) , SAAT (t (1599) = 0.565, p = .572), and the corrected percentage (t (1598) = 2.270, p = .023) between the two groups of students. The upper range students had significantly higher mean GAT, SAAT, and corrected percentage scores compared to their lower range peers.

TABLE 5
COMPARISON OF HIGH SCHOOL GRADES, GAT, SAAT AND CORRECTED PERCENTAGE ACROSS ENGLISH CLASSES TOTAL SCORE

	Code	N	Mean	SD	t	p
High School grades	1.00	400	97.53	2.25	0.145	.885
	2.00	1195	97.51	2.43		
GAT	1.00	399	83.65	4.61	7.448	<.001
	2.00	1202	85.86	5.30		
SAAT	1.00	399	82.46	6.19	0.565	.572
	2.00	1202	82.22	7.60		
Corrected percentage	1.00	400	87.33	3.30	2.270	.023
	2.00	1200	87.88	4.46		

F. Predictive Validity of Admission Criteria

Multiple linear regression for the combined sample was performed in order to predict the total English score. The independent variables included SAAT, GAT and high school grades, while removing the corrected percentage, since it is actually a combination of all of these variables. The model could explain 17.3% of the variance (F(3, 1599)=111.599, p< .001). Table 6 shows regression coefficients for each independent predictor:

TABLE 6
SIMPLE MULTIVARIATE REGRESSION.

Coefficients [a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	-.586	.147		-3.996	.000
High School Grades	.001	.001	.017	.764	.445
GAT	.015	.001	.287	11.279	.000
SAAT	.007	.001	.196	7.666	.000

    a.   Dependent Variable: ENGL_total score

Preliminary regression analyses show that high school grade has no significant coefficient (Table 6), so, in order to produce valid predictors, a stepwise algorithm was used. Stepwise regression automatically chooses predictive variables that contribute the most to the dependent variable.

TABLE 7
MODEL SUMMARY FOR STEPWISE MULTIVARIATE REGRESSION.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.377 [a]	.142	.141	.25240
2	.416 [b]	.173	.172	.24788

    a.   Predictors: (Constant), GAT
    b.   Predictors: (Constant), GAT, SAAT

TABLE 8
STEPWISE MULTIVARIATE REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS.

Coefficients [a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	-.295	.103		-2.854	.004
	GAT	.020	.001	.377	16.266	.000
2	(Constant)	-.508	.105		-4.837	.000
	GAT	.015	.001	.288	11.313	.000
	SAAT	.007	.001	.197	7.744	.000

    a.   Dependent Variable: ENGL_total score

This stepwise regression created two models – The first with GAT only and the second with GAT and SAAT. ANOVA confirmed the validity of both models with 100% significance. The first model explains only 14.2% percent of the English total score variance whilst the second model explains 17.3%, matching the preliminary model results.

According to Table 9, R-square values or explained variances for English total score are 14.1% for GAT and 10.6% for SAAT.

TABLE 9
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS AND PERCENTAGE OF VARIANCE FOR EACH INDEPENDENT PREDICTOR

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	% of variances
		B	Std. Error	Beta	
Stepwise with maximum R	(Constant)	-.508	.105		
	GAT	.015	.001	.288	14.1 %
	SAAT	.007	.001	.197	10.6 %

    a.   Dependent Variable: ENGL_total score

Based on this, the regression equation for English total score = - 0.508 + 0.015 * GAT + 0.007 * SAAT. Therefore, General Aptitude Test (GAT) score has the highest regression coefficient and has the highest influence on English total score.

VI. DISCUSSION

Firstly, this study illustrates differences between the samples of the same gender. In the female samples, sample 1 shows that corrected percentage has the highest association with English total score than other admission criteria since its t value is 7.180, and its p = <.001. However for sample 2, the corrected percentage (t (365) = 5.228, p = <.001) and GAT (t (354) = 5.780, p = <.001) are almost equal, while the SAAT has the lowest value.

In the male samples, sample 3 shows that GAT has the highest association with English total score of the admission criteria, with a t value of 5.420 and p = <.001. Sample 4 shows that corrected percentage is the highest (t (486) = 5.292, p = <.001).

More interestingly, when all the samples are combined, GAT has more predictive and associative weight than the other variables (t (1599) = 7.448, p = <.001). Second to GAT was the corrected percentage (t (1598) = 2.270, p = .023). Clearly, the difference between GAT and corrected percentage in terms of their strength for prediction and association with English total score is high.

Such a gap illustrates that GAT could predict English performance with a high probability. The GAT codes for both categories (83.65; 85.86), as presented in Table 5, could be used as a predictive tool for predicting future performance at an English program such as KSAUHS. It could be interpreted that a student with a GAT score of 83 or below would most likely have a low total score in English at the end of the KSAUHS modules, while a student with a score of 86 or more could have a higher total score.

Additionally, as GAT and SAAT scores have a high predictive validity and together have a predictive weight of 17.3% . GAT is the best predictor since it has the most variance (14.1%) whereas SAAT has equal variance of 10.6 %. It is possible to use the regression model presented above for calculating and predicting English total score. However, such a prediction is limited to 17.3 % of the total score. In other words, this method could not to a large extent predict English total score since its variance is too low. Such a model, therefore, requires additional critical variables in order to have a stronger prediction validity.

Other studies illustrate how predictive GAT is for academic performance in health sciences' colleges. Alwan et al. (2012) researched 87 health science students at KSAUHS and found GAT is positively correlated with their GPA over a three-year period. However, according to Alwan et al. (2012), GAT was not the best predictor of students' GPA among other admission criteria. Albishri et al. (2012), in his study on 727 medical students from three different medical schools, found that indeed there is a positive correlation between GAT and cumulative GPA at the sixth year of medical college. Similarly to Alwan et al. (2012), GAT was not the best predictor in this case.

Both of the studies described were longitudinal in nature and showed that the predictive validity of GAT decreases over years of students' GPA. Nevertheless, this study is more concerned with students' English performance in their

first year of university. This study has a higher number of participants and highlights the correlation between GAT and first-year English performance. It is noted in this study, that for even a small number of students, GAT still has sufficient weight in predicting English performance.

There are few reasons why GAT is a better predictor of English performance. Firstly, GAT primarily focuses on linguistic and mathematical skills. It also assesses higher cognitive skills by asking students to confirm their deep understanding of language, mostly Arabic, through reading texts and solving mathematical problems. Thus, it is obvious why GAT has some connection with students' English performance since it assess linguistic level as well as their higher thinking ability, both of which are critical for learning a second language.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study explores the relationship between admission criteria and first-year English performance at University. Deep statistical analyses on a large number of participants revealedthat GAT is more predictive of English performance than SAAT, while high school grades have no significant relationship to English performance. Predictive validity analyses show that a combination of GAT with SAAT has predictive power of 17.3 %. Such power is relatively low and requires the addition of further variables in order to predict English performance. This study, as an outcome, is useful for policymakers in Saudi universities and encourages educators to rethink the value of admission criteria and how they are used to assess a student's English ability. Educators should consider adding an English language proficiency test to the admission criteria in order to better predict how students progress in their English course and to track their progress. This study provides information which could save money, time and energy by streamlining and re-evaluating admissions criteria and presents methods to analyse the effectiveness of current and future admissions criteria.

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A Contrastive Study of the Stative Feature in English*

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Abstract—Compared with Chinese, English language is characterized by the features of, namely, hypotactic, impersonal, passive, stative, abstract, substitutive, and so forth. These traits are interrelated and interact on each other. By means of contrastive analysis, the current paper represents an attempt to discuss the preponderance of stative expressions in English, their philosophical background, representations in various forms and implications in English writing and translation.

Index Terms—stative feature in English, nominalization, preponderance of prepositions, verbs of feeble phenomenality, contrastive study

I. INTRODUCTION

Studies on English language have been an incessant process among scholars both home and abroad. Compared with Chinese, English language has many characteristics, namely, hypotactic, impersonal, passive, stative, abstract, substitutive, and so forth. As a matter of fact, these traits of English language are interrelated and interact on each other. For instance, one of the impersonal features prefers noun subject to person subject, which reduces the use frequency of persons or actions. As a result, English sentences are usually peppered with matter subjects and prepositional phrases which make them seem stative and objective. Therefore, the impersonal features, to some extent, facilitate the stative features of English which in turn exert influence upon the former.

In spite of the various traits of English, anyway, the characteristic of stative expressions in English never ceases to amaze me. The paper intends to investigate the stative characteristic of English language. By means of contrastive analysis, this current paper is an attempt to discuss the preponderance of stative expressions in English, their philosophical background, representations in various forms and implications in English writing and translation.

Let us take a first glance at the following examples in order to have a general impression of what stative expression indicates:

That scholar is of the opinion that the provision of English curriculum to primary school pupils is not feasible in China.

那位学者认为在中国，小学开设英语课是不合适的。

With these words she went away.

说完这些话，她便走开了。

She had surfaced with less visibility in the policy decision.

在决策过程中，她已经不那么抛头露面了。

We must not lose sight of the fact that environmental pollution is getting worse and worse in our country.

我们不能忽视这一事实，环境污染在我国日益严重。

The students are intensely cautious not to make mistakes in spelling.

学生们非常小心，免得出现拼写错误。

A glance at the underlined parts will enlighten us on the different part of speech used between English and Chinese. Obviously, English language usually takes the stative forms so that they are replaced with dynamic expressions in Chinese when we are doing translation.

The method of analysis employed in my paper is contrastive approach. Contrastive approach is one of the methods of language study, which has become prosperous since the fifties of the 20th century. Through contrast between two different languages, their differences will be discovered and taken into consideration in the course of communication. It is cited from Ellis (1985) that Lado (1957), one of the prime movers of contrastive analysis, makes clear, "The teacher who has made comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know what the real problems are and can provide for teaching them". The late scholar, Lv Shuxiang, in his book *Studying Grammar by Contrast*, lays great emphasis on the significance and generalization of the method of contrast.

II. Definitions: The Concept of "Stative"

Compared with Chinese, being stative is typical of English language. The concept of "Stative" can be best explained by the distinction of stative and dynamic, which was elaborated by Quirk (1972:48), as in his book *A Grammar of Contemporary English*:

Broadly speaking, nouns can be characterized naturally as "stative" in that they refer to entities that are regarded as stable, whether these are concrete (physical) like *house, table, paper*, or abstract (of the mind) like *hope, botany, length*. At the opposite pole, verbs can be equally naturally characterized as "dynamic": they are fitted (by their capacity to show tense and aspect, for example) to indicate action, activity and temporary or changing conditions.

These relations between the open classes can be summarized thus:

STATIVE   noun ↔ adjective
DYNAMIC   verb   adverb

In Quirk's description, noun and adjective are defined as stative while verb and adverb as dynamic. These are only definitions contemplated lexically or in other words grammatically. The concept of stative and dynamic can also be understood from the syntactical level. The stative being is not confined to employment of the noun and adjective, but noun phrases, prepositional phrases, phrases of feeble phenomenality, etc. These definitions of being stative are the basis of what is adopted in this paper.

Another point which merits mentioning is that the concept of stative is a relative perception. Stative and dynamic are usually combined to reflect the characteristic of English language. In this paper, what is defined as stative is usually compared with the dynamic feature of Chinese. The characteristic of English language can be fully understood by comparing it to another language.

In the course of English-Chinese translation, stative and dynamic are two relative concepts. It is rash and irrational to run to extremes to claim absolute stativeness of English and dynamic feature of Chinese.

Let's take a look at some stative expressions which are usually employed to convey dynamic scenes in Chinese.

He is a good <u>eater</u> and a good <u>sleeper</u>.

他<u>能</u>吃<u>能</u>睡。

Ford's first <u>pledge</u> was, "Mr. President, you have <u>my support and my loyalty</u>."

福特一开始就<u>保证</u>说："总统先生，我<u>支持</u>您，并<u>效忠</u>于您。"

Harvard, despite its own <u>estimate</u> of itself, was ultimately an academic haven where an error of <u>interpretation</u> could result only in <u>loss</u> of face, not in <u>extinction</u>.

哈佛大学，不管它如何<u>自命</u>高明，终究还是个学府胜地，在那里把问题<u>看</u>错了，无非<u>丢脸</u>而已，总不至于<u>完蛋</u>。

<u>On foot, on horseback, in litters, in carriages,</u> they fled for their lives.

他们<u>或徒步</u>，<u>或骑马</u>，<u>或坐轿子</u>，<u>或乘马车</u>，纷纷逃命。

From the above examples, it is obvious that English language is characteristic of stative expressions. However, when it comes to English-Chinese translation, the usual method is to change stative expressions of English into dynamic equivalents in Chinese.

III. Philosophical Background

Compared with the subjective way of thinking, one notable philosophical difference is the objective consciousness of westerners. Western people tend to think objectively. This can be traced back to the Aristotelian philosophy which advocates formal logics, and the philosophy of rationalism which permeates Europe from sixteenth to eighteenth century. The advocate of rationalism inevitably upholds the clear differentiation between subject and object. The object in the western culture is given greater attention than that in the Chinese culture, in which subject consciousness is emphasized and the focus of attention is usually prioritized to human being.

The reason why stative expressions are well preferred can be attributed to many factors. Firstly, stative expressions are more formal and precise. They are usually employed in formal documents, like business contract, law proceedings, academic papers, and official letters and so on and so forth. Leech (1974:25) points out that formal written language often goes with an impersonal style, i.e. one in which the speaker does not refer directly to himself or his readers, but avoids the pronouns *I, you, we*. Some of the common features of impersonal language are passives, sentence beginning with introductory *it*, and abstract nouns. Secondly, as Jespersen (1951) holds the opinion that the more advanced a language is, the more developed is its power of expressing abstract or general ideas. This subsequently requires abstract nouns, objective noun phrases instead of subjective ones. All of these are the demonstration of stative expressions. Thirdly, it is closely related to thinking patterns of westerners. Western thinking pattern tends to lay more emphasis on analysis in terms of logic whereas Chinese thinking pattern is more likely to be a synthesis in terms of images. Analysis requires logic, objectiveness and conceptualization; synthesis requires image, subjectivity and concreteness. Logic, objectiveness and conceptualization facilitate the stative feature of English language. In the following parts, representations of stativeness in English will be illustrated and its implications will be further discussed.

Anyway, there are plenty of factors contributing to the stative feature of English language. Some people even prefer to use stative expressions just to show their superior social status.

IV. REPRESENTATIONS OF STATIVE EXPRESSIONS IN ENGLISH

How does the English language encode stativeness through linguistic forms? The following is some of the representations of stative expressions in English. The linguistic devices include: nominalization, preponderance of prepositions, verbs of feeble phenomenality, stative adjective or adverb, etc.

Nominalization: the common phenomenon of English language

A nominalization is a noun phrase that has a systematic correspondence with a clausal predication which includes a head noun morphologically related to a corresponding verb (Quirk 1985:1289). For example, abstract nouns can be employed to express motion, behavior, change, state, quality, emotion, etc. in his book the *Philosophy of Grammar*, Jespersen says, "It seems possible to express ideas with greater precision and adequacy by means of nouns than by means of the more pictorial verbs."

In *Changing English*, Potter (1969:101) points out that the English language has the tendency of "preponderance of nouns over verbs". This preponderance is apt for concise expression, flexible sentence-making and smooth writing style. It also facilitates the communication of complicated ideas. He gives vivid examples to illustrate his point. For example, the sentence of "London's growth is rapid" is preferred to "London is growing rapidly." And in another example, "John's arrival was premature" is preferred to "John came too soon." The reason why stative expressions are favored in the above two examples is that they are more literary and bear more connotations. Please take a look at following instances:

Freedom-loving people everywhere <u>condemned</u> them because they <u>violated</u> the agreement reached at Helsinki and <u>abused</u> basic human rights in their own country.

The <u>abuse</u> of basic human rights in their own country in <u>violation</u> of the agreement reached at Helsinki earned them the <u>condemnation</u> of freedom-loving people everywhere.

他们违反在赫尔辛基达成的协议，在国内<u>侵犯</u>基本人权，因此受到了各地热爱自由的人们的<u>谴责</u>。

Nominal style of writing can make narration precise and appropriate. But it merits mentioning that overuse of nominal style can make it difficult for readers to perceive the meaning. Therefore, there is a certain degree in which stative expressions are employed.

Preponderance of prepositions

The preponderance of nouns is bound to generate the prevalence of prepositions in that they are usually put before nouns or nouns phrases to make sentences. The tendency of stative state seems all the more prominent with the preponderance of nouns and prepositions combined. Many prepositions in English are used not only to achieve the effect when they are functioning as prepositions equaling to what they are in Chinese but also to express some ideas of which in Chinese only verbs can present. Therefore, some prepositions or prepositional phrases with a meaning of action will be transformed into dynamic or others when translated into Chinese.

<u>With these words</u> she went away.

<u>说完</u>这些话，她便走开了。

We here highly resolve that this nation, under god, shall have a new birth of freedom; and that government <u>of</u> the people, <u>by</u> the people, <u>for</u> the people, shall not perish from the earth.

我们要在这里下定最大的决心，我们要使国家在上帝福佑下得到自由的新生，要使这个<u>民有</u>、<u>民治</u>、<u>民享</u>的政府永世长存。

They immediately set out <u>in pursuit of</u> the enemy.

他们立刻出发去<u>追击</u>敌人。

The University of New Hampshire has a strict policy <u>against</u> hiring faculty wives.

新罕布什尔大学有一条严格的规定，<u>禁止</u>雇佣教职员工的妻子。

Are you <u>for</u> or <u>against</u> the plan?

你<u>支持</u>还是<u>反对</u>这项计划？

Opening on each side from the river were gardens, courts, and cloisters; long successions of white pillars <u>among</u> wreaths of vine.

呈现在河岸两边的是花园、庭院以及修道院；是缭绕的葡萄藤花<u>掩映</u>的白色的石柱，一根接一根，长长的一排。

Verbs of feeble phenomenality

There are plenty of stative expressions in English taking the form of feeble verbs, such as the most frequently used verb *be* and *do, have, become, get, grow, feel, go* and so on. They are verbs of feeble phenomenality. Although these verbs bear a meaning of action, they are less dynamic and colorful. For example:

There was a tropical storm off the east coast of Florida.

佛罗里达东海岸有一场热带风暴。

A tropical storm lashed the east coast of Florida.

一场热带风暴袭击了佛罗里达东海岸。

It is noticeable that the sentence using the sentence pattern of "there is" is more stative than that using concrete verb. The translation of the first sentence is also stative and less vivid and dynamic than the second translation. Therefore,

stative expressions in this case are often transformed into verbs when translated into Chinese.

It can be often observed that the preponderance of "noun+preposition" is represented in the phrases of feeble phenomenality which dilute or debilitate the original meaning. Thus the stative state is being enhanced. For example:

For centuries, the novel <u>captured great admiration from</u> the broad readers from one generation after another, and scholars making researches on *A Dream of Red Mansions* emerged in swarms and the "Redology", the study on the novel, soon became a branch of special learning.

几百年来，世世代代许多读者<u>为之倾倒</u>。《红楼梦》的研究者蜂起，渐渐地"红学"发展成了一门专门的学问。

As we all know that V+N+ (prep) sentence pattern expresses the conception of action. The conceptualized N denotes the abstract noun of action. And the action of V has been diluted or debilitated. For instance, have a look at…, take care of…, pay attention to…. The verbs "have, take and pay" in the foregoing example have been debilitated. That is why some linguists call them verbs of feeble phenomenality. It is one of the representations of stative tendency in English language. These verbs can also be substituted for verbs of special meaning. In that case, not only is the effect of verb itself reinforced, but also a special rhetoric function can be achieved. Let us take *have a look at* and its Chinese translations for example, the verb *have* can be substituted as:

get a look at… 有机会看…一眼

throw a look at… 漫不经心地朝…看一眼

grab a look at… 抢着看…一眼

steal a look at… 偷偷地看…一眼

sneak a look at…鬼鬼祟祟地看…一眼

be given a look at… 被允许看…一眼

Stative adjective or adverb

Stative expressions of adjective derivatives of verbs in English can often present meanings of actions. These adjectives usually function as predicates in sentences. For example:

I am <u>a bit worried</u> that something might go wrong.

我<u>有点担心</u>要出什么事。

I am <u>doubtful</u> whether he is still alive.

我<u>怀疑</u>他是否还活着。

The fact that she was able to send a message was a hint. But I had to be <u>cautious</u>.

她能够给我带个信儿这件事就是个暗示。但是我必须<u>小心谨慎</u>。

The doctor <u>felt sympathetic</u> with his patients.

医生<u>同情</u>他的病人。

Adverbs can also be used to express meaning of verbs:

I am afraid Mr. Brown is <u>out</u>, but he will be <u>in</u> soon.

恐怕布朗先生<u>出去</u>了，但是他很快就会<u>回来</u>的。

<u>Down</u> with the old and <u>up</u> with the new.

<u>破</u>旧<u>立</u>新。

Well, critics may ask whether it is always with the case that stative expressions in English are preferred. I incline to the opinion that it is far more difficult to give a yes or no answer. There should be a balance between them. If you find the majority of your passage is using stative expressions, some dynamic ones will capture readers' eyes and will make a total difference from the common writing. Therefore, it is held that although there is a tendency that English language has a characteristic of being stative, it does not absolutely follow that you should overreact and flood your English writing with all the stative expressions. There is always a desired equilibrium to be achieved.

V. IMPLICATIONS IN ENGLISH WRITING

When writing in English, we are often influenced by our mother tongue. Consequently, it appears to be natural that Chinese students are often corrected with their so called English with Chinese characteristics (Chinglish). Thought and language are closely related. Language is the material form of thought. The contents and patterns of thought influence and to some degree determine the ways of expression. The "Sapir-Whorf hypothesis", as it came to be called, combines two principles. The first is known as linguistic determinism: it states that language determines the way we think. The second follows from this, and is known as linguistic relativity: it states that the distinctions encoded in one language are not found in any other language (http://courses.wcsu.edu/valkommen/thought.html) and that the differences in language reflect the different views of different people.

Therefore, people from different cultures and with different mother tongues think and behave differently. There is a great diversity among their ways of thinking. Well, at the same time, this different way of thinking influences second language acquisition. Here comes a phenomenon called language transfer, which linguistically means what the learners carry over to or generalize in their knowledge about their native language (NL) to help them learn to use a target language (TL). In this manner, when communicating in TL, learners usually express themselves by the aid of phonetic, lexical, and structural rules of NL and by the aid of culture and customs rooted in NL. When learning from NL assists

learning in TL, this is referred to as positive transfer; when learning from NL interferes with learning in TL, this is referred to as negative transfer. Therefore, we should try our best to avoid negative transfer when learning a TL.

Let us say in English "直到早晨五点钟我才睡着", most of us might rashly come to the English version as: *I did not sleep until five o'clock in the morning.* On second thoughts, however, the above English version is wrongly constructed. "*Sleep*" in the above sentence can be defined as stative state, while the original meaning is to express dynamic meaning. Here a dynamic verb form should be used instead of the stative one. So the correct one should be as follows, *I did not fall asleep until five o'clock in the morning.*

Therefore, when it comes to English writing, a language learner should bear in mind from time to time the differences between native language and English language, especially the stative feature of English and the dynamic one of Chinese. In the process of English writing, an accurate application of the stative expressions facilitates considerably in processing effective sentences. The following part will elaborate upon its application to translation between Chinese and English.

VI. SIGNIFICANCE IN THE TRANSLATION BETWEEN CHINESE AND ENGLISH

Verbal predicate in English sentence is strictly restrained because of its morphological changes of verbs. There is only one finite verb in one sentence, which necessitates that when it comes to express the concept of action, other means rather other relying on the finite verbs, such as nonfinite verbs, prepositions, adverbs, adjectives, etc. are employed to do so. Consequently, nouns and prepositions are the most effective words to express the state of action.

In Chinese, however, verbs have no morphological changes. Verbs in Chinese have more freedom and greater power to form sentences. So in the English-Chinese translation or vice versa, transformation between stative and dynamic expressions becomes the rule of thumb. Take a look at following examples:

Back and forth his head swiveled, desire <u>waxing</u>, resolution <u>waning</u>.

他来回晃着脑袋，欲望在<u>膨胀</u>，意志在<u>萎缩</u>。

<u>An acquaintance with</u> the modern Chinese history is helpful to the study of Chinese revolution.

<u>了解一下</u>中国的近代史，对研究中国革命是有帮助的。

一个人能力有大小，但只要有这点精神，他就是一个<u>高尚的人</u>，一个<u>纯粹的人</u>，一个<u>脱离了低级趣味的人</u>，一个<u>有益于人民的人</u>。

A man's ability may be great or small, but if he has this spirit, he is already <u>noble-minded and pure</u>, a man of <u>moral integrity</u> and <u>above vulgar interests</u>, a man who is <u>of value to the people</u>.

一切爱好和平的人名都要求全面<u>禁止</u>核武器，彻底<u>销毁</u>核武器。

All peace-loving people demand the complete <u>prohibition</u> and thorough <u>destruction</u> of nuclear weapons.

她<u>深信</u>，只有对历史加以透彻研究，才能真正学到知识。

She is <u>in the full conviction</u> that real knowledge is the end product of a thorough study of the history.

Aggression took many forms: the <u>unilateral denunciation</u> of treaties and international commitments, <u>interference</u> in the internal affairs of other states, <u>the use of threats</u> against weaker neighbors, the <u>imposition</u> of unequal relationships, outright <u>armed attack</u> against the territories of other states and their dismemberment, the <u>subjugation</u> of colonial peoples and the <u>denial</u> of the right of self-determination and fundamental human rights.

侵略有许多形式：单方面<u>废除</u>条约与国际义务，<u>干涉</u>别国内政，对较弱邻国实施<u>威胁</u>，<u>强迫实行</u>不平等关系，赤裸裸<u>武装进攻</u>别国领土和肢解别国，<u>征服</u>殖民地民族，<u>否认</u>自决权和基本人权。

That would be the confirmation that it was <u>in general use</u>.

这将证实其用途<u>十分普遍</u>。

<u>The very first sight</u> of her made him fall in love with her.

他对她<u>一见钟情</u>。

In the last two instances, the paronyms (confirmation, sight) express the verbal action instead of using the verbs (confirm, see).

English language contains many forms of stative expressions, but not all of them will be altered into dynamic ones when the translation of Chinese is concerned. Every different form has its own characteristics and it is damned too hard to find a generally uniform solution to every case. However, a general rule could be drawn, that is, only if there is a meaning of action hidden in or behind the stative expression, no matter which form it takes, there may be the possibility of transforming it into dynamic expression in the course of English-Chinese translation.

VII. CONCLUSION

The study of "dynamic and stative" has long been discussed among linguists. Quirk, in his book *A Grammar of Contemporary English*, defines the concept of dynamic and stative. Potter points out in his book *Changing English* the idea of "preponderance of nouns over verbs". Potter analyzes the loss of distinction between adjective and noun when a noun functions as a modifier. Through comparison and contrast, a better understanding of English will be obtained. And the stative feature will undoubtedly contribute to effective English writing and idiomatic way of translation. For those Chinese learners of English, these representations should be borne in mind when it comes to communication in English.

Only being acquainted with these features is far from adequate. Reading, writing and translation practices are needed from time to time to incorporate these features into practice.

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On the Necessity of Cooperative Learning for Business English Learning

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Abstract—**With the globalization of the world and the Initiative of Belt and Road, Business English learning is becoming increasingly popular and important in China. Based on the comparison between tradional frontal-lecturing approach and cooperative learning and analysis of the characteristics of Business English course, this paper tries to integrate Business English teaching with cooperative learning from Dewey's interactive naturalism and humanism with an attempt to explore why cooperative learning is effective in Business English learning to deveplope students' English competence, business skills and moral qualities.**

Index Terms—**Business English, cooperative learning, English competence, business skills,moral qualities**

I. INTRODUCTION

Since China joined the WTO in 2001, the global economic integration has become more and more intensive, and international business activities have been increasely frequent, more and more foreign companies choosing to invest in China.Correspondingly, Business English has been applied more extensively, and the high-quality talents proficient in Business English are urgently needed to promote economic and social development. In order to meet the challenges of the commodity economy era in globalization, an increasing number of universities and colleges are beginning to offer Buisness English course. Improving the teaching level of Business English has become a top priority for these colleges and universities. Therefore, we have further explored more appropriate teaching methods of Business English course to cultivate high-quality talents who have excellent English and business skills as well as   moral qualities to meet the needs of society.

The traditional Business English teaching method is mainly based on teachers' lecturing, and the content of teaching is mainly on English and supplemented by business. That is, the teacher mainly teaches English vocabulary, syntax and translation related to business texts, simple basic theory of business included. From the perspective of teaching, this method takes the teacher as the centre of the classroom. The teacher manipulates classes by lecturing almost without pause to seemly obedient yet inwardly resistant students who sit in neat rows. It lacks the opportunity of two-way communication between teachers and students, thus the classroom atmosphere is always not active enough, the students' enthusiasm not high, and the teaching effect minimal. From the perspective of teaching content, the traditional lecturing method emphasizes the students' English ability, but business knowledge is relatively scattered. The teaching content lacks professionalism and systemicity. For students, this teaching method makes the classroom boring, and dampens stuents' enthusiasm in studying, thus failing to guarantee students' communicative abilities and critical thinking which are indispensable to Business English, so they are passive recipients of knowledge. In this case, students can only learn some business background knowledge, but they can not use the knowledge skillfully in actual business situations.

In addition, in the age of the Information Technology, students have long been accustomed to getting information from the Internet, and the network has changed the way the group learns and behaves. It is of great practical significance to do a better job in Business English teaching, which is closely related to the employment prospects of Business English majors, and also the success or failure of this professional education. So this paper tries to explore why Cooperative Learning, from Dewey's naturalism and humanism, is necessary in deveploping students' English competence，business skills and moral qualities effectively to improve their future perfomance in Business English context.

II. BUSINESS ENGLISH DISCIPLINE

The history of Business English course is very long in China, but the Business English undergraduate major, an independent undergraduate major, was approved by the Ministry of Education in 2008 with several generations of Chinese Business English people's hard and tireless work. In 2014, 216 colleges and universities have established Business English major. By 2019, a total of 943 colleges and universities across the country have opened this major. However, Business English as a new subject is not perfect, and it needs to be improved in many fields such as subject construction, curriculum, teaching methods and teaching staff building.

A. Characteristics of Business English Discipline

In general, Business English refers to the English that people use in business activities. In the 1980s, Business English in China was mainly used for foreign trade, so it was also called Foreign Trade English at that time. Now with the

increasing globalization of economic development, China will integrate into the international economic life in a broader field and at a deeper level. Our foreign exchanges and cooperation in the fields of economy, culture and education are becoming more frequent. Modern Business English has given itself a new concept. It should not specifically refer to China's Foreign Trade English. It should also cover the English application of our people in various fields and at all levels of foreign exchange activities. The connotation and extension of modern Business English has been expanded, and a practical subject has been formed. Business English is actually a specialized English for the background of national business. So it is a branch of ESP (English for Special Purpose), which involves both English skills and business knowledge. *The College English syllabus* stipulates that the aim of ESP is "to train students to have strong reading abilites and certain listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating skills so that they can exchange information in English; be proficient in the 1000-1500 common English words related to a specified major; be able to read the original textbooks, reference books and other reference materials about the major in English; have the ability to understand English conversations, reports and lectures related to the content of this major; and could take part in a general conversation about professional content of this major in English, as well as take notes, write outlines, write abstracts and brief introductions when reading relevant professional written materials; in addition, the students could write 150-180 words of English essays and letters of the major in half an hour." As for as Business English is concerned, it is a subject of the integration of English linguistics and economics. The relevant theories of English linguistics, economics and management should be the theoretical basis for the development of the major. In addition to its research on the language itself, it also covers the intersection of culture, economics, trade, management and law, so Business English has the characteristics of "interdisciplinary" and "composite". Therefore, the course should not only improve students' ability to use English language in listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating, but also help students to learn business expertise and master business practice skills. When it comes to the nature of Business English, we can conclude: First of all, Business English has a complex nature. It does not just mean business vocabulary and terminology, or business combined with English. It is a special communication system with a combination of business knowledge and skills, English language and cross-cultural communication(Zhang & Wang , 2013, p. 51-56). Secondly, Business English is a pramatic major which is practically oriented and closely related to the profession.

B. Objectives of Business English Discipline

According to the "National Standards for Undergraduate Teaching Quality of Business English Majors in Higher Education Institutions" issued by the Ministry of Education of China in 2014, Business English aims to cultivate Business English majors to have basic English skills, an international perspective and humanistic qualities, and master linguistics, economics, management,international business law and other related basic theories. Furthermore, after learning Business English, the students shuold be familiar with the common rules and practices of international business. The English application ability, business practice ability, cross-cultural communication ability, speculation and innovation ability and independent learning ability are also included in this national standard. Last but not the least, those students should be applied talents who can engage in international business work after graduation. In other words, the main purpose of learners to study business English is to enable themselves to have the ability to communicate in English in the current or future business work. They share the aim to be the applied English professionals who know business theory and skills, and have a high level of foreign language and computer operation. So after graduation , they have the competence to work in various types of joint or foreign enterprises and institutions, and they can independently complete English-based business negotiation, import and export business, public relations reception, foreign secretary, marketing and planning, business activity (pen) translation, and data translation in the business field. In a word, Business English students will have a comprehensive and solid language competence, master basic economic, trade and business knowledge, as well as understand the development status and trends of their respective fields, and after graduation, they can gradually become Business English talents in the international market. Therefore, Business English has the strong purpose and emphasizes practicality both in the teaching and the actual application.

C. Demands and Evaluations of Business English Teaching

Business English should be taught in accordance with the requirements of the *Syllabus of Busiess English* issued by the Ministry of Education of China. Teachers should teach students in line with their aptitude with rational use of teaching methods and educational techniques, and pay attention to cultivating students' ideological and moral character, basic English skills, humanities and scientific literacy, international vision, business knowledge, and innovative entrepreneurship. To develop a good business sense and business literacy, students should have a noble moral sentiment, a correct outlook on life, a healthy body and mind, humanities and scientific literacy, innovative spirit, international vision and home country feeling after learning this course. The basic quality requirements of Business English teachers are to master English, business as well as have bussiness practice abliltiy. Business English teachers should be a qualified English teacher with basic knowledge of international business and expertise in a certain field of international business with certain international business practices.

According to the comprehensiveness and cross-cutting characteristics of Business English, the evaluation model of Business English is quite different from that of traditional English. It should focus on the introduction of business and professional elements, as well as English competence. The evaluators should actively establish an evaluation model of openness, pluralism, negotiation and development. Furthermore,the evaluation of Business English teaching should not

be limited to traditional paper examinations. Instead, it should focus on the humanistic quality, both English and business knowledge and practical bility of students, besides, the professional ethics, teaching and research ability, practical ability, as well as all aspects of professional teaching of teachers,

III. COOPERATIVE LEARNING COMPARED WITH FRONTAL-LECTURING

Confucius has once made a decription: " Two minds are always better than one". What he said means cooperation is better than working alone. Cooperative Learning (CL) is a task-based and group-structured instructional method in which members in heterogeneous groups collaborate instead of competing with each other to seek attainments that are beneficial to each member with the teacher's academic and moral guidance(Han, 2014, p.948). Concretely, CL is to divide the whole class into several groups according to certain requirements, and create an atmosphere that can improve the performance of the group only through the close cooperation of the team members, that is, the team members must not only strive to achieve personal goals, but also need help group members achieve their goals. Students could work togother to maximize every participator's learning through cooperation, for it is very likely that people who work collaboratively for group goals tend to perform better socially and academically than those who work in isolation. CL also supplies students with many opportunities to learn from each other rather than receive information from the text and the teacher alone. Advocators of CL believe that learning is the process of meeting the internal needs of individuals. CL is based on satisfying the psychological needs of students. Control theory tells us that teachers can't force any student to do things they don't want to do. Trying to force students to learn is always difficult. Only by creating conditions that satisfy students' sense of belonging and influence, will they feel that learning is meaningful and is willing to learn.

Meanwhile, there is another saying made by Confucius: Prince is Prince, Minister is Minister. In the traditional Chinese classroom, the teacher is the Prince who give orders while the students are the obedient ministers, "students will perceive the teacher as an authority figure whose superior knowledge and control over classroom learning events should not be questioned" (XU, 2001). In detail, the traditional lecturing method refers to the teaching method that the teacher systematically and carefully explain the knowledge in detail, so that the students can master a large amount of knowledge. This form of teaching is relatively simple. Generally, the teacher accustomed to the center of the class is standing on the podium, and the students are passively accepted below. The teachers are free with this teaching method and students only have a hard time listening at this point, traditional teaching methods often dubbed as cramming. Generally speaking, students are expected to receive knowledge passively in the teacher-centered classroom. If students ask some questions, teachers think they are challenged. Regrettably, the traditional teaching methods we are familiar with always undermine the curiosity of students: students are eager to find something unknown after walking into the school, but finally find themselves shaped into manipulated "puppets" who follows and learns whatever teachers said, although they hate what they are doing. They are exhausted by outdated learning styles in which they are forced to imitate the single and predetermined way of beliefs and thinking by knowledge providers and authorities. In this way, students are bored with the class, and they could not use English in communication even after many years' English study. When I was a teenager, I was very anxious to finish my studies and explore the world on my own，because I was always bored with study and believed that I just studied for my parents and teachers at school. So after graduation,I suddenly realized that, to become a free thinker and doer, I had to reconstruct my knowledge in my own way

Here we can make a comparison between CL and traditional lecturing in terms of teachers' role, students' role and the way to relay knowledge. In the first place, teachers, as the authoritarian of the traditional classroom, afford social and linguistic knowledge to the students and govern all commucication channels. In contrast, teachers become knowledge promoters in CL who take responsibility for providing assistance and intervention to develope student's social skills and languange competence that prepare the students for potent contribution to society as democratized and responsible citizens. In the second place, students in traditional classroom are usually passive knowledge receivers who mechanically use what they learned in the whole process of knowledge relay. However, by taking differen roles as participants, mediators, even group leaders, students who are in the groups of CL always actively assume great responsibilites for their own study. They gain direct access to knowledge through negotiation, participation and investigation. Finally, in the traditional way, students often receive the language knowledge and obtain skills in an isolated and fragmented manner. Students often adopt a "bottom-up" method to learning: To start with, they master the morphological, vocabulary, and grammatical rules through mechanical exercises and rote memorization, and then they are sure to produce English regulated by rules and fail to flexibly apply what they have learned in the class. In contrast, CL stresses the roles of students in finding out, analyzing and solving problems, and setting up close personal relationships with group members. Here, students adopt a "top-down" method to learning : they grasp language regulations and learn how to use language flexibly through group interaction. For language learners, the most important thing is not how much knowledge the teacher can teach them, but how they can effectively use the knowledge they learned to communicate with others. In short, " the teachers are no longer the authoritarians who control students' learning behavior but perceived as knowledge promoters; students are no longer passive recipients of knowledge and skills but active discoverers and constructors of knowledge"(Han, 2014, p.948). Teachers are no longer the sole occupants and providers of knowledge, but become organizers and guides of the classroom. Teachers should transform themselves from God to guide, from sage on the stage to the guide on the side, from teachers to helpers, councilors and facilitators. Both teachers and students should change their roles and share the education responsibility. Don Snow points out: "whether or not students succeed in learning a

language depends more on their own efforts than one the teacher's and that a good program of instruction therefore needs to be student centered instead of teacher centered" (Snow, 2007, p.20). Especially, in the Internet age, students have more access to knowledge. Teachers should not think they are authoritarians any more. Only do they correct their thoughts first, they will carry out the right teaching methods in reality.

IV. NECESSITY OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING FOR BUSINESS ENGLISH

In 2012, the Business English major became a discipline independent of English majors. As a subject, although Business English has made great progress in recent years, its curriculum system, teaching staff building and teaching model still need to be improved. As far as the current situation of Business English is concerned, many English schools of universities in China are quite confused about the implementation of this interdisciplinary and compound teaching task. There is a shortage of Business English teachers and the quality of those teachers is always not high. So neither the quantity nor the quality of Business English teachers could meet the development needs of the Business English subject. Most of the teachers who teach Business English were transformed from traditional English majors. They basically use traditional lecturing teaching methods. Besides, it has long been found that the traditional English major does not provide students with a training system for Business English communication skills, so we cannot learn from it. The Business English major should train students to acquire business English communication skills through development and innovation. Strengthening the top-level design from the aspects of classroom setting, teaching methods, and teacher equipment, and implementing them in detail, can achieve such training objectives. Teachers should not only pay attention to the cultivation of English knowledge when teaching Business English courses, but also strengthen students' ability to use English to solve practical problems in foreign business situations. This requires that the traditional teaching methods must be broken in the teaching, the English knowledge and skills training should be integrated into the specific business situations and tasks, and the students should understand, analyze and deal with specific business affairs in the business environment. Meanwhile, i;t is believed that the people who work together to achieve members' common goals are more likely to succeed in social and academic performance than those working alone. So the following paragraphs tries to figure out the necessity of cooperative learning for Business English learning from Dewey's naturalism and humanism,

A. Necessity of Cooperative Learning for Business English in the Light of Dewey's Naturalism

Dewey, an American philosopher, psychologist and pragmatist educator (1859-1952) was a reformer of traditional education and a pioneer of new education. He advocated the development of children's personality from the nature of children. Dewey's theory is the representative of modern educational theory. It is different from the traditional three-centered theory of "classroom center", "teaching center" and "teacher center". He proposed "New Three Centers Theory": "child center (student center)" "activity center" and "experience center". One of Dewey's (1915) widely acknowledged ideas is that children's innate curiosity, the basis of learning experiences, enable them to be natural learners and that "the fundamental necessity is leading the child to realize a problem as his own, so that he is self-induced to attend to it in order to find out its answer" (p.151). From Dewey's naturalism, also known as empirical naturalism, students will naturally set up the multiple knowledge networks based on their life experience, mental maps of real life and knowledge repertoire. Dewey(1915) believes that education is "continuous transformation and reorganization of experience" (p.151). Children only have to take the initiative to experience everything, and the acquired knowledge is their own knowledge. Therefore, he proposed the principle of learning from doing and experience. Since children can learn from activities that are truly educational and interesting, replacing traditional classroom teaching with life-based and activity-based teaching, and substituting children's personal experience for book-based teaching contribute to the growth and development of children. So schools teaching should create as many opportunities as possible for students to make them engage in their own learning. CL could ideally provide students with a democratic and collaborative classroom where group-structured students discover and interpret language regulations and all kinds of settings they are directly exposed to. In this case, ideas which is beyond their understanding could be interpreted into what they can comprehend by their group members. Eventually, learning is reorganized, extended and activated by the activities among group members in a specific social settting.

Since Business English has the characteristics of "interdisciplinary" and "composite", it is different from traditional English teaching in teaching contents and teaching methods. Students learning Business English need more practice and cooperation to provide opportunities for them to communicate with each other in English and acquire more business skills and experiences. It is difficult for students to understand and remember simple business theory knowledge which is boring and abstract. Furthermore, in some cases information provided by the teachers is quite technical, so the learners try to paraphrase it to something suitable to their comprehension. Face-to-face group work of CL could make students feel less nervous and be more willing to get involved, as well as offer them abundant opportunities to converse in language they can understand and hear language modified to meet their needs. Their willingness to express themselves in the target language optimizes their language skills, and if students are allowed to cooperate and analyze some business situation together, they can vividly learn the business knowledge contained in these situations.

In addition, the goal of business English is not only to let students master the basic business theory, but more importantly, to cultivate students' practical ability by experiencing more business situations. Although there are corresponding Business English internship bases, due to various reasons, these enterprises always fail to provide the

students with the actual and training opportunities. when contacting companies, most companies are not very active. An important reason is that although students have a certain theoretical knowledge of business English, their actual operational capabilities are far from the requirements of enterprises. Most companies are not willing to disturb their work schedule, so there are very few opportunities to improve the practical abilities of students in those companies. Therefore, Business English teachers should create as many opportunities as possible to make students have more contact with various business environments, and train students to use English freely and accurately to solve common problems in business situations. In college classrooms, situational simulation is a relatively convenient and effective way to allow students to experience realistic business situations. Teachers should carefully design various business situations with moderate difficulty according to the content of the course and the practice of teaching materials, such as: business travel, airport reception, company visit, organization meeting, business banquet, marketing planning, job interview, factory inventory audit, dock inspection Goods, product complaint handling, insurance purchase, banking, trade order negotiations, etc. CL is a very good way to enable teachers and students to cooperate with each other in these situational simulations. In these vivid business situations, students deeply memorize and proficiently maser all aspects of the process by simulation training, so that the business process in English go throughout the classroom activities. In the process of organizing situational teaching, teachers should give full play to students' autonomy and enthusiasm, so that students can become the center of the classroom, and students can be grouped and discuss and exercise according to the established scenes. For example, in the job interview scenario, we can divide the classmates into groups of four by letting the two students act as the company's interviewers, and the other two students act as job seekers. Finally, with everyone's comments and the teacher's summary, students can deeply understand the correct way to deal with the interview. This coincides with Dewey's naturalism, providing students with a real social setting to build their own knowledge reserves. With the CL from Dewey's naturalism, the learners actively participate in pair (in business socializing) or group work(in business socializing and meetings) tasks and are involved in tasks as negotiators(in business meetings and negotiations), problem solvers(in business socializing and meetings) and observers, foreign delegates (in business socializing, negotiations and meetings). Teachers will be the instructor who plays an active role before session (planner and decision maker), during every session (instructor, facilitator, counsellor, partner, role model, problem solver, decision maker) , after every session (communicator, coordinator, assignment organizer, assessor) and at the end of every course (rater, examiner or assessor). (Latif, 2013, p.102). In short, CL has led to multilateral exchanges between teachers and students, emphasizing the interaction and cooperation between students, thereby improving students' ability to actually use language and business skills.

Lastly, as we mentioned above, although Business English majors has begun to take shape in many colleges and universities of China, the number of business English teachers is far from enough and many of them are still not qualified enough. Among those Business English teachers, most of them are transformed from other majors, such as translation, education, etc. They have good English competence, and they can also get some basic business knowledge required for teaching through their own self-study, but most of them lack the training opportunities and pratical experience to connect themselves with Business English in real situations. Thence, Business English teaching has to be limited to simple theoretical business teaching and cannot be organically combined with practical applications. Through CL, teachers can also gain business practice experience through the desire for knowledge and the simulation of real business settings when they cooperate with students during teaching. This is very helpful for the successful transformation of business English teachers from traditonal English majors.

In short, both teachers and students could develop their language competence and business skills better with CL because of life-based and activity-based teaching context and their innate curiosity, the basis of learning experiences.

B. Necessity of Cooperative Learning for Business English in the Light of Dewey's Humanism

Dewey's humanism emphasizes the nature of human beings, mainly giving priority to such issues as human needs, potential abilities and value of life. Dewey (1902) declared that authentic learning will not take place unless "it must be restored to the experience from which it has been abstracted" (p.117). According to his humanism, learning only happens when the things one learns match one's personal interests and when the learners actively participate. The traditional teaching practices run counter to the spirit of humanism: learners are compelled to remember and learn knowledge that is not related to their personal and social needs.

In reality, the privileged class always uses education to maintain status quo, to influence the masses who think and believe in an officially authorized way. Chomsky (1997) once pointed out: "The universities, for example, are not independent institutions. It's dependent on outside sources of support and those of support, such private wealth, big cooperation with grants, and the government....Those of you who have been through college know that the education system is very highly geared to rewarding conformity and obedience." In this situation, most teachers are just like puppest under the government's control, they think their roles are to pass the knowledge in the textbooks to students, and not responsible for students'critical thinking,democratic consciousness. People painfully felt confused about the difference between the learnt knowledge in the books or newspapers and diversified reality. For exmaple, in the newspapers of different countries, readers are very likely to find that the people of their own country live very happily and peacefully, while people of other coutries are miserable and very hard to make a living. When I was a visiting scholar in the United States in 2014, one of my American professors felt very shocked when he learnt that almost every Chinese family has washing machines and most of them have their private cars. What made me unhappy is not that they knew very little about

China, but because their knowledge came from official propaganda materials written by authoritative people who were clearly biased against our country. If learners are denied the right to an objective and comprehensive vision of the world, no matter they are eastern or western, they can just acqurie the knowledge which is distorted from reality. That is to say, if people in power deliberately use education as a tool of social manipulation, learners' imagination and demand for progressive changes will be unmercifully strangled. Learning should be a process in which learners are exposed to all the objectivity and emancipated to "name and transform the world" (Freire, 1972) in their own discourses. The student has the right to be made aware of the self-evident truth that the subordinate's understanding and voice are as privileged and validated as those in power.

As far as language learning is concerned, learning a language means learning a culture, and therefore learning values. Values are the rules of conduct, and students should be trained to establish the right values. In Dewey's words, students can acquire skills that qualify them for citizenship in a democracy classroom setting by undertaking projects collaboratively and work out solutions in a respectful yet critical way" (1914). CL based on group studying is beneficial to students in their psychological health and developing their own critical ideas and democratic consciousness. Psychological health derives from two-way interactions within groups. Cooperative learning is a good way to promote democracy which is not an ideal, but a way of life involving socializing and learning together. Dewey believed that if children are to learn to live in thriving democracy, they must experience the process of democracy in classroom life—a process which includes substantive opportunities to make meaningful choices and build productive relationships based on genuine interpersonal respect and empathy (Dewey, 1915). In student-centered setting, teachers' power and authority are equally shared with students. Correspondingly, students have many chances to share, argue and test all kinds of ideas by and for themselves. This process can foster students' self-identity which is essential for a democratic society.

In reality, most teachers know "cooperative learning produces high language proficiency in students" (Han, 2014), however, most of them never associate CL with moral growth of students, and never think their lecturing classes would do harm to students' creativity and critical thinking. This is especially important for Business English majors who will engage themselves in international business which is conducted among the traders from different countries. They should develop a critical and democratic thinking when communicating with foreigners since foreign trade is always complicated and changing. Group-structured learning could provide good opportunities to develop such critical and democratic thinking: by encouraging respect of differences, love, trust and appropriate compromise, peers interactions and modeling can promote students' self-esteem, social relations skills and emotional maturity. International business is also a process that requires cross-cultural communication to remove obstacles among participants who need to have good communication and interaction with customers and establish long-term relationships with their partners. CL is not only a form of class dynamism, but also a way to building life-long interactions and communicative competences to deal with more complicated challenging business situations. Meanwhile, collaborative learning can also promote the formation of self-identity, which is derived from joint efforts and contributions to common goals. Teachers and peers' timely and positive assessment can encourage students' participation in cooperation with others to construct their knowledge framework and give new dimensions to their previous experiences. Cooperation experiences also can make them have faith in their own ability and enhance self-worth. All of these will contribute to the development of teamwork spirit, which is also vital to international business. Besides, CL encourages the development of skills such as dialogues, negotiation and equity, which are indispensable in interantional business. Hot topics such as public welfare, social unrest, official corruption and environmental pollution will naturally be raised in group discussions, which will help students to establish positive and correct attitudes in future cross-cultural communications. What the student touches in class will project into a larger background. Although individual classes are not able to help students change the way they perceive themselves and the world around them, but CL can influence Business English majors in a long run after their actively participating in the process of collaboration.The process is filled with collision and fusion of convictions and beliefs. It doesn't matter how the change happens, but the direction in which the change takes place is important.

More strikingly, Business English teachers are also democratized in their interchanges with students and related business materials. In most cases, authoritarian teachers exercise power by depriving students of their power. Not surprisingly, when people suppress others' creativity and initiative, they will find their moral growth stagnating and souls shrinking. Teachers can liberate themselves by depriving them of the "mask" of the highest authority and giving up the daunting mental burden. They can get students out of complete obedience and internal resistance to achieve more goals, because sharing power and athourity with students can promote the same qualities as teachers and students, namely, initiative, democratic awareness and independent thinking.

In the setting of Business English courses, it is no longer limited to simply improving the ability to use English or teaching business professional knowledge. Instead, it starts with three aspects: language skills, business knowledge and moral qualities. Its final aim is to cultivate the inter-disciplinary talents needed by the market. CL could develp both Buiness English teachers' and students'critical and democratic thinking key to buisness world. Their moral growth and self- confience needed for cross-cultural communication and their future career could also be achieved during the CL process.

V. CONCLUSION

Business English, a branch of foreign langugage learning and a practical subject, especilly needs CL approach which can create a liberal and student-centered setting for Business English learners to buid up their language competence, business skills and develop their moral qualities needed for commucating with their business partners, especially the international ones. From Dewey's naturalism and humanism, CL ideally provides a collaborative and democratic environment for Business English learners, who can discover and interpret the language rules and related business knowledge they are in direct contact with. Thus, education participants should make limitless efforts to create an open and democratic environment to make sure learning is a lively, happy, and worthwhile experience. Concretely, a low-anxiety environment with CL will be created by group members' encouragement and trust. When the students are willing to activley participate in the learning process, we win.

All in all, we can envision three benefits from transformation of Busienss English classes from lecturing to CL. First, it provides supportive and expanded opportunities for learners to use the target language and imitate the real business situations. Second, it contributes to students' psychological health which is import when business English majors get themselves involved in business practices. Finally, it promotes the democratic climate of the classroom and students' critical thinking and democratic consciousness, which are beneficial to cross-cultural communication. Business English teaching should adopt the cooperative learning method that provides authentic and dynamic environment to encourage students to get actively involved, to improve the interaction between teachers and students, so that students can take part more in the classroom activities and get access to more business scenarios, thus helping them better master English and business skills and promote moral growth, accidently complying with *National Standards for Undergraduate Teaching Quality of Business English Majors in Higher Education Institutions* in which stipulates that Business English aims to cultivate Business English majors to have ideological and moral character, basic English skills, an international perspective and humanistic qualities, and master linguistics, economics, management, international business law and other related basic theories as well as business skills.

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Teacher's Identity, Marketization of Higher Education, and Curriculum

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Abstract—**For a long time, education has been praised as a morality in itself. Great philosophers have proudly called themselves "teachers", and education was considered a special gift given to young gifted people. But in today's world, in which everything, including even human feelings, have changed and become commodified, education has not been an exception. There have been many changes in education such as internationalization, increased competition and cooperation, neoliberalism, marketization, privatization, and new teaching methods. The idea that education is simply another market commodity has become pervasive in different discourses. Marketization which is one of the consequences of neoliberalism policies is an attempt that appraises everything related to higher education based on a market, where demand and supply and all the educational activities are determined and evaluated based on the price mechanism (Brown, 2014). This trend has fundamental effects on different aspects of the higher education including teacher's identity and curriculum design. In this article, the researcher defines the concept of identity and then describes the type of teacher's identity that is promoted by the marketization of higher education. Also, characteristics and some of the consequences of marketization of higher education and the effects of such trend on curriculum design are discussed.**

Index Terms—**teacher's identity, marketization, higher education, curriculum**

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's world, we live in societies and work for economies which are technology driven and knowledge-based and knowledge itself is considered as an industry (Calzolari, 2010; Günder, 2009; Peters, 2002; Gibbons, et. al., 1994). Revolutions in the world of technology and telecommunication make the knowledge the main source for production and productivity (Kurtoglu, 2008), increasing the need for qualified workforce. In such a world, the role of higher education institutions in society and economy increases (YÖK, 2007). The world of higher education has evolved considerably, and important changes such as higher registration of students in nonnative countries' educational institutions, the increasing numbers of international students, and neoliberalism policies like marketization, privatization, and higher market-oriented competitions have emerged. One of the main revolutions which has become pervasive around the world is marketization of higher education. As Brown (2014) suggests one of the main consequences of neoliberalism policies is corporatization and marketization of the higher education which is based on the premise that the market can be the primary source of cultural logic and value, and it can substitute the democratic state. Neoliberalism promotes marketization policies and assigning services to the private sector instead of government, and it is one of the most important terms that should be well-understood in humanities and social studies. The neoliberal reforms emphasize the central role of markets in the governance of society, and advocate for minimal state involvement and intervention. In practice, this means enforcing actions, including: marketization and privatization. Marketization is an attempt that appraises everything related to higher education based on market, where demand and supply and all the educational activities are determined and evaluated based on the price mechanism (Brown, 2014).

One of the most important influences of marketization is related to teacher's identity. As McKoen and Harrison (2010) suggest, identity is a socially and culturally "self" that is shaped through the communication with the experiences that are gained in one's life. Identity is not fixed; it is ever-changing and continually under construction. It is a lifelong continuum which is created through social interactions and processes (Berger & Luckmann, 1991). Teacher's identity is also the product of interaction between personal beliefs of teaching, understanding of the self, and social and occupational situations (Kreber, 2010). Scholars increasingly emphasize that teacher's identity is an integral part of the teaching profession (Rodgers & Scott, 2008). Changes on a global scale require teachers to adapt to new roles in order to keep up with continuous diversifications in society (Thomas & Beauchamp, 2010). This adaptation on the part of teachers requires them not only new knowledge acquisition but also learning in broader social context. As teachers´ learning can be characterized as professional identity building (Timoštšuk, 2011), the experiences of the teachers that are gained through changes in the society are very important for forming and transforming teachers´

identity. In the present article, some of the required adaptations and modifications of the teacher's identity in the light of marketization are discussed.

The other important element which is under the influence of marketization is curriculum. As Richards (2001) declares, curriculum design is a term that encompasses the purposeful and systematic organization of the course, and it is one of the important elements of the education that support it to be a good system and result a good output. But curriculum design, just like teacher's identity, is a field that is strongly influenced by marketization trend and requires some adaptations that may not be acceptable and satisfactory for many working in the field. In this article the trend of marketization of higher education and its relationship with teacher's identity and curriculum is discussed.

II. TEACHER'S IDENTITY

Identity has always been an important issue in the social and cultural studies. Poets, playwrights, and novelists are also interested in creating artworks in which identity changes in different conditions. As an example, in *The Late Mattia Pascal* (1964*)* which is Piranddello's novella, there is a man who fakes his death to start living with different identity only because his previous 'self' prevents routs to the new 'self' that he desires. We all have read and seen similar events in different stories, movies and so on. According to Danielewicz (2001), identity is our understanding of who we are and of who we think other people are. Reciprocally, it also encompasses other people's understanding of themselves and others (including us). Identity is not fixed; it is ever-changing and continually under construction. Danielewicz (2001) asserts that "Every person is composed of multiple, often conflicting, identities, which exist in volatile states of construction or reconstruction, reformation or erosion, addition or expansion" (p. 10).

Teacher's identity in the educational context is the matter of current article. Scholars believe that teacher's identity is central to the teaching profession (Rodgers & Scott, 2008). The teacher's identity formation is an ongoing process which includes interpretation and reinterpretation of who one perceives oneself to be and who one would like to become (Beijaard et al., 2004). Teachers who identify with their teaching roles get an emotional attachment to their roles, and it reflects their worldview (Holland & Lachicotte, 2007). Scholars also claim that this kind of attachment makes the role as a part of teacher's personality (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011; Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009).

Clarke (2008) frames identity as individual' knowledge and naming of themselves and also others' recognition of them as a particular sort of person. Danielewicz (2001) writes, "I regard 'becoming a teacher' as an identity forming process whereby individuals define themselves and are viewed by others as teachers" (p. 4). Specifically in the context of language teaching, Varghese et al. (2005) argue that "In order to understand language teaching and learning we need to understand teachers: the professional, cultural, political and individual identities which they claim or which are assigned to them" (p. 22). Actually, processes of identity formation are related to the discourses and the communities that we live and work within.

There are a variety of theoretical approaches to teacher's identity; some put emphasis on the social and cultural essence of this phenomenon, while others believe that its discursive and narrative nature is of great importance. Most today's approaches, however, believe that identity is socially embedded, and it is not fixed but dynamic and changing (Rodgers & Scott, 2008). Teacher's identity is not made in a vacuum, but its development is dependent upon social and cultural contexts (Holland & Lachicotte, 2007; Penuel&Wertsch, 1995).

Lankveld and his colleagues (2016) conducted a study on teacher's identity and discussed identity formation from different perspectives. Firstly, they worked on the teachers who entered higher education institutions from a professional background (like music or primary education) and concluded that these teachers strongly identified with their former professions, especially at the first years of teaching profession, and they primarily consider themselves as professionals rather than teachers. During early years of the profession, teachers feel stressful and insecure, and they believe that they are not good enough for their new role. This phase has a life of 1.5 to 3 years and even more. After almost three years being a teacher becomes a part of their identity. Lankveld, et al. (2016) also pointed to psychological and contextual factors that have different effects on teacher's identity formation. Regarding psychological factors they have pointed to: a sense of appreciation, connectedness, competence, commitment, and imaging a future career trajectory which are all psychological factors that have facilitating or constraining effect on teacher's identity development. They also believe that there are four contextual factors that facilitate or inhibit the formation of teacher's identity: first, the direct work environment, second, the wider context of higher education, third, interaction with students, and fourth staff development activities. They conclude that two last factors are facilitating the process of identity development, whereas the second factor has a constraining effect, and the first one can either be facilitator or inhibitor.

As a matter of fact, when the working environment is supportive and collegial teachers get a better feeling and become a member of the team. Instead, when the environment is competitive, and the research is overvalued to teaching, teachers feel isolated and the ideal identity development doesn't take place. Regarding the second factor which is the context of higher education, there are two levels: national and international. At both level, the effect of neoliberal management culture and the challenge in teaching-research relationship is debated and studies reflect the criticisms regarding the lack of creativity, autonomy, and trust which leads to tensions in teacher identities. As it was mentioned, Lankveld, et al. (2016) consider the teacher-student interaction a positive influencing factor for teacher's identity. Most of the time, when teachers have interaction with their students, they feel that their efforts are mattered and appreciated

which in turn strengthen their identity. The last contextual factor which is related to staff development programs is considered positive as these activities increase the confidence of the teachers, they also create a sense of connectedness to peers with whom they interact and exchange their ideas and get an educational language which provides them with the sense of being valued and credible in the institution.

III. TEACHER'S IDENTITY IN MARKETIZED EDUCATION

The other issue is related to teacher's identity and its changes in response to educational reforms. Globalization, neoliberalism, and its trends have changed education dramatically, consequently teachers have faced great changes (Lai & Lo, 2007). Globalization, neoliberalism, marketization and economic developments affect education constantly forcing teachers to change, and these changes occur at different levels. The marketization of education which considers education as a commodity and evaluates educational attempts based on a market view has become a common trend around the world and penetrated many educational aspects where teacher's identity is not an exception. Teachers are expected to be effective instructors but commercialized view of teaching impairs educational ideas and democratic values, which is in line with economic competition at individual, institutional and national levels.

As Lankved, et al. (2017) claim different studies which are conducted mostly in UK or Australia discuss the effect of neoliberalism and marketization on teacher's identity and conclude that this trend has a negative effect on it. He adds that teachers participated in these researches criticize neoliberal developments. As they perceive it as preventing creativity, creating complexities in teaching, and loosing freedom. They also believe that this trend creates tensions that lead to the sense of uncertainty and lack of stability.

Dugas et al. (2018) put the issue in another way. They believe that neoliberalism and marketization lead to institutional striving, which encourage allocating more time and resource on writing and researching rather than teaching alone. They claim that many American regional public universities have changed their perspectives in a way that most of them do not consider teaching effectiveness as a main criterion for promotion. Professors should be more identified as practitioners of their disciplines rather than members of their institutions (e.g., Finnegan & Gamson, 1996; Morphew & Huisman, 2002). These days research productivity is more important than old criteria like being accepted by students, which is one of the consequences of neoliberal point of view (Youn & Price, 2009). Acording to Youn and Price (2009) the view that teaching effectiveness is the main criteria for promotion declined from 86 percent in 1969 to 59 percent in 1997, and the percentage of journal publication doubled in these years. As a result, teachers should make the required adaptations to keep up with the diversifications and expectations.

What is clear is that the marketization of higher education has significant implications for academic identity. Defining academic identity is not simple (Archer, 2008b; Feather, 2016; Henkel, 2000) because identity is defined in different ways (Beijaard, Meijer, & Verloop, 2004; Fitzmaurice, 2013) and also because neoliberalism and marketization of education have had significant impacts on the institutional contexts in which these identities are shaped and reshaped (Bennett et al., 2016; Elkington & Lawrence, 2012; Winter, 2009). The principle of agency is a common framework for identity which considers this concept as an ongoing individual project (Fitzmaurice, 2013). Wenger (1998) calls it 'learning trajectory' which aims to integrate last experiences and future expectations with the present situation. MacLure (1993) defines identity as a "network of personal concerns, values and aspirations against which events are judged and decisions are made" (p. 314). But Jenkins (1996) define it as a synthesis of self-definitions and definitions of 'self' which is offered by others. As a result, we can assume that identity is subject to continuous formation and reformation and also continuous negotiation with the social context (Fitzmaurice, 2013; Whitchurch, 2013).

Academic identities are shaped in negotiation with institutions and the relationships within them (Henkel, 2005; Winter, 2009). As it was mentioned research productivity and assessable outputs are two determinant factors of teacher's progress but they can also have some destructive outcomes. As an example, teachers are obliged to prove that they have the requirements of being a member of the educational system (Ruth, 2008).Teachers who are in the beginning years of their teaching profession feel this pressure more than others (Archer, 2008a, 2008b) and claim that this trend shifts the focus to the needs of the institution rather than individual identity concern. Another contradiction is related to the ones who reflect on "the new managerialism" as a means to improve the academic identity and others who consider it a factor which is in conflict with their desired identity (Tran, Burns, & Ollerhead, 2017; Winter, 2009; Ylijoki, 2014).

As Fredriksson (2009) asserts the market demands affect the teacher's positions, and change the identities from autonomous professionals to service-oriented workers in a quasi-business environment. In such situation, teachers let the principal manage everything and they lose their freedom and authority. Teachers have to remain competitive and their employment is dependent on the marketing success. Teachers should show off their work to the outside world, so they must allocate extra time, money, and effort at the expense of teaching main activities, and at the expense of suffering higher workloads. Devaluation of teacher's professional values is another consequence of marketization that has a negative effect on their identities.

Job satisfaction is another issue that should be considered in this regard. Many researchers have studied the relationship between marketization of the profession and neoliberal emphasis on productivity and concluded that this trend has a negative effect on teachers' job satisfaction (Fredman & Doughney, 2012; Lester, 2013; Vardi, 2009). Shin

and Jung (2014) have done numerous researches in this field and the results of their studies which is related to 19 different countries show that such perspectives make the situation stressful and unsatisfactory. When they compared some academics of different countries in terms of job satisfaction, they realized that those with higher job satisfaction had higher intrinsic motivation in comparison with those who had extrinsic motivation focusing on productivity.

Another consequence of marketization is reflected in higher workload and more expectations for time usage which leads to higher administrative accountabilities and higher dissatisfactions (Kuntz, 2012). Fredman and Doughney (2012) had a similar research and concluded that marketization, and more focus on money treats the educational institution as "shop assistants in a retail environment" (p. 54). These statements reflect more tensions and more job dissatisfaction of the teachers and administrators. Copur (1990) also studied the issue of job dissatisfaction and concluded that one of the reasons for this feeling is the decreased level of autonomy on the part of the teachers. Administrators try to have more control on their teachers and other staffs which leads to the sense of losing autonomy and freedom. Some teachers don't have problem with productivity needs, their main problem with such view is the lack of control over their own work (Fredman & Doughney, 2012). Although these statements regarding job satisfaction are important and different studies have conducted on them (for example, Bozeman & Gaughan, 2011; Copur, 1990; Ryan et al., 2012), they are just one part of the identity negotiation and we don't concentrate on them more.

IV. MARKETIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

During the two last decades and in many parts of the world, we confronted a new trend trying to argue that the government is not the best system that can provide all people with instructional services (Heyneman, 2001). The subsequent reforms with the name of marketization, privatization, and so on have become widespread in many educational systems of the countries around the world. What we face in the developed and developing countries is a movement on a continuum which starts from decreasing the role of government and continues towards marketization and finally complete privatization (Whitty & Power, 2000). Rapid changes and developments in the world of higher education including globalization, neoliberalism trends, higher registration in nonnative educational institutions, increased rate of international students, and higher competitions among different educational institutions have occurred. A prevalent trend in higher education today in many countries around the world is the focus on marketization practices in higher education (Hemsley-Brown & Lowrie, 2010; Taylor & Judson, 2011). The corporatization and marketization of education have roots in neoliberal policies which offer a market view to education and consider it as a market commodity. As Brown (2014) suggests, marketization is an attempt that appraises everything related to higher education based on a market, where demand and supply and all the educational activities are determined and evaluated based on the price mechanism.

Nowadays universities are in the front line of marketization, and this changes the nature of the universities, their social functions, their educational goals, and the process of production and legitimating the knowledge and consequently the power relations (Giroux, 1999). As stated by Güla, Gülb, Kayab, and Alicanb (2010), information triangle consists of education and research, innovation, and creativity. In today's world, university is considered at the center of the information triangle and is capable of influencing 21st century. Kafatos (2008), the President of European Research Council, asserts that university has a special importance in the areas of creativity and innovation along with the other vertex of the information triangle which is research and education.

Marketization of education leads to a point of view in which students are considered as consumers and universities act like corporations. Therefore, universities should be customer-oriented and do the best to attract customers. They should try for the best services and provide required information about their services, so that the ideal condition for free choice of the customers is created. But the fact is that when universities act like corporates, teachers lose their usual social position as a symbol of wisdom; they view education as a commodity, and they should focus on absorbing wealthy customers (Giroux, 2006). First of all, let's consider the theoretical model of Klein (1984) which encompasses the fourfold phases of the educational and financial resource allocation of the private and governmental sectors.

V. KLEIN MODEL

Figure 1: Allocation Model of Educational and Financial Resources (Klein, 1984)

Klein (1984) considers four states for the participation of government or private sector in education. In the first stage, the state is responsible for allocating both financial resources and educational services (teacher, curriculum, and others).

In this stage, there is no intervention or support on the part of private sector. Politicians' justification for this stage is that education is fundamental in the destiny of the society so it shouldn't be influenced by the markets' trends. In the second stage, the state still is the decision-maker but providing financial resources is the responsibility of the private sector. So the private sector, mainly parents, is accountable for financial resources, and the state is responsible for educational policies. In this stage, people are considered as 'Customers'. This state is called Marketization of education. In the next stage, which is the third one, the state provides the private sector with facilities like loans. Decisions and policies regarding education, for example employing teachers, enrolling students, fund allocation and alike are undertaken by the private sector and are determined based on mechanisms and conditions of the market. In a country like Iran, 'Ministrant State' is the position of the government in this stage. In the last stage of Klein, the phrase 'Education without the State' can be used as the state doesn't have above mentioned responsibilities (Whitty & Power, 2000). In this stage, government doesn't provide any subside and the process of education liberalization or complete privatization begins.

If we consider Iran as an example based on Klein Model, it has a contradictory condition. As stated by Modandar Arani, Kakia, and Moazeni (2010), Iran is using the second state in which private sector provides the financial resources, at the same time government is responsible for educational policies and all decisions are made by the state, and the private sector can't intervene and is considered as a customer. On the other hand, the government of Iran, India, and some other countries shares some facilities like loans to the private sector which reminds us the third stage of the Klein model. At the same time, some parts of Iran are interested in the fourth stage in theory but they in the first stage in practice. Some educational authorities claim that education is not exclusively private goods and it should be under supervision of the government. However, others believe that as education is not exclusively public goods, it cannot be governed exclusively by government (Alavitabar, 1990). Modandar, et al. (2010) claim that this kind or privatization which is observed in Iran is a semi-marketization of the governmental services.

VI. CHALLENGES OF MARKETIZATION OF EDUCATION

There are many studies that work on the effects of marketization on higher educational institutions especially universities and the findings show that higher education face different challenges through the way and marketization is a challenging trend for education. Judson and Taylor (2014) refer to the marketization of higher education as the increasing influence of market competition on academic life which leads to undesirable outcomes like creating an educational environment full of tension. Brown (2014) discusses marketization of higher education in terms of system effectiveness, information and consumer choice, quality, value for money, and the role of the state as different ironies of marketization. Regarding value for money, he claims that greater competition through decreasing costs and increasing quality is exactly what is needed. But obviously, too much competition is not desirable and damages the higher educational institution. As an example, Brown points to US "not for profit" colleges and English private schools in which providers over charge to have a better education. Allocating more financial resources to marketing and branding sector is considered as another undesirable consequence that should be considered. So the greater competition doesn't have favorable outcomes. Regarding system effectiveness, Brown (2014) concludes that systems with high degree of marketization are less effective than the others. He also claims that turning higher education to an economic good, which is the character of marketization, is unlike the broader liberal nature of education and damages the quality.

As Güla, Gülb, Kayab, and Alicanb (2010) state, one of the challenges of the present day is equal access to education which can be improved by distant education, e-learning, and other web-based information sharing methods. However, there is a need for more proofs to ensure the access of groups that are socioeconomically disadvantaged. Lower state participation and higher use of market strategies may have a negative effect on government funds available to universities and socioeconomically disadvantaged students, which in turn leads to marketization of higher education. In this environment, students and their families are treated like paying customers and this perspective which views students as consumers- 'consumerism'- leads to higher commercialization of education (Sperlich & Spraul, 2007).

In western world, marketization of higher education is referred to both as "epidemic" (Natale & Doran, 2012) and as "paradigm shift" (Newman & Jahdi, 2009). Whitty and Power (2000) study the historical trends across the United States, England, Australia, and New Zealand and conclude that educational outcomes are not improving and the benefits of marketization of education have yet to be realized. Moelsworth, Nixon, and Scullion (2009) believe that marketization of higher education impedes the transformation of students to critical thinkers in the light of assuming students as consumers.

Decline of higher education as a public good is considered as another consequence of marketization of education which is conveyed by Judson and Taylor (2014). What is happening in the universities is that they are being asked to produce commercially oriented professionals rather than public-interest professionals (Hanlon, 2000). Lynch (2006) also blames marketization of education for different reasons. Changing culture and identity to adopt to the new role in the marketized environment are some of lamentable consequences of this trend as he suggested. Higher concentration on customer service is another feature that is also asserted by Cucchiara, Gold, and Simon (2011) who have studied this trend qualitatively.

Judson and Taylor (2014) also blame marketization of education and assert that many of students have no significant improvement in skills like critical thinking, complex reasoning, and writing which is not ignorable. Lundahl, et al.

(2013) study the Swedish way of educational marketization and conclude that the resulting competitive environment has a negative effect on the performance of the schools and only a small group (less than 25 percent) of the respondents asserted a better performance. Most of the teachers and principals together with students are actively participating in marketing programs, and the time spent on these activities is the major cost. They use different ways to absorb potential students, such as advertisements in television and radio, internet, sending emails or text messages and have different attractive offerings like tickets or laptops. This competitive environment needs considerable time, energy, and effort and threatens the traditional fundamental professional values.

Giroux considers marketization of Universities as an antidemocratic act which has a negative effect on freedom and sociality. Giroux (1996) believes that the policy pushes the universities toward a competitive environment managed by the principals of the social Darwinism: "the fittest survive and the weakest removed". In such environment, higher educational institutions work with uncertainty about future funds and resources.

As Mirzamohammadi and Mohammadi (2017) point out New Public Management (NPM) is a fundamental step toward the marketization of higher education. NPM seeks to change the form of management according to market and consider work relations as principal-agent hierarchy, so that services are evaluated based on cost and quality (Olssen & Peters, 2005). In this situation, universities work in a competitive environment and survive based on their success in absorbing wealthy consumers, advertisement, cost-cutting programs and so on.

Mirzamohammadi and Mohammadi (2017) also add that the NPM tries to decrease the reliance of the higher education institution on the government financial support as much as possible and increase its performance and efficiency. Therefore, government becomes free of financial support and at the same time it has control on higher education via bio politics. Generally speaking, NPM has an anthropological and philosophical point of view and its final destination is 'capitalization of the existence itself' (Davies & Bansel, 2007), and providing human capital for realization of capitalism not only as a mode of economic system, but as a way of life, a worldview, and as a mode of being. In such environment, teachers lose their autonomy and have to adapt to market oriented rules, and their success is dependent on the transferring of teaching and researching activities to salable goods (Aronowitz & Giroux, 2000).

VII. The Implications of Marketization in Higher Education

As Lynch (2006) asserts, one of the main implications of the marketization of education is shifting cultures which encompasses not only teachers and educational staffs but also students. When the university is transformed from being a teaching and learning environment to a business organization and productivity becomes the criterion for its success, the whole scenario changes and being operational becomes the proof for allegiance instead of being academia (Doring, 2002, citing McNair, 1997). Gratifying performances item by item creates a situation in which personal career interests determines academic life. In this situation, everything and everyone is audited and measured and performance is the indicator (Leathwood, 2005). So no one is confident about the feeling of self-authenticity and being valued and the culture of compliance is created and performance is consistently under the control (Cooper, 2000, cited in Rutherford, 2005).

Another implication is related to the broader societal normative goals, which are not always in agreement with the objectives for which students are trained. Taylor and Judson (2011) assert that it is not easy to consider a long-term value creation vis-à-vis greater learning outcomes in marketized situation. Marketization creates an environment which concentrates on performance goals (value delivery) rather than learning goals (value co-creation). Actually, the value system changes dramatically in marketized conditions and poor long term outcomes that are created are harmful for individuals and the whole society.

Marketization of education has some pragmatic implications as well. As Lynch (2006) asserts, when higher educational institutions evaluate themselves based on transaction- specific value instead of end-state value, they prefer value delivery system to value co-creation and the fundamental responsibility of the higher education institution which is pushing students toward intellectual achievements (like critical thinking and evaluation) is neglected.

Lynch (2006) also points to the threat to critical voices as another important implication of marketization. Making the universities market-oriented threatens the issues of critique and creativity in researches which are really important. When universities are limited to contract researches, they do not have the required time for critical and creative issues, as there is a short of time for publishing the articles. This trend also has a negative effect on the position of humanities and critical social sciences as they do not serve the for-profit sector directly. Lynch (2006) also claims that transforming higher education institutions to corporations and creating a market-oriented view may transfer the resources to outside where there is no public control. As an example, public universities of USA can't afford good researchers and they are employed by private sectors which offer higher salaries (Smallwood, 2001).

VIII. Curriculum Development

Education is crucial in developing a nations' personality. As stated in the theme of National Education Day on May 2nd 2010, education aims to build a good character and to build a civilized nation. Education plays an important role in improving knowledge, skill and morality. Therefore, a good education system is needed not only to build a better nation

but develop a better country. Education consists of different factors that are complementary. Curriculum and syllabus are two elements that assist an education to work effectively and result a desirable output.

Curriculum development encompasses the processes needed to do the needs analysis for a group of learners, to set goals and develop objectives in order to cover those needs, to design a good syllabus, to determine teaching methods and materials, and to evaluate the program (Richards, 2001). Syllabus and curriculum are closely related in learning and teaching process. As a matter of fact, curriculum is a broader concept that encompasses all the activities of the students including whatever they learn, how they learn, how teacher help them learn, what are the supporting materials needed, and what methods are used in learning and teaching process. Similar to Richards (1990), Brown (1995) asserts that, needs analysis, goals setting, testing, materials, teaching and evaluation are the primary elements of curriculum design. As mentioned before, curriculum is a fundamental element of any educational system and it is not separated from social or political contexts, so the question which arises here is that "what happens when educational context becomes marketized?"

IX. CURRICULUM IN MARKETIZED EDUCATION

In the present era of internationalization and globalization, neoliberalism and marketization agendas have become fundamental elements of higher educational policies. One of the major aspects of these agendas is their effect on the curriculum. Marketization of higher education has changed the kind of knowledge and skills that are emphasized in curricula according to market and economic needs and based on the goal of developing human capital required to support economic growth. Accordingly, as Savage (2017) asserts, utility of the curriculum in terms of preparing students with skills and competencies required for participation in the global knowledge economy has become the criterion based on which curriculum is being reshaped and evaluated. Accordingly, many terms have been used for this trend, such as 'utilitarian curriculum' (Goodson, 1997), 'technical-instrumentalism' (Young, 2008), 'new vocationalism' (Wheelahan, 2010), and 'economization of curriculum' (Savage, 2017).

As Savage (2017) points out, globalization and technological developments force curriculum developers to revise the discipline-based curriculum, as it is focused on preparing students for the jobs that may not exist any longer in the near future. Zhao (2009) asserts that "we live at the heart of a global and technological revolution, which at least rivals the industrial revolution" (p. 145). He adds that this revolution is continuously changing societies and making new skills and knowledge needs. Zhao (2009) also studies US and developed countries and their agendas regarding curriculum development and points to the necessity of including new fundamental skills and forms of knowledge, including critical thinking, problem solving, information technology skills, and knowledge in important fields like English and economics (pp. 145-148).

The market-orientation of the higher educational institutions has led them to concentrate on developing curricula which are in line with international standards and compete well in the global market. In this situation the importance of knowledge gives its place to the logics of market and economic competitiveness and performance is overvalued than knowledge (Nixon, 2013). In other words, there is a shift from concentration on the importance of *knowing* (knowledge) to the importance of *doing* (performance) and marketable skills have become the priority of the curriculum developers.

Some countries like Australia have concentrated on developing curricula that facilitates the goal of equipping students with skills that help them live and work successfully in the new era. As an example, the new curriculum of Australia encompasses seven general competencies: literacy, numeracy, information and communication technology (ICT) capability, critical and creative thinking, personal and social capability, ethical understanding, and intercultural understanding (Savage, 2017). These general competencies are meant to be the integral part of each curriculum of every field to prepare students to engage in the changing economic contexts. Consequently, as Savage (2017) claims, the new agenda expresses the desire to create a new citizen. The citizen who is literate, numerate, flexible, creative, is competent in IT, and the one who is ready to compete in the global knowledge economy. In this sense, education is moving towards the prerequisites of the global capitalism and economic needs, rather than the issue that is valuable by itself and the democratic role of education in producing active and informed citizens is threatened.

'If the schools of a democratic society do not exist for and work for the support and extension of democracy, then they are either socially useless or socially dangerous.' (Mursell, cited in Beane & Apple, 2007). This claim reminds us not to forget democracy. In this regard, curricula have two roles: educating democracy which means serving it, and being democratic. As Reid (2005) suggests, a democratic curriculum develops all the capabilities evenly and is not confined to particular roles and needs of the society but clearly curriculum developers of the marketized education doesn't follow it and take a cost-benefit perspective.

As Pinar (2004) asserts "curriculum ceases to be a thing, and it is more than a process. It becomes a verb, an action, a social practice, a private meaning, and a public hope. Curriculum is not just the site of our labor, it becomes the product of our labor, changing as we are changed by it…It is an ongoing, if complicated, conversation "(p. 188). Accordingly, teaching is a political act (Keirl, 2007), curriculum is political as well and advances particular interests and values (Apple and Buras, 2006; Burke and Jackson, 2007). But educational institutions around the world should work towards 'maintaining a sense of the international public good, and helping to develop a strong world- wide academic culture' (Altbach, 2016). Material developers and curriculum designers should consider the effects of

marketization on education which is the prevailing trend nowadays, and do the work with a comprehensive understanding of the situation to produce the best curriculum that leads to the desired goals.

X. CONCLUSION

The civil mission of higher education used to be the instruction of students and producing knowledgeable thinkers, and creating non-utilitarian knowledge (Askehave, 2007; Kwong, 2000). Until the last decade, higher education was kept isolated from market orientations, but globalization changed every field including education. The growth of the global economy and the pressure of national and international competitions persuaded higher educational institutions to resort different financial resources (Askehave, 2007; Osman, 2008; Mok, 1999, 2000), such as absorbing fee-paying students and developing marketable "products" (Askehave, 2007). Consequently, the process of marketization of higher education started and universities took a market-oriented point of view and changed to "corporate universities" (Jarvis, 2001) and became business-like entities (Connell & Galasinski, 1998).

Overall, the marketization of higher education has become a new trend in today's world. It has become a business from which many are making profit. There has been a widespread competition among higher educational institutions for better students, and making money rather than following learning goals has become the main object of many them. They are making attempts to be the most successful and this new trend has dramatically affected many educational fields including teacher's identity and curriculum design.

Regarding teacher's identity, it should be pointed out that it is not defined in a vacuum, but in its social context. It is defined in discourses and communities where teachers live. The process of marketization has had a negative impact on teacher's identity. When universities act like corporates, teachers lose their usual social position as a symbol of wisdom; they view education as a commodity, and they should try to absorb wealthy customers (Giroux, 2006). What is clear is that there is a different "preferred teacher" in the marketized educational contexts. As Smyth (2011) also asserts, the preferred teacher of this trend is the one who is dutiful, obedient, market-sensitive, and uncritical of the conditions around, especially those that are related to the marketization agendas that are implementing in educational contexts. Marketization has obstructed teachers' creativity and has led to a sense of uncertainty. Teachers in marketized education have to respond to the needs of higher educational institutions, and as a result they lose their freedom and authority. They may also feel devalued and have to respond to the outside world. Therefore, they have lost control over their work.

Curriculum has also been affected by the marketization of higher education. It has been designed in such a way to provide students with skills which are necessary for participation into global knowledge economy. In fact, the economization of curriculum is inevitable in this situation. The curriculum in the marketized education does not provide students with critical thinking and problem solving information. The curriculum creates human beings which would be able to meet economic needs, and the role of active and knowledgeable citizens is ignored.

The fact of the matter is that marketazation of higher education is a phenomenon taking place in many countries including Iran. The number of universities in this country with a population of 70 million people is even more than USA. Universities such as Islamic Azad University, Payame Nour University, and Elmi Karbordi University have established a new trend in education, leading it to being marketized. A serious threat which has emerged is that students expect to be passed by their professors just because they pay money, and professors are under pressures to do so. These universities have to be able to deal with their financial affairs themselves without the government' assistance. As a result, the number of those who fail courses is dramatically low because unless the number is maintained, these institutions will face fiasco. In this way, professors view themselves as money makers for their institutions. They do not anymore consider themselves as those helping students to learn deeply.

A good example of marketization in Iran is the establishment of Elmi Karbordi University, which has focused on performance rather learning outcomes. Students might learn to function in society, but they lack enough critical skills and learning insight. Professors regard themselves as those who should equip their students with some performance skills rather than appropriate learning outcomes.

The marketization of education has also penetrated into state universities. The establishment of Pardisan Universities is a good example in this regard. As mentioned already, this phenomenon can have negative and harmful effects on the society in general. State University officials have tried to compensate for their financial deficiencies by Pardisan Universities. As an example, many medical students enter these institutions and they are expected to treat patients in the future. Although these students rank low in the university entrance examinations, just because they are wealthy, they can register in these universities. Now the question is how they can perform their important duties regarding human bodies. Worst of all, there is a competition among these universities to attract a greater number of wealthy students. The reason is that their survival is contingent upon more and more students. The widespread and unsystematic marketization in Iran has caused a disproportionate distribution of students, which has not benefitted either of these universities.

The fact that education is a social institution that has not managed to reach its historic democratic and equalitarian missions does not mean that we should give up trying. A significant rethink of marketization policies is needed. As more individuals learn about the effects of marketization on higher education, new opportunities open up to think about this trend in a different way and take required steps to reshape the direction. Educators should also understand the effects of marketization policies on education and their roles in reshaping the educational conditions and how they

influence everyday life. Because without such understanding, they cannot participate well in changing the direction of the reform.

Of course, it is not logical to think of marketization as a sole negative trend. The truth is that an uncritical view of marketization of higher education that considers it as an 'all evil' force is just as unhelpful as an uncritical celebration of its benefits. Instead, we (including researchers, educators, principals, students, policymakers, and so on) should have a continuous and critical engagement in different aspects of education to make it better for everyone in the society.

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Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

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