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PRO and (Under)Specification of Person in Imposter Constructions*

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Abstract—This paper examines a particular type of English control constructions that exhibits morphosyntactic variation. The constructions that are investigated are control that appears in the imposter phenomenon studied by Collins & Postal (2012). Using minimalist syntax in combination with the framework of Distributed Morphology (DM), a syntactic account is offered that validates such variation and shows evidence for PRO in infinitives with imposter constructions, rather than a trace of NP via movement. Furthermore, comparing PRO and *pro* for the subject gap of control, it shows that PRO can account for binding alternations unlike *pro*. The current analysis demonstrates that the lack of the underspecification of phi-feature valuation does not result in ungrammaticality whereas the failure of Agree itself leads to ungrammaticality. Moreover, the current analysis offers a systematic picture of the morphosyntactic variation of English nominals in terms of the person feature and it also accounts for cross-linguistic morphosyntactic variation in agreement displayed in Chinese and Japanese.

Index Terms—control, PRO, binding, imposter constructions, (under)specification, the person feature, agreement

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper investigates control in terms of the person feature. Control states referential dependencies between a NP that is coreferential with the subject gap of an infinitive (controller) and the subject gap (controllee). The controller determines the referential properties of the controllee (Bresnan 1982). Consider the example in (1).

(1) I like [*e* to look at myself/*yourself/*himself] in front of the mirror.

The subject gap [*e*] of the infinitive clause binds a 1st person reflexive and the selection of other reflexives is ungrammatical. The gap is syntactically associated with 1st person because it is controlled by a 1st person pronoun in the matrix clause. This phenomenon appears to indicate that the subject gap has the same person feature value as that of the controller. However this statement does not appear to be supported by the example in (2).

(2) (a) [*e* To protect myself_i/himself_i,] this reporter_i (=I) is going to wear a bullet-proof vest. (Collins & Postal, 2012, p. 73)

(b) [*e* To keep ourselves_i/themselves_i out of jail], the present authors_i (=we) are going to wear bullet-proofing vests. (p. 187)

The subject DPs *this reporter* and *these reporters* are grammatically 3rd person. Yet they are used to refer to the speaker or the speaker's group in (1) and (2) respectively and both subjects do not denote a 3rd party. Interestingly, they can determine a 1st person or 3rd person reflexive in infinitives. At first grant, these binding alternations seem to be the counterexample to the statement of control because the reflexives bound by the controllee are 1st or 3rd person. Because of the pronominal alternations it seems that the controllee does not show the same person feature value as that of the controller in (2). However, the same binding alternations exhibited in the infinitives of (2) are also observed in the matrix clauses of (3) and (4).

(3) (a) This reporter_i (=I) sent myself_i to cover Bill Clinton's lecture. (Collins & Postal, 2012, p. 20)

(b) This reporter_i (=I) sees himself_i as managing editor in the future. (p. 20)

(4) These reporters_i (=we) respect ourselves_i/themselves_i. (p. 54)

Collins & Postal (2012) observe that referential DPs that refer to the speaker(s) can select a 1st or 3rd person reflexive in (3) and (4).¹ These particular kinds of expressions, which may exhibit notionally and grammatically distinct person features, are what they call *imposters*.² This example shows that the pronominal alternations have nothing to do with infinitives. They observe that a similar observation applies to DPs which denote the addressee (2nd person) as well. For simplicity, I will focus only on singular DPs that refer to the speaker (1st person) in the following discussion. What is important here is that imposter DPs control the subject gap of the infinitives in (2). Since imposter DPs appear to be able to possess distinct person feature values, the same morphosyntactic variation is observed in control as in the matrix

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¹ According to Collins & Postal (2012), only the 3rd person reflexive yields a grammatical result for some dialects of English speakers.

² The definition of imposters proposed by Collins & Postal (2012) is as follows in (i):

(i) An imposter is a notionally *n* person DP which is grammatically *m* person, $n \neq m$. (p. 5)

clauses. Note that the pronominal alternations do not correlate with differences in meaning or truth conditions in imposter constructions.

However this “optional” selection of reflexives appears to be uniquely restricted to imposter constructions, and this optionality is not observed in non-imposter constructions as in (5).

(5) (a) [*e* To protect *myself_i/himself_i], this reporter_i (≠I) sent *myself/himself to the training.

(b) [*e* To protect *myself_i/himself_i], he_i sent *myself/himself to the training.

(c) [*e* To protect myself_i/*himself_i], I_i sent myself/*himself to the training.

The subjects in the matrix clauses are not in imposter use, and only one and the same selection of reflexives in both the matrix clauses and the infinitive clauses is grammatical and the other selection is ungrammatical. To be clear, these pronominal binding relations are different from those of imposters in that the latter can have a wider selection of reflexives.

What rule governs the identification of the subject gaps of infinitives? What is the syntactic category of the subject gap? Is it PRO? Is it a trace via movement? To what extent does syntax regulate the interpretation of control constructions? In order to answer these questions, I examine the binding alternations that control exhibits in imposter constructions, building on Chomsky's (2000, 2001) analysis on Agree in combination with DM proposed by Halle & Marantz (1993, 1994). I attribute the morphosyntactic variation to dual properties of the person feature (i.e., notional and grammatical person). More specifically, I propose that the controller and PRO may not possess both notional and grammatical person simultaneously since notional person and grammatical person are not always in one-to-one relation. This effect leads to (under)specification of the person feature in binding relations, in support of an infinitival PRO subject. I demonstrate that underspecification of binding agreement as a result of Agree does not induce ungrammaticality, unlike in the case of the failure of Agree. Moreover I show that cross-linguistic (under) specifications of the person feature exhibited in Chinese and Japanese fall under the current analysis.

Section II critically reviews Hornstein's (1999 et seq.) movement analysis and Landau's (2000 et seq.) Agree analysis by applying them to control constructions with the imposter phenomenon, and presents that both analyses cannot fully account for morphosyntactic variation in person. Section III introduces Harley & Ritter's (2002) feature geometry with a slight modification and applies it to imposter constructions to clarify the distribution of the person feature in the binding alternations within control constructions, in support of a PRO hypothesis rather than a *pro* hypothesis. Moreover, it presents a systematic picture of the morphosyntactic variation of English nominals and also shows that the current analysis accounts for cross-linguistic variation exhibited in Chinese and Japanese imposter constructions. Section IV is the conclusion.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW: THE SUBJECT OF INFINITIVES

Although dominant throughout the 1980s, the approach involving government has been abandoned in minimalist analyses in the generative literature. Because of this the subject gap in infinitives had to be accommodated without appealing to the government theory. Yet not much attention has been devoted to the issue in the recent minimalist literature, except two lines of considerations: One is that the control theory has been replaced by a movement analysis (Hornstein 1999, 2001, 2003); the other is the introduction of the syntactic operation Agree for control (Landau 2000, 2004, 2010). I critically review Hornstein's (1999 et seq.) movement analysis in 2-A and Landau's (2000 et seq.) Agree analysis in 2-B by applying these extant analyses to infinitives with imposter constructions, and I identify the issues of the person feature in terms of the binding alternations in infinitives with imposter constructions.

A. Hornstein's (1999 2001, 2003) Movement Analysis

Hornstein (1999 et seq.) denies the existence of PRO and locality for control. According to Hornstein's (1999 et seq.) movement analysis, the subject gap in infinitive clauses is a trace (or a copy) of NP-movement. He argues for movement-derived control including obligatory adjunct control derived by means of sideward movement. Let us consider Hornstein's movement analysis with an adjunct infinitive in (6), whose derivation is illustrated in (7).

(6) Sam wrote a petition in order [*e* to get a gold medal].

(7) (a) K= [wrote a petition]

L= [Sam to get a gold medal]

(b) M=[Sam wrote a petition]

(c) [_{VP} Sam wrote a petition [in order ~~Sam~~ to get a gold medal]]

According to Hornstein, the adjunct control in (6) can be derived along the lines of (7). In (7a) the two syntactic objects, K and L, are assembled independently through the operation of merge. In (7b) provided that the possibility of sideward movement is allowed, *Sam* is copied from L and merged with K and it becomes the subject of the matrix clause in M. In (7c) *in order* is added to L, and the extended L and M merges, and the lower copy of *Sam* is deleted and gives rise to a subject control reading.

I apply Hornstein's movement analysis to the infinitive in the imposter construction in (8) (=2a) and show how much his movement analysis can account for the binding alternations in control.

(8) [To protect myself_i/himself_i], this reporter_i (=I) is going to wear a bullet-proof vest.

Consider the schemas of the derivation under Hornstein's (1999 et seq.) movement analysis in (9) for the sentence in

(8).

- (9) (a) is going to wear a bullet-proof vest.
 (b) [_{XP} This reporter to protest myself/himself]
 (c) [_{TP} this reporter is going to wear a bullet-proof vest].
 (d) [_{TP} [_{XP} ~~this reporter~~ protest myself/himself] [_{TP} this reporter is going to wear a bullet-proof vest].

Part of the matrix clause is built in (9a). Independently the imposter DP *this reporter* is originally generated in subject position of the adjunct infinitive and binds either a 1st or 3rd person reflexive in (9b). Once the subject of the adjunct clause is copied, it becomes the subject of the matrix clause, where it receives a structural Case in (9c). Both clauses in (9b) and (9c) merge by adjoining the adjunct infinitive XP to TP, and then the subject in the adjunct infinitive is deleted in (9d). Under Hornstein's analysis, no *PRO* appears in the infinitive. Instead, the imposter DP merges in subject position of the adjunct infinitive, and after that, it remerges in the matrix clause via sideward movement. This means that the same DP possesses two theta roles (one from the verb in the infinitive clause and the other from the matrix verb), which does not violate the theta criterion, according to Hornstein. Yet, in order for the theta roles to be "visible" the DP needs a structural Case. This requirement drives the DP to be "remerged" in the matrix clause. Note that the imposter DP does not violate a Minimal Link Condition because both adjunct and matrix clauses are separately built in Hornstein's movement analysis. Before the imposter DP remerges in the matrix clause, this DP is not c-commanded by the object DP in the matrix clause. The sideward movement is not dependent on c-command but copy and deletion of a DP for the subjects of both matrix and infinitive clauses. Thus under this analysis the subject gap is a trace (or a copy) via movement and is the exactly same DP as the matrix subject. Hornstein's analysis accounts for the pronominal alternation in the imposter construction.

However his analysis cannot example a mismatch in the person feature that is observed in the imposter construction in (10), in which both the matrix clause and the embedded clause have a reflexive of distinct person although both reflexives are coreferential with the matrix subject.

(10) (a) [To cover myself_i in case of an investigation], this reporter_i (=I) is going to keep himself_i out of the newspapers. (Collins, Moody, & Postal, 2008, p. 61)

(b) [To keep ourselves_i out of jail], the present authors_i (=we) are going to behave themselves_i from now on. (Collins & Postal, 2012, p.187)

The imposter DPs in subject position of the matrix clauses bind a 3rd person reflexive in the main clauses while the subject gaps determine a 1st person reflexive in the adjunct clauses. Despite of their distinct person, these reflexives are coreferential with the imposter DPs in matrix subject position. Let us look at the derivation of the example (10) under Hornstein's movement analysis in (11).

- (11) (a) is going to keep himself out of the newspapers.
 (b) this reporter to cover myself in case of an investigation
 (c) this reporter is going to keep himself out of the newspapers.
 (d) [~~this reporter~~ to cover myself in case of an investigation], this reporter is going to keep himself out of the newspapers.

In (11a) the matrix clause is generated. In (11b) the imposter DP binds a 1st person reflexive in the infinitive clause independently. In (11c) after the subject of the infinitive clause is copied, it is remerged as the subject of the matrix clause and binds a 3rd person reflexive. In (11d) the matrix clause and the infinitive clause merge and the subject of the infinitive clause is deleted. This derivation indicates that the same DP can bind a 1st and 3rd person reflexive at the same time in the middle of the derivation.

However Hornstein's movement analysis would wrongly predict the example in (12) to be grammatical, contrary to what we observe.

(12) (a) *The present authors_i (=we) are going [to talk to ourselves_i about themselves_i]. (Collins & Postal, 2012, p.187)

(b) *The present authors_i (=we) are going [to talk to themselves_i about ourselves_i].

The same imposter DPs bind two reflexives of distinct person, which is ungrammatical. This shows that imposter DPs cannot possess two distinct person values simultaneously in (11). Yet, the distinct person values of the reflexives in (10) do not induce ungrammaticality. Thus the grammaticality of the infinitives in (10) (in contrast with (12)) weakens Hornstein's movement analysis.

B. Landau's (2000, 2004, 2010) Agree Analysis

Landau (2000 et seq.) argues for the existence of *PRO* as the subject of infinitives. According to Landau, there are two kinds of control: exhaustive and partial control. The difference between these kinds of control lies in the reference of *PRO* in (13) and (14).

- (13) Exhaustive Control
 (a) The chair_i managed [*PRO*_i to gather the committee at 6].
 (b) *The chair_i managed [*PRO*_{i+} to gather at 6].³

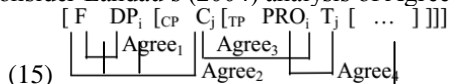
³ The notation *i+* in (13b) and (14) indicates that the referent of a DP is partially coreferential with its controller DP that has the same index in that the reference is plural including the referent himself/herself.

(14) Partial Control

The chair_i preferred [PRO_i to gather at 6]. (Landau, 2000, p. 5)

PRO in exhaustive control does not allow PRO to refer plural referents including the referent that the matrix subject denotes in (13), whereas PRO in piratical control permits the plural interpretation in (14).

Landau argues that these two kinds of control should be accounted for under Agree, rather than a movement analysis. Consider Landau's (2004) analysis of Agree in (15).



F inherits the semantic number from the DP via Agree₁ and transmits it to C via Agree₂. Once C passes down the feature to T via Agree₃, T shares it with PRO via Agree₄. However, according to Landau, C⁰ never enters into a primary checking relation with a DP and thus optionally lacks the number feature via Agree. The distinction between exhaustive and partial control is attributed to the optional lack of the number feature by the C head. If the number feature value of C is shared with T, PRO is in exhaustive control relation; otherwise it is in partial control.

With Landau's agreement analysis in mind, let us closely look at the distribution of the phi-features of the partial control construction in (14), shown in (16).

- (16) a. [DP_i{3rd, Singular}... [CP C {3rd} [TP PRO_i {3rd} [T' T {3rd}...]]]
- b. PRO {3rd, _} → PRO {3rd, Pl}

According to Landau, in (16a) the subject DP with both person and number values enters into an Agree relation with the C head, which Agrees with the T head. Because C lacks number, however, this T head only possesses the person feature value {3rd} from C and enters into an Agree relation with PRO. This way PRO only receives 3rd person. Since C has no specification for number and PRO does not acquire a value for number via Agree. Instead, PRO obtains {plural} semantically in (16b). This way the controller and PRO involve the distinct number values.

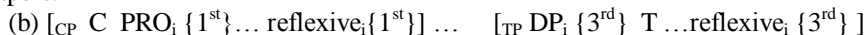
I apply Landau's Agree analysis to the binding alternations in (2a), repeated as (17), and examine the distribution of person (and not number) in the schemas in (18a,b).

(17) [To protect myself_i/himself_i] this reporter_i (=I) is going to wear a bullet-proof vest.

- (18) (a) [PRO_i {1st} ... reflexive_i {1st}] [CP C {1st} [TP DP_i {1st} T {1st}...]]
- (b) [PRO_i {3rd} ... reflexive_i {3rd}] [CP C {3rd} [TP DP_i {3rd} T {3rd} ...]]

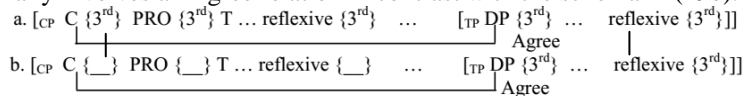
Under Landau's analysis, the binding alternations in the infinitive of (17) ultimately result from an Agree relation between the imposter DP and PRO by means of C and T; because the imposter DP should possess {1st} or {3rd}, one of the features is shared to PRO via Agree, and passes down to the reflexive via Agree, as the schemas in (18a,b). However Landau's Agree analysis is also unable to fully account for the mismatch in person of reflexives in (10). (10a) is repeated as (19a) and its schema is shown in (19b).

(19) (a) [To cover myself_i in case of an investigation], this reporter_i (=I) is going to keep himself_i out of the newspapers.



As the two reflexives show, the controller DP binds 3rd person in the matrix clause while PRO determines a 1st person reflexive in the infinitive clause. Yet these two reflexives of distinct person are coreferential with the DP in imposter use in (19a). Under Landau's Agree analysis, it is not clear how elements of a distinct person value can corefer in (19b).

One might assume that there are two kinds of the C head with and without the person feature in (20a,b), which additionally involves an Agree relation in contrast with the schema in (19b).



(20) c. RPO { _ } → PRO {1st}

The DP possesses 3rd person and binds a reflexive of the same person in the matrix clause. The same DP as controller enters into an Agree relation with C. Under Landau's modified analysis, this C head may or may not have the person feature. When C has the person feature in (20a), it obtains the person feature value from the controller, it realizes as 3rd person (which is grammatical as shown in (27)). In contrast, when C does not have the person feature in (20b), C does not possess the person feature value to share with PRO via T. In this case, one might argue that PRO semantically obtains 1st person in the given contexts in (20c) (as in the case of number with partial control in (14)) and binds a 1st person reflexive. At first sight, Landau's revised analysis of C appears to successfully account for the person mismatch in (19a), although four kinds of C are now needed to be assumed: C with/without number and C with/without person.

However, Landau's (revised) analysis is silent to the question of why a 3rd person reflexive is coreferential with the imposter DPs referring to the speaker in (18a). This is an issue of representation and interpretation of the person feature and it is not clear with Landau's analysis. Moreover, if there were four kinds of the C head (one with and without the person feature and the other with and without the number feature), the binding alternations and the person mismatch would be more widely accepted even in non-imposter constructions, contrary to what we observed in (5). The lack of evidence is problematic to Landau's analysis. Thus, the mismatch in person cannot be attributed to the properties of C.

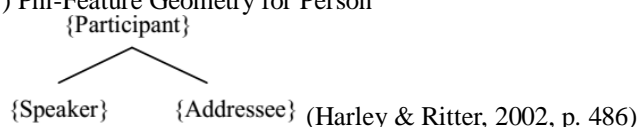
III. PHI-FEATUREGEOMETRY AND IMPOSTER DPs

Why can a non-pronominal DP referring to a speaker tolerate a 3rd person reflexive? In order to offer an answer to this question, I review Harley & Ritter's (2002) feature geometry for phi-features of pronouns and generalize it to non-pronominal DPs in III-A. In III-B by employing the generalized geometry for person, I analyze the "optionality" of the reflexive selection in the control construction and argue for an infinitival PRO subject in line with Landau (2000 et seq.). However, departing from his (revised) analysis, I propose that the dual properties of the person feature cause the seemingly "optional" selection in binding. In III-C I extend the current analysis to the mismatch in person of control in question and I argue that the mismatch does not induce ungrammaticality because it is constrained by Agree in proper syntax in combination of DM. I offer a systematic picture of the morphosyntactic variation of English nominals in terms of the person feature. In III-D I present cross-linguistic morphosyntactic variation in agreement displayed in Chinese and Japanese, in support of the current analysis of the dual properties of the person feature.

A. Feature Geometry for the Person Feature

Harley & Ritter (2002) examine morphosyntactic properties of pronominal systems cross-linguistically and argue that morphosyntactic features are best thought of as forming a dependency structure, or a feature geometry. The structure in (21) illustrates the properties of the person feature.

(21) Phi-Feature Geometry for Person

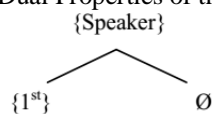


The individual nodes represent privative phi-features of the person feature. Particularly, the Participant node and its dependents represent the person feature values, which depend on the DP's discourse roles. Under Harley & Ritter's analysis, {Speaker} and {Addressee} are used to represent the person feature values. Put differently, there is complete agreement between notional person as the semantic category (e.g. {Speaker}) and grammatical person (which refers to morphosyntactic properties such as {1st}). For instance, a 1st person pronoun would possess {Speaker}. This interpretation of person is not problematic to personal pronouns. Given Harley & Ritter's equal treatment of notional person {Speaker} and grammatical person {1st}, a DP referring to the speaker or addressee is predicted to only take a bound pronoun of same grammatical person.

However we observed that this is not always the case in imposter constructions. Referential DPs in imposter use such as *this reporter* can refer to a speaker like a 1st person pronoun although they do not possess a specific morphological form unlike the pronoun. Moreover they can determine either a 1st person or 3rd person reflexive. This indicates that the geometry for person in (21) is not directly applied to non-pronominal DPs such as imposter DPs.

I assume that imposter DPs referring to a speaker possess {Speaker} like a 1st person pronoun. Based on the fact that imposter DPs can bind either a 1st or 3rd person reflexive, I also assume that they may or may not additionally possess grammatical person {1st} besides notional person. This means that notional person {Speaker} and grammatical person {1st} are not always identical with non-pronominal DPs. Thus, they may possess both notional and grammatical person {Speaker, 1st}; otherwise, they lack grammatical person {Speaker, \emptyset } under the assumption that 3rd person is the default person feature for English (Baker 2011, Furuya under review). Note that \emptyset represents the lack of grammatical person. The geography of 1st person feature values is shown in (22):

(22) Dual Properties of the Speaker Node for English Imposter DPs



This feature geometric structure shows that notional person {Speaker} may or may not be connected with grammatical person {1st}, because the Speaker node is not automatically tied to morphology for the person feature particularly when a DP lacks a special form. When the {Speaker} feature is not connected with {1st}, grammatical person is realized as 3rd person in DM since 3rd person is a default feature in English. Thus, {Speaker} in (22) possesses additional dependencies.⁴

Note that the dual properties of the person feature in (22) are not applied to personal pronouns because they possess both notional and grammatical person as in (23).

(23) I {Speaker, 1st} sent myself/*himself to cover the story.

The pronominal subject *I* has the feature geometry that involves the combination of notional person {Speaker} and grammatical person {1st}, thanks to its intrinsic lexical properties. Thus the pronoun in (23) only binds a 1st person reflexive and cannot tolerate a 3rd person reflexive.

Once the dual properties of the person feature are clear, let us return to imposter constructions with the binding alternations and examine them.

B. Imposter DPs and Binding Alternations

Given the feature geometry with the dual properties of the person feature for DPs in imposter use, the "optionality"

⁴ See III-C for more arguments of the relation between syntax and DM.

of reflexive selection in imposter constructions in (24) (=3) is readily accounted for.

- (24) (a) This reporter_i (=I) sent myself_i to cover Bill Clinton's lecture.
- (b) This reporter_i (=I) sees himself_i as managing editor in the future.

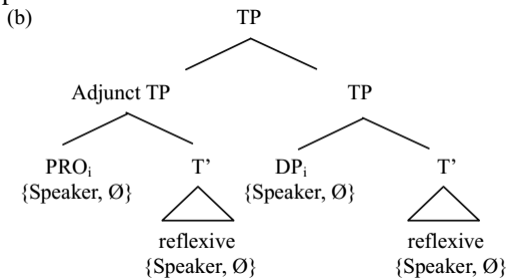
The imposter DP *this reporter* referring to the speaker possesses notional person {Speaker}. However because the imposter DP does not possess a specific form it may or may not possess grammatical person {1st} simultaneously. In (24a) the DP possesses {Speaker, 1st} and shares it with the reflexive via Agree (Despić 2015, Furuya under review, Rooryck & Vanden Wyngaerd 2011, among others for an Agree analysis of Condition A). Because of the presence of grammatical person {1st} a 1st person reflexive is inserted in DM. In contrast, the DP in (24b) only has notional person {Speaker, ∅}, and thus a 3rd person reflexive is selected post-syntactically. The selection of a 1st or 3rd person reflexive is grammatical when it is coreferential with the imposter DP referring to the speaker, because of the presence of notional person {Speaker} on the reflexive, shared via Agree.

In the following subsection, I employ the generalized feature geometry of 1st person and analyze the person mismatch in infinitives, in support of the PRO hypothesis.

C. Person Mismatch in Control

I propose the structure in (25b) for the imposter construction with the person mismatch in (25a) (=10a) and examine the distribution of the person feature.

- (25) (a) [To cover myself_i in case of an investigation], this reporter_i (=I) is going to keep himself_i out of the newspapers.



In (25b) the imposter DP *this reporter* involves {Speaker, ∅}, which is shared with the reflexive in the matrix clause and PRO via Agree respectively. Once PRO obtains the person feature value from the controller, it shares the feature with its bound object in the infinitive clause again via Agree. Thus, all the nominal elements in both matrix and adjunct clauses possess the same person feature value {Speaker, ∅} in narrow syntax.

How does the mismatch in the person feature of the reflexives bring about in (25a)? Under the framework of DM introduced by Halle & Marantz (1993, 1994) that I adopt, morphology is a part of the mapping from the output of a syntactic derivation to the input in phonology. Lexical insertion happens post-syntactically after the syntactic features are manipulated. Although the syntactic representation is thoroughly specified, the vocabulary or the morphology is not always correspondingly specified. Given the dual properties of the person in (22), I assume that the person feature {Speaker, ∅} may be realized as 1st person post-syntactically in English because it lacks the morphological information and yet it possesses notional person. Notional person may be associated with grammatical person.⁵ I propose specifications of the two reflexives in (25b) shown in (26a,b):

- (26) Syntax → Morphology
- (a) Reflexive {Speaker, ∅} 3rd person reflexive (matrix clause)
- (b) Reflexive {Speaker, ∅} 1st person reflexive (embedded clause)

The two reflexives possess the same person feature values and yet they are realized distinctively in DM. Critically, however, they are both coreferential with the imposter DP in matrix clause because of the presence of notional person {Speaker}. I should note that the realization of {Speaker, ∅} on the two reflexives can also be 1st or 3rd person as shown in (27):

- (27) (a) [To cover himself_i in case of an investigation], this reporter_i (=I) is going to keep himself_i out of the newspapers.
- (b) [To cover myself_i in case of an investigation], this reporter_i (=I) is going to keep myself_i out of the newspapers.

This indicates that Agree guarantees full sharing of {person} with PRO in narrow syntax though its morphological realization may vary in PF. Put differently the absence of the morphological realization of a person feature value does not result in ungrammaticality.

One might consider *pro* instead of PRO as the subject gap in infinitives (see Hornstein 1999 et seq. for non-obligatory adjunct control). In the Government and Binding theory *pro* is treated as [+pronominal], distinct from PRO with [+anaphor, +pronominal]. I take this to mean that *pro* possesses both notional and grammatical person from the beginning of a derivation like lexical pronouns. If the subject of an infinitive were *pro*, it would bind the reflexive

⁵ Furuya (under review) argues that the realization of 1st person feature without grammatical person is not necessarily realized as 1st person cross-linguistically. See also III-D and footnote 5.

independently from the subject DP in the main clause. However, English is not generally considered as a *pro*-drop language. Moreover if the subject of *keep* were *pro*, it should not allow for the binding alternations in (28) like lexical pronouns in (5).

(28) It is important [e_i] (=I) to keep myself_i/herself_i from getting sunburned.

Given the appropriate contexts, the referent of the reflexives in (28) is the speaker even when the 3rd person reflexive is selected, and the sentence is still grammatical. The analysis of the subject gap as *pro* cannot explain why a 3rd person reflexive can be coreferential with the subject gap that refers to the speaker. Likewise the *pro* hypothesis also fails to account for the presence of a 3rd person reflexive bound by the subject gap referring to the speaker in (25a) and (27a). On the other hand, if PRO is the subject of the infinitive, it does not obligatorily have a person feature value from the beginning of a derivation; it is given via Agree as in (25b) and (27). Alternatively in the case of (28) the person feature is given to PRO in the given contexts. Thus, the reflexive bound by *PRO* can be coreferential with PRO referring to the speaker even when it is 3rd person. The current analysis supports the PRO hypothesis.

Combining with the current analysis of the dual properties of person, let us examine one more example in (29) under the *pro* hypothesis in comparison with the PRO hypothesis.

- (29) (a) [To cover myself_i in case of an investigation], this reporter_i (=I) kept himself_i out of the newspapers. (=10a)
 (b) [To cover himself_i in case of an investigation], this reporter_i (=I) kept himself_i out of the newspapers. (=27a)
 (c) *[To cover himself_i in case of an investigation], this reporter_i (=I) kept myself_i out of the newspapers.

The sentences have the same imposter DP in the matrix clause, which binds a 3rd person reflexive in (29a,b) and a 1st person reflexive in (29c) like in (27b) respectively. These binding alternations in the matrix clauses themselves are not ungrammatical since an imposter DP referring to a speaker binds a 1st or 3rd person reflexive. Moreover, the presence of both a 1st person reflexive and a 3rd person reflexive in the adjunct clauses is also grammatical in (29) as in (27). The question is why the sentence in (29c) is ungrammatical, in which the matrix clause contains a 1st person reflexive while the adjunct clause possesses a 3rd person reflexive, in contrast with (29a,b).

Let us scrutinize the distribution of the person feature of the sentences in (29a,b,c), illustrated in (30a,b,c) respectively.

- (30) (a) [pro {Speaker, 1st}... reflexive {Speaker, 1st} ... [DP {Speaker, \emptyset } ... reflexive {Speaker, \emptyset }]
 (b) [pro {Speaker, \emptyset }... reflexive {Speaker, \emptyset } ... [DP {Speaker, \emptyset } ... reflexive {Speaker, \emptyset }]
 (c) *[pro {Speaker, \emptyset }... reflexive {Speaker, \emptyset } ... [DP {Speaker, 1st}... reflexive {Speaker, 1st}]

Under the *pro* hypothesis with the analysis of the dual properties for person, the *pro* in subject position of the adjunct clauses as well as the referential DPs in subject position of the matrix clauses possesses notional person from the beginning of the derivations because they refer to the speaker. Moreover the *pro* subject is [+pronominal] and thus it should inherently possess its own grammatical person feature and behave like a 1st person pronoun regardless of the controller's person feature. This assumption of *pro* is compatible with the schema in (30a): the matrix subject possesses 3rd person while the subject of the infinitive possesses 1st person. As for (30b, c) although the issue of the representation of 3rd person with reference to a speaker is already pointed out as problematic if the subject is *pro*, let us assume that *pro* may or may not possess grammatical person. This optionality of grammatical person on *pro* is taken to lead to the morphosyntactic variation in (30). However, under the *pro* hypothesis it is not clear why the realization of 3rd person is ungrammatical in the adjunct clause when a 1st person reflexive is selected in the matrix clause in (30c) in contrast with the example in (30b). This contrast cannot be accounted for by the *pro* hypothesis.

In contrast with the *pro* hypothesis, however, the PRO hypothesis accounts for the ungrammaticality in (30c). Since the DP in matrix subject position possesses both notional and grammatical person, the person feature of its bound pronoun is realized as 1st person in the matrix clause. Likewise, both notional and grammatical person that the DP possesses are shared with PRO in the infinitive via Agree, which should be realized, again, as 1st person in DM. However the schema in (30c) exhibits that the subject of the infinitive does not fully obtain the person feature from its controller, realizing as 3rd person. The partial agreement of the person feature by PRO via Agree induces ungrammaticality.

I have discussed the four types of English nominals in terms of 1st person. I summarize their properties in (31).

(31) MORPHOSYNTACTIC PROPERTIES OF THREE TYPES OF ENGLISH NOMINALS REFERRING TO THE SPEAKER

Pronoun	PRO	Referential DP
{Speaker, 1 st }	{Speaker, 1 st } or {Speaker, \emptyset }	{Speaker, 1 st } or (Speaker, \emptyset)

Lexical pronouns possess notional and grammatical person in the numeration. On the other hand, PRO and referential DPs may or may not possess grammatical person along with notional person from the beginning of a derivation, and they may obtain the person feature via Agree in the middle of the derivation, which leads to morphosyntactic variation in binding relations.

D. Implications from the Dual Properties of the Person Feature

What does the current analysis predict with regard to the control contexts in imposter constructions? In the current analysis English referential DPs happen to possess the two types of person feature values in regards to 1st person in (31).

However referential DPs in imposter use do not obligatorily allow for both person feature values cross-linguistically since they lack lexical/referential properties. The current analysis predicts that there are languages that involves two other types of referential DPs referring to a speaker besides ones that allow DPs possess both {Speaker, 1st} and {Speaker, \emptyset } as in English. All possibilities are listed in (32).

- (32) (a) A language that allows referential DPs to have {Speaker, 1st} and {Speaker, \emptyset } as in English
 (b) A language that allows referential DPs to have {Speaker, 1st}
 (c) A language that allows referential DPs to have {Speaker, \emptyset }

If a language permits referential DPs to uniquely possess {Speaker, 1st} a mismatch in the person feature would not be accepted in control because controller DPs possess grammatical person as well as notional person and share both person with PRO. The reflexive bound by this PRO should be realized only as 1st person because of the presence of grammatical person. This is borne out in Chinese. According to Wang (2009), Chinese DPs in imposter use bind only a 1st person reflexive in (33).

- (33) *A-Bian_i zhi hui tou gei {*ta-ziji_i / wo-ziji_i}* (A-Bian = the nickname of a President) (Wang, 2009, p. 3)
 A-Bian only will vote to he-self / I-self
 Lit. 'A-Bian_i (= I/speaker) will only vote for {* himself_i / myself_i}'

The DP in imposter use determines a 1st person reflexive and the selection of a 3rd person reflexive is ungrammatical. This indicates that Chinese referential DPs in imposter use include both notional and grammatical person. Thus a 3rd person reflexive is predicted to be not selected in infinitives as well in Chinese, which is correct in (34).

- (34) [PRO_i yao rang {*ta-ziji_i / wo-ziji_i} gen jiankang], laoshi_i juejin tiantian yundong. (Wang, 2009, p. 4)

want.to make himself/myself more healthy teacher decide everyday exercise
 Lit. 'To make {*himself_i/myself_i} healthier, teacher_i (=I) decided to exercise every day.'

If a language allows referential DPs to exclusively possess {Speaker, \emptyset }, again a mismatch in person may not be observed in control. Japanese is one of such languages. Japanese DPs in imposter use do not tolerate a 1st or 3rd person reflexive. Look at the example in (35).

- (35) Sensei (= I)-wa kagami-de *watasizisin/*kanozyozisin/zibun-o mita.
 Teacher-Top mirror-in myself/herself/self-Acc saw
 'Teacher (=I) saw *myself/*herself/self in the mirror.'

The imposter DP in subject position takes the underspecified reflexive *zibun* 'self' (Kuno 1973, Kuroda, 1973), and the selection of other reflexives is ungrammatical in (35). This suggests that subject DPs referring to the speaker involve {Speaker, \emptyset } in Japanese, whose person feature is realized underspecified on the reflexive.⁶ The same selection of reflexives is found in control in (36).

- (36) [PRO kagami-de *watasizisin/*kanozyozisin/zibun-o minagara], sensei (= I)-wa sore nituite kangaeta.
 mirror-in myself/herself/self-Acc seeing teacher-Top it about thought
 'While PRO looking at *myself/*herself/self, teacher (= I) thought about it.'

The imposter DP in matrix subject controls RPO in the adjunct clause via Agree, and this Agree relation is realized as underspecified on the specification of the reflexive in the adjunct clause because the Japanese imposter DP lacks grammatical person.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

After having reviewed distinctive agreement in English binding relations that appear in imposter constructions studied by Collins & Postal (2012), I showed that the same binding alternations are observed in infinitives to imposter constructions, in comparison with non-imposter constructions. This phenomenon indicates that the subject gaps of infinitives are closely related to the matrix subjects in imposter use. I applied Hornstein's (1999 et seq.) movement analysis and Landau's (2000 et seq.) Agree analysis to the morphosyntactic variation in infinitives and argued that these extant analyses cannot fully account for the variation. I reexamined Harley & Ritter's (2002) analysis of person and generalized their feature geometry for person to non-pronominals. I proposed that the person feature consists of notional and grammatical person and claimed that notional and grammatical person are not always in one-to-one relation. Under the generalized feature geometry for the person feature, I argued for an infinitival PRO subject in an Agree analysis, in line with Landau (2000 et seq.). Dissimilar from him, however, I argued that binding alternations are attributed to the dual properties of the person feature, not the properties of C or other elements. I claimed that although personal pronouns and *pro* possess both notional and grammatical person, referential DPs in imposter use and PRO may not obligatorily possess both properties of the person feature (notional and grammatical person), which leads to morphosyntactic variation. I demonstrated that the failure of Agree results in ungrammaticality whereas the lack of morphological specifications of the person feature is grammatical. This conclusion shows that syntax validates the interpretations of the subject gaps of infinitive clauses. Moreover I argued that cross-linguistic variation exhibited in Chinese and Japanese falls under the current analysis of the dual properties of the person feature. My overall conclusion

⁶ Henderson (2013) asserts that 3rd person is not obligatorily a default feature cross-linguistically (see also Furuya under review). This indicates that the relation between syntax and morphology is not always in one-to-one relation, which is compatible with the current analysis.

is that morphosyntactic variation in binding is attributed to the dual properties of the person feature, notional and grammatical person. Because referential DPs may lack grammatical person, they are realized morphologically differently in English and cross-linguistically even though the syntactic operation for agreement is not varied.

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1. (2015) PRO and Phi-feature Mismatch in Imposter Constructions. In *Proceedings of the 31st annual Northwest Linguistics Conference/ Working Papers of the Linguistics Circle* at University of Victoria, Canada. <http://journals.uvic.ca/index.php/WPLC/index> (accessed 15/07/2016).
2. (2012) On person agreement of Full NPs and personal pronouns. In *Proceedings of the 28th Northwest Linguistics Conference* at Seattle, Washington.
3. (2012) Specificity effects for Japanese, an articleless language. In *Proceedings of the Illinois Languages and Linguistics Society* 3 at Champaign, Illinois, 32-43.

Communication Strategies among Trilingual Speakers: Switching and Borrowing among Sinhala, English & Japanese Languages

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Abstract—The present study examined communication strategies among trilingual speakers. The main focus was to seek evidence on language switching and language borrowing as communication strategies during conversations of Sinhala, English, and Japanese languages. A free-discussion task was conducted to gather data. Twenty-five native Sinhala speakers (14 male and 11 female) residing in Japan took part in the present task. The discussions were recorded and the results were analyzed via a simple contrast and a decision tree analysis using statistics. The analysis showed that switching and borrowing occurs arbitrarily among three languages during conversations with a high significance [$\chi^2(2)=46.985, p < .001$]. Thus, according to this study, language switching mostly occurs between Japanese & Sinhala languages, while language borrowing mostly occurs during Sinhala language conversations.

Index Terms—communication strategies, trilingual speakers, Sinhala English and Japanese languages, switching and borrowing

I. INTRODUCTION

The development sequences in acquiring a first language and a second language illustrate identical stages; silent period, formulaic speech, and structural and semantic simplification (Ellis, 1994). During silent period despite first or a second language, all learners in their early stage of language acquisition remain silent due to poor linguistic knowledge. However, when a comprehensible input (Krashan, 1994) takes place the learners begin to communicate by imitation which also called formulaic speech. Once learners are accustomed to enough formulaic speech, the third development sequence; structural and semantic simplification occurs when learners starting to build more complex language.

When a learner is able to use the targeted language to a certain degree, he/she usually encounters many communication problems due to lack of linguistic knowledge. This is where communication strategies become important (Tazaki, 2006). During *First Language Acquisition* (i.e., FLA), communication strategies are limited and remain in the periphery of first language since there are no other substitutions. For example, if a child does not know what a word or a phrase means, he/she has to ask the other interlocutors to re-phrase, simplify using body language such as gestures. However, during the course of *Second Language Acquisition* (i.e., SLA) number of communication strategies can be multiplied. If a learner experiences difficulty understanding any word or a phrase, he/she can always refer to his/her own mother tongue while also trying to receive support from the second language. Moreover, if someone acquires a *Third Language* (i.e., TLA), these strategies become much wider and complicated. If an interlocutor possesses linguistic knowledge in three languages, he/she can always refer to the other languages to clarify any difficult word or a phrase. Furthermore, such a speaker may use three different languages alternatively in the same conversation. According to previous studies, bilingual speakers alternatively use 1st and 2nd language as a discourse strategy. There are three main types of alternations in the strategies, language (/code) switching, language borrowing, and language mixing.

Although much research has been carried out with regard to SLA and competence, there has been limited data which covers the criteria beyond bilingual speakers (e.g., in TLA). Possessing the knowledge of two languages will only leave a speaker one choice between two. However, if the same speaker possesses another language knowledge, for example, a third language knowledge it will surely raise further doubts on the alternative use of three languages. For instance, how trilingual speakers choose a language among three, what are the main aspects which support or control alternation patterns etcetera. These questions have not being answered by previous studies. Therefore, this study will focus on trilingual speakers' conversations and examine how they utilize communication strategies among three languages.

This paper is consisted of following sections. Section 2 will provide information on related literature with relation to communication strategies. Following, section 3 will present the task details conducted as the main survey. Section 4 will present a general discussion and conclusion on the results. Finally, section 5 will present the limitations of this study for future considerations.

II. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

When people use language for communication, they do not just apply the knowledge received from teachers or books.

Speakers utilize other extra skills to succeed in communication (i.e., communicative competence). Thus, speakers do not exclusively rely on the rules of the language as a formal system. Rather attempt to apply the rules to convey or receive information via conversation depending on the environment such as content, opponent, and purpose etcetera. According to Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980), there are three main components which allow a speaker to be succeeded in a conversation; (1) grammatical competence: words and rules, (2) sociolinguistic competence: appropriateness, (3) strategic competence: appropriate use of communication strategies. Learners first usually study these components as class room drills and then try to utilize once they are in real settings. Among above three components, this study specifically focuses on the third component, strategic competence; appropriate use of communication strategies.

Communication strategies differ according to the interlocutors and surroundings. Since there is no best style of communication, a speaker may utilize all his/her language knowledge to build an appropriate style in order to conduct successful conversation (Donald, 1999). Although a monolingual speaker has no other resources but to rely only on his/her mother tongue, bilingual speakers on the other hand, always have another choice depending on the discourse situations. This language choice can be even greater when a speaker possesses a third language knowledge. In addition, compared to monolingual societies, multilingual societies provide greater possibility of different social factors for speakers to utilize their language ability in different dimensions (Holmes, 2013). Among many communication strategies language (or code) borrowing, switching and mixing are said to play a significant role as discourse strategies among bilingual speakers (Gumperz, 1982; Myers-Scotton, 1990; Hoffmann, 1991; Nishimura, 1992). Either intentional or unintentional, many bilingual speakers are said to conduct conversations alternatively between two languages (Das, 2012).

How would switching and borrowing occur in the conversations where three alternatives are available (e.g., among Sinhala, English, and Japanese languages)? This is an area where most previous studies have provided limited information. Thus, based on the assumptions provided for bilingual conversations, this paper will investigate how switching and borrowing are used as a communication strategy to achieve the objectives in a given situation. This study will mainly focus on trilingual speakers who are residing in Japan and possess knowledge of Sinhala, English, and Japanese languages. In this research, language switching and language borrowing is counted according to below definitions.

Language switching occurs when a speaker commence an utterance with one language and change into another language before the line of utterance ends. The speaker may or may not return to the original language of the utterance.

Language borrowing occurs when a speaker uses one language and partially uses other language lexicons (either functional or content).

Language Choice and Social Settings in Trilingual Situations

The present study assumes that language alteration can take place in 12 patterns (6 switching patterns & 6 borrowing patterns) as depicted in figure 1.

Figure 1 represents all the switching and borrowing to maximum possibility in a trilingual situation. However, these patterns can be limited due to hidden aspects. Therefore, this section will provide in-depth information on expected impediments in the course. This study assumes there are two dimensions which manipulate alternation during trilingual conversations.

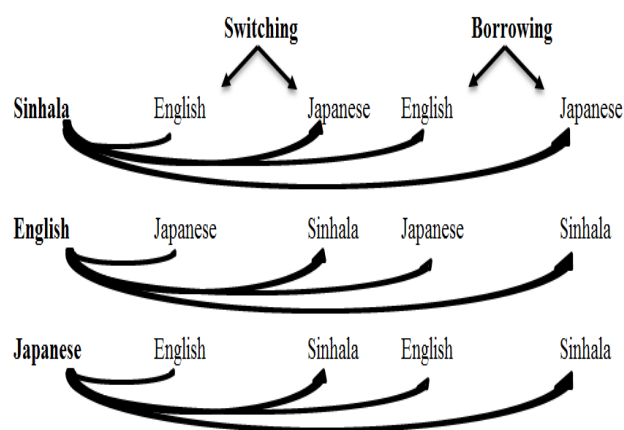


Fig.1 Possible variables of switching & borrowing among Sinhala, English, and Japanese languages

On one hand, first dimension lies in the role of language choice. On the other hand, the second dimension lies in the role of social settings. First dimension, language choice, accounts for the relation among three languages especially with regards to linguistic typology. Second dimension, social settings, is related to sociolinguistics facts (i.e., societal markedness & language specific characters).

According to previous studies (Dissanayaka, 2007; Noguchi, 1984), Sinhala and Japanese languages are said to be identical in many linguistic aspects. For example, the word order (a phenomenon related to syntax) of both languages are said to be Subject-Object-Verb as exemplified in 1&3 below. English language in contrast, composes with Subject-Verb-Object word order as can be seen in 2 below. This study assumes when alternation takes place (especially in switching form) difference of word orders might be a negative consequence which stands against arbitrary alternations between languages.

Sinhala Language

1 කසුකි රබාන ගහනව
 kazuki rabaana gahanawa → SOV
 Kasuki (ϕ NOM, anim Drum (ϕACC, in play (V+ing)
 Kasuki is playing the drum.

2 Kazuki is playing the drum
 Kasuki (NOM, anim) play (V+ing) Drum (ACC, inam) → SVO
 Kasuki is playing the drum.

Japanese Language

3 和希-が 太鼓-を たたいている
 kazuki-ga taiko-wo tataiteiru
 Kasuki (NOM, anim) Drum (ACC, in) play (V+ing) → SOV
 Kasuki is playing the drum.

The second dimension, social settings are assumed according to sociolinguistic evidence; societal markedness & language specific characteristics. The *markedness model* (proposed by Myers-Scotton, 1988; 1993b) suggests that in a given interaction or a situation, speakers have a choice of language due to certain rights and obligations sets. These language choices are in two categories; either marked or unmarked. According to this model, priority levels are determined based on social and personal reasons. With regards to social reasons, this study assumes that societal markedness plays a major role in language switching. For example, if, speakers reside in Japan, Japanese language plays a dominant role in hierarchy level leaving Sinhala and English languages behind. If speakers reside in a country where English language is mostly used, then Sinhala and Japanese languages will be dominated conversely. However, if speakers reside in Sri Lanka for example, Japanese and English languages will be in lower levels in a hierarchical structure. While societal markedness can be different depending on societies, linguistic typology remains unchanged. Thus, for language switching, this study proposes hypothesis (1) as below.

(1) *Hypothesis for language switching*

Amount of Switching can be greater between Sinhala-Japanese compared to the cases between English-Japanese or English-Sinhala.

This study assumes that the difference of word order may limit switching which includes English language expressions (either from or to). Conversely, Sinhala and Japanese languages are expected to illustrate high possibility of alternation.

The other sociolinguistic evidence; language specific characteristics, suggests that English language largely involves in the contexts of Japanese and Sinhala languages. For instance, previous studies (Dissanayaka, 2007; Gunasekera, 1999) on Sinhala language have provided evidence that Sinhala language is comprised with a considerable number of English lexicons especially in colloquial (i.e., spoken) form. It is said that most of them are used either as substitutions (as noted in Kanduboda, 2015) or loan words (according to Dissanayaka, 2007). Japanese language, on the other hand, is also reported to comprise many English loan words despite the difference of pronunciation and meaning (Shibasaki, H., Tamaoka, K., & Takatori, Y., 2007). Thus, hypothesis (2) is promoted in accordance with sociolinguistic evidence.

(2) *Hypothesis for language borrowing*

Amount of borrowing can be greater between either Sinhala-English or Japanese-English compared to Japanese-Sinhala.

If hypothesis (1) is supported by the data, then linguistic typology and social settings can be considered stronger when switching takes place between Sinhala and Japanese languages. However, if the experiment results do not support hypothesis (1), then both dimensions can be less important in switching phenomenon. On the other hand, if hypothesis (2) is supported by the data, this paper will reconfirm the evidence provided by the sociolinguistic perspective in previous studies.

In order to examine the accountability of hypothesis (1) and (2), this study conducted a free discussion task with speakers those who are able to use all three languages. The next section will provide in-depth information regarding the tasks conducted.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study conducted a free discussion task to gather data. The details of the task are provided below.

A. Participants

Twenty-five native Sinhala speakers (14 male and 11 female) residing in Japan (mostly in Aichi prefecture & Tokyo city) took part in the present free discussion task. Ages ranged from 24 years and 4 months to 28 years and 3 months, with the average age being 26 years and 0 months on the day of testing.

In order to examine the communication strategies among aforementioned trilingual conversations, participants must be able to use (i.e., comprehend and produce) all three languages. For this reason, the study selected Sinhala language native speakers who are residing in Japan during the survey time. All the participants were born and brought up in Sri Lanka for 19 years, and have moved to Japan for studying purpose. Sri Lankan general education includes English language as a subject amongst the others (MESL, 2016). All the participants possessed an A grade for English language in G.C.E O/L exam. As for Japanese language proficiency, all the participants possessed N3 level of *JLPT (Japanese Language Proficiency Level)*¹, which suggests all the participants were having the capability of recognizing Japanese used in everyday situations with sound comprehension and speaking ability (*JPLT*, 2016). Overall, all the participants were considered possessing sufficient knowledge and be able to communicate in Sinhala, English, and Japanese Languages.

B. Free Discussion Task

Participants were allocated to groups of five people where gender, residential areas, and type of work were mixed. All the group members were advised to gather information on group members and make a short summary of each discussants' backgrounds keeping the main emphasis on three aspects; what were they doing before coming to Japan, what activities are they engaged in Japan, and what are their future plans. Despite discussion tips, no instructions were provided prior to the discussions as to what language they should use in which order. Discussions were recorded using an IC recorder. Participants were also advised to end the discussion when all the members are satisfied with the acquired information for summary writing. They were compensated with 2000 Japanese yen (which included an hour participation honorarium and transportation fee).

C. Method of Data Collection

Amount of switching and borrowing occurrences were calculated and prepared for analysis. As previously defined in section 2, selection of language switching and language borrowing is done with following accordance. If a speaker begins to talk for example in Sinhala language, and switch into English language, is counted as one switching occurrence from Sinhala language to English language as in “මම (I) දැන් (now) working in japan” meaning “I am working in Japan now”. On the other hand, if a speaker uses lexicons from another language during a speech in another language, for example, if English lexicons (either functional or content words) are used during Sinhala speech as in “මම (I) දැන් (now) work කටයුතු ජපානයේ” also meaning “I am working in Japan now”, was counted as a one language borrowing occurred during Sinhala speech to/from English. Samples are represented in appendix 1.

D. Contrasts among Variables & Decision Tree Analysis

First, a simple contrast is conducted to examine the frequency and percentage between switching and borrowing among three languages as illustrated in table 1.

Table1. Simple Contrast between Switching & Borrowing

	Switching		Borrowing	
	frequency	Percentage	frequency	Percentage
Sinhala to English	12	10.34%	79	33.05%
Sinhala to Japanese	27	23.28%	43	17.99%
English to Sinhala	18	15.52%	35	14.64%
English to Japanese	9	7.76%	30	12.55%
Japanese to Sinhala	46	39.66%	37	15.48%
Japanese to English	4	3.45%	15	6.28%
Total	116	100%	239	100%

The descending switching occurrences are in order of Japanese to Sinhala > Sinhala to Japanese > English to Sinhala

¹ Where degree of difficulty descends from N1, N2, N3, N4, to most easy N5.

> Sinhala to English > English to Japanese > Japanese to English. On the other hand, the descending order of borrowing occurrences are resulted as Sinhala to English > Sinhala to Japanese > Japanese to Sinhala > English to Sinhala > English to Japanese > Japanese to English. In sum, the data is evidential that switching mostly occurs from Japanese language to Sinhala language in the case of present interview participants. Furthermore, borrowing were mostly occurred during Sinhala language utterance from English language. These results support the assumptions made by hypothesis (1) & (2) of this study. An in-depth explanation will be provided general discussion section. However, table 1 only depicts a simple contrast based on occurring frequency. Hitherto, it is also important to examine whether above variables possess any interrelation amongst them.

Therefore, in addition, a decision tree analysis using IBM SPSS (Ver.18) was conducted to predict whether the variables [(switching and borrowing) & (Sinhala, English, Japanese languages)] illustrate further characteristics in subsets apart from a larger set of variables. Since decision tree analysis automatically detects significant interaction effects among variables, hidden connection among variables can be evident.

The interaction among variables is displayed hierarchically with stronger predictors been in the higher nodes while weaker predictors are sent to the end of the branches. However, in this process, insignificant predictors are automatically excluded. The results of the analysis are depicted as a dendrogram in figure 2. Relative proportions between switching and borrowing showed significant in the analysis [$\chi^2(2)=46.985, p < .001$]. The dendrogram illustrated three sister nodes. Node 1 [Sinhala-English, English-Japanese, Japanese-English] and node 2 [Sinhala-Japanese & English-Sinhala] depicted significant interaction in borrowing occurrences while node 3 indicated significant subsets in switching [Japanese-Sinhala, Japanese-English]. This study assumed that borrowing is done in six different patterns as demonstrated in figure 1. However, there are only five main patterns which showed a significant interaction according to the decision tree analysis. Likewise, this study also assumed another six different patterns for switching, though the decision tree analysis showed only two significant interaction among them.

Switching & Borrowing

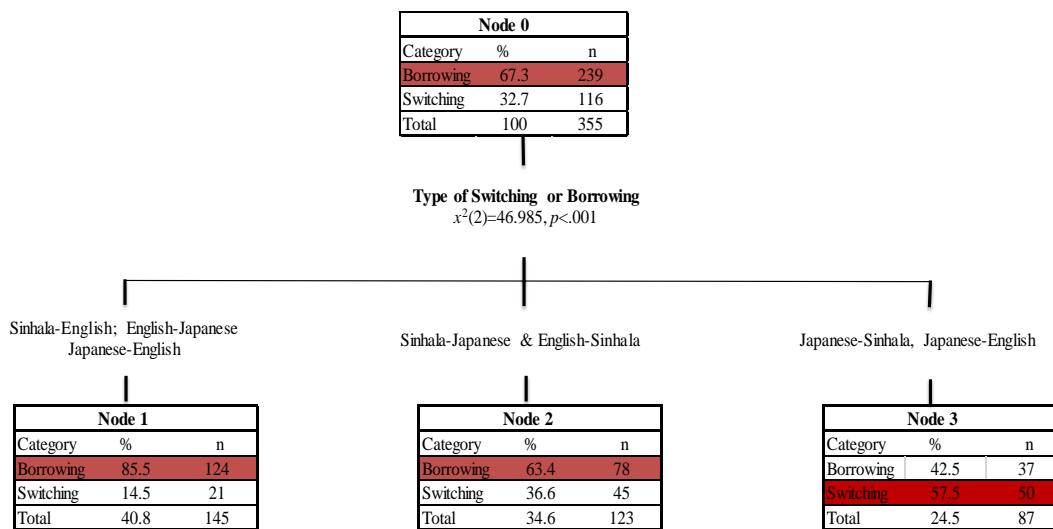


Figure 2 Dendrogram of decision tree analysis for switching & borrowing among trilingual (Sinhala, English, and Japanese) speakers

IV. GENERAL DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The main goal of this study was to confirm communication strategies among trilingual speakers. The data gathered via a free-discussion-task with twenty five Sinhala native speakers involvement. All the participants were residing in Japan, and were able to use English and Japanese languages. The analysis confirmed alternative use of all three languages in conversations. First, a simple comparison is conducted between languages (Sinhala, English, and Japanese) with two alternation categories (switching and borrowing). In hypothesis (1) the study assumed that the number of Switching can be greater between Sinhala and Japanese compared to the cases between English & Japanese or English & Sinhala with relation to language switching. Japanese and Sinhala languages were considered to possess close relation in linguistic typology & social settings. Upon a simple contrast, hypothesis (1) was proven true with regards to language switching (Japanese to Sinhala 39.66% occurrences, and Sinhala to Japanese 23.28% occurrences).

On the other hand, for language borrowing, hypothesis (2) assumed that the number of borrowings from English language can be greater in Sinhala or Japanese conversations due to sociolinguistic suggestions (Dissanayaka, 2007, Kanduboda, 2015, and Shibasaki et al., 2007). The analysis ascertained that the assumptions were true with regards to Sinhala language (with 33.05% occurrence). Unlike Sinhala, hypothesis (2) cannot be applied to Japanese language since the occurrences depicted the lowest. Overall, the results of this study suggest that, language switching mostly occurs between Japanese & Sinhala languages, while language borrowing mostly occurs during Sinhala language conversations.

Language Choice and Social Settings in Switching and Borrowing

This study first hypothesized that linguistic typology may support speakers to use languages alternatively in the form of switching due to identical aspects between Japanese and Sinhala languages. In the present tasks, number of switching occurrences showed higher between Japanese and Sinhala Languages (Japanese to Sinhala been the highest with 39.66% switching occurrences, and Sinhala to Japanese been the second highest with 23.28% switching occurrences). These results suggest that the relation between Sinhala and Japanese languages are strong. In addition, as the participants were residing in Japan (where Japanese language is mostly used), societal markedness also partially have supported the alternation process during Sinhala and Japanese languages speeches. However, switching between English language and Japanese language illustrated a lower frequency suggesting the societal markedness may not play an effective role in this regard.

Hypothesis (2) assumed that borrowing can mostly be seen during Japanese or Sinhala conversations. With regards to Sinhala language, hypothesis (2) can be accountable (Sinhala to English been the highest with 33.05% borrowing occurrences). However, English language borrowing occurrences during Japanese language conversations showed the lowest among others. According to these results, language specific characteristics can be true with regards to Sinhala language (as suggested in Dissanayaka, 2007, Gunasekra, 1989, and Kanduboda, 2015) but not with Japanese language. Although Japanese language is said to possess number of English loan words, these loan words are modernized according to Japanese syntax. Thus, direct use of English lexicons may be limited due to overlapping.

V. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE IMPLICATIONS

This study was conducted to examine how trilingual speakers utilize communication strategies during conversations. The study mainly focused on language switching and language borrowing as communication strategies. The hypotheses assumed for this study were supported through data. In summary, the study was able to provide evidence on trilingual (Sinhala, English, and Japanese languages) communication strategies especially with regards to language switching and language borrowing. However, this study also has its drawbacks. First, gender was not included as a variable for analysis due to limited participants. Second, although alternation patterns were analyzed, an in-depth examination which includes non-verbal communication strategies (such as gestures, eye contact etc.) is needed as it will provide further significant information to the field. This study was conducted in Japan. However, in order to reassure the results gained through this study, it is important to conduct further studies where English and Sinhala languages play a dominant role in social settings.

APPENDIX 1. Language Switching	&	Language Borrowing	Examples
Sinhala to English	මම දැන් teaching in a university in tokyo mama den teaching in a university in tokyo Now I am teaching in a university in Tokyo	මම නම් බොහෝ වෙලාවට ලංකාවට return වෙන්න නමයි හිතන් ඉන්න mama nam bohowelawata lankaawata return wenna thamai hitan inne Most probably I will return to Sri Lanka	
Sinhala to Japanese	මම ලංකාවේදී 日本語を少し勉強したよ mama lankaawedi nihonngo-wo sukoshi bekyoushitayo I studied some Japanese in Sri Lanka	එක හරිම නිකුත් වැඩක් අපේ eaka harima muzukashii wedak ane That's a very difficult job	
English to Sinhala	I might ලංකාවට යාමේදී I might lankawata yai ne I might got to Sri Lanka	He is working ඉඳලෙහිටල He is working indala hitala He is working sometimes	
English to Japanese	We also たまに 旅行するよ We also tamani ryoko suruyo We also travel sometimes	I do アルバイト I do arubaito I do partime job	
Japanese to Sinhala	いつも仕事だから 帰国するよ isumo shigoto dakara lankaawata yama hithenawa Since it's always work, I feel like going to Sri Lanka	いつも 母が 勉強勉強ばっかり isumo ape amma benkyo-benkyo bakkari My mum always telling study study	
Japanese to English	日本語も使うけど but it's easy to speak in English nihonngomo tsukaakedo but it's easy to speak in English Although we use Japanese too, it's easy to speak in English	いつか 休んで work したいね itsuka yukkuri work shitai ne Someday, I want to work slowly	

Note: 1st line represents actual language data, 2nd line represents word by word gloss, and 3rd line represents idiomatic translation

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Intertextuality and the Representation of Insults in Pro-NPP and Pro-NDC Newspapers in Ghana: A Critical Discourse Analysis

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Abstract—Intertextuality is the idea that “text cannot be viewed or studied in isolation since texts are not produced or consumed in isolation: all texts exist, and therefore must be understood, in relation to other texts” (Richardson, 2007, p. 100). In this study, I examine the kinds of Intertextuality used in the representation of insults in pro-New Patriotic Party (NPP) and National Democratic Congress (NDC) newspapers in Ghana. I relate Intertextuality to van Dijk’s ideological square to show how newspapers re-echo and legitimize the voice of the in-group by assigning them with authoritative qualities and titles, credentials that make whatever they say very reliable and at times taken as the truth without submitting them to any critical evaluation. However, in instances where the voices of the out-group members are reported, as Rojo (1995, p. 54) puts it, it is a means to “criticize them or discredit them.” The application of Intertextuality, in this study, reveals what both pro-NPP and pro-NDC papers consider newsworthy, that is, whose insult or voice is reported and whose is not. It shows how the in-group’s insults are represented in relation to the out-group. It further identifies the underlying ideologies in the representation of insults in Ghanaian political discourse.

Index Terms—intertextuality, insult, newspapers, NPP, NDC, critical discourse analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

In this study, I examine the kinds of Intertextuality used in the representation of insults in pro-NPP and pro-NDC newspapers in Ghana. Intertextuality is the idea that “text cannot be viewed or studied in isolation since texts are not produced or consumed in isolation: all texts exist, and therefore must be understood, in relation to other texts” (Richardson, 2007, p. 100). It is one of the tools employed in media discourse analysis. Media discourse refers to interactions that take place through a broadcast platform, whether spoken or written, in which the discourse is oriented to a non-present reader, listener or viewer (O’Keeffe, 2001). Fairclough (1995) makes a distinction between three different types of media: press, radio and television. The difference between the three basically lies in the channel of communication: the press is written; the radio is oral; and the television is both visual and oral. Fairclough notes that the difference in the channel of communication has potential implications: the press and online commentary are the least personal because they are written; television is the most personal since it is both visual and oral; and radio is intermediate of the two. This study focuses on one genre of media discourse: press-newspapers.

This study makes use of articles from newspapers. Bell (1991) aptly states that in a newspaper everything other than advertising is called ‘editorial,’ and most of the editorial content is a written ‘copy.’ He further divides editorial copy into three broad categories: Service information, opinion, and news. Service information is basically made up of a list of sections on sports, television programs, share prices, and weather forecasts. Opinions are statements of the newspaper’s own views on an issue. It is very difficult to separate opinions from news, since opinions from the standpoint of editors tend to be the news. Numerous researchers have shown that fact and opinions are by no means easy to separate (Bell, 1991, p. 13)

The issue of obtaining objectivity in news reporting is one of the most contentious issues in journalism. In most cases, it is very difficult for reporters to distance themselves from the truth claims of the report. Even if they are able to do that, how do they remove all the value judgments from the report? Richardson (2007) states that value judgments are built into the process of news making at all stages of the production process, through newsgathering, news writing, story selection, editing and presentation. In view of this, “columns, editorials, and other forms of news analysis will never qualify as ‘objective reporting’: the voice of the journalist is either too loud or too central for them to be objective” (Richardson, 2007, p. 86).

Some of the private newspapers in Ghana are affiliated to the two dominant political parties in Ghana: the New Patriotic Party (NPP) and the National Democratic Congress (NDC). These papers have their own political ideologies and agendas. In most cases these are manifested in their reportage as well. The construction of a news report is not the sole decision of the producer/journalist; rather, it involves the agglomeration of the ideology of the media institution, the media personnel involved, the owner, and what they consider to be newsworthy. Even linguistic expressions in the text such as diction, semantics, syntax, imagery and presentational style are carefully selected to suit the ideological

leanings of the newspapers. Therefore, “anything that is said or written about the world is articulated from a particular ideological position: language is not a clear window but a refracting, structuring medium” (Fowler, 1991, p. 10).

Agyekum (2004) in his paper, ‘Invective language in contemporary Ghanaian politics,’ raises four pertinent questions which are germane to this study. These are: (1) why should a paper select political invectives and make it newsworthy? (2) Why is it that at the point of the utterance many newspaper reporters were present but some did not publish it at all? (3) Why did some publish it as passing news in a small corner at the back page or some other page? (4) Why did other papers choose it as a news highlight and include it as a caption in their front pages? The world of news reporting is not simply what happens, but what the newspaper considers newsworthy. Therefore, the representation of insults from a political opponent is foregrounded or exaggerated not to alert the public of the problem of insults, but instead to put a political spin on it. The “tweak” and spin of insults in newspapers in Ghana reveal the ideology and the agenda of the media outlet.

A. *Insult*

Insult is considered as a special “genre of discourse on purely linguistic grounds” (Samarin, 1969, p. 324). This means that it can be listed with proverbs and riddles, and other linguistic routines such as greetings, expression of gratitude, thanking, apology and recounting one’s mission. Insults have structure, that is to say they have topic, form and context of use. The topic involves speaking ill of not only a person’s physical characteristics, but also the moral intellectual of the target, which at times compels the target to respond with an equal measure or more offensive words. It also looks at the abusive nature of insults. Some of the insults are indirect. Others may be spelled out or direct. The latter could be in the form of pejorative terms like *bad* or *dirty*. According to Samarin (1969) the form of insults may be relatively short, consisting of/ or it could be two or three sentences or more. It could also be just a word, phrase or body gesture. The core of insults is a characterization of “some part of the target’s body or his/her actions; this may be preceded or followed by other utterances appropriate to the situation” (Samarin, 1969, p. 325). Body gesture could be tapping the head with the forefinger to indicate to the target that he/she is mad. In addition, “the description of the person being abused is achieved grammatically by the use of descriptive adverbs and similes” (Samarin, 1969, p. 325).

The context in which insults are used varies. Contexts of insults may be face-to-face where the participants stand in proximity to one another. In political discussions, it could be on the radio, phone-ins on radio and television, in press conferences, in print media (newspapers or online) and on political platforms. Besides these contexts, Agyekum (2010) categorizes Akan insults into six (6) types based on various contextual situations: animal names, types of disease, ethnicity and tribe, personal behavior and profession, sexual organs, part of the body, and religion.

In this study, I look at insults within the context of what Agyekum (2004, p. 350) calls “‘mediatized political-invective’ targeted at political activists that appear in the media”. That is, insults that are reported in the print media (newspapers) with the sole aim of achieving a particular political purpose.

B. *New Patriotic Party (NPP) and National Democratic Congress (NDC)*

The NPP, the present majority party in opposition, traced its roots from United Gold Coast Convention (UGCC) and United Party (UP) of Danquah-Busia-Dombo tradition. They were very instrumental in the fight for independence with Dr. Kwame Nkrumah’s Convention Peoples Party (CPP). The NPP has its major votes in the Akan dominated regions of Ghana namely Ashanti, Brong-Ahafo, Eastern, Western, and Central regions. It is, however, not popular in the Volta, Upper West, Upper East, and the Northern regions. The Greater Accra region is considered in Ghana’s election as a neutral ground for all the political parties. The political ideology of the NPP is that it is a capitalist party and believes in privatization, rule of law, and democracy.

On the other hand, the NDC, the party presently in power, originated from the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) military regime, which was headed by Fl. Lt. Rawlings for 11 years. The NDC was officially formed in 1992. It contested and won the presidential and parliamentary elections in 1992 and 1996. The NDC has majority of its votes from the Volta, Northern, Upper West, and Upper East regions. It was not popular in the Akan dominated areas, but it’s gaining roots in some of the Akan regions such as Brong-Ahafo, Central and Western regions. The NDC won three out of the five Akan dominated regions in the 2012 presidential elections. The political ideology of the NDC is that it is a social democratic party. (For detailed information on the two political parties see Agyekum, 2004; Ninsin, 2006; Ofori, {in press})

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Critical Discourse Analysis

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a position taken by a group of scholars who agree on certain principles of analysis and also agree to address similar issues (Blommaert, 2005). These scholars have developed some institutional tools for doing such analysis. Notable among these scholars are Norman Fairclough, Ruth Wodak, Teun van Dijk, and Paul Chilton. The origin of this field dates back to the period of classical rhetoric, which is associated with figures such as Aristotle, who outlined the various structures of discourse and pointed to their role in the process of persuasion within public context (van Dijk, 1988, p. 18). However, the foundation of CDA hinges on the work of Fowler, Hodge and Kress (1979) on language, power, ideology, and control, as well as Michael Halliday’s systemic-functional

linguistics (Blommaert, 2005). Norman Fairclough pioneered the development of CDA in the late 1980s, leading to a three dimensional framework for the analysis of discourse. This model links analysis of text to discursive practice, including how the two relate to society, that is, social practice. His theory is fundamentally built on the works of Trew, Saussure, Halliday, Foucault, and Bakhtin. These scholars engineered the development of Critical Linguistics as one of the early schools of discourse in the 1970s.

There are multitudes of theoretical approaches or methodologies that have been developed by critical analysts in the analysis of discourse. CDA provides a diverse picture in its analysis. The use of systemic-functional grammar features prominently in CDA. It should also be noted that categories and concepts have been employed in CDA research from pragmatics, discourse analysis and text linguistics, social semiotics, social cognition, rhetoric, and conversational analysis. In fact, van Dijk (2001, p. 96) argues that CDA can be “combined with any approach and sub-discipline in the humanities and the social sciences.” In this study, I employ two CDA approaches, that is, Fairclough’s (1989) second dimension of his three dimensional framework: Discourse-as-discursive-practice and van Dijk’s (1995) ideological square.

1. Fairclough’s Discourse-as-discursive-practice

This level, under Fairclough’s three dimensional framework, is where the focus of the analysis is more discourse-based not textual. Here, discourse is seen as something that is produced, circulated, distributed, and consumed in society. After the textual analysis, attention is given to speech acts, coherence, and intertextuality, and these three aspects connect text to its social context. Since the analysis of this paper relies heavily on Intertextuality, I therefore expatiate on this model of analysis in the next section.

Intertextuality

According to Fairclough (1992), Kristeva (1966, 1986) coined the term ‘intertextuality’ in the late 1960s in her work “Western Audiences of the work of Bakhtin.” The development of this term was engineered by Bakhtin throughout his academic career. In his definition of Intertextuality Bakhtin (1986, p. 1) writes:

the text lives only by coming into contact with another text (with context). Only at this point of contact between texts does a light flash, illuminating both the posterior and anterior, joining a given text to a dialogue. We emphasize that this contact is dialogic contact between text ... Behind this contact is a contact of personalities and not of things.

This definition presents the view of how a current text is linked to a previous one and even to-be-said text as “ubiquitous and foundational, comprehending all of the ways that utterances can resonate with other utterances and constitutive of consciousness, society and culture” (Bauman, 2004, p. 5). The general understanding of intertextuality is that “text cannot be viewed or studied in isolation since texts are not produced or consumed in isolation: all texts exist, and therefore must be understood, in relation to other texts” (Richardson, 2007, p. 100). Blommaert (2005, p. 46) reinforces this idea that “whenever we speak we produce the words of others, we constantly cite and recite expressions and recycle meanings that are already available.” Fairclough makes a distinction between two types of Intertextuality: ‘manifest Intertextuality,’ which is overtly drawing upon other texts, and ‘constitutive intertextuality’ or ‘interdiscursivity’ which are texts made up of heterogeneous elements such as generic conventions, discourse types, register, and style (Blommaert, 2005).

The reciting of the voices or utterances of others in news reporting amounts to reported speech. Fairclough (2003) argues that most news reports sometimes are made up of elements such as press release, as well as a quote from a source either involved in the reported action/event (information) or commenting on it (evaluation) or background information taken from the paper’s cuttings archive, or all three of these text forms. Reported speech plays a major role in news reporting. Richardson (2007, p. 102-06) has identified five ways in which reported speech is made relevant to the study of news reporting.

Firstly, reported speech may be done through direct quotation. Under this, the exact words used by the source of the reporting are included in quotation marks, often with a reporting clause. The interpretation of the reader in terms of the quotation and the source responsible is framed by the reporting clause that the reporter chooses to employ.

Secondly, there is reported speech done through strategic quotation. This is conventionally known as ‘scare quotes.’ In this reported speech, the writing or thoughts of others are often placed in quotation marks in order to indicate their contentious nature. Reporters or editors use scare quotes to distance themselves from such controversial issues or terms. For example, someone claiming that the ‘the man is a thief.’ This is the same as the use of expression “so-called,” “so-described” and others.

Thirdly, reported speech done through indirect quotation. In this kind of reporting the reporter provides a summary of “the content of what was said or written, not the actual words used” (Fairclough, 2003, p. 49). The kind of verbal process selected characterizes reported speech and frames the reader’s understandings of the reported event and, in some cases, may be ideological.

Fourthly, there is reported speech via transformed indirect quotation. The difference between simple indirect quotation and transformed indirect quotation is that the latter drops reporting words such as ‘said,’ ‘accused,’ ‘alleged’ and others, and replaces them with transitive actions like ‘discovered,’ ‘revealed’ or mental state verbs such as ‘believe.’

Finally, there is reported speech done through ostensible direct quotation. The structure of the clause entails direct speech, but it is different from direct quotation in terms of its makeup. The content of this reported speech is that the view is too direct, extreme or outlandish to have come from the source involved.

The application of intertextuality in the present study will unearth what both pro-NPP and pro-NDC consider newsworthy, that is, whose insult or voice is reported or whose is not. This will show how the in-group's insults are represented in relation to the out-group. The analysis of the news articles shows that both NPP and NDC newspapers utilize the first three reported speech, that is, direct quotation, strategic or scare quotes and indirect quotation in reporting the voices or insults of the in-group and out-group members.

2. *van Dijk's ideological square*

One of the central aspects of van Dijk's (1995, 1998) socio-cognitive approach is the concept of ideological square. This is expressed in terms of emphasizing the positive actions/events/things of what the media institution considers the in-group and suppressing or de-emphasizing its negative actions, on one hand, and on the other hand, suppressing or de-emphasizing the positive actions/events/things of the out-group and trumpeting its negative actions. Therefore, the ideological square consists of four moves: (i) expressing/emphasizing positive things about *us*; (ii) expressing/emphasizing negative things about *them*; (iii) suppressing/de-emphasizing positive things about *them*; and (iv) suppressing/de-emphasizing negative things about *us*. Table 1 summarizes the whole idea of the ideological square (van Dijk, 1995, p. 144).

TABLE 1
DESCRIBING/ATTRIBUTING POSITIVE ACTIONS (VAN DIJK, 1995, P. 144)

In-group	Out-group
Emphasis	De-emphasis
Assertion	Denial
Hyperbole	Understatement
Topicalization	De-topicalization
Sentential (micro)	
Textual (macro)	
High prominent position	Low non-prominent position
Headline, summarizing	Marginalization
Detailed description	Vague, overall description
Attribution to personality	Attribution to context
Explicit	Implicit
Direct	Indirect
Narrative illustration	No stereotyping
Argumentative support	No argumentative support
Impression management	No impression management

Relating intertextuality to van Dijk's (1995, 1998) ideological square, newspapers re-echo and legitimize the voice of the in-group by assigning them with authoritative qualities and titles, credentials that make whatever they say very reliable and at times taken as the gospel truth without submitting them to any critical evaluation. However, in instances where the voice of the out-group members are reported, Rojo (1995, p. 54) puts it that it is a means "to criticize them or discredit them." We shall see in the analysis how the pro-NPP and pro-NDC newspapers represent insults or the voices of those they consider out-group as well as insults or voices from their in-group members.

III. DATA COLLECTION METHOD

The data for this study were obtained from news articles in pro-NPP and pro-NDC newspapers. The newspapers are *Daily Guide*, *The New Statesman*, and *The Chronicle* (pro-NPP newspapers), while *The Informer*, *The Palaver*, *The Al-Hajj*, *Enquirer*, *Radio Gold online* are all pro-NDC newspapers. In all, a total of 69 news articles were selected from 2012 to February 2014 consisting of 34 NPP newspaper articles and 35 NDC newspaper articles for the analysis (See appendix for the breakdowns of the newspaper articles). The articles were sampled and analyzed, using Fairclough's discourse-as-discursive-practice (1989, 1992a, 1995a,b, 2000, 2003) and van Dijk's (1995, 1998) concept of ideological square. It must be noted that some sections of this data were used in my paper (in press) titled "Inter-Party Insults in Political Discourse in Ghana: A Critical Discourse Analysis." However, the analysis in this paper is totally different from the one in press.

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, I analyze how both pro-NPP and pro-NDC newspapers reported insults or voices they considered newsworthy, focusing specifically on the voices that were given more prominence and the ones that were marginalized. I show how the various outlets used direct, strategic and indirect quotation to report insults from the in-group, out-group and non-politicians. NPP newspapers included voices ranging from religious leaders, former president Rawlings (from the out-group), journalists, supporters or members of the NDC and NPP, and NDC and NPP members of parliament. NDC newspapers, on the other hand, included voices from citizens, the President, NDC leaders, NPP Youth, and NPP MPs; however, they excluded the voice of Rawlings, the founder of the NDC party.

A. Direct Quotation

NPP newspapers used direct quotation to report insults from voices they considered newsworthy. These included:

1. "They have lost so much moral high ground, and now one of the most truthful, forceful, logically-minded personalities of integrity in the party leadership is being treated like an outcast to serve a parochial and unpatriotic interest," Mr. Rawlings stated. *The Chronicle*, March 27, 2012

2. "You have left crass criminals like Woyome and those who supported him in government and you expect to win an election?" he quizzed, adding, "what is your moral stand? I have a right of saying so, that you have lost the moral high ground." Mr. Rawlings described businessman Wayome. *Daily Guide*, June 5, 2012

3. Mrs. Rawlings told reporters in Accra yesterday, "If the man is your founder, there should be a certain level of decorum where you don't cross that lies, insults and putting things on his head that he has not said at all. In a party where you have a founder who is permanently being pummeled with things that are not true is totally not acceptable." *Daily Guide*, November 27, 2012

4. "Corruption, or perception of corruption in this government is endemic and systematic and was not personal to my late friend, Prof. John Evans Atta Mills. The people infecting this government with the endemic corruption and abuse of office for private gains are alive and in President Mahama's government," the former Attorney-General and Minister of Justice claimed. *The Chronicle*, October 2, 2012

5. "Any normal person cannot speak like that ... I don't know whether Asiedu Nketia was speaking under the influence of alcohol, because how can any normal person without taking in anything speak that way? This is uncalled for ... The President must call them to order because these (insults) have been going on for far too long." Mr. Osei Akyeampong was reported by the station as saying, *Daily Guide*, September 10, 2012

NPP newspapers included the voices of the Rawlingses (out-group members). Examples (1), (2) and (3) show the various insults from Rawlings and his wife. In (1) *The Chronicles* newspaper quoted Mr. Rawlings when he insulted the NDC, a political party he founded, for not following the ideals of the political party, that is, upholding the principles of "probity and accountability." Rather, "they have lost the moral high ground." The newspaper employed a neutral verb "stated" to report the insult from the out-group member. The negative and neutral verbs "quizz" and "told" are used in (2) and (3) respectively to report the voices of the Rawlingses. Richardson (2007: 102) states "readers' interpretation of the quotation and the source responsible is inevitably framed by the reporting clause that the reporter chooses to employ." The verbal processes employed in most cases reveal the "Us" versus "Them" dichotomy. In broader context, the inclusion of the voices of the Rawlingses shows that the NPP newspapers considered insults from them targeted at the out-group members as newsworthy. The voices were also reported to show confusion at the camp of the out-group in order to present them negatively.

NPP newspapers also reported insults from former ministers of the out-group using direct quotation, as in (4). *The Chronicle* newspaper employed a negative reported verb, "claimed," to report an insult from the former attorney general, Martin Amidu all in an attempt to portray the out-group negatively to readers. The voice of the spokesperson for the moderator of the Presbyterian Church of Ghana in (5), was also cited to present the out-group negatively. In sum, NPP newspapers included different voices targeted at the out-group members in their report of insults. They also employed negative and neutral verbal reporting clauses to quote insults from the voices cited.

Like the pro-NPP newspapers, pro-NDC newspapers employed direct quotation to include the voices of different people to report insults.

6. "This is unbelievable, even Senior High School Economics students know that low inflation does not mean price stagnation, but that even though prices are increasing, they are at a comparatively low rate." NDC Kingpin Stephen Ashitey Adjei asks. *Enquirer*, June 12, 2012

7. "Master, where is this country going to, the NPP people have begun something which can be dangerous for this country... "I was at a spot at Dansoman and I heard them saying in Twi, 'Yendiye yen pini ma te ni bia embedi yesu oh! to wit; we won't allow any person of northern descent rule over us.'" Mr. Charles Ahwiring, a taxi driver. *THE Al-Hajj*, August 16, 2012

8. "Ghanaians are looking for a leader who will be very clean, because we all know what narcotic drugs can do to a society." Richard Quashigah lamented. *THE Al-Hajj*, February 23 2012

9. "It was not questioned, nobody questioned it. The creation was done somewhere in January-10 clear months to elections. Once issues are raised then the Supreme Court can look into it," Ayikwei Otoo. *Ghana Palaver*, August 27-28, 2012

The majority of the voices included in the report of insults were from in-group members targeted at the out-group members. In (6) for instance, an NDC "kingpin" is directly quoted relating the analysis of Dr. Bawumia, the running mate of the NPP presidential candidate for 2008 and 2012 presidential elections, to that of a Senior High School economic student. The *Enquirer* newspaper used a neutral verbal reporting clause, "ask," to report the voice of the in-group member. The voice of the NDC kingpin was included to discredit the economic analysis of the out-group member. In (7), the voice of a taxi driver was also quoted to portray the out-group negatively for playing the ethnic card to win elections (For detailed analysis of ethnic polarization between and NPP and NDC see Ofori {in press}). In example (8) *The Al-Hajj* newspaper reported the voice of the NDC propaganda secretary to revisit the issue of narcotic drugs. This is one of the most contentious issues in Ghanaian politics of which the two dominant parties, NPP and NDC, continue to

play the blame game. For an NDC newspaper to report this insult targeted at the opposition presupposes that the NPP's presidential candidate is perceived as someone who uses narcotic drugs and therefore is not qualified to lead the nation. It is important to mention that the NPP presidential candidate has been given a lot of negative tags by the NDC party, of which narcotic drugs is one. The newspaper employed a negative verbal reporting clause, "lamented," to show a passionate appeal to readers not to vote for anyone who is engaged in narcotic drug use. *The Ghana Palaver* newspaper also included the voices of the out-group members targeted at the out-group in example (9) in attempt to present the out-group negatively. However, the NDC newspapers did not directly include the voices of non-politicians in their report of insults. Therefore, the voices, as well as the reporting clauses included in the report of the pro-NDC newspaper, were attempts to present the out-group negatively.

A plausible explanation why NDC newspapers excluded the voice of Rawlings is that in the run up to the 2012 election, he was not happy with the governance style of the late Professor Mills (Former President of Ghana) and his appointees. He criticized Mills for selecting "mediocre" ministers to govern the nation. Subsequently, his wife, Nana Konadu Agyeman-Rawlings, formed her own party, the National Democratic Party (NDP) after losing the NDC's presidential candidate race to Mills. The perceived bloodbath between the NDC and former President Rawlings may have resulted in the exclusion of his voice from the report of insults. It is also possible to say that per the data gathered, majority of the insults reported from Rawlings were targeted at the in-group (i.e. NDC party and its members) and thus NDC newspapers were not interested in reporting such insults since those insults were denting the image of the party. The NPP newspapers, however, gave more prominence to the voice of Rawlings while the NDC newspapers marginalized his voice.

Thus, criteria for news selection and newsworthiness as well as identification of worthy and unworthy victims are knitted to ideological and institutional practices, which are determined by the media outlet (Herman and Chomsky, 1988). The inclusion and exclusion of the voice of Rawlings revealed a group polarization between NPP and NDC papers showing a clear difference between the two.

B. Strategic or Scare Quote

NPP newspapers utilized strategic or scare quotes to report insults from the voices they considered newsworthy. They employed this strategy to distance themselves from the contentious nature of the words or phrases involved.

10. To the former President those "greedy bastards" in connivance with "babies with sharp teeth" have now developed into "old evil dwarfs." *The New Statesman*, April 3, 2012

11. Deputy Information Minister, Samuel Okudzeto Ablakwa, has been described by President Mills' appointee to the Energy Commission, "Chucks" Kofi Wayo, as "sometimes stupid" in the discharge of his duties, and has asked President Mills to fire him since he is becoming a liability. *The New Statesman*, April 3, 2012

12. Former Regional Chairman of the National Democratic Congress (NDC) in the Brong-Ahafo region has fired a salvo at the party's General Secretary, Johnson Asiedu Nketiah describing him as a "loose talker." Alhaji Abdullah said the NDC scribe's growing notoriety for having a sharp tongue could ruin the party's chance in the December polls. *Daily Guide*, November 12, 2012

In example (10), *The New Statesman* newspaper used scare quotes to show a possible contention towards the phrases and words used by former President Rawlings to insult the out-group members: "greedy bastards," "babies with sharp teeth" and "old evil dwarfs." In (11) an out-group member, Kofi Wayo, is reported to have described a deputy information minister as "sometimes stupid." Example (12) also shows how NPP newspapers utilized this same strategy to report an insult from an outgroup member towards an outgroup member as "loose talker."

NDC newspapers employed the same strategy to distance themselves from contentious issues, phrases or words.

13. No 'Patapaa'! President Mahama Warns Losers In Dec Polls. *Ghana Palaver*, September 14-16, 2012

14. But P.C Appiah Ofori disagrees with him noting that Dr. Charles Wireko-Brobby is a "non-entity" and so "I don't comment on the statement of non-entities."

www.myradiogoldlive.com May 31, 2013

15. A Deputy Minister for Information and Member of Parliament (MP) elect for the North Tongu Constituency, Samuel Okudzeto Ablakwa describes the protest for justice by the opposition New Patriotic Party (NPP) and its supporters over electoral fraud as "a comic of relief to Ghanaians." He says "the NPP is becoming a comedy of contradictions and a laughing stock in Ghana". *www.myradiogoldlive.com* December 19, 2012

In example (13), the president's warning to all losers of the December poll is put in scare quotes as "patapaa" to distance themselves from such controversial terms. Similarly, in (14) NDC newspapers used scare quotes to report insult from an out-group member targeted at another out-group calling him "non-entity." In (15), an insult from a deputy minister of information targeted at the out-group is put in scare quote as "a comic relief to Ghanaians."

According to van Ginnekin (2002), the use of scare quotes indirectly questions the content of the reported speech, that is, it distances the reporter or the editor from the implications, the factualness or the truth-claims of certain words or expressions. The use of scare quotes is similar to expressions such as "so-called," "the so described," "what they describe," "according to him" and "what they call." Both pro-NPP and pro-NDC utilized this strategy to distance themselves from the claims of the reported speech; however, it is one of the means to present the out-group negatively, reporting that they are not the ones insulting the opposing group or presenting them negatively.

C. Indirect Quotation

NPP and NDC newspapers also employed indirect quotation to report insults from voices they considered newsworthy. In the representation of different voices, it is very difficult to maintain the boundaries between the representing discourse and the represented discourse, that is to say, maintaining a strict boundary between the voice of the reporter and the voice of the person being reported. Fairclough (1995, p. 81) aptly states that one of the prominent features of indirect speech is that “although it is expected to be accurate about the propositional content of what was said, it is ambivalent about the actual words that were used - it may simply reproduce them, or it may transform and translate them into discourses which fit more easily with the reporter’s voice.” Below are examples from NPP newspapers:

16. The General Overseer of the International Central Gospel Church, Pastor Mensah Otabil, has taken President John Dramani Mahama to task over what he calls the evil and criminal attempts by members of his National Democratic Congress to tarnish his reputation by piecing together comments he had made in the past to create the false impression that he is against the proposed free senior high school policy being espoused by Nana Addo Dankwa Akufo-Addo, presidential Candidate of the New Patriotic Party. *The New Statesman*, April 3, 2012

17. Joshua Akamba, who was fuming with rage and panting for breathe, without mincing words, described Dr. Opuni as an idiot among other unprintable words. *Daily Guide*, August 29, 2012

In example (16) *The New Statesman* newspaper indirectly quotes the voice of a renowned pastor in Ghana, Pastor Mensa Otabil, founder of the International Central Gospel Church (ICGC), calling the out-group “evil” and “criminal.” It is not clear from the text whether the pastor used such words to refer to the out-group, or it is the reporter’s own voice embedded in the reported speech purposely for ideological expediency. Similarly, in (17) the voice of the deputy organizer of the NDC is indirectly quoted for insulting an out-group as an “idiot.” The voice of the reporter is seen in the use of expressions “fuming with rage,” “panting for breath” and “without mincing words.” It would be difficult to separate the voice of the reporter and that of the person being reported, in that, we cannot ascertain the validity of these expressions as the mood of the out-group member when he made that comment. This provides us with the idea of ideologically-loaded words or expressions employed by reporters to serve group interest. The use of such expressions is to portray the misunderstanding between out-group members as chaotic and thus present them negatively.

NDC newspapers also utilized indirect quotation to report speech. They included voices of the out-group as well as the in-group.

18. When it came to the turn of Kennedy Agyepong, a leading member of the NPP and owner of the radio station, he went straight for the jugular, declaring that all the National Executives of the NPP are not only corrupt and but thieves as well. According to Kennedy Agyepong, the National Executive members stole motorbikes he bought on credit from China for them to campaign with in the run up to the December 2012 polls. He accused them of using it now to campaign for themselves to be elected back into office. *The Informer* December 18, 2013

19. A stalwart of the governing National Democratic Congress (NDC), Dr. Tony Aidoo has described as infantile the petitioners’ address as espoused by Lawyer Philip Addison. www.myradiogoldlive.com August 10, 2013

20. The Greater Accra Regional Chairman of the ruling National Democratic Congress (NDC), Joseph Ade Coker, has said the presidential candidate of the New Patriotic Party (NPP) Nana Akufo Addo is too old and lacks the vision to lead the country if given the opportunity. www.myradiogoldlive.com November 21, 2012

In example (18), the words of an NPP MP, Kennedy Agyapong is indirectly quoted when he insulted the out-group national executives as “corrupt” and “thieves.” We cannot say for certain whether Kennedy Agyapong used those words or expressions in the text, or it is the reporter’s own voice inserted into the reported speech. Indeed, if these were his words there is a possibility that it has been spun by the reporter or editor to suit the group interest. In (19) and (20), voices of in-group members targeted at the out-group were indirectly quoted to present them negatively. In this case too it is difficult to judge the accuracy of the indirect quote from the in-group members targeted at the out-group. The possibility exists that the reported speech can be spun to satisfy group interest and denigrate the out-group.

V. CONCLUSION

The application of Fairclough’s (1989) discourse-as-discursive-practice and van Dijk’s (1995) ideological square has revealed the kinds of Intertextuality that are used in the representation of insults in pro-NPP and NDC papers. It became evident that the papers employed direct, strategic and indirect quotations to report insults and voices of the people they considered newsworthy. This showed how the various insults were represented along the line of *Us vs Them* dichotomy, in which the NPP/NDC papers present themselves in positive terms, and others in negative terms. Therefore, the polarization of how media institutions emphasize the positive actions of in-group members, and de-emphasize its negative actions on one hand, and de-emphasize the positive actions of the out-group while emphasizing its negative actions. Positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation are manifested in the representation of insults in NPP and NDC papers.

Both pro-NPP and pro-NDC papers employed direct, strategic and indirect quotes to report insults from in-group, out-group and non-politicians. NPP papers directly quoted the voices and insults of non-politicians targeted at the out-group. However, NDC papers did not directly cite the voices of such people. Concerning strategic quotes, both utilized this strategy to distance themselves from contentious insults emanating from the in-group, out-group as well as the non-

politicians. A critical analysis of this strategy revealed that the papers utilized it to present the out-group negatively, showing a polarization between the NPP and NDC papers.

In like manner, the papers employed indirect quotes using the authorial voice embedded in the reported speech for ideological purposes. That is to say, in the representation of different voices, it is very difficult to separate the voice of the reporter and the person being reported. Therefore, both NPP and NDC papers utilized this strategy to surreptitiously churn out their ideologies resulting in group polarization between the outlets.

APPENDIX

TABLE 2
NPP AND NDC NEWSPAPERS

NPP Papers	News Articles	NDC Papers	News Articles
Daily Guide	26	Ghana Palaver	12
New Statesman	4	Radio Gold online	9
The Chronicle	4	The Al-Hajj	6
		The Informer	5
		Enquirer	3
Total	34	Total	35

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Means of Expression of Temporal Deixis by Demonstrative Pronouns in the English Language

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Abstract—The article has been written on the basis of synchronic descriptive method in the study of the English language. It explores some ways of expressing the temporal deixis by means of demonstrative pronouns in the English language. It is noted in the article that demonstrative pronouns in the English language do not have any temporal meaning. The temporal meaning appears in the English language only in combination with nouns which denote time. In the English language temporal deixis is realized in the system of demonstration with the help of word combinations: *this* + noun, *that* + noun. The above mentioned word combinations fulfil anaphoric and cataphoric functions and can take different positions in the sentence. The article also covers discussion of linguistic views of scientists in this field. We think that urgency of the work just lies in the theoretical problems discussed in the article. The article is also of both theoretical and practical importance in the view of learning English and developing the science of linguistics as a whole.

Index Terms—deixis, demonstrative pronouns, temporal deixis, anaphoric, utterance

I. INTRODUCTION

As it is known human speech is realized in a certain situation, condition and environment. In order to establish intercourse with one another human beings use language and the first and initial function of a language is to transfer a certain piece of information. This is called a transactional function in linguistics. Human beings give information to one another by order, request and instruction to one another by means of language. The whole scope of actions carried out as a result of these processes in the language is called context. It becomes clear from the context, who is pointing to somebody or something by special words which are called deixis words: *here, there, I, you, he, down, up* etc. Deictic words just carry out deictic function.

The category of pronouns, as the system of deictic words, causes great interest. It is not occasional that grammatical degree attracted the attention of soviet investigators and the investigators including other countries as well. In the English language the authors of grammatical dialectal and other works have not forgotten this difficult and interesting part of linguistics. Nevertheless the origin of different degrees of pronouns, their formation and development have not been determined up to now.

In the modern linguistics (it has derived from the Greek word *deixnumi*) it gives the meaning of “to indicate”, “to show”, “to point to”. This word traditionally is as to the semantics nearer to the “indexial expression” in linguistics. In the English language, particularly demonstrative pronouns carry out this deictic function. Deixis is a means, uniting semantics with pragmatics, because, language expressions are set up by means of pragmatic substitutions. Service to determine the roles of participants of the communication mainly falling on the pronouns is the meaning or function of language unit, expressed as a lexical and grammatical means.

II. SCOPE OF STUDY

Deixis serves to actualize the denotive contents of the expression, components and situation of the text. In the modern investigations deixis is studied paralelly with semantics and pragmatics. In the modern linguistics, by this term mainly are mentioned demonstrative and personal pronouns, some adverbs grammatical tenses, including other lexical units and grammatical markers being considered fitful to the place in which the utterance sounds.

In modern linguistics we belong to the temporal deictic word as the words, characterizing the relative existence, time aspect of movement or test, an instant used in comparison with another exact instant characterizing a phenomenon perceived by by the senses of the participant of the communication. As Bondarenko mentioned personal and temporal belongings are different types of deixis (Bondorenco 1971, p.62). Temporal deixis in this orientation is established as to the main point of this calculation (first of all it can create possibility to measure how much the utterance of the speaker during which he/she spoke lacks behind the deictic centre (*two years ago, by the end of the summer... etc.*). As far as person deixis is concerned, it also assumes the person bearing categorial meanings (I, II, III persons, indefinite person, and generalized person) and personal oriented certain types. Here it is possible to measure time, but not the person. Localization in time is as it is in the space, that’s why indication as to time and space are linked with each other.

III. THE TYPES OF DEIXIS

As we know, the general unity of the types of deixis is the determination of the starting point of calculation. For the time deixis possesses two characteristics: orientation (from past to future) and locality in the time distribution as to the beginning of the coordinates.

Time coordination can be fixed as in three styles in a language:

- 1) in the system of signs
- 2) in the lexic system of units possibly to be marked as to the time in its semantics
- 3) a sign to time differentiations of tenses in the category of verb.

As to the above-mentioned issues we can determine the temporal deixis as to the indication of the time fitting to the condition of the utterance. In the system of indicators, temporal deixis is expressed with the help of demonstrative pronouns. In different languages the terms of the concept of “pronoun” mostly belong to the ancient grammatical terms, - Greek *antonymia* or latin *phomenon* used them as the substituors of names. In modern Western languages classical terms (first of all latin terms), for example in French *pronom*, in English *pronoun*, or their culcezed terms have been secured. The numerated terms for indicating the features of pronouns being considered as the bases of these words are examplary words. A number of scientists see the essence of pronouns mainly in lexical meaning (namely, these words don't have lexical meanings they only denote indication) others see the essence of pronouns in functions (namely, these words substitute the basical words), the third ones see the essence of pronouns in the both features. Maytinskaya K.E. notes that alongside the numerated features, general meanings of some demonstrative pronouns are specially to be marked (Maytinskaya 1969, p.49). Pronouns don't name the features of objects, or events, they only point to already generalized notions.

Benvenist, considering the essence of pronouns notes, that pronouns exist in different languages and in these languages they are divided into the same categories. As to Benvenist pronouns are not of the same class, depending on the existence of the language, signs of which they are, they create different genders and types (Benvenist 1974, p.23). Brugmann saw the specificity of demonstrative pronouns, and also noted the fact that, differing from other pronouns they possessed special features of indicativity. The signs given as to the thought of the speaker showed themselves as sound gestures in addition to the finger – pointed indications as the speaker went on speaking. As to Maytinskaya the main specificity of demonstrative pronouns determined by Brugmann needs some changes. Indication, as to the thought, expressed by the speaker, is not only characteristic for the indicators, but also for the personal pronouns. The conformity as to the functions of gestures and demonstrative pronouns are only the expression of initial deictic stage: for example the anaphoric use of pronouns cannot possibly belong only directly to gestures, it developed only in the language (Maytinskaya 1969, p.48).

IV. DETERMINATION OF REFERENCE

It is worth mentioning that any object carrying out the function of indication, depending on the choice of speech, which are applied to deictic pronouns (as to Pirs indexal signs) have been adapted to carry out concrete (identified) reference. The English term reference bases on the English verb to refer which means meaning relating, belonging to an object, to ground on something, to intend a certain object. Thus reference means to “grasp” the meaning of the utterance. Yartseva notes like this: reference is the actualized (entered the language) language and language expressions, or their adequacy to the objects of truthfulness (referent, denotat) of their equivalents (Yartseva 1990, p.38). The adequacy between the semantic type of the language and reference type of ordinary languages of the language expression are necessarily oriented to the investigation on the pronouns. In reality pronouns and generally the pronoun elements of the language are the main means of references. Out of the references directed to concrete references usually three classes are noted:

- 1) Deictic pronouns (I, you, he, she, it, this);
- 2) Personal names (Venesia, Napoleon, Popov);
- 3) Descriptions, namely, common nouns and determinatives – article or indicative pronoun, visible or intended (this table, French king).

While demonstratives are universal, they can differ widely in terms of their form, meaning, and use. The semantic features of demonstratives are divided into two basic types: (1) deictic features, which indicate the location of the referent relative to the deictic centre, and (2) non deictic features, which characterize the type of referent.

The deictic features of demonstratives are commonly characterized in spatial terms based on their relationship to the deictic centre. If the demonstrative pronouns *this* and *that* are used contrastively, *this* denotes a referent that is closer to the deictic centre than the referent of *that*, that is, *this* is proximal and *that* is distal.

This one (here) is larger than *that* one (over there).

However, in non-contrastive situations *this* and *that* are often interchangeable. They don't carry an inherent distance feature.

I like *this/that* one better.

According to Levinson the demonstrative pronoun *this* always expresses some sense of proximity, and *that* is only interpreted as a distal term if it is used in explicit contrast to *this*: that is, *that* is semantically unmarked for distance but is interpreted as a distal term by pragmatic contrast via Grice's maxim of quantity. Thus, Levinson concludes that the

traditional analysis of demonstratives in terms of spatial features (i.e., proximal vs. distal) is not always adequate to characterize their meaning and use.

One of the most striking features of demonstrative pronouns is that they are commonly accompanied by a pointing gesture. Deictic pointing is a communicative device that is used in all cultures to establish joint attention. It usually involves the index finger, but there are also cultures in which lip pointing is used to direct the other person's attention. The frequent co-occurrence of demonstratives and deictic pointing supports the hypothesis that demonstratives function to establish joint attention, which is crucially distinct from the communicative function of person deixis. First and second person pronouns refer to the speech participants, which are automatically activated as part of the speech event, whereas demonstratives create a new focus of attention or else indicate a contrast between two previously established referents.

The frequent combination of demonstratives and deictic pointing is especially striking in early child language. When children begin to produce their first words, at around the age of 15 months, they typically use content words referring to persons, objects, and other entities in their environment. But in addition to these words demonstrative pronouns are always among the first and most frequent expressions in early child language.

We consider that the function of demonstrative pronouns is monogram and important for the language. With the help of demonstrative pronouns the speaker marks each suitable object by which he/she attracts the attention of the speaker. Demonstrative pronouns state the space relatively of the speaker with the marked object or systematization of chronological "nearness" or "farness" of events as to the time in speech moment. Demonstrative pronouns in the frame of time can indicate to different directions, by which they carry out the functional features of the causes of subject and time in the sentence. We can meet such word combinations in the function of cause 6 times more than the function of subject.

In *this + n* (time meaning) word combinations, the demonstrative pronoun in the objective case has been limited by different time frames and gives the meaning of concrete noun, indicating certain moments of this time. For ex: *He is probably laughing at this moment* (Theodore 2005, p.123). *Yəqin, o, bu an güdür. I shall never forget her appearance this morning* (Theodore 2005, p.125). *Mən onu bu səhər necə gördüyünü heç vaxt unutmayacağam.*

Time aspect finding its reflection in this utterance specifies concrete features of movements, taking place in different time frames, or characterizes concrete indicated object directed to concrete time. As a whole word combinations belonging to an utterance or to different sentence members in the grammatical structure may take different places. Just we may note the following principles:

1. Usage of them at the beginning of the sentence: *This afternoon was received by Gennie with the greatest pleasure...* (Theodore 2005, p.10) – *Bu günortanı Cenni böyük sevinclə qarşıladi.*

2. Occupation of the last position: *It's clear from this, that he will come back no more this winter said Gennie* (Theodore 2005, p.44) – *Bu onu göstərir ki, o, bu qış qayıtmaq Cenni dedi.*

3. Joining directly the indefinite form of the verb: *However your coming at this time is the greatest comforts and I am very glad to hear what you tell us about the new dress* (Theodore 2005, p.44). – *Lakin sizin bu vaxt gəlişiniz böyük təsəllidir və mən sizin bizə yeni paltarınızdan danışmağınızı eşitdiyimə görə şadam.*

This + noun, these + n word combinations very often are used by present and future tenses of the verbs. For ex: *The whole party have left Netherfield by this time and are on their way to town and without any intention of coming back again* (Theodore 2005, 39). – *Bu vaxt hamı şəhərə üz tutub bir daha geri qayıtmaq istəməyərək Nizerfildən gedib. It will mean want one of these days* (Theodore 2005, p.228). – *Bu günlərin bir günü (tez bir zamanda) bir əlac, bir istək olacaq.*

But Leech and Svartlik note that pointing to the events having taken place in the past makes no difference in the usage of *this or that*, though the demonstrative pronoun *this* is advantageous in formal speech and it only points to the events taking place in future. *This may point to the events recently having taken place* (Leech and Svartik 1975, p.132).

a) *This is what I thought* – *Mənim fikirləşdiyim budur.*

b) *That's the end of the news* – *Bu verilişin sonudur.*

A lot of examples are set to the usage of common case in the context of past tense in deictic function:

This time this smile was ambiguous again, ironic, courteous – *Bu dəfə onun gülüşü yenə ikimənalı, ironiyalı və mərifətli idi.*

V. ANAPHORIC AND CATAPHORIC FUNCTIONS OF PRONOUNS

Now, let's consider the usage of this pronoun in anaphoric and cataphoric functions. As it has been mentioned above anaphoric attitude is the attitude (namely, transference from one attitude to the other one) among the language expressions. Among these expressions direct syntactic coordination is established. In the anaphoric function the pronoun *this* is rarely used. Anaphoric function may be adjusted to emphatic constructions. For ex: *The ship sank suddenly – this was when she admitted that it might be something serious* – *Gəmi gözlənilmədən batdı, bu o vaxt baş verdi ki, o, etiraf etdi ki, ciddi nə isə bir şey baş vermişdir.* Anaphoric attitude becomes coordinated with cataphoric attitude in the line, in which the element having the meaning of transference comes before.

In the cataphoric function the demonstrative pronoun *this* joining the noun denoting the duration of time is used as an adverb. Besides it carries out the functions of subject and object. Very often subordinate adverbial modifier of the

postsedent time, but in less cases. It is used by subordinate – attribute combination and participle expression: *This is the first time I had been asked to elicitate the kidnapping – İlk dəfədir ki, məndən oğurluğa şərait yaradılmasını xahiş etmişdilər.*

The expressions used with *that* being affirmed by the verb forms points to the certain time of the past events. They may come in any part of the sentence (at the beginning or in the end). The core of these word combinations may be nouns expressing meanings of the parts of the day, names of the week days, months, seasons and other words denoting temporal meaning. We consider that the pronoun (demonstrative) expressing these notions, as to the time, in the nearest future or in the nearest past actualizes them: *I love that girl he thought to himself that night* (Theodore 2005, p.72). – *Mən bu qızı sevirəm, o, həmin gecə belə düşündü.*

From moment that I watched my friend carefully, and I saw that this attachment to Miss Gennie was beyond what I had ever seen in him before (Theodore 2005, p.64). – *Bu andan mən dostumu diqqətlə izləyirdim və gördüm ki, onun Miss Cennyə bağlılığı qabaq gördüyümdən daha da üstün idi.*

That + noun word combinations being adequate to utterance as a whole and to the other sentence members may take place in the grammatical structure of the sentence:

1. At the beginning of the sentence: *At the moment sir William Lucas appeared and stopped to offer him a mark of attention* (Theodore 2005, p.32). – *Bu an sir Vilyam Lukas peyda oldu və dayandı ki, ona diqqət yetirsin.*

2. Occupation of the last position: *She opened the door and Maria, who cried to her to come down that moment* (Theodore 2005, p.48) – *O, qapını açıb onu bu an aşağı düşməyə çağıran Mariyanı qarşıladı.*

3. Directly joining the verb: *They could only suppose his visit to arise from the difficulty of finding anything to do at that time of year* (Theodore 2005, p.57). – *Onlar yalnız belə güman edə bilərdilər ki, onun ilin bu vaxtında gəldiyi bekarlıqdan idi.*

The pronoun *that* in the cataphoric function in the meaning of time adverb, very often is used with verbs in the past tense forms. For ex: *That was the first time I had looked at him* (Theodore 2005, 67). – *Bu ilk dəfə idi ki, mən ona baxdım.*

When changes take place with pronoun *it* or with definite article, the information on the “nearness” or “farness” is omitted. *I would even venture to say that at the time she felt more comfortable – Mən bunu o, sakit olduğu an deməyə heç vaxt cürət etməzdim.* Demonstrative pronouns themselves are free from temporal meaning, the meaning of time becomes clear only as to the context, or in coordination of nouns having the meanings of space and time.

In the same meaning, and in the same text the words “this year” and “now” can be used. The basis of the mutual alternation is the governing function, peculiar to adverbial modifier of time. Thus, in the English language demonstrative pronouns occupy the main place among all the deictic words.

VI. SEMANTICS OF PRONOUNS

Semantics of pronouns are the main criteria of their discrimination. As to the lexical view point pronouns may be classified due to logical-semantic view points because of their specific semantic features. By this we may discriminate the following degrees of pronouns: deictic, anaphoric and cvantor. Investigators belong the demonstrative pronouns to the main categories of pronouns among the words of deictic/demonstrative words, as they occupy a central position as to their a number of peculiarities. We agree to their thoughts.

We think that here one of the main factors is that the numeral pronoun degrees possess their free substantivized forms which have already gained the status of pronouns. As to Maytinskaya demonstrative, personal and interrogative pronouns having taken the abstract meanings we can say that they are distinguished in all the languages of the world and only in systematization such words are in the stage of formation (Maytinskaya 1969, p.75).

Thus, one of the deictic style of expression is noun and adequacy of demonstrative pronouns. So, temporal meaning in this demonstrative pronoun belongs only to the nouns giving the meaning of time (temporal meaning). Thus, we can affirm that demonstrative pronouns in the demonstrative system are a universal means of the expression of temporal deixis and this style for them is advantageous. As to the above-mentioned principles, we can say that temporality is a semantic category reflecting the understanding and cognition of the elements of approach to the time of the marked state or to the act of speech, or to the other points of human beings. Nevertheless, temporal meaning based on such a category, is a functional-semantic field for the expression of different variations of semantic categories in this or other languages, involving grammatical (morphology and syntax), lexics, including lexic-grammatic, grammatic-contextual etc. grouping.

VII. CONCLUSION

Having studied means of expression of temporal deixis by demonstrative pronouns in the English language, we may come to the conclusion that deixis serves to actualize the denotative contents of the expression, components and situation of the text.

We have found out that in the modern linguistics by the term of “deixis” mainly are mentioned demonstrative and personal pronouns, some adverbs, grammatical tenses, including other lexical units and grammatical markers, being considered fitful to the place in which the utterance is sounded.

Indication, as to the thought, expressed by the speaker, is not only characteristic for the indicators, but also for the personal pronouns. The conformity as to the function of gestures and demonstrative pronouns are only the expression of initial deictic stage.

Any object carrying out the function of indication, depending on the choice of speech, which are applied to deictic pronouns has been adapted to carry out concrete (identified) reference.

We can say that out of the references, directed to concrete references usually three classes are noted: 1) deictic pronouns; 2) personal names; 3) descriptions, namely common nouns and determinatives – article or indicative pronoun – visible or intended (*this table, French king*).

In *this + n* (time meaning) word combinations, the demonstrative pronoun in the objective case has been limited by different time frames and gives the meaning of concrete noun, indicating certain moments of this time.

We have found out that as a whole, word combinations belonging to an utterance or to different sentence members in the grammatical structure may take places 1) at the beginning of the sentence, 2) in the final position and 3) directly joining the indefinite form of the verb.

The temporal deictic means of expressions possesses anaphoric and cataphoric functions. In the anaphoric function the pronoun “*this*” is rarely used. Anaphoric attitude becomes coordinated with cataphoric attitude in the line, in which the element having the meaning of transference comes before. The expressions used with “*that*” being affirmed by the verb forms, point to the certain time of the past events.

That + n word combinations being adequate to utterance as a whole and to the other sentence members may take place as to the grammatical structure of the sentence: 1) at the beginning, 2) at the last position, 3) directly in the position in which it directly joins the verb.

Pronoun can be subjected to change of place in the structure of the sentence. When changes take place with pronoun *it* or with definite article, the information on the “nearness” or “farness” is omitted.

Semantics of pronouns are the main criteria of their discrimination. As to the lexical view point, pronouns may be classified due to logical-semantic views, because of their specific semantic features. As to the semantic peculiarities of the pronouns deictic pronouns may be distinguished as deictic, anaphoric and cataphoric.

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ESL/EFL Instructors' Perceptions of the Importance of Computer-assisted Reading in L2 Reading Instruction

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Abstract—English instructors' perceptions of computer-assisted reading (CAR) influence their tendency to integrate it in the L2 reading classroom. Accordingly, this study assessed English instructors' perceptions of the importance of electronic text in L2 reading and their general attitudes about the role and effectiveness of computers in teaching ESL/EFL. To this end, 70 ESL/EFL instructors at multiple universities responded to a two-part survey containing 34 items and open-ended questions about the respondents' general attitudes about computers in language teaching and learning, and the importance of computer-assisted L2 reading instruction specifically. The researcher performed both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses on the data, including means and standard deviations, as well as paired t-tests and bootstrapped *p*-values. The results indicated that the participants recognized the importance of CAR in improving the quality of L2 reading instruction and developing learners' reading skills. The implications of the study are discussed, and potential areas of future research are suggested.

Index Terms—computer-assisted reading, second language reading, importance of electronic text formats, ESL/EFL instructors

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, educators have acknowledged and accepted computer-assisted language learning (CALL) in the field of teaching English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL). CALL's appealing features and potential capabilities have received particular recognition in relation to second-language (L2) reading skills, as CALL brings new dimensions and unique opportunities to the subject of developing L2 reading skills. For example, in this electronic environment, progress is reader-controlled, such that students have immediate access to a variety of representational modes, and can use less disruptive ways of accessing extra information. Accordingly, CALL has changed the nature of reading, paving the way for the emergence of a new concept, namely, electronic literacy, and exerting a profound influence on the process of learning and teaching L2 reading.

Although policymakers, stakeholders, school administrators, and other decision-making entities are responsible for the adoption or integration of computer-assisted reading (CAR), particularly in the L2 reading classroom, ESL/EFL instructors are its key agents. Instructors set the tone of their classrooms and are those who implement the adoption of technology in the actual English language classroom. As the key stakeholders in the issue of computer integration in L2 reading classrooms, instructors largely determine and control the implementation of practices. Likewise, their perceptions of, and attitudes about incorporating CAR in their L2 reading instruction has a significant influence on the success of ESL/EFL students' efforts in learning to read via computer-based technology. Although the internet, other forms of computer technology, and web-based resources offer vast amounts of information, opportunities, and new directions for developing L2 reading and associated skills, successful exploitation of such resources depends ultimately on instructors' perceptions of using technology in the L2 reading classroom.

To understand the factors that facilitate or hinder ESL/EFL instructors' use of computers in the L2 reading classroom, one must examine their perceptions of, and attitudes about, computer integration closely. The need for such an investigation is based on the assumption that perceptions and attitudes have a reciprocal relationship with computer integration, and are linked so inextricably that one triggers the other. Accordingly, drawing on existing empirical studies and theoretical speculations and assumptions concerning the importance of electronic text in L2 reading, this study investigated ESL/EFL instructors' perceptions of the importance of CAR. Of specific interest was their general attitude about the role, importance, and effectiveness of computers in teaching ESL and EFL. This study also probed the instructors' perceptions of the importance of various technical features of electronic text in the process of teaching L2 reading. These features include flexibility, multimedia components, students' increased interest in reading and motivation to learn, improved accessibility, interaction with the text, a rich reading environment, an interactive model of reading, the creation of independent readers, and facilitation of comprehension.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Computers are important tools for L2 readers. According to Meskill, Mossop, and Bates (1999), computers create optimal conditions for L2 reading instruction and provide rich contexts for the active negotiation of meaning by ESL learners in need of linguistic/cognitive engagement, as well as opportunities for them to develop reading skills. Perhaps most importantly, L2 readers tend to be more motivated to read electronic or computerized English texts (Konishi, 2003). Accordingly, online reading has become a major source of input for ESL/EFL readers, and more and more of them are becoming engaged in online learning tasks (Amer, Al Barwani, & Ibrahim, 2010).

In the computerized reading environment, texts are linked electronically in a nonlinear manner, and include built-in multimedia elements, such as sound, pictures, and videos. Readers are also able to scroll up and down and benefit from greater temporal and spatial accessibility and flexibility. As Bodomo, Lam, and Lee (2003) noted, interaction between readers and electronic texts is dynamic, and readers become more active as they click and browse through web pages and hyperlinks. The new supports offered in this computerized reading environment improve the reader's ability to comprehend what s/he reads, making electronic texts particularly important in reading classrooms (Coiro, 2003). In particular, Kasper (2003) has argued that electronic texts (a) increase comprehension through the integration of new information into the existing knowledge network; (b) enable readers to create and expand the cognitive maps that guide their construction of meaning; (c) provide simple and ready access to multiple resources and references on related topics; (d) foster a nonlinear and flexible pattern of exploration of the text studied, and, (e) provide a source of innovative approaches to teaching L2 reading.

Several researchers have also highlighted the potential benefits of CAR in facilitating L2 reading skills, and have emphasized the unique characteristics of the electronic reading environment that supports its effectiveness. For example, one of its advantages is that readers engage actively with electronic texts, choosing whichever path is most relevant to their interests (Kasper, 2003). Similarly, electronic texts provide new formats and different ways to interact with the information presented (Tseng, 2010). Learners also have effortless access to various authentic reading materials that appeal to their individual needs (Lai & Kritsonis, 2006).

The rich interactive multimedia reading environment afforded by CAR stimulates readers' auditory and visual senses, increases their interest in reading, and enhances their motivation (Han, 2010). Electronic texts make readers independent and autonomous; rather than being confined to a textbook, they are able to explore the wealth of information available in the electronic reading environment. This exploration promotes an advanced interactive model of reading, and increases readers' awareness of cultural differences, thereby promoting a global worldview.

Given the theoretical advantages and importance of electronic texts in L2 reading, researchers have conducted various studies to examine the benefits of implementing CALL in the ESL/EFL classroom. For example, Marzban (2011) studied the effects of CALL on Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension. He found that by providing them access to information in different forms and media, CALL helped EFL learners become autonomous readers. The authenticity and efficiency of the reading materials CALL offers also underscores its importance in L2 reading.

Similarly, Bahatii (2013) investigated the effects of computers on literal, inferential, and evaluative reading comprehension skills. He found that CALL provided a self-paced and motivating learning environment more conducive to L2 reading instruction. Further, CALL generated significant interest among English learners.

Huang (2013) investigated the motivational pattern among EFL learners who read English texts online. The results demonstrated that importance of electronic text formats seen on a positive effect on students' motivational constructs including reading efficiency, challenge, curiosity, involvement, and integrative ambition.

Finally, Park, Yang, and Hsieh (2014) examined how university-level L2 readers constructed meaning when reading online. Specifically, the authors investigated L2 readers' information-seeking strategies and decision-making processes as they read online. The authors maintained that online reading has become a major source of input for ESL/EFL learners, in that the internet provides diverse reading materials that have the advantage of instant access to a variety of support resources that facilitate reading comprehension.

Overall, researchers have presented various perspectives on the importance of electronic texts in the development of L2 reading skills. Of special interest is the vital role that a computer plays as a medium of instruction—a role that results from its unique technological attributes. These perspectives focus on the appealing features of CALL, including accessibility and flexibility, the influence of electronic text on the processes of reading and comprehending text, and its effects on reader motivation and active engagement. In addition, the richness of the interactive multimedia reading environment, together with the availability of authentic reading materials, and the nonlinear structure of electronic information, are important advantages.

However, as noted in the introduction, effective implementation of CALL in the ESL/EFL classroom depends largely on instructors' perceptions of it, and several studies have addressed this issue. For example, Ramanair and Sagat (2007) investigated 50 Malaysian secondary English language teachers' knowledge of, and attitudes about multimedia technology. To determine their attitudes about multimodal technology, the authors asked them to respond to an attitude scale consisting of 15 items involving cognitive, affective, and behavioral categories. The results demonstrated that 80% had positive attitudes about using multimedia technology. These attitudes may have resulted from a greater understanding of multimedia technology acquired through formal training or self-instruction.

Although the studies above explored the benefits of CALL and ESL/EFL instructors' perceptions of its integration in classrooms, none has investigated specifically English instructors' perceptions of the importance of computer technology in L2 reading classrooms. Therefore, this study was designed to fill this significant gap in the literature.

III. OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Technology-enhanced resources offer ESL/EFL reading instructors and learners a wealth of resources and opportunities for teaching and learning. However, deriving the maximum benefit from these resources depends on instructors' implementation of the technology available and their perceptions of such implementation. At the same time, ESL/EFL instructors often transmit these perceptions to English learners and influence the extent to which students improve their L2 reading ability with technology and exploit the capabilities it offer.

As noted in the literature review, although various studies have explored computer technology and L2 reading, none has focused on ESL/EFL instructors' perceptions of using CAR in L2 reading instruction. Thus, the study focused on the following two questions:

1) What are ESL/EFL instructors' general attitudes about computers and the use of computer technology resources in language instruction?

2) How do ESL/EFL instructors perceive the importance of computer technology in an L2 reading class?

To answer these questions, the study tested the following two hypotheses (H0):

1) ESL/EFL instructors do not have positive attitudes about using computers in teaching ESL and EFL.

2) ESL/EFL instructors do not recognize the importance of computer technology in L2 reading classrooms.

IV. METHODS

Participants

Participant selection criteria and profiles. The participants were selected according to their teaching experience. Each had spent at least 5 years teaching college-level English, and had taught reading to college ESL/EFL learners for at least 3 years. In addition, all had more than 2 years of experience using computers in instruction. As there were no other explicit criteria for participation, a convenience sample was selected that consisted of 70 ESL/EFL instructors at the college level at various universities. The participants included 39 males (56%) and 31 (44%) females who ranged in age from 30 to 50, with most in their 30s. With respect to native languages, the majority were native Arabic speakers [36]; 19 spoke U.S., 13 British, 2 Canadian, 1 Australian, and 1 New Zealand English; the remainder spoke various other languages, including German, Thai, and Portuguese. The instructors who participated in the study had between 2 to 15 years of teaching experience, with a mean of 9 years. 55% had used computers in the classroom for more than 5 years, while 45% had done so for less than 5 years. Those who had more experience in the field were assumed to have a wider range of experience teaching L2 reading and a rich perspective on changes that have occurred in the ESL/EFL field. Eight (11%) had bachelor's degrees, 36 (52%) had master's degrees, and 26 (37%) had doctoral degrees. Table 1 presents the participants' demographic information.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHICS AND PROFILES OF PARTICIPATING ESL/EFL INSTRUCTORS

	%
Gender	
Male	56%
Female	44%
Ages	
25–34	55%
35–44	24%
45–55	14%
60 and above	7%
Highest degree held	
B. A.	11%
M. A.	52%
Ph. D.	37%
Years of teaching experience	
Less than 1 year	9%
1–4	16%
5–8	16%
9–12	13%
13–16	8%
17 or more	38%
Years of using computers in teaching	
Less than 1 year	7%
1–2	15%
3–4	23%
5 and more	55%

Design

This study incorporated a standard survey to obtain insight into ESL/EFL instructors' perceived perceptions of the importance of computer technology in L2 reading, as well as their general attitudes about computers and the use of computer technology in language instruction. The researcher developed the survey instrument after an extensive review of the related literature. The author surveyed the convenience sample of participants, and simple descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were conducted to analyze the data. The survey addressed primarily the perceived importance of computer-assisted L2 reading instruction. Demographic information, general attitudes about computers, and answers to open-ended questions also were collected to supplement and enrich the quantitative results.

Instruments

Survey construction. To answer the research questions, a two-part, unidimensional, cross-sectional questionnaire measured on a Likert scale was developed. This two-page questionnaire contained 34 statements presented in random order and was divided into the following three sections, as shown in Table 2.

- Section 1, *Background Information*, collected the participants' demographic information using 9 Yes/No and multiple-choice questions. The information collected included gender, age, educational experience, years of teaching experience, level of education completed, level of comfort using computers in teaching, and computer experience.

- Section 2, *The General Attitudes Scale*, included 5 statements designed to elicit responses regarding the participants' general attitudes about the role, importance, and effectiveness of computers in teaching ESL/EFL. These statements were divided into three categories: importance, perceived usefulness, and role of CALL. "Importance" had only 1 item, which measured the instructors' views concerning the importance of computer technology in learning and teaching English. "Perceived Usefulness," which also had 1 item, measured the instructors' beliefs about the usefulness or effectiveness of computers in helping ESL/EFL students learn English. Finally, "Role of CALL" contained 3 items that measured the instructors' opinions of the expected role of computers in English teaching and learning. To specify to what extent the participants agreed with each statement, they completed the general attitude section using a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from "agree strongly," "agree," "neutral," and disagree, to "disagree strongly."

- Section 3, *The Importance Scale*, included 20 items that probed the instructors' perceptions of the importance of electronic text in L2 reading, learning, and teaching using a 5-point scale that ranged from "extremely important" to "not important at all," with midpoints of "important," "neutral," and "less important." These statements were designed to assess the instructors' perceptions of the importance of various technical features of electronic text in the process of learning and teaching L2 reading. These features included flexibility, multimedia components, enhancement of students' interest and motivation, improved text accessibility and interaction, rich reading environment, interactive model of reading, creation of independent readers, and facilitation of reading comprehension.

Each section included qualitative, open-ended questions to encourage the instructors to expand on their views of the importance of electronic text that the Likert-scale items could not capture.

Instrument validity and reliability. Several measures were used to ensure the validity and reliability of the research instrument. To assess validity, a panel of four experts examined the instrument for content, clarity, and appropriateness. Their comments were used to reword items to eliminate ambiguous wording, add new items, and delete those deemed irrelevant to the purpose of the study.

The reliability of the instrument was assessed by computing Cronbach's alpha for each section of the questionnaire. The alpha coefficient was 0.72 for the *General Attitudes Scale* and 0.93 for the *Importance Scale*. The alpha coefficient overall was 0.95.

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF QUESTIONS/STATEMENTS OF THE DEVELOPED SURVEY

Sections	Section I	Section II	Section III
Type of questions/statements	Background information	General attitudes toward using computers in language learning instruction	About the ESL/EFL instructors' perceptions of the importance of electronic text in L2 reading instruction
Number of questions/statements	9	5	20

Pilot study. The researcher conducted a pilot study to ensure the validity and reliability of the survey, and anticipate any problems in the instrument. The pilot study sample consisted of 10 ESL/EFL instructors who did not participate in the actual study; however, they possessed similar credentials, teaching experience, and familiarity with computers to those of the participants in the main study. The procedures used in the pilot study were executed precisely as they were in the actual study.

The instructors were asked to examine the wording, order, and difficulties closely, as well as identify any confusing or ambiguous items or answers. They also were asked to indicate any difficulties they had completing the research instrument. Interviews were conducted with each instructor upon completion of the survey to elicit further detail and feedback concerning the issues above. The instrument was modified thereafter with the guidance of the panel of experts, while maintaining the original intent of the research instrument.

Survey administration and data collection. The researcher sent each participant a packet containing a letter describing the purpose of the study, the need for participation, a copy of the survey with an assigned four-digit ID code

affixed to it, instructions explaining how to complete the survey, and a return envelope. The ID codes were recorded in separately to track those who returned the survey.

After 2 weeks, the researcher sent an e-mail reminder to those who had not responded, and attached a link to the online version of the survey. After an additional 2 weeks, the researcher sent another letter and included another copy of the survey as a final reminder to those who had not yet responded. Of the 85 ESL/EFL instructors surveyed, 70 (83%) returned the survey; all participants responded to every item on the survey. On average, participants required approximately 20–25 minutes to complete the instrument. The researcher was available to the participants primarily via e-mail throughout the data collection process to answer any questions.

Data analyses. Completed surveys were compiled in an Excel spreadsheet and then imported into an SPSS file. The items in survey sections 1 through 3 were conceived to form multi-item scales of favorable attitudes about CALL generally, and its importance in L2 reading specifically. Next, the reliability of the items in each section was computed, and any items that exerted an appreciable negative effect on reliability were eliminated.

The mean scores for each section were then computed to represent scores on the construct each section was designed to measure. Descriptive statistics were computed for the scale scores generated for each of the three sections. The first two hypotheses were tested by assessing the significance of the difference between the mean scale value for each section and the neutral point of the scale for the section (i.e., 3.0) using a one-sample *t*-test. The normality of the distribution of scale scores in each section was tested using the D'Agostino-Pearson test. In any case where a significant departure from normality was found, bootstrapping was used to estimate the *p*-value of the difference from the neutral value. An alpha of 0.05 was used as the criterion for statistical significance. The first three hypotheses were 1-tailed.

V. RESULTS

Hypothesis one predicted that ESL/EFL instructors hold a positive attitude about using computers to teach ESL/EFL. The respondents' mean scores on all items in section two of the questionnaire, the Attitude Favorability Scale, determined the measure of "positive attitude." Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics for the Attitude Favorability Scale and its component items.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE ATTITUDE FAVORABILITY SCALE AND ITS COMPONENT ITEMS

Scale or item	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Attitude Favorability (full scale)	70	3	5	4.43	0.50
1. CALL is an important component of ESL/EFL	70	1	5	4.40	0.82
2. CALL promotes learner autonomy, motivation, and involvement with English	70	3	5	4.39	0.69
3. CALL provides learners with exposure to and practice in the four main language skills	70	2	5	4.24	0.75
4. CALL provides authentic tasks and access to a wealth of ESL/EFL materials	70	1	5	4.61	0.69
5. CALL offers new ways to practice language and assess performance	70	3	5	4.53	0.63

Hypothesis one was tested by computing the *p*-value for the difference between the mean of the scores on the Attitude Favorability Scale and the value of the neutral point on the response scale (3.0). The *p*-value for the D'Agostino-Pearson test of the normality of the distribution of Attitude Favorability scores was 0.06, indicating that the data satisfied the normality assumption of the one-sample *t*-test. In this case, $t_{69} = 24.263$, $p < 0.001$ (1-tailed). Consequently, the null hypothesis was rejected.

The mean Attitude Favorability score was significantly higher (i.e., more favorable) than the neutral point on the response scale. The means of the individual items indicated that there was less than half a scale interval (0.37) between the lowest and highest means among the five items. The means of all items fell within the fourth ("agree") or fifth ("strongly agree") interval of the response scale.

Hypothesis two predicted that ESL/EFL instructors ascribe more than moderate importance to the role of computer technology in L2 reading classrooms. The respondents' scores on the Importance Scale, calculated using the mean scores of the 20 items, determined the measure of "importance." Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics for the Importance Scale and its component items, as well as the *p*-values pertinent to the test of Hypothesis two and the difference of each item's mean from the mean of other Importance items.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE IMPORTANCE SCALE AND ITS COMPONENT ITEMS AND THE P-VALUES OF DIFFERENCES
BETWEEN ITEM MEANS AND THE MEANS OF THEIR 19 ITEM COMPLEMENTS

Effect of CALL	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD	p-value
Importance (full scale)	70	2.35	5	4.06	0.52	<0.001 ^a
1. Better graphics, images, and colors hold learners' attention better	70	1	5	4.29	0.82	0.04 ^b
2. Fosters a nonlinear and flexible pattern of exploration and discovery	70	1	5	3.83	0.88	0.01 ^c
3. Promotes the cognitive flexibility that is necessary for the integration of knowledge	70	1	5	3.73	0.88	<0.001 ^b
4. Motivational effect on English learners	70	1	5	3.47	1.139	<0.001 ^b
5. The multimodality associated with electronic text	70	1	5	4.03	0.78	0.55 ^c
6. Multimedia facilitates comprehension	70	2	5	4.36	0.62	0.00 ^b
7. The high level of interactivity of electronic reading	70	1	5	4.10	0.90	0.90 ^c
8. Promotes critical reading skills	70	1	5	3.79	0.90	0.01 ^c
9. Increases effectiveness of reading practice	70	2	5	3.91	0.81	0.08 ^b
10. Promotes an advanced interactive model of reading	69	1	5	3.97	0.82	0.26 ^b
11. Provides a rich reading environment	70	2	5	4.06	0.72	0.77 ^b
12. Makes online resources available to help language learners improve their cognitive and metacognitive reading skills	70	3	5	4.33	0.65	0.00 ^b
13. Offers virtually unlimited opportunities to practice reading	70	1	5	4.34	0.78	0.01 ^b
14. Raises motivation by fostering a sense of independence	70	2	5	4.17	0.82	0.37 ^b
15. Plays an important role in L2 reading	70	2	5	4.23	0.75	0.08 ^b
16. Encourages students to use the text interactively	70	2	5	4.14	0.67	0.45 ^b
17. Allows flexibility in accessing or studying the textual information available	70	2	5	4.17	0.74	0.39 ^b
18. Makes texts more accessible to ESL/EFL readers	70	2	5	4.11	0.83	0.82 ^b
19. Allows learners to be more active in the process of reading	70	2	5	4.01	0.89	0.55 ^b
20. Allows readers to explore their interests through links that lead to additional information	69	2	5	4.10	0.62	0.71 ^b

^a p-value for comparison of Importance Scale mean to neutral scale value (3.0)

^b Normality assumption satisfied; p-value of paired t-test of the difference between an item's mean and the mean of the other 19 items.

^c Normality assumption violated; p-value of the difference between item's mean and the mean of the other 19 items estimated via a 5,000-sample bootstrap.

Hypothesis two was tested by computing the p-value of the difference between the mean of the scores on the Importance Scale and the value of the neutral point on the response scale (3.0). The p-value for the D'Agostino-Pearson test of the normality of the distribution was 0.11, indicating that the data satisfied the normality assumption of the one-sample t-test. As reported in Table 3, $t_{69} = 17.05$, $p < 0.001$ (1-tailed). Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. The mean Importance score was significantly higher (i.e., more favorable) than the neutral point on the response scale.

The differences between the means of the individual items and those of the other 19 items (excluding the item being compared) were tested using a paired t-test or, where the normality assumption was violated, a 5,000-sample bootstrap estimate of the p-value of the difference. The resulting p-values are listed in the last column of Table 4. Given the multiple testing of the differences between the same set of variables, it was necessary to adjust the alpha level of the individual comparisons to achieve a familywise Type I error of 0.05. This was accomplished by applying the Bonferroni correction, which resulted in a requisite p-value of 0.003 to attribute statistical significance to any of these comparisons.

The mean importance ratings of the following two items were significantly higher than that of the other 19 items:

1. Better graphics, images, and colors hold learners' attention better.
6. Multimedia facilitates comprehension.

The mean importance ratings of the following two items were significantly lower than that of the other 19 items:

3. Promotes the cognitive flexibility necessary for the integration of knowledge.
4. Motivational effect on English learners.

The range between the lowest and highest means among the 20 items was 0.97 of a scale interval. The mean of only one item (Motivational effect on English learners) fell below the fourth response scale interval ("important"). The means of the other 19 items fell within the fourth ("important") interval of the response scale.

Open-Ended Questions

In addition to the survey, which was this study's primary research instrument and source of data, open-ended questions served to supplement and enrich the quantitative results. Each of the major sections of the self-developed survey ended with the following open-ended questions:

- 1) What are your general perceptions concerning the use of computers in teaching English as a foreign or second language?
- 2) Where do you see the importance of computer-assisted reading?

The participants made 143 remarks in response to these questions, in which they shared their general perceptions of utilizing computers for teaching ESL/EFL as well as the importance of electronic text in L2 reading instruction and learning. The first question generated 78 remarks (54%), and the second 65 remarks (45%). A major portion of these insights were positive (134 = 92.0%), but a few were negative (9 = 6.3%). The responses also fell into two major domains: general or overall perceptions and specifically defined perceptions.

General Perceptions of CALL. The participants' general perceptions of CALL focused on the options and advantages computers offer to learners, teachers, instruction, and the overall process of learning English. They also made some general statements and offered practical suggestions. For example, the participants indicated that computers help English learners become autonomous. Computers also shift ESL/EFL classes from teacher-centered to learner-centered and give students many opportunities to learn English. Further, computers provide interesting and helpful activities and enable students to find different sources and additional information about various subjects. Thus, learners who use computers are more motivated to learn English and experience increased exposure to authentic materials.

With respect to teaching English, the participants acknowledged that computers help with various aspects. They make teachers more confident by providing access to a wealth of information and resources, thereby helping them achieve their objectives more efficiently and effectively. They also enable teachers to apply methods that encourage student involvement in the learning process, and free students from the conventional that make them dependent entirely on their instructors. The participants also noted that computers enhance English instruction by reducing time and effort, providing a positive learning environment, enriching the teaching process, and making lessons more interesting and interactive. Overall, the general perception was that computer use affects the process of learning English positively because it forces learners to use the target language outside the classroom, makes the learning process more successful, and serves as a useful resource for language learning.

In commenting on their general attitude about CALL, the participants noted that CALL represents a breakthrough in language learning and creates more possibilities. Now a necessity, computers play a major role in language learning and possess limitless potential. Moreover, computers make English learners more creative and help them develop new ideas.

In addition to these general remarks, the participants proposed a number of practical suggestions. For example, the participants felt that teacher training is necessary to optimize their use of computers in the classroom. Without training, teachers are ill prepared to recognize the computer's potential. Moreover, using computers for language learning requires the orchestration of various skills, without which teachers tend to use computers less effectively.

Defined Perceptions of CAR. The Importance of Electronic Text for L2 Reading Instruction and Learning. When asked about the importance of electronic text in L2 reading instruction and learning, several participants indicated that computers are important because they create a motivational reading atmosphere, enhance cognitive and metacognitive skills, and improve reading comprehension by offering multimedia presentations and making related textual information available immediately. One participant said, "The way I see the importance of computers for L2 reading is in creating a motivating atmosphere." Yet another stated, "I can see the importance of CAR in improving cognitive and metacognitive skills." Other participants maintained that computers foster critical reading, and equip learners better to read on their own, and make them more enthusiastic about reading English texts.

Further, the participants noted that CAR improves learners' engagement and independence, provides unlimited resources for students to choose what interests them most, and "allows more flexibility in accessing or studying the available textual information." CAR also improves the speed and ease of access to reading materials. In particular, one participant commented, "The reader is no longer confined to just one or two pages without any possibility to go beyond those." The participants also acknowledged that visual presentations help learners understand the text they are studying better and stimulate their thinking. Another participant made a similar statement: "The importance of CAR is seen in allowing more flexibility in accessing or studying the available textual information."

VI. DISCUSSION

In general, the participants demonstrated favorable attitudes about the use of computers in teaching English, as shown by the mean scores of the five General Attitude Scale statements. This positive attitude overall about computer use can be attributed to the numerous advantages computers offer in language teaching and learning, including: making language lessons easier, more interesting, and more enjoyable; providing better motivation for learners; making teaching practices more student-centered, and engaging ESL/EFL learners in instructional activities. Such features thereby enhance both the teaching and learning of English. These results are consistent with those of previous studies, particularly that of Ramanair and Sagat (2007), where 80% of participants had a positive attitude about integrating computers into ESL/EFL classrooms.

The results of the survey item analyses, as well as the close analysis of the open-ended questions, suggested that the ESL/EFL instructors believed strongly in the importance of using computer technology in L2 reading classrooms. The mean scores of the 20 Importance Scale items indicated that the participants placed a high value on integrating computers in L2 reading classrooms. These favorable impressions can be attributed to a variety of factors, especially the particular features of electronic text noted in the introduction. The results of this study also were consistent with the findings of previous studies, including those of Bahatii (2013) and Hsieh (2014). Both studies showed that CAR is important in L2 reading because: it provides a more conducive, self-paced, and motivating learning environment for L2

reading instruction; generates considerable interest among English learners, and presents diverse reading materials with the advantage of instant access to a variety of support resources.

Pedagogical, Technological, and Policy Implications

This study has several pedagogical, technological, and policy implications, particularly with respect to ensuring the successful integration of computers into L2 reading classrooms and the realization of CAR's maximum benefits. With reference to pedagogical implications, to ensure that computers are used in the most effective pedagogical manner, English teachers need to acquire technology-supported skills and pedagogical knowledge. This will enable them to draw on technological skills and knowledge when they incorporate computers into L2 reading classroom instruction, and will assist them in their efficient and effective implementation.

Teachers also should be aware of the different types of CALL reading programs, which vary based on the targeted reading strategy and skill, as well as the need to consider the learners' reading ability and control of the content, the text type, issues involved in attending to and processing the various modes of information associated with electronic texts, and ways to optimize reading performance when text is displayed electronically. In addition, ESL/EFL instructors need to focus on technology-related classroom management skills to organize the L2 reading class effectively. Such organization will ensure that English learners have equal opportunities to use computers and engage in the reading tasks and activities assigned, and will receive proper help when they face technical problems.

Technological implications include the clear need for in-service professional development opportunities, as well as the provision of state-of-the-art infrastructure and facilities. General, technical, and specialized training should be offered to L2 reading instructors, as specialized training on L2 reading theory could help them make informed decisions about integrating computers into their classrooms. In addition, instructors need to develop relevant technological skills and understand how to design reading tasks and activities to make computer-based instruction and resources more appealing and accessible to L2 learners.

English instructors also may benefit from general technological training opportunities in different formats that provide hands-on experience in incorporating CAR into lesson plans and delivering L2 reading instruction based on sound pedagogical and practical skills. Specifically, instructors can be shown how to: (a) use available technological reading resources effectively; (b) create or select reading-based activities; (c) develop CAR lessons, and (d) integrate technological reading resources into the L2 reading classroom.

In addition to this training, ESL/EFL instructors need access to modern, advanced, and functional computer facilities with appropriate sustained technical support, as well as reliable high-speed broadband Internet connections and administrative support at all levels, including departmental, college, and university. Of equal importance is instructors' access to useful reading software programs, websites, and related technology-enhanced reading materials and resources. Finally, institutions need to work with instructors to develop specific goals and guidelines for the integration of CAR.

Limitations of the Study

This study's implications and interpretations have several limitations. First, because the data were collected using a Likert-scale, unidimensional, cross-sectional questionnaire and open-ended questions, it was possible to capture participants' attitudes accurately as they were elicited by other methods of inquiry. Combinations of both qualitative and quantitative methods produce data that are more in-depth, shed additional light on the issues involved, and provide plausible explanations of the data.

Second, the variables investigated were self-determined based on the relevant literature. Variables excluded here might yield a clearer understanding of English instructors' attitudes about the importance of CAR in L2 reading instruction.

Third, the data were collected at a specific time rather than at periodic and frequent intervals; the latter would allow an assessment of the stability of the participants' attitudes over time.

Finally, the sample size was relatively small. This limits the extent to which the study's findings can be generalized.

Directions for Future Research

Using selected variables, this study demonstrated ESL/EFL instructors' perceptions of the importance of CAR in L2 reading and their general attitudes about the role, importance, and effectiveness of computers in teaching ESL and EFL. We hope that the study will stimulate additional research on ESL/EFL instructors' roles in integrating computers into the L2 reading classroom. In particular, future studies should examine changes in teachers' attitudes about computer use over time via a longitudinal study, as well as the relationship between their attitudes and personal characteristics or demographic variables, such as gender, age, computer experience, and techno-anxiety. Future studies also could examine whether perceptions are the best predictors of ESL/EFL instructors' use of computers in L2 reading classrooms.

VII. CLOSING REMARKS

This study on English reading instructors' perceptions of the importance of CAR in L2 reading instruction and their general attitudes about the role, importance, and effectiveness of computers in teaching ESL/EFL found that instructors recognize the importance of CAR in enhancing L2 reading instruction, prompting and advancing learners' learning process, and developing their reading skills. However, although the participants primarily stressed CAR's usefulness in engaging English learners in a meaningful and authentic computerized reading environment, they also noted the breadth of resources and reading materials CAR supplies. These findings serve as a departure point for future

explorations of ESL/EFL instructors' perceptions of CAR in the L2 reading classroom and may be useful in shaping computer integration practices in L2 reading classrooms. They also highlight the growing need for ESL/EFL instructors to have the skills, knowledge, and attitudes necessary to infuse computer technology into L2 reading classrooms and exploit all reading resources and learning opportunities available.

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About the Different Kinds of Meanings of a Sentence

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Abstract—The article investigates a sentence. It states that a sentence is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language; it serves as a chief means of conveying the thought. The works regarding English grammar by foreign and Azerbaijani linguists such as O. I. Musayev, V. L. Kaushanskaya, R. L. Kovner, J. Lyons, F. R. Palmer, S. Potter and others have been studied by the author and theories suggested by them have been thoroughly considered. The author also writes about the importance of the sentence not only the means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it. The author explains the differences between declarative, interrogative, negative sentences using various linguistic sources as well. She comes to the conclusion that the kinds of sentences are very important to be used either in speech or in written language.

Index Terms—sentence, simple, compound, complex, meaning, context, declarative, interrogative, negative

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the scientists such as O.I.Musayev, V.L.Kaushanskaya, R.L.Kovner and others the sentence can be classified according to two principles: a) according to the purpose of the utterance; b) according to the structure. Investigations show that according to the purpose of the utterance four kinds of the sentences can be distinguished. They are the declarative sentence; the interrogative sentence; the imperative sentence; the exclamatory sentence. According to the structure simple sentences are divided into two-member sentences and one-member sentences. A two-member sentence has two members – a subject and a predicate. It is necessary to state that a two-member sentence may be complete and incomplete. A one member sentence is a sentence which has only one member. This member is not considered to be either the subject or the predicate. Simple sentences both two-member and one-member can be unextended and extended. An extended sentence has only primary or principal parts. An extended sentence consists of the subject and one or more secondary parts (objects, attributes, or adverbial modifiers) (Kaushanskaya and Kovner 1973, p.221).

All syntactical constructions can be classified according to the structural, semantical and pragmatological aspects. It is necessary to state that in the structural classification of the sentence the functional signs are considered to be the main parts. From this point of view the structure of the sentence can be classified according to the division of a one member sentence, a two member sentence, an extended sentence, an unextended sentence etc. Each sentence carries a relevant complete thought. The content of a sentence is actualized with a help of its predicate which is considered to be its undividable part. The predicativity is a syntactical category which forms a sentence. This category helps to give the information which connects the events with the reality. It is necessary to state that the connection with the reality is relevant in each sentence. The sentence turns into a unit of a sent information, but separately, or in the isolated form it is not a unit of communication. Because inside a sentence communication cannot be observed. K.M.Abdullayev writes: "An isolated sentence can be acted only as a melodic unit because this sentence doesn't perform any active performance though it has been taken from inside a text. It is just a melodic unit" (Abdullayev 1998, p.18). It states the importance of the fact that an only sentence can not be considered to carry out experiments or investigations. From this point of view nowadays the investigation tends to be carried out using texts either macro, or micro.

II. METHODOLOGY

As it has been stated by the linguists the sentence is essentially a grammatical unit; indeed it is the function of syntax to describe the structure of the sentence and thereby to define it. English sentences generally consist of a subject noun phrase and a verb phrase as its predicate or complement. Each of these may be a single word as in *Birds fly*. It is true that the syntax determines more complex structures than this one. It is undeniable that these kinds of complete sentences are not often observed. It is simple enough to envisage a situation in which someone simply says *Horses*. This could be a reply to a question such as *What are those animals in that field?* Although some scholars have talked of 'one word sentences' in describing such expressions, it seems more helpful to treat *Horses* as a sentence fragment and as an incomplete version of *They are horses*.

III. ANALYSIS

J.Lyons states that for talking about its meaning one need to reconstruct the complete sentence in this way. Most fragments are closely linked to their linguistic context and handled in terms of ellipsis (the omission of parts of the sentences). Ellipsis in turn is related to the feature of 'pro-formation' (the use of pronouns and similar forms that replace verbs and other parts of speech). All are devices for not repeating everything that has already been established in the discourse. So, in *John saw Mary and spoke to her*, *John* is omitted, but *Mary* is replaced by *her* in the second half of the sentence. Not all sentence fragments are linked to the previous discourse. *Coming? Or Coming!* May be used instead of *Are you coming? Or I'm coming!* Moreover, in actual speech people often fail through lapse of memory or inattention to produce complete or grammatical sentences. Speaker may break off, they may forget how to start, they may confuse two or more constructions etc. Nevertheless, the interpretation of all of these depends upon their relation to the sentences of the grammar (Lyons 1995, p.38).

J.Lyons notes that it is possible to recognise sentence fragments, or incomplete or ungrammatical sentences, if people know what a complete grammatical sentence is (Lyons 1995, p. 155).

IV. DISCUSSIONS

It is noteworthy to mention that the meaning of a sentence can be predicted from the meaning of the words it contains. Each sentence that the speaker uses has a meaning, or if the sentence is ambiguous it may have two or more meanings. For instance, *I went to the bank*. This sentence may have more meanings. However, there are other kinds of meaning that are not directly related to grammatical and lexical structure.

The meaning in the spoken language is carried by the prosodic and paralinguistic features of the language such as intonation, stress, rhythm, loudness etc., as well as such features as facial expressions and gestures. For instance, using the intonation the sentence *That is very clever* mean sarcastic attitude like that is not very clever. Other example, *I don't like coffee* with a fall-rise intonation may well imply 'I like tea' and *She is very clever* may suggest 'She's rather ugly'. Using intonation what is important, contrastive or new can also be meant. The difference between *I saw John this morning*, *I saw Jóhn this morning*, and *I saw John this morning* doesn't concern the information itself, but the relation between that information and previous information known to speaker and hearer (Lyons 1995, p.40).

The structure of the sentence is important. But the structure doesn't show all meanings that the sentence carries. Each sentence differs with its relation to the reality. In the division of the sentence modality, and concrete semantic meaning play an important role.

There are different opinions about the division of syntactical constructions in the linguistic sources. According to R.V.Zandvort sentences can be divided into simple, compound and sentence groups. But this linguist can not give a complete definition of the simple sentence. He writes: "Sentences are separated from one another with some definite signs in writing and in speech". For instance, they are written in capital letters in the beginning, and at the end they are ended with some certain punctuation marks such as full stop, question mark, exclamation mark etc. A sentence can consist of a word, or some words, a one-member sentence, a two-member sentence. Each sentence should carry its predicate" (Zandvort 1963, p.5). As we see, the exact definition of a simple sentence is not explained in this citation given by R.V.Zandvort. Then he writes about a compound sentence: "If a construction carries a subject and a finite verb this kind of construction is called "amplification clause" and this sentence is a compound one" (Zandvort 1963, p.15).

Some scientists call these kinds of sentences complex and use them for subordinating sentences. For instance:

When the authorities had arrived, the ceremony began. (Rəsmilər gəlib çatmışdılar ki, mərasim başladı).

R.V.Zandvort advises to divide these kinds of sentences into two types: main clause, and sub-clauses (Zandvort 1963, p.16).

Some scientists such as O.I.Musayev suggests to call sub-clause as subordinate clause or dependent clause. For the main clauses he uses head clauses and principal clause. It is necessary to state that R.V.Zandvort also supports these terms. (Musayev 2009, p. 287).

In traditional grammar a simple sentence is a sentence that contains only one clause. Non-simple sentences fall into two classes: compound and complex. A compound sentence have two or more co-ordinate clauses; the complex sentences have a main clause (which may be simple or composite) and at least one subordinate clause. J.Lyons suggests to use for these traditional distinctions with the term the propositional content of sentences. The distinction between simple and what J.Lyons call composite sentences is the distinction drawn in logic between simple and composite propositions. He (J.Lyons) suggests no distinction can be drawn among different kinds of composite propositions that matches the grammatical distinction between compound and complex sentences (Palmer 1986, p. 168). For example,

If he passed his driving test, I am a Dutchman. It is complex, but Either he did not pass his driving test or I am a Dutchman - is compound.

The propositions expressed by the above two sentences are normally formalized in the propositional calculus by means of implication and disjunction, respectively,

"*p implies q*",

on the other hand, and

"*either not-p or q*",

on the other. It is necessary to state that these two composite propositions and look as if they might differ semantically, but as they are standardly interpreted by logicians, they do not. They have exactly the same truth-

conditions. Granted that “*p implies q*” and “*either not-p or q*” correctly formalize the range of propositions that can be asserted by uttering the above mentioned sample complex and compound sentences and it follows that the sentences in question must have the same propositional content. J.Lyons gives such examples as the following (Palmer 1986, p.158):

He was poor and he was honest.

He was poor but he was honest.

Although he was poor, he was honest.

Looking at these example, first of all anyone would think that they differ in meaning, but the second one which is compound is closer in meaning to the third, a complex sentence than it is to the first which is another compound sentence. It is necessary to mention that the composite propositions expressed by these sentences are normally held to be semantically equivalent.

The English scientist S.Potter dedicates a special chapter for a sentence in his famous book “Our language” (for a note we want to state that the book was published for 26 times, firstly in 1950, last in 1984) (Potter 1984, p.154). He (S.Potter) defines the sentences as a unit of consisting of two elements. For an explanation the two elements cover the subject and the predicate. S.Potter considers the subject as a main element, the predicate as a dependent one and explains that the predicate is used to give information about the subject: *What am I talking about? What have I to say about it?* (Potter 1984, p.91). S. Potter determines three kinds of the sentence according to its classification:

1) According to its form:

a) A simple sentence (simple) - I know it. (Mən onu tanıyıram)

b) A compound sentence - I know it, and I am proud of it. (Mən onu tanıyıram və onunla fəxr edirəm).

c) A complex sentence - I know that he will come. (Mən bilirəm ki, o gələcək).

2) According to its function. There are four kinds of sentences according to its function:

a) A declarative sentence - I know it. (Mən onu tanıyıram.)

b) Command-wish sentences - Long live the King! (Qoy kral çox yaşasın!)

c) An interrogative sentence - Are you coming? (Gəlirsən?)

d) Exclamatory sentences - How good you are! (Siz necə yaxşısiniz!)

According to S.Potter’s explanation the predicate is used at the beginning of wish and interrogative sentences (Potter 1984, p. 150).

Sometimes the word order can be changed according to the structure of the sentence in English. For example, I hope (that) he will come, He will. I hope, come. He will come.

It is not the same in Azerbaijani. Let’s compare:

Ümid edirəm ki, o gələcək.

I hope he will come.

If we compare it in German it will be like this: Ich hoffe, dass er kommen wird. (Ümid edirəm ki, o gələcək); Hoffentlich wird er kommen. (Güman ki, o gələcək).

Besides it, S.Potter divides the sentence into three kinds according to its style:

a) loose, b) balanced and c) periodic (Potter 1984, p.151).

In the first one, the speaker and the writer narrate the facts one after one independently and figuratively. The meaning of the sentence becomes clear in the periodic style. The speaker is in the anxious state till the end of the sentence. The thought is in the parallel state after one another and becomes its antitheses. For instance,

First come, first served. (Birinci gəldi, birinci xidmət olundu).

It means that the sentences carry some certain information, and they have the subject and the predicate except the imperative sentences. Each of the sentences has its own syntactic structure and intonation. The sentence informs something, asks questions, answers the questions, commands something or expresses the speaker’s emotional state.

The quasi types of sentences either express exclamation, or claim something or express speech etiquettes. They don’t have the above mentioned structures. They are used only to show communication relation. For instance,

Have you come, Ahmed?

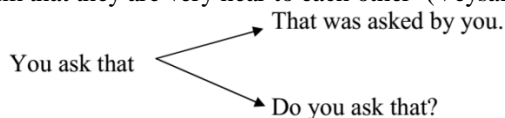
Me, why me?

Why, you don’t understand me?

Good!

It is not your cup of tea! And others.

Declarative and interrogative sentences are very similar to each other as both of them are used to give information and to receive information. The question form of a declarative sentence and their transformation give us a reason to think that they are very near to each other (Veysalli 1970, p.164).



As it is seen, the verb is transitive and in the communication process the declarative and interrogative sentences can replace each other. On the other hand, the interrogative form can be changed into the declarative one. For instance, What do you ask me?, You ask me., etc.

Some scientists think that the structural signs can also be observed in the division of the sentence according to the purpose of the utterance (declarative, interrogative and imperative). Q. Q. Pochepsov writes that the declarative and interrogative sentences can be tended to the realization of the action. For instance,

Are you still here? Go away at once! (Sən hələ buradasan. Get buradan, bu saatda!).

These kinds of sentences exhibit neither a declaration nor an interrogation (Pochepsov 1982, p. 168).

It is necessary to mention that in each of these sentences has its own special feature such as word order, the use of the interrogative word etc. As we stated above intonation is also important in this case as it has very special distinguishing feature. The example can illustrate it.

It may be serious?

It may be serious.

The Azerbaijani scientist F.Y.Veysalli also states the importance of intonation. He (F.Y.Veysalli) writes: "Intonation is a phonological means which is considered to be the succession of sounds that the speaker pronounces with various tones, timbres and strength. With the help of it words and word combinations turn into a complete thought and the listener accepts it as a complete thought" (Veysalli 1970, p.9). It is important to stress that phonetic plays an important role in distinguishing the meaning like semantics and grammar. The following examples can illustrate it:

"He is not enjoying the party". (O, məclisdən zövq almır)

If the stress is on the word "party (məclis) in this case the main information is *his not enjoying the party*.

If the stress is on the word

"enjoying" (zövq alma) the meaning will completely differ.

As it is seen the stress and intonation can change the meaning. F.Y.Veysalli also states the importance of prosodic elements in distinguishing the meaning and form in the sentence. J. Lyons notes that metalinguistic functions need to be taken into attention as well as with the prosodic elements (Veysalli 1970, p.19).

There are many ordinary-language metalinguistic statements which are unambiguous when spoken, but not necessarily when written. The role of punctuation marks cannot be deniable for to express the structural signs in writing and for distinguishing the correct meaning of the sentences. The differentness between the ordinary-language metalinguistic sentences and the speech sentences are observed. For instance,

I can not stand, Sebastian!

I can not stand "Sebastian".

The difference is clearly seen.

In the first example the speaker mentions the name of a person whose name happens to be Sebastian and in the other example a sentence is about the name 'Sebastian'. It is necessary to stress that the conventional use of quotation-marks for such purposes in ordinary written English is not obligatory (Lyons 1995, p.41).

None of these suppositions is questionable. Each of them sounds correct. It needs to mention that the meanings of the sentences are clear not only with the meanings of the words but also with the grammatical structure of them. The sentences which consist of the same words can have different meanings depending on their grammatical structure. Let's give such examples:

She is dying now. (O, indi can verir.)

Is she dying now? (O, indi can verir?)

As we see, the first sentence is a declarative one, and the other one is an interrogative sentence. The grammatical structure between them is seen in the grammatical structure that they introduce. The other example:

John dies for Mary. (Con Meriyə üçün ölür.)

Mary dies for John. (Meri Con üçün ölür.)

Both of these sentences are declarative ones. But there are also differentness of form and meaning between them. J.Lyons call these differentness as word-meaning and sentence meaning (Lyons 1995, p.32). The sentence meaning is predictable directly from the grammatical and lexical features of the sentence, while the utterance meaning includes all the various types of meaning. The distinction can be considered to be useful, while there are two reservations. Firstly, it is not always clear what is sentence meaning and what is utterance meaning. It can be arguable that the intonation of a sentence is part of its grammatical form, and that intonation signals sentence meaning, not utterance meaning, a sarcastic intonation have the same function as a negative. Yet in practice the prosodic and paralinguistic features are so varied and so variable in what they signal that it is advisable not to attempt to include them within the grammatical analysis. It is arguable that the presuppositional meaning is contained in the lexical and grammatical characteristics of the sentence: stop includes in its meaning that the activity was carried on previously, while any noun phrase such as The King of France, indicates that the item referred to exists. Secondly, the term utterance is a little misleading. Utterances are usually taken to be unique speech events and no two utterances are the same (Palmer 1986, p.150).

The negative sentences have a very special place in the kinds of sentences. It is said that if the predicate is in the negative form the sentence can be called a negative one. In English general negative form is formed by adding the negative particle *not* after the auxiliary verb *to do*. For example, *I don't want to answer. He doesn't want to answer* etc. It is a general form of negation. Besides, there is also a special kind of negation. This kind of negation is formed by adding the negative particle *not* after the link verb *to be* such as *It was not Mark* etc. The negation in English is observed after the elements like /nobody/ (heç kim), /nowhere/ (heç yerdə), /never/ (heç vaxt).

There are various ways in which negative sentences are constructed in natural languages. There is not any reason to say that a negative sentence is grammatically composite by contrast with the corresponding positive, or affirmative sentence. Generally speaking, corresponding sentences of opposite polarity have the same clause-structure, and it can be identified easily with propositional negation. It is applied within clauses and does not extend to whole sentences. Investigations prove that in many languages (including Finnish and Irish) the negative polarity of a clause (like its mood or its tense) is marked not by means of a separate particle like the English not, but by special forms of the verb, or predicate. Yet the traditional negation of the particle of the predicate is equivalent to negation of the proposition.

There is one kind of predicate-negation which is clearly not equivalent to the negation of the whole proposition. This may be exemplified by:

John is unfriendly.

differs from:

John is not friendly.

The second example expresses a proposition that is not just the contradictory of the proposition expressed by *John is friendly*. *John is unfriendly* is not simply the negation of *John is friendly*: it implies *John is hostile*. It is quite possible for *John* to be neither *friendly* nor *unfriendly*. It is a fact that *John is not friendly* is often used in everyday conversation as if it had the same sense as *John is unfriendly*. Scientists suggest three ways of solving this fact. Firstly, there are two distinct sentences represented in English by *John is not friendly* and that they are distinguished in spoken English by means of rhythm and intonation. But rhythm and the fine differences of intonation that are involved in cases such as this are universally excluded by linguists from what they consider to be part of the prosodic structure of sentences. The second way is that there is one sentence, and that it is structurally ambiguous. The third way is to draw upon the distinction between sentence-meaning and utterance meaning and to say that *John is not friendly* is a single unambiguous sentence which can be uttered in a particular way, and perhaps also in identifiable contexts, with more or less the same communicative effect as the utterance of *John is unfriendly* (Palmer 1986, p. 158).

It is also possible to have negated nominal expressions occurring as clause-constituents. For instance,

Non-students pay the full entrance-fee. This sentence expresses a proposition which differs from, and doesn't entail the proposition expressed by *Students do not pay the full entrance-fee.*

This kind of nominal negation (non-students), like predicative negation (do not pay) has an effect propositional content of the clause in which it occurs and is in truth-functional; but it cannot be readily formalized in propositional logic (Palmer 1986, p.171).

V. CONCLUSION

We come to the conclusion that each sentence is a definite construction. Here the term construction means the true signs of language events. The sentence is considered to be a definite column for other language events. Leaving some helpful elements inside a sentence cannot spoil the completeness. It is related to the facultative elements. The sentence should have internal connections as well as absolute-distributive connection.

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College Student Academic Motivation and Engagement in the College English Course

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Abstract—This research examined the relationship between student academic motivation and engagement in the college English course. Based on the current study on communicative language teaching, student academic motivation, and engagement, we hypothesized that student motivation in the English course could predict their engagement. We used the MUSIC model of academic motivation inventory (Jones, 2016b) to explore students' course perceptions, and we added engagement items to the survey. The participants were 101 first-year college students who were enrolled in this English course. The descriptive statistics data presented the main problems the course in terms of empowerment, success, and interest. The stepwise regression results indicated that the components of empowerment and success in the MUSIC model predicted student engagement. The findings revealed that it is possible for Chinese college EFL teachers to use the strategies in the MUSIC model to redesign their instruction to motivate and engage their students in the English coursework.

Index Terms—English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the MUSIC model, motivation and engagement in Higher Education

I. INTRODUCTION

Since China opened its door and took the economic reform in the late 1970s, the college English course has been a compulsory class for each and every Chinese college student (Shu, 2004). Due to the increasing global exchange and international challenges in the 21st century (Shu, & Hua, 2009), China's Ministry of Education passed a new college EFL course syllabus in 2004 and called for the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach for students' communicative competence in English (Ministry of Education, 2004). As a result, many researchers argued that college English course should prepare students with communicative capabilities to meet these needs (Shu, 2013). However, in a recent study on college EFL teachers' needs, the researchers found that most college EFL teachers do not necessarily know how to motivate and engage students to learning (Wen & Ren, 2011; Zhou, 2005). In the field of educational psychology, student academic motivation is a topic with long history of nearly seven decades (Weiner, 1990). Researchers have found numerous strategies concerning how to motivate and engage students to the learning (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Unfortunately, these strategies are not necessarily and popularly used by instructors outside the education field (Jones, 2015). Jones (2009, 2015) grouped these strategies in educational psychology into five components and developed the MUSIC Model of Academic Motivation: eMpowerment, Usefulness, Success, Interest and Caring. This model helps instructors to identify their teaching problems and then redesign their instruction to motivate their students in learning (Jones, 2015; Jones & Wilkins, 2013). Therefore, it is necessary to explore whether the strategies in the MUSIC model are reasonable and practical for the CLT approach in Chinese college EFL class.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. CLT in the College English Syllabus and Its Effectiveness

The calling for the CLT approach in the college English course happened around 2004 when Ministry of Education passed a new syllabus with a focus on student communicative competence (Ministry of Education, 2004). The new

syllabus stated that the goal of the college English course is to improve college students' communicative competence, especially their listening and speaking comprehension. As a result, in the national college English test (NCET), the vocabulary and structure section was cancelled and the percentage of listening section increased from 20% to 35% (Zheng & Cheng, 2008). In order to utilize CLT properly in college English class, it is necessary to conduct research on the feature of CLT and examine whether it was effective in the college English course.

Hymes (1966) was the first person who emphasized that the communicative competence is crucial in the language curriculum. Since then, researchers in ESL/EFL learning agreed that communicative competence is more important than the mastery of the form of the language (Fotos, 2005; Savignon, 2005). Because "the essence of CLT is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence" (Savignon, 2005, p. 635), many methods such as cooperative or collaborative learning, task-based method, and inquiry-based method are included in the CLT approach and they all emphasize language learners' active participation and engagement in the learning process (Littlewood, 2007).

In the realm of college English, many researchers and instructors practiced the CLT approach in the past decade and demonstrated its effectiveness (Shu & Hua, 2009). In a study of 100 first-year College EFL students at a Chinese university, researchers investigated the impact of cooperative learning on students' motivation (Ning, & Hornby, 2014). After 18-week intervention, they found that the use of cooperative learning improved students' intrinsic motivation significantly. In another study, Liu (2007) examined the effectiveness of CLT among 40 first year transportation engineering students by using free discussion, oral presentations, and story construction to deal with the content in the prescribed textbook. The findings indicated that students' spoken English and the test score increased significantly, and they also had a stronger sense of autonomy, usefulness, and interest in the CLT class. Many others also conducted research on the effective use of CLT in Chinese college EFL class (Deng and Zheng, 2008; Rao, 2002; Shi, 2010; Tian, 2007; Zhang and Head, 2010). Taken as a whole, the empirical research on the CLT approach documented that CLT is effective. However, no evidence was reported to show that the use of CLT leads to student engagement, the essence of CLT. Only when we provide empirical evidence of the relationship between motivation and engagement in CLT, can we support the theoretical hypothesis that the implement of CLT leads to student engagement. Because Jones (2009, 2015, 2016a) argued that if teachers use the instructional strategies in the MUSIC model, their students will be more motivated and engaged with the learning, we need to find the evidence to show that the components of the MUSIC model of academic motivation lead to student engagement in learning.

B. The MUSIC Model Components and Student Engagement

The MUSIC Model of Academic Motivation is a set of instructional strategies based on the current research and theories of student motivation in educational psychology (Jones, 2009, 2015). Jones (2009) argued that students are more motivated and engaged when they perceive that (1) they are empowered, (2) the content is useful, (3) they can be successful, (4) the content and activities are interesting, (5) they feel cared for by teachers and peers in the learning environment (Jones et al., 2015). Given the essence of CLT is student engagement (Fotos, 2005; Savignon, 2005), if we can find evidence that the components of the MUSIC lead to student engagement, it will be reasonable to use the strategies in the MUSIC model in Chinese college EFL class.

In the field of educational psychology, a plethora of research documented that the use of motivation strategies leads to student engagement. In a study of a group of college students enrolled in the organic chemistry course, researchers investigated how teachers' autonomy support affected students' self-regulation and performance (Black & Deci, 2000). Researchers found that students' perceptions of their instructors' autonomy support predicted their increased autonomous self-regulation, perceived competence, and interest/enjoyment, and decrease in anxiety over the semester (Black & Deci, 2000). The change in autonomous self-regulation in turn predicted their performance in the course. In another study, researchers examined the relationships between motivation variables and achievement behaviors among 184 first year Belgian psychology students (Neuville, Frenay, & Bourgeois, 2007). The findings demonstrated that task value is positively related to self-regulated strategies (Neuville et al., 2007). As for the relationships between success and engagement, researchers found that academic self-efficacy positively and significantly predicted academic performance, persistence, and cognitive engagement (DiBenedetto & Bembenuddy, 2013; Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991; Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001; Joo, Bong, & Choi, 2000). Moreover, the evidence abounds that motivation strategies in interest and caring lead to engagement. For example, Rotgans and Schmidt (2011) investigated the development of situational interest over time and the relationships between situational interest and student academic achievement among 69 polytechnic students. They reported that students' situational interest increased significantly when the problem stimulus was presented. More importantly, researchers found that the situational interest was a significant predictor of academic achievement. In the research on the relationships between caring and engagement, Okpala and Ellis (2005) examined the key components of a high-quality college teacher among 218 U.S. college students. They found that caring for students and their learning (89.6%) ranked as the top among the components of excellent teachers. In another study, researchers examined the factors of effective teaching among 99 college teachers and 231 students (Schaeffer, Epting, Zinn, & Buskist, 2003). The findings showed that both teacher and student groups agreed on 8 of the top ten factors: approachable, creative and interesting, encouraging and caring, enthusiastic, flexible and open-minded, knowledgeable, realistic expectations and fair, and respectful. These studies revealed that teacher's caring is also critical to student learning. All these studies provided evidence that the components of the MUSIC model lead to student

engagement. Consequently, we hypothesized that the components in the MUSIC model lead to student engagement in Chinese college EFL class.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Researchers in second/foreign language learning agreed that the CLT approach is the signature pedagogy of language curriculum because its focus is student communicative competence and its essence is student engagement (Ham, & Schueller, 2012; Fotos, 2005; Savignon, 2005). However, although there was research on the use of teacher motivational strategies in ESL/EFL learning, there was no rich evidence that CLT leads to student engagement in the research of student motivation in second/foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 1998; Dörnyei & Csizer, 1998; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). Therefore we plan to provide evidence from a survey of course perceptions based on the MUSIC model inventory that student academic motivation leads to their engagement in the college EFL class. Specifically, we put forward two research questions:

1. What are the main problems in college student academic motivation in their EFL class?
2. Is there evidence that the components of the MUSIC model could predict student engagement in the college EFL class?

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants were 101 first year students enrolled in the college English course at a Chinese university. All of them took the college English course and answered the course perception questionnaire based on the MUSIC model inventory (Jones, 2016b). Sixty four (63.4%) were female and 37 (36.6%) were male students. The majority of the participants reported that their nationality was Han ($n=100, 99\%$), whereas one participant ($n=1, 1\%$) reported he was of a minority nationality.

B. Procedure

Participants were solicited from the School of International Education and all of them were enrolled in the compulsory College English course. We used the convenience sampling method to get the sample from three classes.

All of the college students who participated in this survey shared the same instructional syllabus, textbook, and instructor. Their English course consists of two parts: the intensive reading section and the listening comprehension section. The same instructor teaches the two different sections of the college English course. The textbook is *New Horizon College English* (Zheng, 2013).

The survey was conducted by the end of the semester before the final exam. The instructor told the students that their response to the survey was not related to their final grades. Further, the instructors emphasized that the students were volunteers to this survey and they could choose to answer the questionnaire or they could leave the classroom if they did not want to answer it. It took the students twenty minutes to respond to the survey. After the instructor collected the data from the three classes, he put them in the SPSS 20.0 and then sent to the researcher in the U.S. university.

C. Measures

We used the 26-item MUSIC model of academic motivation inventory (Jones, 2016b) as the survey in this research. In order to examine the relation between motivation and engagement, we added eight items of engagement into the survey. The last three items were student demographic information such as gender, nationality and class standing. The 26 items of the five components of the MUSIC model included 6-point Likert-type scales. The eight items of engagement included 5-point Likert-type scales. The Cronbach's coefficient α of each instrument ranged from .68 to .85 (See Table 1).

Next, we measured the component of empowerment in the MUSIC model. A sample item read, "I have options in how to achieve the goals of the course" (response ranges from 1= *strongly disagree* to 6= *strongly agree*). The internal consistency of these five items was acceptable ($\alpha= .68$). We used five items to measure the usefulness component. A sample item read, "The knowledge I gain in this course is important for my future" (response ranges from 1= *strongly disagree* to 6= *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's coefficient α was .78. The component of success consisted of four items. A sample item read, "I am capable of getting a high grade in this course" (response ranges from 1= *strongly disagree* to 6= *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's coefficient α was .85. The interest component included six items. A sample item reads, "The coursework is interesting to me" (response ranges from 1= *strongly disagree* to 6= *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's coefficient α was .81. The final and fifth component of the MUSIC was caring, and it was made up of six items. A sample item read, "The instructor is friendly" (response ranges from 1= *strongly disagree* to 6= *strongly agree*). The Cronbach's coefficient α was .70.

As a measure of the perceived engagement in the college EFL course, students were evaluated on 5-point Likert-type scales with descriptors at each point (1= *almost never*; 5= *almost always*). This component included eight items. A sample item read, "I check myself to see how well I am understanding what I am studying". The Cronbach's coefficient α was .80.

D. Data Analysis

First, we examined the reliability estimates of each instrument in the survey, as well as the intercorrelations among the five components of the MUSIC model and the item engagement. The descriptive statistics data illustrated the major problems regarding student academic motivation in their college English class. Next, we used SPSS 20.0 to conduct the stepwise regression in order to examine whether student motivation could predict their engagement.

V. RESULTS

The descriptive statistics and reliability for the five components of the MUSIC model, student engagement, along with the correlations among these constructs were demonstrated in Table 1. Further, from the data analysis results in Table 1, we can identify the major problems in students' academic motivation in the college EFL class.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, RELIABILITIES, AND CORRELATIONS, AMONG THE VARIABLES.

	M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5
1.Empowerment	3.93	0.77	.68					
2.Usefulness	4.92	0.85	.78	.35**				
3.Success	3.32	1.09	.85	.56**	.37**			
4.Interest	3.53	0.86	.81	.34**	.45**	.55**		
5.Caring	4.81	0.55	.70	.30**	.46**	.22*	.40**	
6.engagement	2.81	0.68	.80	.50**	.25*	.51**	.35**	.12

Note. The first five components were rated on a 6-point Likert-format scale.
The last component was rated on a 5-point Likert-format scale.
All the correlations among the variables are significant, ** $p < 0.01$. * $p < 0.05$.

Because there were five components in the MUSIC model, empowerment, usefulness, success, interest, and caring, we identified the components with lower mean value to explore student learning problems with their academic motivation in the English coursework. From Table 1, we found that the components with relatively lower mean values were success ($M = 3.32$), interest ($M = 3.53$), and empowerment ($M = 3.93$).

The data of the correlations among the component of the MUSIC model and student engagement indicated that the components of the MUSIC model correlated to each other positively and significantly, $p < 0.05$. The data of the correlation also indicated that all the components of the MUSIC model correlated to the construct of engagement positively and significantly except the component of caring, $p < 0.05$.

The third step of data analysis was to examine the effect of the components of the MUSIC model on student engagement. We used stepwise regression to examine such relationships. The data revealed that the components of empowerment and success predicted student engagement positively and significantly, $F_{(2, 98)} = 23.68$, $p < 0.05$, $\beta = .27, .21$, respectively, $p < 0.05$. The R square is .326, which means the components of empowerment and success can explain 32.6% of the variance in engagement (see Figure 1).

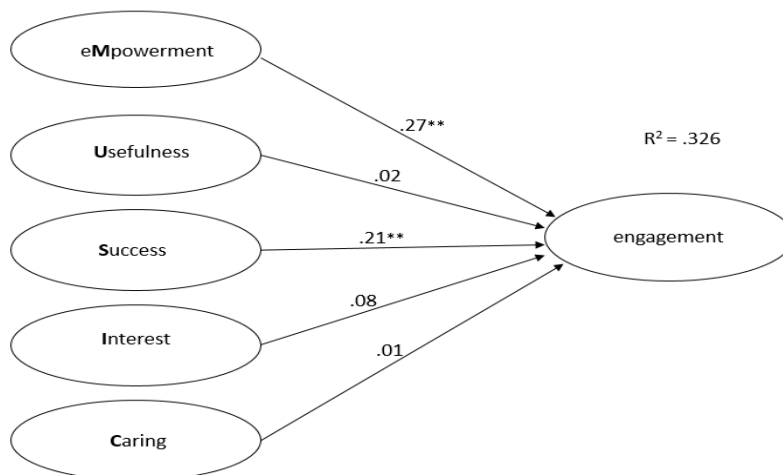


Fig. 1. Stepwise regression results of the relationships among the MUSIC components and student engagement. ** $p < 0.05$.

VI. DISCUSSION

From the descriptive statistics data, we found that the five components of the MUSIC model correlated with each other closely. These findings are consistent with the features of the MUSIC model described earlier by Jones and Wilkins (2013). Jones and Wilkins (2013) reported that the five components are closely related yet distinct. Therefore, when instructors use the MUSIC model as a measurement to test students' course perceptions, the data will demonstrate

the main problems related to student motivation in the coursework. As a result, the instructors can choose the proper strategies (Jones, 2015) and redesign their instruction. Because of the consistency and distinctness of the components of the MUSIC model, teachers may motivate and engage students in two or more component of the MUSIC model when they only use one strategy of empowerment or success in the teaching practice. Thus, the MUSIC model is a useful tool for instructors to recognize their teaching problems and solve them with feasible strategies (Jones, 2015).

As for the main problems in student academic motivation in the college English class, the data from this research indicated that what the college students lacked most was a sense of success in the college English course. Secondly, they do not have strong interest in the English coursework. Finally, they perceived that they did not have control over some parts of their coursework such as readings, assignments, and class activities. Given the overall perceptions of the College English course, college students are less motivated in their English learning. Therefore, it is urgent for the college EFL teachers to use the relevant instructional strategies in terms of success, interest, and empowerment to redesign their class to motivate and engage students to the learning. Given the different teaching problems in different teachers and universities due to a variety of context, instructors can use the survey to identify the problems and then choose what they need most from the strategies in the MUSIC model rather than practice the strategies from every aspect of the model (Jones, 2015, 2016a).

From the stepwise regression results, it is evident that student motivation in empowerment and success predicts their engagement. This result is significant because it provides evidence that the use of the strategies in the MUSIC model leads to student engagement, the essence of CLT, to the college English coursework (Fotos, 2005; Savignon, 2005). These findings are consistent with the previous research in the relation between academic motivation and engagement (Black & Deci, 2000; Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001; Joo, Bong, & Choi, 2000; Multon, Brown, & Lent, 1991). Further, this research provides evidence that it is reasonable to use the strategies regarding empowerment and success in the MUSIC model for the CLT approach in Chinese college EFL course.

Although only two components, empowerment and success, predict student engagement, it is possible that interest and caring work to support the other components of the MUSIC model because other researchers have documented interest and caring to be important component of a motivating and engaging classroom environment (Jones, 2016a, 2016b). Because the subjects in this research are adult college students, they know the usefulness of the college course for their short- and long-term goals in life. As a result, it is possible that college EFL teachers will motivate and engage students to the English coursework when they try the strategies related to empowerment and success. Because of the positive and significant correlations between the five components of the MUSIC model, it is possible that students' sense of interest will increase when instructors make use of the strategies relevant to empowerment and success. Because context is a crucial element in the field of teaching and learning (Christenson, Reschly, Wylie, & SpringerLink, 2012; Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004), college EFL teachers should examine both the survey results from the MUSIC model and the local characteristics for students' English learning in order to help students become the genuine life-long learners.

VII. STUDY LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

There are some limitations in this study. First, the sample size was not every large, only 101 first year college students who were enrolled in the college English course participated in the survey. Although this number is acceptable for the research in social science, we could provide more fine-tuned evidence that the MUSIC model is ideal and practical for Chinese college EFL class. Second, we did not conduct a longitudinal study on the effectiveness of the CLT supported by the MUSIC model. The research results would be more meaningful if we conduct research for a semester or a school year. If we conduct paired t-Test regarding student achievement in the college English course, it would be more significant for college EFL students and instructors. If the use of MUSIC model could predict student achievement, instructors could use the relevant strategies in the MUSIC model and help students pass the national college English test (CET) and obtain the certificate, which is critical in the workforce. Finally, more data from interview and self-report both from teachers and students would enrich the generalization of this research.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The findings from this research provide evidence that it is possible for the instructors to motivate and engage students in their EFL class by empowering students, providing them with more activities contributing to their sense of success, and fostering students' interest in instruction and class activities. Although the components of usefulness, interest, and caring are not significantly predict student engagement, it is possible that usefulness, interest, and caring work to support the other components of the MUSIC model because other researchers have documented these components to be an important component of a motivating and engaging classroom environment (Jones, 2009, 2015, 2016b). Given the MUSIC model has been used for learning and instruction nearly two decades (Jones, 2016a), it is hoped that it will be used and beneficial to Chinese college EFL class.

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Adaptation of Authentic Materials in English Listening Comprehension Classes

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Abstract—This paper examines the notion of authenticity in language teaching. Based on the definition of authenticity and related debates of the notion in the existing literature, this paper illustrates that authentic materials could be used in L2 listening classrooms by material adaptation. An example from a published L2 listening course book in the Chinese context is adopted as an example to illustrate this point. Implications for teaching are also discussed. Language teachers should understand the notion of authenticity, use authentic materials through graded tasks in class, and keep updated with the notion by learning from the existing literature.

Index Terms—authenticity, authentic material, material adaptation, L2 listening

I. INTRODUCTION

The teaching and learning situation went through a paradigm shift after communicative language teaching (CLT) came into existence in the late 1970s. Ever since then, the nature of the language classroom has changed dramatically from artificiality to authenticity with a view of developing language learners' communicative competence by linking language classroom to the reality of the outside world. Although the issue of authenticity has been debated in the field of linguistics, materials design, and pedagogy for at least three decades (Lynch, 2013), a consensus had not been reached on a precise definition (Lee, 1995). For some second language acquisition (SLA) and ESL scholars, this term may refer to texts and other materials used in class; for others, it might also include the type of tasks the students are assigned, the context the classroom interaction provides, and even different kinds of classroom interaction between students and teachers (Gilmore, 2007). Thanajaro (2000) suggests that among all these features, the most prominent one is the authentic material used or studied as the core of any classroom activity.

In the past few years, with the development of various technologies, the pedagogical world has witnessed a big change, offering more opportunities for language teachers to apply authentic materials in language classrooms. According to Mishan (2005), it is much more possible for language teachers to use authentic materials in the classroom currently than it was twenty years ago primarily because of the increased availability of the authentic materials via various means of technology especially the Internet. Due to the increased accessibility of the authentic materials, recently the use of authentic language input has been considered as a norm in language classes especially for listening comprehension courses (Burns, 1987). Although opinions towards the use of authentic materials are controversial, it is now a consensus in language teaching that authentic materials can be utilized in second/foreign language learning classrooms, and it is beneficial to the learning process as long as they are properly used (Guariento & Morley, 2001; Bahrani & Sim, 2012). When utilizing materials in language classrooms, teachers always have to adapt the material so as to meet the need of individual learners. Concerning how language teachers adapt materials in daily teaching, surprisingly little research can be found in the literature (Tomlinson, 2012). Therefore, this paper not only aims to review the controversial debate concerning the issue of authenticity in language teaching in the literature, but by presenting an adapted version of a piece of authentic material selected from one published listening textbook, it also aims to shed light on our understanding of how to utilize and adapt authentic materials in language classes so as to make them more approachable to intermediate learners of English.

This paper will firstly provide a broad view concerning the issue of authenticity in ESL/EFL teaching and learning and then concentrate on the controversy of the most prominent feature of authenticity, material authenticity. Following the discussion, based on the illustration of material adaptation in previous literature, a typical example of material adaptation will be presented to illustrate how to use and adapt authentic materials in listening classes. Finally, pedagogical implications for using and adapting authentic materials in ESL/EFL classes will be drawn.

II. AUTHENTICITY IN A BROAD VIEW

The issue of authenticity in foreign language learning has a long history, and its definition has been disputed ever since its existence. Initially, authenticity was considered to be an attribute only of the text used in the language classroom. It was widely accepted that, in the 1970s and 1980s, authenticity referred to samples of language used by native speakers for real communication, and not specifically devised for pedagogical purposes (Lynch, 2013). Later, it has been realized that effective language teaching lies not only in getting to use original text but also in helping students

use the language through various tasks. Widdowson (1979 cited in Lynch, 2013, p. 99) proposed two different aspects of language use to distinguish between 'genuineness' and 'authenticity'. He argues that a text is genuine if it contains the kind of language that is typical of that genre in actual use, while the term 'authenticity' refers to the appropriate learner response to the genuine text. The same point is made by Rost (2002), claiming that 'genuineness' refers to the features of colloquial style of 'real-time' planning characterizing everyday spoken discourse with and between native speakers, while 'authenticity', on the other hand, refers to any source of input and interaction that involves the learners' own purposes for listening or reading. Therefore, it is suggested by both of them that 'genuineness' is related to text while 'authenticity' is related to task. Guariento & Morley (2001) also emphasized the significance of task authenticity, commenting that 'authenticity' lies not only in the 'genuineness' of text, but also in the notion of task in language classes.

However, the concept of 'authenticity' is not restricted to material and task only. Lee (1995) claims that textually authentic materials have to be learner authentic; that is to say, authentic materials have to be motivating, interesting, and useful with content that does not cause learners culture shock or discomfort. In similar lines, Joy (2011) argues that authenticity is a process of personal engagement, in which students must be genuinely interested. Adding more to the concept of 'authenticity', it is argued by Widdowson (1996) that the language that is real for native speakers is not likely to be real for learners for a lack of contextual conditions in which learners can authenticate the language. Two years later, Widdowson (1998) published another article, claiming that the authenticity of language can only be reached within a localized context. In similar lines, Shomoossi & Ketabi (2007) argue that authenticity is not to be applied to discourse samples only but also to be determined by context-dependent. Therefore, it is suggested that teachers should construct relevant classroom context so as to make the learning process real for learners (Nation, 2009). However, Joy (2011) argues that it is impossible to achieve context authenticity in language classes since the original context of the authentic material no longer remains the same when a piece of authentic material is recontextualized in classrooms. In support of this assertion, Chan (2013, p. 304) claims it is quite difficult for material writers and language instructors to 'identify local English-using situations in which a task can be authentically contextualized'. Thus, contextual authenticity is more likely to be another fundamental challenge as to the issue of authenticity.

The issue of authenticity has been debated and broadened to different types. Some scholars argue that authenticity can be viewed in a much broader perspective, thus leading to different types of authenticity. According to Kessler (1997), 'authenticity' includes the learner, the context of the classroom, the nature of classroom interactions, and the content of the material. Guariento & Morley (2001) listed four broad schools of authenticity depending on a genuine purpose, real world purposes, classroom interaction, and learner engagement. Gilmore (2007) also considers that 'authenticity' associates with a range of meanings and can be situated in the text itself, the participants, the social or cultural situation, the purposes of communicative act or some combination of these. Along similar lines, Joy (2011) defined four authenticity types: text authenticity, task authenticity, learner authenticity and classroom authenticity.

III. ROLE OF AUTHENTIC MATERIALS

Due to various efforts made by experts and scholars to define authenticity, on the one hand, the complexity of authenticity has been deepened, and on the other, its scope has been widened (Joy, 2011). Although the term 'authenticity' has been defined in many different ways throughout the literature, authentic language/material is considered to be the most prominent feature of authenticity and is regarded as the core of any classroom activity. The authentic language input is the one that serves as the fundamental role, thus receiving much more attention than the other features.

Some experts highlight the advantages of exposing learners to authentic materials. Results of the study conducted by Kim (2000) indicate that listening comprehension in language students improves with increased exposure to authentic speech. Weyers (1999) investigated the effect of authentic video on learners' communicative competence, making the claim that authentic television programming is a valuable tool in improving not only students' listening comprehension but also students' output. Rost (2002) argues that authentic materials can represent the real language use of native speakers, thus playing a role in making the connection of classroom activities and real-world situations. Authentic language is also considered to be pedagogically appropriate, interesting, and motivating especially for advanced learners (Guariento & Morley, 2001; Mishan, 2004). Tomlinson (2007) emphasized the advantage of utilizing authentic materials in listening comprehension classes by arguing that the genuine language input may represent the characteristics that the specially-devised pedagogical materials fail to capture, such as the phonological characteristics of natural speech. Chan (2013) argues that authentic source texts are relatively easier to locate and more interesting than specially written texts for pedagogical purposes. In contrast, some scholars are concerned about the feasibility of using authentic materials in language classrooms for they might be too difficult for learners to handle or impossible for teachers to provide (Rost, 2002). Richards (2006) criticized what he called the 'myth' of authenticity by arguing that it is neither realistic nor necessary to base second language instruction on 'authentic' texts especially in the case of listening materials because learners generally find authentic texts too complex for use in materials if without proper adaptation.

Although views towards use of authentic materials in language classrooms are controversial, there is now a growing consensus in language teaching that authentic materials can be utilized in second/foreign language learning classrooms, and it is beneficial to the learning process as long as it is properly used (Guariento & Morley, 2001; Bahrani & Sim,

2012). Thus, Rost (2002) suggests that a mediating factor in using authentic materials is task design. It is suggested that teachers can design various tasks when utilizing authentic materials so as to cater the need of learners at all levels such as previewing key vocabulary and discourse features, chunking the input into manageable segments and providing selective focus on its particular elements. To realize authenticity in language classroom, Mishan (2005) proposed the authenticity-centered approach in his book *Designing authenticity into language learning*, claiming that tasks and authentic materials should be closely interconnected with each other in language classrooms. Along similar lines, Chan (2013) claims that to achieve authenticity in language classrooms, a key component is the adoption of authentic texts and the design of tasks in teaching materials.

IV. MATERIALS ADAPTATION

Good teachers are always adapting the materials they are using to meet the need of the students, the context, the teaching objectives and the methodology (Nation, 2009). As Lynch (2013, p. 93) puts it, 'if a teacher decides that a particular set of listening material is deficient in some respect, it may be possible to adapt or supplement it'. Since authentic materials generally appear to be too complex for language learners, teachers always have to adapt either the text or the task to control the difficulty of the authentic materials. According to Nunan (1989 cited in Gilmore, 2007, p. 109), one of the ways to control the difficulty of authentic materials is to vary the task rather than the text. However, concerning how teachers adapt authentic materials systematically in everyday teaching, it is surprising that little research can be found in the literature (Tomlinson, 2012). One of the famous experts, McGrath (2002 cited in Lynch, 2013, p. 93), defined three types of material adaptation including extemporization, extension, and exploitation. 'Extemporization' refers to a teacher's spontaneous response to a particular problem, such as deciding to replace a difficult word in a text or an exercise with one that is within the learners' vocabulary, and these extemporizations are likely to be oral and immediate. 'Extension' involves giving students' further explanation by providing examples to help them understand a particular point, and these extensions might be either oral or written. 'Exploitation' stands for a teacher's creative designing of a set of tasks based on any published material to serve a different purpose rather than the intention of material writers. According to Wilson (2009, p. 47), exploitation material 'gives students a way into the recording, guides them through its difficulties and provides discussion points at the end'.

The following part, based on the notion of 'exploitation', is an illustration of an adapted version of an authentic material selected from one published listening textbook. Through 'exploitation', the original material is made to be more approachable to the students.

The listening textbook, *New Horizon College English—Listening and Speaking Book 4 (Second Edition)*, was published by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press in 2008. The target learners of this textbook are normally second-year non-English majors in traditional universities and colleges in China. Although these students have learned English for more than ten years, their language proficiency is not so high, and most of them are intermediate English learners. This book has ten units with different topics, and each unit consists of four sections including listening, speaking, listening and speaking and homework. The listening section consists of four parts, understanding short conversations, understanding a long conversation, understanding a passage, and understanding a radio program. The first three sections are considered to be examination-oriented listening comprehension exercises, and the recordings are considered to be pedagogically designed rather than authentic materials, while the last section, understanding a radio program, is a piece of authentic material with features of natural speech. Miller (2003) claims that radios are perhaps the most difficult type of authentic materials because all non-verbal information is missing so that the learners have to focus solely on their listening skills to get the main idea. According to the guideline of the teacher's book, the objective of incorporating a piece of original radio program into each unit of this textbook is to develop students' listening skills of understanding natural speech, as well as raise their awareness of the phonological characteristics of authentic speech.

This example of the radio program represents a very natural use of language with natural speed, hesitation, self-correction and repetition. Although it does not involve much off-list vocabulary, it does contain non-linguistic interference in the form of music throughout the program, which becomes a distractor for listeners. In the original textbook, two tasks are provided in this section. During the first listening, students are asked to complete Task 1, a matching exercise in which students have to match the sentence fragments in the left column with those in the right. In the second listening, Task 2 is provided, and students are required to imitate the speaker to the best of their ability. Regarding the features of this piece of authentic material mentioned above, it might be challenging for the students to complete these two tasks by only listening to it twice. Thus, the original tasks have to be adapted so as to guide the students through its difficulties, help the students better understand the content of the program, and raise students' awareness of the features of natural speech. In this sense, exploitation of the material could be an effective way to guide the adaptation.

According to Nation (2009), when teachers perceive that one piece of material might be difficult for students to handle, teachers can assist learners by providing them with support when they do activities. This kind of support can serve as a temporary bridge that students can use to reach the target. Over time, as long as learners develop their own expertise to meet the target, the bridge then can be removed. He argues that there are four main ways of supporting listening.

1. By providing prior experience with aspects of the text (i.e., with language, ideas, skills or text type).

2. By guiding the learners through the text.
 3. By setting up cooperative learning arrangements (for example, shared reading approaches).
 4. By providing the means by which learners can achieve comprehension by themselves.
- (Nation, 2009, p. 46)

Listening instruction mainly falls into three stages, including pre-, while- and post-listening. Based on the above four ways of supporting listening, an adapted version of the original listening material is presented as follows (See Table 1).

TABLE 1
TABLE 1 ADAPTED VERSION OF THE ORIGINAL LISTENING MATERIAL

Pre-listening (to activate schemata and vocabulary)
1. Students discuss these two questions in groups of four: 'who is Bill Gates?' and 'what do they know about Bill Gates?'
2. Students work in pairs to match a word from A with a word from B to make collocations. A: make throughout shrewd under have a bunch of B: faith businessman the years contributions leadership nerds
3. Discuss in pairs to anticipate the main idea of the radio program based on the above collocations.
First listening (to get the gist of the material)
While listening to the radio program, students have to find the answers to the questions "What kind of contributions did Bill Gates make?" and "What is the man who is speaking?"
Second listening (to get more detailed information)
While listening to the radio program for the second time, match the sentence fragments that follow. After that, please check the answers with your partner.
1. The Windows Operating System A. became a business tool. 2. The average computer B. was not fit to comment on innovation. 3. A basement computer C. was the plaything of herds. 4. Due to Gates' faith, the computer D. made it a wish to dominate like Gates. 5. IBM E. became Bill Gates' greatest contributions. 6. A person who studied history F. makes use of Gates' system.
Third listening (to achieve a complete understanding)
During the third time of listening, you are required to fill in the following blanks. When you finish, please check the answers within your group. Bill Gates has made many _____ ur... throughout the last 25 or 30 years, most of all, of course, the Windows Operating System, which more than 90% of all computers in the world use today. He was a very _____, ur, business person at a, at an early age, almost as a _____ in fact, and he was one of the few people who could see a hobbyist market, that is, a bunch of nerds sort of playing with computers and chips in their _____ and how that could become a _____ business. And one of the interesting things that Microsoft under Bill Gates' _____, was able to do, is in fact... ur... take on some of the biggest computer companies, _____ IBM... ur... at... you know, at a very early stage when IBM wasn't quite sure if the microcomputer was a toy or a _____ business tool and Gates had faith that it was a business tool, he could see ahead, he has always been, a, a fairly _____ thinker and uh... that in turn... let him in fact, you know, _____ the computer industry that IBM would still like to be able to do. Will Microsoft _____? – That's a question that I usually answer by saying, I'm a _____ so I live in the past and there are lots of people who are, sort of some expert in _____ the future, so I think I'll just leave it, leave it at that.
Post-listening (to apply to speaking)
Students are guided to work in pairs to discuss "Which personality of Bill Gates attracts you most?" and "What can you learn from his story?"

It can be noticed that pair work and group work are utilized frequently in the adapted version since working in pairs or groups can allow for negotiation to occur during the activities. In this way, these listening exercises are turned into communicative tasks in which students are involved in listening, comprehending, producing and interacting in the target language with each other in the class. In addition, peer and group work can help those who are getting behind to keep up with the pace of the teaching and learning.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

As communicative language teaching coming into existence, and with the development of various technologies especially the Internet, currently using authentic materials for teaching has been a trend in language classrooms especially for listening comprehension courses. Based on the discussion in the previous parts, some pedagogical implications are drawn as follows for language teachers.

Firstly, language teachers should understand the concept of authenticity and its various definitions, as well as be aware of the strengths and weaknesses of utilizing authentic materials in English listening classes. Although the use of authentic listening texts in classrooms might inevitably present the English teachers with a range of problems, there is consensus that using language models that are authentic could help students' raise their awareness of the natural speech, develop their interest of the real use of the target language, and help them make connections between classroom contexts and situations in the outside world (Schmidt, 1994). As long as teachers understand the concept, realize the potential difficulties of using the authentic materials can they overcome these problems while having faith in the advantages of using them.

Secondly, when utilizing authentic materials in listening classes, language teachers could make use of graded tasks to guide the students through its difficulties. A sequence of designed tasks, from simple to complicated, is more likely to help the students comprehend the authentic listening material, develop their awareness of natural speech and help them

understand the phonological features of the real target language. Since in most situations, the existing listening textbooks cannot meet the individual need of students with different proficiency levels, it is the teacher's job to do needs and analysis, make adaptation of original teaching material so as to make it more approachable for the learners. Exploitation could be an effective way of making full use of a piece of authentic material, leading students to fully understand the content, as well as develop their language skills, thus building their confidence to learn.

Thirdly, language teachers should always keep learning from the literature, getting informed of what is happening in the pedagogical world. Sometime in the future, there might be another type of authenticity adding to the literature, or there could be a perfect way to interconnect authentic material and task in language classroom. Thus, apart from the teaching job, English teachers should develop a habit of reading the latest literature in second language teaching, trying to find possible answers to particular problems encountered in teaching via authentic materials. Only in this way can teachers improve their teaching skills gradually, thus develop their expertise in teaching and researching.

VI. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the paper is to review the controversial issue of authenticity in the field of language teaching and learning. It also aims to shed light on our understanding of how to use and adapt authentic materials in listening comprehension classes so as to make it more approachable to intermediate language learners. Concerning the notion that authentic materials might be too complex for most language learners, special attention was guided in this paper to the adaptation of materials especially the exploitation of materials that served as a bridge of students' comprehension of the original material. With a typical example illustrating the adaptation of a piece of authentic listening material taken from one published listening textbook, it is suggested that proper adaptation of authentic is more likely to be needed in everyday teaching practice to make authentic materials more approachable to learners. Pedagogical implications were offered to language teachers regarding the use of authentic materials in language classes, such as understanding the concept of authenticity, being aware of its strengths and weaknesses, making use of material adaptation and keeping learning from the literature.

This paper has some limitations. The most obvious limitation of this paper is that only one piece of authentic material was examined and adapted, which might probably prevent a clear generalizability of the study. Additionally, since little research concerning the adaptation of authentic materials could be found in previous literature, this paper failed to provide the principles of adapting authentic materials, while if this part was included, the paper would be more logical and convincing. Therefore, recommendations for further research could be focusing on the principles of adapting authentic materials and how teachers adapt materials they are using in their daily teaching. In addition, further research should also consider the comparison of the effects between adapted authentic materials and original texts on a particular group of learners.

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The Effect of Immediate vs. Delayed Oral Corrective Feedback on the Writing Accuracy of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—This research used the quasi-experimental design to investigate the effects of immediate vs. delayed oral corrective feedback (CF) on the writing accuracy of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. A Nelson English Language Test (section 200 A) was used to homogenize three classes, two of which then were randomly assigned to experimental group and one to control group. During the treatment, the experimental group 1 received immediate oral CF through a face-to-face negotiation between the teacher and each individual after an error was made by a learner. The experimental group 2 received delayed oral CF in which learners received oral CF some time after an error was made by a learner. The control group received direct correction. After a 16-session treatment, the results of the post-test indicated a significant difference between the three groups.

Index Terms—corrective feedback, oral corrective feedback, immediate oral corrective feedback, delayed oral corrective feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing ability is a basic communication skill and a unique asset in the process of learning a language (Chastain, 1988). It is through writing that a person can communicate a variety of messages to a known or unknown reader or readers and at the very same time increase his knowledge of the language system (Motallebzadeh, et al., 2011).

Considering the pivotal role of writing in learning a language, it seems rational to provide practitioners with guidance for better ways to teach L2 writing. Consequently, over the past few decades, considerable attention has also been given to the treatment of errors and corrective feedback.

Since the late 1950s, there has been a great change of attitude towards the role of feedback. In the late 1950s and the 1960s, when Audio Lingual Method (ALM) was very popular in L2 classrooms, error correction was widely regarded as having a significant role in helping learners to form good habits. Therefore, error correction was in the form of providing the learners with immediate corrections. In the 1970s and the 1980s, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) equipped learners with communicative competence in terms of "function over form". At that time, formal correction was considered as interfering with L2 acquisition rather than facilitating it.

With the dominance of CLT, the position of feedback has become the subject of heated debate between theorists and researchers. Truscott (1996) claimed that corrective feedback should be abandoned because of being ineffective and harmful. Ferris (1999) evaluated Truscott's original review article, "The Case against Grammar Correction in L2 Writing Classes" and refuted Truscott's argument, saying that his claim is premature and overly strong. Due to the fact that research evidence was scarce in support of corrective feedback, both Truscott and Ferris agreed that further research was needed to help us better understand the potential impacts of corrective feedback on L2 writing (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009). As a result, a wealth of studies (e.g., Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Tregila, 2008; Alamis, 2010; Weaver, 2006; Lee, 2004, 2008a) have been conducted to examine the effect of different kinds of feedback on the improvement of writing ability of L2 students. Although some studies suggested that feedback has a significant role in helping L2 students develop the quality of their writing, many of them showed contradictory results.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A review of the literature indicates that the last decade has witnessed a wealth of studies conducted in the area of corrective feedback. Below is a quick review of the main studies done on oral and written corrective feedback and also the issue of feedback timing.

Truscott's (1996) claim that corrective feedback (CF) is ineffective and should therefore be abandoned has generated a considerable amount of debate among researchers and classroom practitioners about the value of providing CF on L2 writing. As a result, a great body of research has been conducted to examine the effectiveness of different types of CF. Kepner (1991) conducted a study to compare the effects of error- versus message-oriented written feedback on second language students' essays and found that students who received message-oriented comments produced writing that had better content than those who received error-oriented ones. In another study, Leki (1991) asked 100 English-as-a-

second-language college students to fill in questionnaires. She wanted to examine the effectiveness of the given feedback and also to understand how they perceived the given comments on the content and the form of their writing. Her study revealed that correcting errors in both content and form was beneficial.

Several studies have been done to find out why different kinds of written corrective feedback may not be effective. Research has shown that learners often do not understand the meaning of the written correction on their papers because it is incomprehensible to them and they even don't know what they are expected to do with the corrections. Hyland (2003), for instance, conducted a case study to investigate the effect of teacher written corrective feedback on individual writers and realized that learners experienced difficulty in understanding the written corrective feedback given to them. He understood that there was a mismatch between how learners utilized the provided corrective feedback and what teachers really intended. Therefore, he concluded that this kind of misunderstanding originated from a lack of "open teacher-student dialogue". In a similar vein, Oliver and Mackey (2003) found that feedback gained during conversational interactions in classroom had a "facilitative role". In another study, Mackey et al. (2007) examined the potential effect of getting involved in conversational interactions and stated that learners gained fluency as a result of student - student interaction. Kim (2003) also conducted a study to investigate students' perceptions of online teacher feedback to student writing, and found that "voice modality" was an effective kind of feedback because it offered both verbal and nonverbal information. He also found that students implemented the teacher's comments in their revisions only the time that they grasped and agreed with the comments. He concluded that students' participation in these talks reduced their anxiety and misunderstandings, and led to a positive attitude toward writing. Sheen (2002) phrased that "there is now growing evidence that oral CF, as a focus-on-form technique, facilitates inter language development, although there is less consensus about the effect of different types of oral CF" (p.256). Margolis (2007) as cited in Sheen, Younghee (2007) also stated that "good oral error feedback strategies can boost student motivation, advance language learning, and increase student perception of instructional effectiveness, but the oral error feedback literature offers a confusing picture of what is appropriate feedback"(p.7).

Another issue that has been examined by researchers is the issue of feedback timing. Thorndike's (1932) law of effect sheds light on the issue of feedback timing. He believed that behaviors which cause the feeling of being satisfied have a significant role in increasing the probability that these same behaviors would occur again under similar circumstances. Skinner (1969) modified Thorndike's law of effect and fit it into a more general framework of reinforcement theory. Gagne (1988) shared the same opinion with Skinner (1969) that informational feedback could be considered to be a form of reinforcement and reinforcement works because expectancies established at the beginning of the learning loop are confirmed or disconfirmed during the feedback phase. Zahorik (1987), for instance, believed that when students are informed about the correctness of their answers, it helps them to change their studying style which then leads to improved achievement. He also mentioned that immediacy of feedback is important because it provides students with information about how well they are doing. If the behavior is incorrect, immediate corrective feedback gives the learners the opportunity to make corrective modifications and, at the same time, prevents continued practice of the incorrect behavior. On the contrary, if the behavior is correct, immediate corrective feedback gives learners motivation as well as information about the progress they make towards their goals (Borich & Tombari, 1997; Eggen & Kau Chak, 2004).

As the literature review shows, much research has been conducted in the area of corrective feedback and the issue of feedback timing. However, researchers still debate the question of which feedback type is the most effective one for learners. Ellis (2007), for example, stated that arriving at any general conclusion regarding the relative efficacy of immediate and delayed corrective feedback is impossible. Dabaghi (as cited in Ellis, 2007) also noted that no evidence is available to show that immediate corrective feedback is more effective than delayed. The present study, therefore, tries to highlight the importance of feedback timing on producing more linguistically accurate writing. The researcher hopes that the findings of this research would provide beneficial evidence to illuminate the issues at the heart of feedback timing.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

A. Students

The participants of this study were 45 EFL students of three intact classes at an intermediate level of proficiency and consisted of 23, 22, 25 students respectively which totaled 70. After administering the proficiency test, the researcher could only use 13 students from the first class, 17 from the second class and 15 from the third class. The rest did not qualify to participate in the research because their scores were not between one standard deviation below and above the mean. Then the classes were randomly assigned to three groups.

B. Teacher

The course instructor was a middle-aged female teacher with an M.A degree in English. She had already completed an extensive teacher training course (TTC). She had approximately 6 years of teaching experience at different levels.

C. Scorers

The scorers were three teachers with native-like command of English.

Instruments

A. Proficiency Test

The proficiency test used in this study was a sample of the *Nelson English Language Test* (section 200 A), adapted from Fowler and Coe (1976). Before conducting the main study, the Nelson English Language Test was administered to the participants to determine the learners' level of general English language proficiency and ensure the homogeneity of the participants. The Nelson test of proficiency for the intermediate group consisted of fifty multiple choice questions. The students had 50 minutes to complete the test.

Another sample of the *Nelson English Language Test* (section 200 A), adapted from Fowler and Coe (1976) was administered to participants of the pilot study to determine the learners' level of general English language proficiency and ensure the homogeneity of the participants.

B. The Pilot Study

One of the instruments used in this study was a sentence completion grammar exam. The pre-test was produced by the researcher herself because none of the ready-made tests were suitable for the object of the present study. The sentence completion test was piloted to ensure the reliability, rubrics unambiguousness and misprint of the test. The environment, in which the experiment was conducted, was an exam-like one.

The teacher-made pre-test was piloted among 25 individuals who enjoyed proficiencies equaling that of the research participants at the end of the treatment. The pilot study occurred in the same language school used for the experiment. No technical problems arose during the pilot study.

The criteria for scoring procedure were one mark for each instance of the correct use of conditional structures. Based on the students' scores, the item facility and item discrimination were calculated and some items were revised or omitted.

Based on the results of the item analysis, the poor items were discarded. The remaining thirty items had an acceptable item facility value of between .36 to .61 and a fairly high positive discrimination index of above .40.

The reliability of the test was calculated by using the Kuder -Richardson 21 formula. The obtained reliability coefficient was .78, which was at an acceptable level. The next step was investigating the validity coefficient of the test, which was carried out by calculating the correlation coefficient between the obtained scores of the test and the scores on the grammar part of the Nelson test as a valid measure of the students' grammar ability. The obtained validity coefficient was .83. In other words, the obtained validity and reliability coefficient suggested that the test was both reliable and valid.

The same procedure was conducted in order to obtain the validity and reliability of the post-test. The obtained reliability and validity were .83 and .80 respectively which were at an acceptable level.

C. Pre-test

The other instrument used in this study was a researcher made pre-test in the form of a sentence completion grammar exam which had an acceptable value of reliability and validity (see the pilot study). The pre-test was administered to the subjects in three groups to make sure that they were not familiar with conditional structures. The pre-test consisted of 30 incomplete sentences, 10 for each type of conditional structure. After reading each incomplete sentence in their exam, students wrote the second part of the given sentence. The criteria for the scoring procedure were one mark for each instance of the correct use of conditional structures. Finally, the inter-rater reliability of the scores and correlation of the scores of the three raters were estimated.

D. Post-test

After a sixteen session treatment, the parallel post-test (see the pilot study) was administered to the subjects in order to investigate the effectiveness of the corrective feedback techniques regarding to the specific grammatical point being taught.

Procedure

The present research tried to investigate the effectiveness of immediate versus delayed oral feedback on the writing accuracy among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. A Nelson English Language Test (section 200 A) was used to homogenize three classes, two of which then were randomly assigned to experimental group and one to control group.

All the students in all three groups took the sentence-completion test as a pre-test to make sure that the three groups were also homogeneous regarding their familiarity with conditional structures. The tests were rated by three raters and inter-rater reliability of the scores was calculated. After making sure that the rating was consistent and therefore, there was no significant difference between the mean performance of the three groups, the researcher began the experimental phase of the study.

During the 16-session treatment, all the classes met three times a week. When conditional structures were taught to the participants, one of the experimental groups received *immediate oral corrective feedback*. It means that when one grammar point was taught, the instructor gave learners 10 incomplete sentences. And while learners were completing the 10 sentences, the instructor provided each of them with *Immediate Oral Corrective Feedback*. In Immediate Oral Corrective Feedback (CF), the instructor corrected each individual's error through a face-to-face conferencing between the learner and the instructor which might last about 5 minutes. While giving Immediate Oral CF, the instructor indicated the location of errors, asked for clarification and gave comments in the form of suggestions and questions.

The other experimental group received *Delayed Oral CF*. Here, after teaching a grammar point, the instructor gave the learners 10 incomplete sentences. When the learners finished completing the sentences, the instructor underlined

each individual's errors and asked each of them to correct their own papers at home. Learners were asked to return these self-corrections the following session. At this time the instructor provided each of them with oral CF, which is considered to be of delayed type because learners' errors were corrected some time after they were made by the learner.

The control group received neither immediate nor delayed oral CF but *traditional feedback*. It means that the subjects received *direct correction*. In direct correction the correct forms were provided above or near the incorrect ones. This kind of written feedback was used in 15 English classes that the researcher had observed.

Finally, to be sure about the effects of the treatment, two days after the study, the researcher tested all the three groups through a post - test which was the parallel form of the pre-test.

In order to answer the research question, a t-test was run to compare pre - and post - test mean scores to investigate whether such an improvement was statistically significant.

IV. RESULTS

A. Results of the Proficiency Test

First, all the students in the three classes took a *Nelson English Language Test* (section 200 A) to ensure that they are homogenized. The obtained results are in the table below.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: PROFICIENCY TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
class1 in nelson test	23	33.8261	8.37557	1.74643
class2 in nelson test	22	27.9545	7.68720	1.63892
class3 in nelson test	25	26.6400	10.95019	2.19004

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: ONE-SAMPLE TEST

	Test Value = 0					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
class1 in nelson test	19.369	22	.000	33.82609	30.2042	37.4480
class2 in nelson test	17.057	21	.000	27.95455	24.5462	31.3629
class3 in nelson test	12.164	24	.000	26.64000	22.1200	31.1600

B. Results of the Pre-test

In this study the sentence-completion grammar test was administered to the participants in all three groups at the beginning of the experimental period. In table 3, the mean score, standard deviation and standard error of the mean that each group received by each rater were calculated. The results of this table were used to estimate the correlation of the scores of the three raters. In table 4, the mean score, standard deviation and standard error of the mean that all participants in three groups received by each rater were calculated. Although no significant difference was observed between the mean score of the three groups, the inter-rater reliability of the scores was assessed through Cronbach's Alpha to make sure the raters have been consistent in their ratings.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: GRAMMAR PRE-TEST

	Experimental group 1				Experimental group 2				Control group			
	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std.error mean	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std.error mean	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std.error mean
Rater1	13	23.3077	4.73259	1.31259	17	22.7059	4.35552	1.05637	15	22.7333	4.52717	1.16891
Rater2	13	23.000	4.49073	1.24550	17	22.9412	4.14534	1.00539	15	22.4000	4.37199	1.12884
Rater3	13	23.6154	4.40716	1.22233	17	23.000	4.04660	.98145	15	22.2667	4.18273	1.07998

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: GRAMMAR PRE-TEST

Rater	N	Total		
		Mean	Std deviation	Std.error Mean
Rater 1	45	22.4444	4.6443	.69235
Rater 2	45	23.000	4.29058	.63960
Rater 3	45	22.9333	4.13631	.61661

C. Reliability Estimates

To assure that the participants' scores in the pre-test were a reliable estimate of their ability and to explore the consistency of the scores, the inter-rater reliability of the scores was assessed through Cronbach's Alpha and correlation of the scores of the three raters were estimated by Pearson correlation. Tables 5, 6, and 7 show the results of the Person correlation in experimental group 1, experimental group 2 and control group (respectively).

TABLE 5
RELIABILITY ESTIMATES: CORRELATIONS IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP1

		rater1 in exp group 1	rater2 in exp group 1	rater3 in exp group 1
rater1 in exp group 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.937**	.941**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	13	13	13
rater2 in exp group 1	Pearson Correlation	.937**	1	.960**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	13	13	13
rater3 in exp group 1	Pearson Correlation	.941**	.960**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	13	13	13

** - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 6
RELIABILITY ESTIMATES: CORRELATIONS IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP2

		rater1 in exp group 2	rater2 in exp group 2	rater3 in exp group 2
rater1 in exp group 2	Pearson Correlation	1	.913**	.915**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	17	17	17
rater2 in exp group 2	Pearson Correlation	.913**	1	.972**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	17	17	17
rater3 in exp group 2	Pearson Correlation	.915**	.972**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	17	17	17

** - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 7
RELIABILITY ESTIMATES: CORRELATIONS IN CONTROL GROUP

		rater1 in control group	rater2 in control group	rater3 in control group
rater1 in control group	Pearson Correlation	1	.963**	.937**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
rater2 in control group	Pearson Correlation	.963**	1	.962**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
rater3 in control group	Pearson Correlation	.937**	.962**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The following tables show the results of the Cronbach's Alpha for each of the groups.

TABLE 8
RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP1

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.981	3

TABLE 9
RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP2

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.976	3

TABLE 10
RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR CONTROL GROUP

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.983	3

The raters' scores were significantly correlated at the 0.01 level in all the tables and the inter rater reliability assessed using Cronbach's Alpha formula, was near 1, which indicated high agreement between raters' scores.

D. Results of Post-test

In order to measure the subjects' scores in all groups after the treatment, the post-test was taken. Table 11 shows the mean, standard deviation and standard error of the mean that each group received by each rater. The results of this table were used to estimate correlation of the scores of the three raters. Table 12 shows the mean, standard deviation and standard error of the mean that each rater gave to all participants in the three groups. The results of this table were used to estimate the inter-rater reliability of the scores of the raters to make sure the raters have been consistent in their ratings.

TABLE 11
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: GRAMMAR POST-TEST

	Experimental group 1				Experimental group 2				Control group			
	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std.error mean	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std.error mean	N	Mean	Std deviation	Std.error mean
Rater1	13	23.6923	4.21079	1.16786	17	23.7647	4.13112	1.00194	15	22.3333	4.74593	1.22539
Rater2	13	23.1538	3.71587	1.03060	17	23.8824	3.60351	.87398	15	22.5333	3.77712	.97525
Rater3	13	24.0769	3.59308	.99654	17	24.3529	3.96770	.96231	15	22.8667	3.81476	.98497

TABLE 12
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS: GRAMMAR POST-TEST

Rater	N	Total		
		Mean	Std deviation	Std.error Mean
Rater 1	45	23.2667	4.31909	.64385
Rater 2	45	23.2222	3.65494	.54485
Rater 3	45	23.7778	3.78327	.56398

E. Reliability Estimates

The post-tests were also corrected by the same raters. The following tables show the results of the Person correlations.

TABLE 13
RELIABILITY ESTIMATES: CORRELATIONS IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP1

		rater1 in exp group 1	rater2 in exp group 1	rater3 in exp group 1
rater1 in exp group 1	Pearson Correlation	1	.802**	.839**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.000
	N	13	13	13
rater2 in exp group 1	Pearson Correlation	.802**	1	.948**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.000
	N	13	13	13
rater3 in exp group 1	Pearson Correlation	.839**	.948**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	13	13	13

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 14
RELIABILITY ESTIMATES: CORRELATIONS IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP2

		rater1 in exp group 2	rater2 in exp group 2	rater3 in exp group 2
rater1 in exp group 2	Pearson Correlation	1	.888**	.867**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	17	17	17
rater2 in exp group 2	Pearson Correlation	.888**	1	.873**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	17	17	17
rater3 in exp group 2	Pearson Correlation	.867**	.873**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	17	17	17

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

TABLE 15
RELIABILITY ESTIMATES: CORRELATIONS IN CONTROL GROUP

		rater1 in control group	rater2 in control group	rater3 in control group
rater1 in control group	Pearson Correlation	1	.926**	.847**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	15	15	15
rater2 in control group	Pearson Correlation	.926**	1	.937**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	15	15	15
rater3 in control group	Pearson Correlation	.847**	.937**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	15	15	15

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The following charts show the results of the Cronbach's Alpha for each of the groups in post-test.

TABLE 16
RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP1

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.948	3

TABLE 17
RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP2

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.953	3

TABLE 18
RELIABILITY STATISTICS FOR CONTROL GROUP

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.958	3

The raters' scores were significantly correlated at the 0.01 level in all the tables and the inter-rater reliability assessed using Cronbach's Alpha formula, was near 1, which indicates high agreement between raters' scores.

F. Investigating the Research Question

The research question stated:

"Is there a statistically significant difference between the effects of immediate vs. delayed oral feedback on the writing accuracy of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?"

To answer the research question, a T-test was run to compare the mean scores of the three groups in three pairs. The results are shown in table 19.

TABLE 19
 PAIRED SAMPLE STATISTICS

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	exp group 1 in pre test	23.3077	39	4.43167	.70963
	exp group 1 in post test	23.6410	39	3.76610	.60306
Pair 2	exp group 2 in pre test	22.8824	51	4.10194	.57439
	exp group 2 in post test	24.0000	51	3.83667	.53724
Pair 3	control group in pre test	22.2444	45	4.28611	.63894
	control group in post test	22.5778	45	4.04794	.60343

As shown in table 19 both experimental groups outperformed the control group. The experimental group 2 outperformed the experimental group 1 as well.

Table 20 shows the results of Pearson Correlations which indicate that the raters' scores were significantly correlated at the 0.01 level in all groups.

TABLE 20
 PEARSON CORRELATION

		exp group 1 In pre test	exp group 1 In post test	exp group 2 In pre test	exp group 2 In post test	control group In pre test	control group In post test
exp group 1 In pre test	Pearson Correlation	1	.964**				
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000				
	N	39	39				
exp group 1 In post test	Pearson Correlation	.964**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000					
	N	39	39				
exp group 2 In pre test	Pearson Correlation			1	.937**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000		
	N			51	51		
exp group 2 In post test	Pearson Correlation			.937**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000			
	N			51	51		
control group In pre test	Pearson Correlation					1	.961**
	Sig. (2-tailed)						.000
	N					45	45
control group In post test	Pearson Correlation					.961**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)					.000	
	N					45	45

** - Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As shown in table 19, the mean score of experimental group 2 has changed significantly from pre-test to post-test and this is also obviously visible from the Sig (2-tailed) which is less than 0.005 in table 21 below. Consequently, the null hypothesis is rejected. According to the Sig (2-tailed) which is .113 and .000 for experimental group 1 and 2 (respectively), we can also conclude that the mean scores of both groups have changed significantly after the treatment but experimental group 2 which received delayed oral CF outperformed experimental group 1 which received immediate oral feedback.

TABLE 21
 PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST
 Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 1	exp group 1 in pre test - exp group 1 in post test	-.33333	1.28418	.20563	-.74962	.08295	-1.621	38	.113
Pair 2	exp group 2 in pre test - exp group 2 in post test	-1.11765	1.43732	.20126	-1.52190	-.71339	-5.553	50	.000
Pair 3	control group in pre test - control group in post test	-.33333	1.18705	.17696	-.68996	.02330	-1.884	44	.066

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

While some researchers such as Truscott (1996) have claimed that error correction is ineffective, others have suggested that not only do L2 students who are engaged in the skill of writing expect to receive corrective feedback but also effective error correction can and does help some student writers (Bitchener, et al.,2005). The purpose of this study was to build on existing research which suggests that corrective feedback can lead to more linguistically accurate writing.

In response to the research question, data analysis indicated that the students did improve their linguistic accuracy when the two error-correction strategies were implemented. This means that the provision of both immediate and delayed oral CF had a significant effect, enabling the learners to use the targeted function with greater accuracy. These gains are quiet pronounced between the pre-tests and post-tests taken from the beginning and end of the treatment period. The superiority of experimental groups over control group was due to the fact that students have great difficulty in interpreting and understanding written form of corrective feedback.

A point worthy to mention is that while both the immediate and delayed oral CF groups outperformed the control group, the delayed oral CF group outperformed the immediate oral CF group as well. This superiority of delayed oral given feedback over immediate feedback could be due to the fact that learners in the delayed oral CF group were pushed to correct their errors themselves which according to (Ferris, 2006) seems more facilitative in learning the TL and also more beneficial in improving learners' inter language development.

APPENDIX

A. Pre-test

- | |
|---|
| <p>A: Complete the following sentences.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If you stop waiting for a bus and start walking, 2. If you take vitamin C, 3. If it doesn't rain tomorrow, 4. If you 're hungry,..... 5. If the phone rings,..... 6. If I pass all my exams this semester,..... 7. If you have some guests tonight,..... 8. If you miss the bus, 9. If you find a better job, 10. He'll be late for work, 11. If I had a BMW,..... 12. I'd buy a villa if 13. If I saw a shark, 14. My parents could buy a bigger house if 15. He could get a job in a hotel if 16. If I got engaged, 17. If he were at work, 18. If I had time next week, 19. If I didn't have to work in Norooz, 20. If I were a millionaire, 21. If she had known he was so stingy,..... 22. If you hadn't worn the seat belt,..... 23. We would have gone to the beach if..... 24. If I hadn't gone to the party,..... 25. If we had had more time,..... 26. If you'd told me earlier,..... 27. If you hadn't forgotten the map,..... 28. If you'd arrived two minutes earlier, 29. If I'd known about the party,..... 30. If you hadn't helped me, |
|---|

B. Post-test

- A: Complete the following sentences.
1. If you stop waiting for a taxi and start walking,
 2. If you drink more water,
 3. If it doesn't rain on Friday,
 4. If you are thirsty,
 5. If your cell phone rings,
 6. If my sister passes all her exams this semester,
 7. If your mother has some guests tonight,
 8. If you miss the taxi,
 9. If your husband finds a better job,
 10. He'll be late for school if
 11. If I had a car,
 12. I'd buy a house if
 13. If I saw a bear,
 14. I could buy a bigger house if
 15. He could get a better job if
 16. If I got married,
 17. If he were at home,
 18. If I had time tomorrow,
 19. If I didn't have to work on Friday,
 20. If my father were a millionaire,
 21. If she had known she was so lazy,
 22. If you hadn't worn your coat,
 23. We would have gone to the party if
 24. If I hadn't gone to work,
 25. If we had had more rice,
 26. If you'd told me two days earlier,
 27. If you hadn't forgotten your coat,
 28. If you'd left two minutes earlier,
 29. If I'd known about the meeting,
 30. If you hadn't lent me the money,

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A Study on the English Teaching Model in the Facebook Environment*

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Abstract—The social network of Facebook has its own advantages, such as openness, interactivity and timeliness, which provide an opportunity for the reform of English teaching model. According to the theory of constructivism, an English teaching model was constructed in the Facebook environment, including context, collaboration, conversation and meaning construction. Based on the qualitative and quantitative data, it is found that the teaching model is effective in promoting learners' comprehensive language application ability and enhancing their subjectivity and enthusiasm in English learning.

Index Terms—the Facebook environment, English teaching, teaching model, construction

I. INTRODUCTION

Facebook has played more and more important roles in social interaction and become the world's largest and busiest social networking site (Alice, 2009). Facebook is successfully used in many fields abroad. For example, Facebook has been put into use in library service by some well-known libraries, such as Boston University, New York Public University, and Columbus Library. Some scholars use Facebook as an online educational platform and some learners take full advantages of Facebook to achieve autonomous learning, collaborative learning and interactive learning. Nowadays more and more people in China begin to use Facebook to learn English because it can provide opportunities for English learners to communicate in real contexts. Therefore, Facebook has been a platform for English learning. Some scholars have done some research on the microblog (Wan, Wang & Zou, 2012). However, seldom are focused on the construction of teaching models in Facebook environments to foster English learners' comprehensive language application ability in China.

II. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF FACEBOOK ENVIRONMENTS

Compared with other social networking site, Facebook has its unique and powerful functions which make it convenient for users to communicate with each other and learn from each other. Firstly, it is free for users to register in Facebook without any extra restrictions. Any users with their effective e-mail accounts can register in Facebook and become the Facebook users. Secondly, message boards can be used for leaving messages within friends which can be seen by others and personal messages are only kept between communicators. Thirdly, Facebook supports forums. Users can participate in the established groups to have a discussion or propose a topic to initiate discussions. Users can update their states of mind, publish their logs, and upload the documents, video, audio, images, animation and so on so that the resources can be shared with each other. Facebook can also be used for questionnaire surveys. Fourthly, various software systems provided by a third party can be installed in the Facebook account, such as LibGuides, Booth Library Ask, and Slide Share. Facebook can also be linked with many other interfaces of internet so that users have more room to make friends and can access plenty of resources on the internet.

Facebook has become more and more popular in education due to its power on learning. For one thing, Facebook is free from the restriction of time and space so that learners can log in Facebook and visit the internet resources with their electronic devices instead of the heavy paper books. For another, Facebook, as a learning tool, makes it probable to integrate learning into learners' daily life, and learners can obtain learning resources according to their own learning needs. Furthermore, learners can communicate and discuss with peers synchronously or asynchronously. Facebook is beyond the classroom. There are varieties of resources on the internet for learners to expand their extra-curricular knowledge. Besides, with large numbers of users in Facebook, learners can communicate with all walks of life to promote their culture literacy. Soft wares, such as Sliceshare and iRead make resource sharing come true.

Facebook can facilitate teacher to prepare for the lessons as well. Teachers can build their discussion areas so that they can share ideas and views with each other, and deal with teaching problems with collective intelligence. They can make a survey on the learners' attitudes towards the teaching so that they could adapt their teaching to learners' needs.

Facebook, as teaching platform, can be used by teachers to enrich course content by creating proper course interfaces. Teachers can update their internet logs, express their ideas and thoughts to give learners guidance. They can upload

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texts, images, video and course wares, and other learning resources so that learners can share the resources with them. Teachers can also create forums to solve learners' learning problems. Learners can propose their learning problems and teachers responds to them. As for the teaching resources, learners can make some comments as well.

Facebook, as intelligent learning tools, brings it into reality for learners to log on at any time with their mobile phones and computers to achieve autonomous learning. Learners can also set up their own discussion groups and ask the peers with the common interests or learning problems to join in. In this way, learners can talk freely, help each other and cooperate with each other. In addition, learners enlarge their learning content through communication with many celebrities and learners from other universities. And learners can also join in online discussions and take part in community activities, such as reading activity, writing reading activity, listening reading activity, etc.

III. THE COMPARISON BETWEEN THE TRADITIONAL TEACHING MODEL AND THE TEACHING MODEL IN THE FACEBOOK ENVIRONMENT

Compared with the traditional English classroom teaching and learning environment, Facebook, as a social network, has the advantages of openness, interactivity and timeliness which mean that the Facebook social network is open to all, and its rich and authentic English language resources are accessible to learners and it has the instant messaging function so that English learners in China can communicate with the native English speakers.

As for the interactivity, two functions are involved which are community group function and language communication function. Based on the two functions, learners can set up discussion groups and share information with one another. The Facebook environment helps the improvement of learners' communicative competence and the change of teacher-dominated classroom. According to the theory of constructivism, teachers are not only organizers and guiders, but also promoters and facilitators. It is the learners that process information. Meaning construction is achieved by collaboration and helped by teachers and peers. Context, collaboration, conversation and meaning construction are the four essences of Facebook environments which are in accordance with the theory of constructivism, which is beyond the traditional classroom environment.

In traditional teaching models, teachers and learners use the same textbooks and the learning content is mainly on the language knowledge, context construction neglected, which is not beneficial for learners' meaning construction. In the Facebook environment, teachers can use the authentic English social and culture background to create contexts to adapt to learners' learning goals. With regards to collaboration, the traditional English classroom teaching is lack of authentic language environment, and the collaboration between teachers, learners and materials is superficial so that the collaborative learning model cannot be put into use thoroughly. While in the Facebook environment, there are varieties of learning resources and interactive methods, making the interaction and collaboration between teachers and learners possible. Learners screen and analyze the corpora, and thus put forward to hypothesis, make an assessment of learning effects, and ultimately achieve the goal of meaning construction (Zhang, 2015). Conversation is a crucial way and means to learners' meaning construction. In the traditional English teaching, group activities, due to the big class and large numbers of students, are difficult to carry out. However, in the Facebook environment, the interactive function can be used to set up study groups so that tasks can be assigned, teaching goals accomplished, and each learner's achievement shared through conversations and collaboration. In terms of meaning construction, learners learning English individually by rote learning in the traditional English classroom teaching, which prevents learners from meaning construction. Nevertheless in the Facebook environment, various learning materials and approaches can help learners construct knowledge meaning according to their own cognitive schema and experience to find out the nature of language and rules of language learning. Therefore, the Facebook social network is an important platform for English learning. English teachers can make full use of the advantages of the Facebook environment to promote learners' English learning and their cognitive competence.

IV. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study aims to employ the Facebook social network to foster learners' comprehensive language application ability, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities, communication competence and critical thinking ability.

A. Research Questions

The purpose of the study is to clarify the effectiveness of the English teaching model in the Facebook environment. The research questions are as follows:

- (1) Is the English teaching model in the Facebook environment effective in fostering learners' comprehensive language application ability?
- (2) What are learners' attitudes towards the English teaching model in the Facebook environment?

B. The Participants

This study was carried out in a comprehensive university in China. Two English major classes were participated in the study. One was experimental class and the other was control class. There were 41 students in the experimental class and 40 students in the control class. According to the result of pre-test, there was no significant difference between the

experimental class and the control class. The English teaching model in the Facebook environment was used in the experimental class and the traditional English teaching model in the control class.

The English teaching model in the Facebook environment was constructed according to the theory of constructivism. Qualitative and quantitative data were used to test the effectiveness of the teaching model.

C. Data Collection

Qualitative and quantitative data were collected to clarify the effectiveness of the experiment. Before and after the experiment, comprehensive language application ability was examined by questionnaires, and interview as well as observation was made in the process of the experiment.

D. Research Procedure

The experiment was carried out in the academic year 2015-2016. There were three steps in the experiment which were setting tasks, giving guidance and making assessments. Five types of tasks were related in the experiment, including listening and speaking communication, such as voice communication, video communication, appreciation of masterpieces, hot forum; reading communication, such as narration reading, argumentation reading, exposition reading; writing communication, such as narration writing, argumentation writing, exposition writing; daily communication; and cultural communication, like customs, religious belief, values and orientations, etc. During the process of experiment, the experimental class was given proper guidance and feedback. Learners' learning process were known to the teacher by observation and assessment. After the experiment, questionnaires and interview were employed to test the effectiveness of the teaching model in the Facebook environment.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

At the end of the experiment, the questionnaire survey was conducted to examine the effectiveness of the experiment. The questionnaire recovery rate is 100%. Interview was also made to learn about the learners' attitudes towards the teaching model in the Facebook environment.

A. Students' Comprehensive Language Application Ability

The results showed that the experimental class made greater progress in the aspects of listening and speaking, daily communication, cultural communication and critical thinking. However, there were no significant differences between the two classes in reading and writing (See Table 1).

TABLE 1
THE COMPARISON BETWEEN THE EXPERIMENTAL CLASS AND THE CONTROL CLASS

Items	Experimental Class (%)			Control Class (%)		
	Apparent	not apparent	no change	Apparent	not apparent	no change
Listening and speaking	94	5	1	74	20	6
Reading	86	8	6	82	11	7
Writing	87	11	2	79	16	5
Daily communication	93	7	0	75	5	20
Cultural communication	90	10	0	74	5	21
Critical thinking	83	16	1	60	14	26

There may be several reasons for the results. Firstly, the Facebook environment provides synchronous communication opportunities, real language environment and authentic resources for the English learners. This environment, integrating texts, voices, images, animation and interaction, is fundamental for learners to comprehend and take in the English language. As a result, learners' interest, enthusiasm and motivation are activated and their comprehensive language competence is enhanced. Secondly, listening and speaking activities, daily communication and cultural exchanges are quite appropriate for the learners to cooperate with each other and help each other. Online collaboration tools, such as discussion board forum, chat room are of great help for learners' group work. Their awareness of cooperation and participation have been improved, which indicates the experiment has a positive impact on their learning initiatives. Besides, based on the teamwork, learners communicate with each other so that they learn to take the matters into consideration from different perspectives and learn about different opinions on the same issue. Therefore, their critical thinking is improved. Thirdly, due to learners' individual differences, they have different learning styles. Some are so sensitive to the multimodal teaching that they benefit a lot from the experiment. However some may not be accustomed to the teaching model in the Facebook environment. Therefore, they make less progress. Furthermore, learners have different cognitive planes and different affective features, and their motivations of learning English are so different that what they obtained in the experiment are greatly different.

B. Learners' Attitudes towards the Teaching Model in the Facebook Environment

The qualitative data were also collected to learn about the learners' attitudes towards the teaching model in the Facebook environment, a semi-constructed interview were made to learn about the learner' attitudes towards the teaching model in the Facebook environment. The interview was mainly about what they thought of the effectiveness of interaction between teachers and learners, and learners and learners, learners and learning materials, and of the

effectiveness of the teaching model in the Facebook environment and their views on the teaching environment. Ten students in the experimental class were chosen as the subjects in the interview.

According to the result of the interview, most of the students agreed that the teaching model in the Facebook environment enhanced their awareness of participation and collaboration and they could take an active part in the activities, which were quite beneficial for them to learn about different opinions on the learning tasks and achieve meaning construction. They said contexts were fundamental for them to communicate with each other. There were some comments from the learners:

I like the discussion area, through which I can talk with my friends freely and I can communicate with teachers without any anxiety. This is a new experience. I like it. (L1)

I like to look through the Facebook networking site in my spare time. I can make full use of my spare time in learning English and communicate with English. (L5)

I like to discuss with others and learn about their opinions on the same issue. By this means, I have learned how to analyze the problems in different aspects. (L8)

I can get help from many other people, such as teachers, peers, many native speakers and other friends. My horizon has been broadened. (L9)

By making friends with different cultures and different backgrounds, I have been fully aware of the importance of culture in communication. I have learned a lot of different traditional cultures and customs. (L10)

They preferred the teaching model in the Facebook environment to the traditional teaching model. They could tell the differences of the two different teaching models in a critical way. Some learners stated as the follows:

I would like to learn English in the Facebook environment. It is quite different from the traditional classroom environment. Based on the Facebook environment, I can get feedback from all kinds of people instantly at all places. (L2)

I take more active in the activities, such as discussing with others, exchanging opinions with others. Because the teaching model in the Facebook environment provides us more chances to communicate. In traditional English classroom teaching, we have fewer chances to have discussions or express our opinions owing to the limited classroom time. (L4)

I think my English ability has been improved. I can communicate with others freely about the daily life. And I can analyze reading material more deeply. (L5)

By sharing information and resources with others, I have enlarged my knowledge. I like sharing my resources with others, which brings me confidence and pride. (L7)

I hope we can continue to use the teaching model in the Facebook environment. What we can learn is more than before. I can take overall views into consideration when I am asked to talk about something. (L8)

In the group activities, everybody was engaged in them. If anyone escaped from the activities, it was a great shame. By sharing and commenting, we all benefited from the teamwork. (L10)

The teaching model in the Facebook environment makes me pay more and more attention to my learning process. I can realize my progress step by step, which activates me to study harder and further. (L10)

According to the Suwannathachote's study (2012), there were significant correlations between the sharing events and group engagement, between commenting and group engagement. In this sense, we can safely say that the learners' critical thinking in the experimental class is improved. This is in perfect accordance with the results of the observation.

There are three possible reasons for the learners' responses to the teaching model in the Facebook environment. One is that the environment of the teaching model can make learners make full use of their senses, which can improve their learning efficiency. Another is that the carefully chosen tasks are suitable for the learners' cognitive levels and their individual needs, which can enhance their confidence and motivate their enthusiasm. Kuh (2009) put great emphasis on two major aspects of learners' engagement. One is academic engagement and the other is out-of-class engagement in relevant education activities. Involvement in co-curriculum activities and interaction with teachers and peers are important factors that are related to the learners' engagement (Junco, 2012). This engagement requires learners to devote their physical and psychological energy to the related tasks which are more likely to bring learners to obtain their desired outcome. The third is that information exchanges and sharing are basic methods for the learners to learn English. The teaching model in the Facebook environment offered learners chances of experiencing, exchanging and sharing information with each other (Clark, Lee, & Boyer, 2008). Learning is achieved by doing. There is no wonder that learners are in favor of the teaching model in the Facebook environment.

Owing to the different learning styles and individual differences, some learners are not used to the teaching model in the Facebook environment. Some like to listen to the teachers' explanation attentively and take notes in the classroom. Others like the face-to-face communication with their teachers and classmates which gives them feeling of safety and intimacy.

VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The study by Lampe et al. (2011) indicated that students perceived motivation for communicating with others when using Facebook and were likely to use Facebook for discussion of class assignments. English, as an international language, is not only a communicative tool. The ultimate purpose of English learners in China is to improve their

comprehensive language application ability, including language abilities, their communicative competence, and critical thinking ability as well as the related knowledge. Learning how to cooperate with each other and how to share their opinions and views with each other are also the basic ability for them to acquire in the informational era. Taking full advantages of the Facebook environment to create a new teaching model so that learners can take in and internalize the various abilities and knowledge, which contributes to learners' incorporating their language learning into the discipline knowledge learning, conforming to the natural law of language acquisition (Doruer, Eyyam & Menevi, 2011). During this learning process, learners grasp language and cultures. After one academic year's experiment, the students in the experiment class showed their positive attitudes towards teaching model in the Facebook environment and their comprehensive language application ability was enhanced. Based on the experiment, the following conclusion can be drawn:

Firstly, compared with the traditional teaching model, the teaching model in the Facebook environment can improve learners' comprehensive language application ability. Secondly, the teaching model in the Facebook environment can stimulate learners' motivation, enthusiasm and confidence. Thirdly, the teaching model in the Facebook environment can promote and develop learners' awareness of participation and cooperation.

Owing to the objective conditions, the range of the participants is inadequate and the subjects are lack of variety. Future studies should take samplings and scopes into considerations. While designing teaching model in Facebook environments, teachers should take measures to elaborate the arrangement of the group activities, such as the division of the groups, time, frequency and learners' individuality. Tasks that contain academic tasks and out-of-class education activities should be more carefully chosen and set according to learners' cognitive levels, learning needs and academic requirements so that multidimensional assessment on learners' language competence, learning strategy, participation, cooperation, learning attitudes can be accessible (Sheldon, 2009). Finally, the relationships among learners' interaction, engagement and achievements should be deeply explored guided by dynamic system theory to improve the effectiveness of teaching models in Facebook environments. It is believed that with the further study and practice, teaching models in social networking environments will be a breakthrough in the reform of college English teaching.

Facebook brings the theory of constructivism into educational practice. The employment of Facebook breaks through the limitation of time and space, making it possible for learners to fulfill autonomous learning, collaborative learning and interactive learning. Learners might use different functions to enlarge their knowledge, exquisite the English language and improve their culture literacy. Furthermore, learners can make friends with many great minds so that they can be given guidance and solve their learning problems and make up for their disadvantages and weaknesses. Most importantly, Facebook can be used as a platform for teachers to carry out their online courses, through which teaching and learning resources can be shared, interaction and feedback between teachers and learners, and learners and learners can be strengthened. The Facebook social networking environment is to bring about the revolutionary change and its advantages of immediacy, authenticity, efficiency, and interactivity display the bright future for English teaching reform in China. The traditional classroom teaching model also has its uniqueness, for example, it can make learners receive systematic knowledge, and give learners a sense of intimacy and safety. Judgement and assessment of information and big data, and how to deal with different values of different peoples appropriately are also great challenges for English learners. English teaching models in Facebook environments transform the way in which learners learn, communicate and think. With the development of technology and the progress of English teaching, it is predicted that the integration and interaction of traditional face-to face teaching models and teaching models in Facebook environments bring English teaching and learning forward in the near future.

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On Cultivating Autonomous Learning Ability for University Students Based on Web*

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Abstract—Autonomous learning has become a widely adopted pedagogical approach to language learning and teaching. This paper analyzed the factors that constraints the cultivation of college English Autonomous Learning from cognitive level, psychological level, technical level, and social level. Undergraduate students and college teachers were investigated via questionnaire and interview. The survey found that there are typical bottleneck constraints, teachers' lack of curriculum autonomy, lack of evaluation mechanism on autonomous learning and limitation of communication between teachers and teaching administrators. Solutions are offered afterwards.

Index Terms—autonomous learning, constraining factor, web

I. INTRODUCTION

In view of the current situation of College English education, that is, listening, reading ability is not ideal, speaking and writing output ability is weak. Higher Education Department issued College English curriculum requirements" in January 2008. It is hoped that through the "personalized", "autonomous" learning and teaching strategies, college English teaching reform can be implemented.

Students speaking and writing ability is still weak in spite of much time spent on teaching, which indicates students' application or output ability should be enhanced. There is a misconception that learning after class is students' business, not as significant as teaching in class. Thus teaching reform just focuses on improving teaching in class. Learning by students themselves has been ignored consciously or unconsciously by teachers and students. As for students, they often perceive university teaching, learning and assessment discourage rather than encourage autonomy.

Modern education is experiencing great changes such as education for all changing into learning for all, ability-oriented into value-oriented, curriculum-centered into student-centered, knowledge teaching into innovation cultivating, and the use of information tools into reform of teaching mode. All students are supposed to become people with lifelong learning ability and habit. Under such circumstances, our teaching is to be reformed to satisfy current needs and deal with those changes. In information age, many modern technologies have been applied in the education but proved not as effective as expected. One reason is that the structure of education is not converted at all with the development of information technology. Currently, student's learning is still mainly charged by teachers. This is a wrong way of learning and teaching. Since learning is a constant process, students may learn any time or anywhere. Their learning does not just happen in class, but outside class. One who does not know how to learn and when to learn will be left behind. Modern talents are ones with the ability of sustainable development. This ability is not acquired and trained by in-class teaching but by the cultivation of autonomy.

Nowadays it is widely accepted autonomous learning is a way for students to learn actively and effectively. During the process, students will gain the ability of lifelong learning and sustainable development. With the development of information technology, the task of teachers is not to teach but let students experience and participate in the exploration of knowledge. Korea, USA and many other countries place emphasis on cultivating students' ability to solve problems via information technology. It is very imminent event to make use of modern information technology to guide students to experience knowledge then become a network video beneficiaries rather than the victim. So teachers' guidance is indispensable, for students lack self-discipline, self-regulation and due effectiveness in autonomous learning.

II. AUTONOMOUS LEARNING

The essence of learning is meaningful learning. Learner is the main body of learning. Interpersonal relation is a significant condition of effective learning. Meaningful learning involves such four elements as individual participation, self initiation, permeability and self-assessment. Learners learn knowledge via spontaneous devotion to study, choosing their own learning strategies and manipulating learning process, giving full play to their emotional and cognitive potential. Humanism regards cognition and emotion as two complementary aspects concerning human all-round development, for the purpose of education is not only to teach students skills, but according to the needs of students

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allow them to develop in knowledge, emotion and motivation so as to cultivate their healthy personality.

Based on the implication of learning, autonomy is the best choice, for autonomous learning concerns cultivating emotional and cognitive potential.

Autonomy is seen as a main goal for language learning. Cultivating students' learning autonomy has become the main purpose of language teaching. Many programs are designed to conduct experiment with the purpose of promoting autonomous language learning. Learner Autonomy is interpreted as learner control over learning, which includes awareness of goals, making learning plan, taking responsibility for learning content, active participation in the learning process and regulating such factors as time, frequency, setting, learning method and pace of learning.

Autonomous learning is based on the ideas of constructivism and humanism learning theory. Constructivism learning theory believes that learning is a process of acquiring knowledge, and knowledge is not obtained by teachers' teaching, but by learners in certain situations, the social and cultural background, with the help of others, including teachers and learning companion via necessary learning materials through the way of meaning construction. Humanism learning theory think learning is with the help of teacher a process of self-assessment, self-promotion and self-assessment. Therefore, we should transform the teaching process into learning process, fully mobilize students' intrinsic motivation and learning potential, create harmonious interpersonal relations, promote students' self performance evaluation and help students satisfy the needs of self-actualization. Besides, the theory of distribution learning contributes to forming of learning community. This is not contradictory with autonomy, which does not imply learning alone. On the contrary, autonomous learning may involve learning together with teachers or any partners. The theory of distribution learning believes that knowledge is distributed, which makes cognitive development of complex tasks completed by sharing knowledge and resources. In general, the distribution of learning is superior to focus learning. Learning Community, based on the ideas of theory of distribution learning, accomplish tasks with partners of the same learning goal and interests by sharing mutual creativity, ideas and experiences.

Domestic research

Domestic research involves aspects as follows: (1) Chang, M.M. (2005) explores the use of computer network of the new independent learning teaching model, there are 9 papers which account for 39.1%; (2) study of creation of personalized autonomous learning environment under the assistance of computer network, such as autonomous learning center, autonomous learning system, diversified learning environment and English website as tools. The articles of this aspect account for 30.4% (Cheng Xiaotang & Kang Yan, 2010). (3) The rest of the study involves such specific aspects as the role teacher plays in autonomous learning, writing autonomous teaching and listening autonomous teaching, evaluation of teaching, learning strategies and learning effectiveness (Hu Wenzhong & Sun Youzhong, 2006). As a whole, to promote the construction of autonomous learning development of hardware environment and explore a new teaching mode based on the environment reflect the trend of English Teaching Reform in the new situation.

Overseas Research

The research concerning autonomy overseas involves the following aspects. Benson (1997) believes autonomy can be located at technical, psychological and political level. Autonomy can be seen as a goal common to all academic disciplines (Boud, 1988). It emerges with the increasing need of learning skills. People require the capacity to produce something new instead of receiving something that is known. Boud and other researchers show some university education does not encourage but discourage autonomy (Ramsden, 1989). A recent study from Harvard University indicates that more experienced teachers-teachers who teach many years prove to be inefficient in teaching compared with younger one to some sense. This is related to information technology, for those experienced teachers are less skilled in applying teaching software.

III. METHOD AND DATA COLLECTION

This research employs the form of the questionnaire and interview. In this questionnaire ten questions are designed. Each of the questions involves an aspect about autonomous English learning. From these questions, people's attitudes and suggestions towards autonomous English learning are studied. This research involves students from universities in Wuhan. The questionnaires are distributed to 300 students. Ten teachers are interviewed. A total of 288 individuals fill in the questionnaires, among which 282 are valid. They cover different grades and majors, so the result can stand for typical point of view to some degree.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A total of 292 individuals participate in the survey, 282 students and 10 teachers included. It is found that some constraining factors exist in cultivating autonomous learning. The constraining factors are as follows.

A. Constraints of Teacher Belief and Learner Belief

It's long been practiced that student learning has been arranged by teachers. Thus students are accustomed to following teachers' instruction. Teachers tend to be the center of teaching, assign all and establish all, control learning content, pace, time etc. This teacher-centered teaching model can't meet learning today, for it is presumed each child need the same pattern of learning. Now this belief is no longer appropriate. It can't satisfy particular needs of students

(Horwitz, E.K, 1987). What teachers teach may not be what students need. So teacher belief hinders the cultivation of self autonomy. Students with the help of teachers should change learning belief as well (Ho,J.&D.Crookall,1995). The times depending completely on teachers is over. Students used to think they only need to do what teachers tell them to. However, autonomous learning requires more, which involves the ability to design learning content, manage time, choose learning method and control the process of learning.

B. Constraints of Curriculum Autonomy for Teachers

This involves such aspects as curriculum structure constraints, quantitative measurement constraints and executive constraints. Curriculum design is much too specified, which leaves too little time for self autonomy, both for teachers and students. Curriculum is established by executive department. Top-down one way communication between teachers and executive department exists. Teachers' teaching performance is assessed completely quantitatively. Teachers can't make drastic change in teaching content and teaching periods. Accordingly under the circumstance, students do not have too much room for autonomous learning. Therefore, too much intervention is not encouraged on the part of executive department.

C. Constraints of Evaluation System

College English autonomous learning challenge the traditional evaluation testing system (Morrison, 2005). Who evaluates? What is evaluated? How to evaluate? There is lack of reliable assessment of autonomous learning. At present, the research on the autonomous learning of College English in China has not emphasized formative evaluation. The formative evaluation is not considered as an integral part of autonomous learning and teachers even do not discuss how to evaluate autonomous learning. In this case, there is a lack of evaluation system in the cultivating autonomous learning in China which leads to the state of being out of order for autonomous learning. In addition, current evaluation system online is designed for students to evaluate teachers instead of teachers evaluating students. Teachers usually evaluate student offline instead of being online. Their way of evaluation is fixed and difficult to change. Static way of evaluation is not as good as dynamic online evaluation which is very convenient to modify according to changing situations. Student information is not easily saved or modified based on the traditional way of evaluation.

Evaluation should not be based on one or two fixed aspects but many aspects. It should be done many times to ensure the effectiveness of learning and teaching. Teacher evaluation and student mutual evaluation can be combined to form final evaluation.

D. Constraints of Technical Level

Teachers are not proficient in computer operation and software application. This is shown in one of researches conducted by Harvard University. Some teachers would not like to adopt a new method of teaching based on information technology, for it takes time for them to apply a new software and prepare teaching in quite a different way. They may not be skillful in the application of software, which is a challenge for them (Luke, C. L, 2006). Teachers lack technical training. Thus students lack the guidance because of teachers' inexperience of software application.

Teachers' teaching methods are not presented or adjusted according to developing modern information technology, such as the lack of flexible application of the teaching software, the lack of application innovation in multimedia technology and teachers' over reliance on PPT. Network teaching hardware environment does not match new model, and some hardware are not up to date, unlikely to be employed effectively in teaching. Network teaching resources are not fully utilized, such as the inflexibility and low intelligence of teaching platform and the inadequate individualized teaching resources. The college English curriculum is inconsistent with teaching objectives and the application of information technology.

As for students, it is investigated that they need guidance concerning how to conceal Chinese subtitle when watching English movies and how to choose effective internet materials and chat online with foreigners. How to set time limit, how to download useful and free information, how to search special corpora to confirm some language usage for study or for research are to be solved.

Besides, there is lack of communication between teachers and students out of class. A reliable technical platform is needed to guarantee communication online between teachers and students.

E. Lack of Research Concerning Needs

Students' needs have long been ignored. Most teaching practices are often carried out from the perspective of teachers. Teachers' teaching design lacks students' participation. As a result, some teaching content and activities are not to students' taste, making teaching ineffective. Students have no chance to express their needs. Teachers do not investigate various needs, such as the needs of male and female students; needs of learners in different grades or levels and needs of different majors. Sometimes teaching is far from these needs, for curriculum design is not in accordance with the social requirement.

On the whole, the constraining factors such as the lack of teacher belief and lack of evaluation mechanism and lack of training lead to inadequacy of autonomous learning for students. The cultivation of extracurricular autonomous learning ability and the role computer network can play in autonomous learning are not fully explored.

V. THE SOLUTION TO PROBLEMS CONCERNED

A. *Change Teachers' Belief and Students' Belief about Learning*

Therefore teachers should change teaching belief, leaving students room to develop the habit of managing their own learning. During the process, teachers can offer help and guidance. Lectures or reports can be held to help students be aware of the importance of autonomous learning. Students also should be aware they themselves are mainly responsible for their own learning and learning process involves students' active participation and teachers' participation. Students should be trained in their learning strategies and theories under the guidance of teachers. The primary focus of teachers in information age should be on helping students to design their own learning goal, learning content, learning rate and learning objective. Teachers are not in charge of learning alone. Students are heroes or main characters in learning, teachers like directors.

B. *Change the Way of Communication between Teaching Administration Department and Teachers*

Two-way communication between executive department and teachers is encouraged. Executive department should listen to teachers' opinions frequently and respond to teachers' and students' needs actively. Teachers' performance should not be judged completely quantitatively. Scientific ways are to be employed to evaluate teachers. Hence teachers will have choices to guide and reform autonomous learning without much restriction and interference of teaching administration. Bottom-up teaching administration is expected to improve the efficiency and advocate democracy.

C. *Improve Evaluation System of Teaching and Set Two-way Evaluation System*

In the past decade, learner autonomy, as a remedy for the conventional problem of teacher-centeredness, has already found its way to the Chinese national English curriculums at all levels. Also, in a counterattack against the test-oriented teaching, formative evaluation, has been recommended as an alternative means. Learning portfolio is established in the hope of tracking the learning process thus promoting learner autonomy. Besides, learning portfolio via internet is easily updated, which helps students learn about merits and demerits of their study.

Focus can't be on language points or quantitative language structure in student evaluation. We need to come up with ways to test students' learning ability, cultural cognition and the essence of language. Formative evaluation is a way to display students' process of learning. The evaluation can be dealt with elaborately by computers. The evaluation should involve many aspects such as learning objective, learning pace, learning effect and learning content etc. Nowadays many schools have set up evaluation system online with the purpose of students evaluating teachers' performance. However, evaluation system is likely to be misused by students. Students will evaluate teachers carelessly or highly for fear of offending teachers. Thus real response from students is not obtained. Under such circumstance, some measures can be taken. On the one hand, face to face and frank interaction between teachers and students can be organized to ensure the effectiveness of evaluation. On the other hand, online evaluation is to be designed for teachers to evaluate students' performance in autonomous learning, which is in need. Online evaluation can include many aspects of students which can be updated. This makes a formative evaluation. Students are informed of their daily performance and daily progress. Hence they are easily inspired to improve themselves and go ahead. Teachers are convenient to modify their teaching based on the information of evaluation system. USA poured 0.35 billion dollars into establishing comprehensive and sophisticated evaluation system for the purpose of locating students' problems and improving teaching quality.

D. *Offer Technical Support or Technique Training on Software Application*

Training in summer vacation or winter vacation can be provided for teachers to improve themselves in the field of education technology, which make them confident and prepared for a new way of teaching based on information technology. Only teachers are well prepared can they guide students to apply teaching and learning software. For example, office 2013 and Camtasia software used for developing micro-lectures are new to most teachers, who need special training to familiarize and practice them. Some training programs can be set for both teachers and students to learn together, thus facilitate wonderful teacher-student relation. In France teachers are provided 13 necessary digital services by schools since 2013. India sells students portable computers at a good price in order to let students gain access to internet. 150, 000 teachers are trained in internet teaching. Information technology leads to the change of teaching mode even the pattern of university. All these indicate application of information technology in education is indispensable.

E. *Develop MOOCs, Micro-lecture and Establish Small-scale Corpus*

Teachers are trained to develop MOOCs and micro-lectures, which provide channels for students to study by themselves. Students can strengthen or make up what confuses them in class via MOOCs and micro-lecturers, which is beneficial for learning, teaching and research.

Teachers get knowledge of corpus and employ corpus in teaching. Above all, teachers introduce students how to identify all types of corpus and exploit corpus students and get students familiarize and employ corpus in study, such as word frequency, word collocation. Then students are helped to participate in the building of corpus. A corpus of subjects concerned can be set up to analyze or compare students' homework or a variety of resources, which satisfy students'

unique needs. The self-made corpuses are good resources of review and research.

F. Construct Learning Community and Strengthen Communication between Teachers and Students

Learning community consists of teachers, students and information technology (Wenger, E, 2002). Students and teachers as main participants, play a leading role.

First, negotiation between teachers and students are necessary. The functions of negotiation are as follows: to cultivate sense of responsibility; to convert learning process into process of liberating students from passive learning; to make students play an active role; to have students participate in the design of learning content; to enrich class learning material; facilitate teachers to explore teaching strategies.

Second, teachers construct learning community based on their interests via QQ communicative platform. The large class can be divided into various learning groups with similar interest. First, a technical platform is indispensable, which is used to manage class members and subject material, or launch a forum or seminar. Besides, learning zone and learning materials are to be designed. Learning content is divided into different zones according to different topics, way of learning and learners. Once learning community is established, learning tasks are to be designed. Tasks should be practical, comprehensive and correlated, thus promote in-depth learning and multidisciplinary learning with the purpose of arousing students' interest and enhance learning motive. Meaningful learning aims to capture students' interest. Practical tasks, characterized by the integration of theory and practice contribute to learning of exploration.

Last, emotion of individuals should be taken into consideration in the management of learning community, which can indicate democracy and concern about human nature. Rule, task design and evaluation involve students' participation.

G. Strengthen Monitoring System

College English autonomous learning based on network environment does not mean free study without any monitoring, but rather, refers to the self-adjusted, self-planned, self-monitored, self-motivated, and self-regulated English learning with the active assistance and involvement of peers, teachers, the department of teaching administration and network technology, etc. Students may feel at loss or not focused during the process of autonomous learning, thus need the instruction of teachers or some type of monitoring system, which accordingly facilitate or discipline students. College English autonomous learning based on network environment requires an effective monitoring system, which involves many aspects, teacher, head teachers, teaching administrator and internet platform technician. A multi-monitoring system consists of teacher, head teacher, teaching administrator and internet platform technician.

VI. CONCLUSION

The student is the real subject of study and the core of network learning community. Students can give full play to the initiative under the guidance of teachers, solve problems and construct knowledge via making use of all resources, experience, books, network, teachers, students and other resources.

The students in order to complete comprehensive tasks cooperate and divide tasks by collecting information and ideas, sharing with other students and integrating information finally proposed better solution. In the learning community, learners with different learning backgrounds and various learning levels promote communication and inspire interest to its utmost. In the network learning community, students are the learner of knowledge, the knowledge provider and learning facilitator.

Teaching and learning should go through procedural negotiation, implicit and explicit negotiation included. Negotiation involves learning needs, teaching purpose and content, learning materials and methods; the way of evaluation; learning speed and learning partners. Typical problems can be located by teachers as well as students. Thus problems contribute to decision making and action taking. Evaluation by teachers and students follows accordingly, which is vital for subsequent negotiation.

In a word, promoting learner autonomy contributes to the realization of college English teaching objectives and to the cultivation of learners' life-long learning ability. Autonomy and Monitoring are not concepts of paradox, instead, they rely on each other and coordinate mutually, for proper monitoring on autonomous learning will improve college English teaching quality and learners' achievement.

Further research will go to empirical study in this field with the purpose of testing the effectiveness of autonomous learning based on Web, which will be of benefit to improvement of learning quality and teaching quality.

APPENDIX

Questionnaire for students

Questionnaire on Autonomous English Learning

Major _____

Age _____

Sex _____

1. Have you developed the habit of making an English study plan?

Yes No

2. Have you developed the habit of reading English materials online in your spare time ?
Yes No
 3. Have you developed the habit of previewing the English content you are going to learn via internet?
Yes No
 4. What is your method of English learning out of class?
Learn by internet
Do homework
Nothing special
 5. Do you learn English with the help of IT (Information Technology) ? If so, what kind of IT do you prefer to ?
Yes No
Internet TV Radio Newspaper Others
 6. How long do you spend on English learning online in your spare time every day ?(Hour)
Less than half an hour
0.5 to 1
More than 1
 7. What are the barriers against your autonomous English learning ?
Patience New words Boring topic Complex sentences
Limited time Others
 8. Are you good at applying IT to help English learning ?
Yes No Just so so
- What is your attitude toward autonomous English learning? (You can also show us your autonomous English learning plan)
- What are the difficulties in autonomous English learning?
- What help do you want to obtain from teachers and schools?

Question for teacher interview

1. Do you think autonomous learning is beneficial to students?
2. Does autonomous learning evaluation mechanism remains a constraining factor?
3. Do you think what teachers should do to help students concerning autonomous learning?
4. What hinders you in cultivating student autonomous learning ability?
5. What should school contribute to cultivate student autonomous learning ability?
6. What do you think are important in autonomous English learning?

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The Effect of Peer Interaction on Iranian EFL Learners' Self-efficacy in Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—The current study aimed to explore the effects of peer interaction on self-efficacy in vocabulary learning. The participants of the study included 64 EFL students in two intact classes at Takhti high school and Pardis language institute in Hamedan, Iran who were conveniently sampled to take part in the study. They aged 15-17 and were randomly positioned into one experimental and one control group. The participants were assigned as the experimental group and as control group 32 each. The experimental group received the intervention including *peer interaction* for example Word Expert Cards (Richek & McTague, 2008) while those in the control group had time to learn vocabularies and deepen their learning *individually* and researcher monitored and told them to memorize or paraphrase the vocabularies themselves individually. All the participants completed a self-efficacy questionnaire on vocabulary learning. The participants completed a questionnaire on self-efficacy learning twice, once before the treatment as the pretest and a second time after the treatment as the posttest. The data thus obtained were then analyzed through measuring the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) to examine the trajectories of change in the participants' self-efficacy over the treatment. The results indicated a significant increase in the self-efficacy indexes of the experimental group compared with the control group. The findings from the current study provide empirical evidence suggesting that through peer interaction it could be possible to enhance self-efficacy, which in turn may contribute to the development of language skills.

Index Terms—self-efficacy, peer interaction, control group, experimental group, ANCOVA

I. INTRODUCTION

Self-efficacy beliefs refer to the beliefs individuals hold about their ability to manage and carry out the courses of action required to deal with future circumstances (Bandura, 1986). In essence, self-efficacy is the assurance that individuals have in their own capabilities (Pajares, 2000).

People's beliefs in their efficacy are a key factor in self-development, successful adjustment and change (Bandura, 1990). Self-efficacy beliefs function via their influence on cognitive, motivational, affective and decisional processes, and cause individuals to think positively and hopefully or negatively and cynically, in self-enhancing or self-debilitating manners. Such beliefs have an effect on people's aims and aspirations and also on their level of motivation, determination and perseverance while encountering obstacles and hardships (Miller, 1995). They also form individuals' outcome expectations – whether they anticipate their endeavors to generate desirable results or undesirable ones. Furthermore, efficacy beliefs determine how environmental chances and barriers are perceived. In the face of obstacles, people with low efficacy are simply convinced of the vainness of attempt and quickly stop trying; on the contrary, those with high efficacy believe that difficulties are surmountable via self-development and perseverant endeavor. Facing impediments, they show resistance and are resilient to hardship (Bandura, 1986).

What has come out from these studies is in concordance with Pajares's (2000) contentions that students with high levels of self-efficacy beliefs move toward difficult tasks as obstacles to be surmounted rather than as menaces to be shunned. They have greater intrinsic motivation, select challenging purposes and keep strong commitment to them, and while facing a failure, they increase and continue their endeavors (Bandura, 1977).

Based on the prominent role that students' self-efficacy plays in their academic achievements and success, it seems necessary to seek for the factors that may influence students' efficacy beliefs. Peer interaction seems to be among those variables that may affect students' efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1977). The contention is that higher-interaction enhances higher learning skills leading to higher levels of language proficiency (Renner, 1996).

Nowadays, many teachers based on Vygotskian approach have turned their classrooms to group of learners. Group works and evaluation can help students search and rebuild new science through a process of interactions and it is the knowledge that leads to new viewpoints. By implementing peer groups, learners are in the situation in which the feedback is given and self-efficacy is changed provided which may have a good deal of improvement in vocabulary learning. (Bargh & Schul, 1980). So, classroom interaction creates a situation for students to practice the language use incidentally and at the same time increase their self-efficacy in vocabulary learning (Bandura, 1979).

Some studies for example Pajares and Schunk, (1984), have shown that there are both pedagogic and social benefits for most learners learn in small groups. For example, in the field of first language (L1) education, studies have shown that learners working in groups which are exposed to a greater variety of viewpoints create new ways of understanding and develop greater critical thinking skills. One of these new ways might be on how words are acquired (Nation, 2008).

Vocabulary is obviously a very important element within a language as the majority of meaning is carried out lexically (Hunt & Beglar, 2001 cited in Richards & Renandya, 2002). Learning a language cannot be diminished to, of course, only learning vocabulary but, it is also true that no matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way (as cited in Mashhadia & Jamalifar, 2015).

Yet no study to date in Iran has investigated the effects of peer interaction on EFL learner's self-efficacy in vocabulary learning.

A. *Statement of the Problem*

The ability in knowing words and word meaning and also the way to gain that ability efficiently is accepted as important element in reading and listening comprehension, speaking and writing fluency.

Vocabulary learning is usually the biggest problem a language learner face with (Nation, 1990; Thornbury, 2002). Hence, vocabulary acquisition is currently receiving a great deal of attention in second language pedagogy and research (Decarrico, in Celce Murcia, 2001). But it is still a problematic issue how learners can learn vocabulary efficiently or how it can best be taught. The majority of students fail to understand the new terminologies that they are exposed to (Brown, 2007).

Many researchers (e.g., Nation & Chung, 2009) have attempted to develop new techniques and explore new teaching methods for facilitating and enhancing vocabulary learning and retention. Finding efficient methods to serve these purposes have become the major concern of vocabulary specialist and teaching experts in second/foreign language pedagogy.

The building of learners' self believes is a subject that has attracted much attention in education in recent years. Nearly two decades of research has revealed that self-beliefs are strong influential factors on academic achievements causing a new wave of attention to self-beliefs (Pajares, 2000). "Of all beliefs, self-efficacy is the most influential one which plays a powerful role in determining the choices people make, the effort they will persevere in the face of challenge, and the degree of anxiety or confidence they will bring to the task at hand" (Bandura, 1986, p. 397). It is this perceived self-efficacy that helps explain why people's behaviors differ widely even when they have similar knowledge and skills (as cited in Heidari, Izadi, & Ahmadian, 2012).

So it might be a question whether peer interaction affects self-efficacy of students' in vocabulary learning. No specific research has hitherto been done on the effect of peer interaction on EFL's self-efficacy in vocabulary learning.

B. *Significance of the Study*

Lapkin (2010) believes that people who work in peers perform better than those working alone in vocabulary learning and that learning vocabulary in peers is so meaningful and unforgettable. Zimmerman (2007) believes that learning in peers helps students to construct new knowledge and in vocabulary learning helps students to use more strategies. (Schmitt, 2013).

The results of this study also may help second or foreign language teachers to gain a comprehensive picture of the nature of Self-efficacy beliefs and peer interaction in Language learning and teaching might be facilitative in learners' vocabulary acquisition. Also Iranian language learners can benefit from the outcome of this research by the virtue of the fact that they can resort to alternative ways of learning vocabularies which might ensure long term retention and retrieval of lexical items. The outcome of this study can help foreign language teachers to gain a better understanding of the nature of Self-efficacy beliefs and their impacts on learning and remembering vocabularies.

C. *Purpose of the Study*

This study looks into the effect of peer interaction on Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy in vocabulary learning. The objective of the study look for related objective is exploiting the current level of self-efficacy beliefs of Iranian EFL students by carrying out the Self-efficacy questionnaire and to finding out if peer interaction affects on self-efficacy beliefs of Iranian EFL students.

D. *Research Question*

RQ: Does Peer Interaction have any significant effects on Iranian EFL Learner's Self-Efficacy in Vocabulary learning?

E. *Research Null Hypothesis*

H0: Peer interaction does not have a significant effect on Self-efficacy beliefs in vocabulary learning.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Theoretical Background

1. Social Cognitive Theory

Self-efficacy is hypothesized to affect individuals' task choices, efforts, persistence, and achievement (Bandura, 1977; Schunk, 1986). Compared with learners who doubt their capabilities, those who feel self-efficacious about learning or performing a task competently are apt to participate more readily, work harder, persist longer when they encounter difficulties, and achieve higher levels information used to appraise self-efficacy is acquired from four primary sources: actual performances, vicarious experiences and physiological reactions. Students' own performances offer the most reliable guides for gauging self-efficacy; effects of the other sources are more variable (Bandura, 1986). In general, successes raise and failures lower self-efficacy, although an occasional failure (success) after some successes (failures) is unlikely to have much impact (as cited in Zimmerman, 2000).

2. Role of self-efficacy in Academic Motivation

There is evidence (Bandura, 1997) that self-efficacious students participate more readily, work harder, persist longer, and have fewer adverse emotional reactions when they encounter difficulties than do those who doubt their capabilities.

In terms of choice of activities, self-efficacious students undertake difficult and challenging tasks more readily than do inefficient students. Bandura and Schunk (1981) found that students' mathematical self-efficacy beliefs were predictive of their choice of engaging in subtraction problems rather than in a different type of task: The higher the children's sense of efficacy, the greater their choice of the arithmetic activity. Zimmerman and Kitsantas (1999) also found self-efficacy to be highly correlated with students' rated intrinsic interest in a motoric learning task as well as in a writing revision task. Furthermore, measures of self-efficacy correlate significantly with students' choice of majors in college, success in course work, and perseverance (as cited in Zimmerman, 2000).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the study included 64 intermediate EFL male students in two intact classes at Takhti high school and Pardis English Language Institute in Hamedan, Iran who were randomly sampled to take part in the study.

It should be noted that due to time and cost constraints only sixty four participants involved in the present study. However, enough care was exercised to provide a safe, positive and instructive atmosphere for the subjects.

The population of the present study was conveniently sampled. This can be explained in the light of the fact that due to small sample size (64 participants), an easily accessible or volunteer sample population, and the greater convenience of time and cost constraints for a single researcher, as documented by previous studies (Bryman, 1988; Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddie, 2003), this sampling technique was used.

During the research, the researcher tried to conduct the research in a way that the participants were not aware of the study since it could result in different reactions in participants. The participants aged 15-17 and were randomly positioned into one experimental and one control group.

B. Instrumentation

In this study two self-efficacy tests were used as the pre-test and post-test. The Persian questionnaire of self-efficacy beliefs that is Adapted of the General Self-efficacy Scale which is made by Nezami, Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1996) was used.

The reliability of this questionnaire has been substantiated in different studies by (Heidari & Izadi, 2012) and (Rasekh & Ranjbar, 2003).

C. Materials

Students worked on vocabularies from Learning to read English for pre-University Students (Birjandi, Maftoon, Sharabyani, Nikopoor, 2001). All of the students covered the same book. Vocabularies are extracted from eight units of the book. This book is taught to pre-university students in Iran and English tests for university entrance exam.

D. Procedure

First of all the participants were randomly assigned to an experimental group and a control group. Then, all the participants answered the self-efficacy-beliefs questionnaire as a pre-test to capture the initial differences among them regarding their initial level of self-efficacy belief.

Having conducted the pre-test, the researcher embarked on teaching and giving treatments to experimental group. 100 vocabularies were chosen from the book. Every session, 10 vocabularies were taught to the participants. These vocabularies were selected from pre-university English course book by (Birjandi, Maftoon, Sharabyani, Nikopoor, 2001).

In every session the researcher put the 10 vocabularies on the board and taught them by paraphrasing and exemplifying and contextualizing the vocabularies. Up to here the treatment was the same for both control and experimental group. But then in experimental group teacher helped the students to discuss the new words or use other techniques in vocabulary learning in **peers** for example: Word Expert Cards (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Mann, 2011) in which:

- Each student in the group took the responsibility for thoroughly learning a few words then teaching them to peers.
- Each student took 2-5 words from a new unit or chapter.

- Each “word expert” constructed a card for each vocabulary word using a teacher-approved rough draft of the word’s definition, part of speech and an illustration.
- After a “word expert” is finished with his cards, the student presented his cards to a classmate and they exchanged cards.

The teaching period continued for ten sessions, every session one and half hours for both groups.

Students in control group had time to learn vocabularies and deepen their learning **individually** and researcher monitored and told them to memorize or paraphrase the vocabularies themselves individually.

After giving treatment, the post-test was given to the participants. This test aimed at measuring the level of self-efficacy beliefs in both experimental group and the control group. The test included the self-efficacy beliefs questionnaire.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Descriptive Statistics

Tables 4.1 summarizes the basic descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation as well as Skewness and Kurtosis values for the pre-test and post-test in this study for both experimental and control groups.

TABLE 4.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP

Statistics		Pre.Exp	Pre.Cont	Post.Exp	Post.Cont
N	Valid	32	32	32	32
	Missing	32	32	32	32
Mean		59.0000	55.2188	78.0938	63.9688
Std. Deviation		10.47270	4.52758	8.94557	5.36106
Variance		109.677	20.499	80.023	28.741
Skewness		-.525	-.101	-.063	-.041
Std. Error of Skewness		.414	.414	.414	.414
Kurtosis		.070	-.907	-.830	-.799
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.809	.809	.809	.809
Minimum		35.00	47.00	60.00	55.00
Maximum		77.00	63.00	94.00	75.00

Table 4-1 summarizes the descriptive statistics for the groups in the pretest and the posttest including the means, standard deviations, maximum and minimum scores and Skewness and Kurtosis values. As the table indicates, the Skewness and Kurtosis values were between ± 2 , which implied that the data were descriptively normal. This normality is also reflected in the normal distribution curves and box plots for outlier and extreme scores below.

B. Testing Normality Assumptions

1. Testing Normality of the Distribution of Test Scores

To assess the normality of test scores, Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics and Shapiro-Wilk statistics were used.

TABLE 4.2
NORMALITY OF PRE-TEST AND POSTTEST SCORES IN THE GROUPS

group		Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
pre	experimental	.154	32	.051	.958	32	.241
	control	.111	32	.200*	.960	32	.269
pos	experimental	.090	32	.200*	.977	32	.720
	control	.120	32	.200*	.965	32	.383

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

Table 4.2 shows the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk statistics for the pretest and posttest scores. Here, a non-significant Sig. value of more than .05 is indicative of normality. In our study, the Sig. values obtained in both cases were larger than .05, suggesting the assumption of normality for our pretest and posttest.

2. Homogeneity of Error Variances

To check this assumption, Leven’s Statistic is used.

TABLE 4.3
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

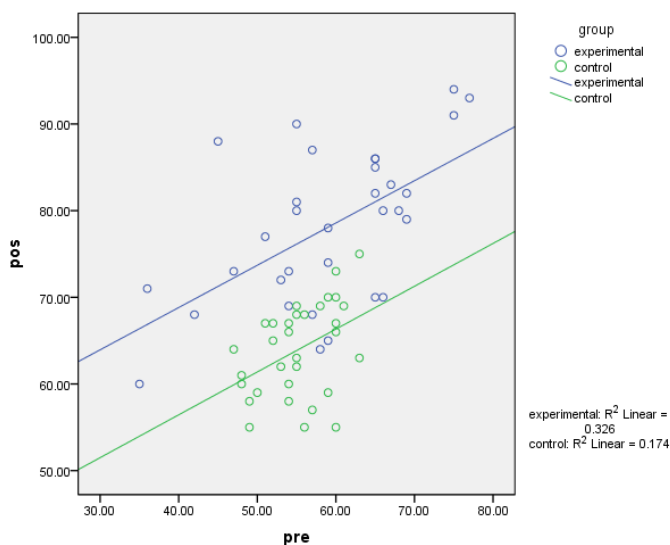
Dependent Variable: pos			
F	df1	df2	Sig.
3.587	1	62	.063

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.
a. Design: Intercept + pre + group

As Table 4.3 indicates, the Leven's value obtained was $[f(1,62)= 3.58, Sig=.063]$ which was larger than the cut-off value of .05, implying that the equality of error variances assumption was not violated.

3. Linearity of Regression Lines

To check this assumption a grouped scatterplot of the covariate, post-test scores of the dependent variable and independent variable was plotted. As Figure 4.7 below shows, there was a linear relationship between the dependent variable (scores of post-test) and the covariate (scores of pre-test) for our groups.



4. Homogeneity of Regression Slopes

TABLE 4.4
BETWEEN SUBJECT FACTORS

group	Value Label	N
1.00	experimental	32
2.00	control	32

TABLE 4.5
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Dependent Variable: pos					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	4157.115 ^a	3	1385.705	34.544	.000
Intercept	1255.981	1	1255.981	31.311	.000
group	27.152	1	27.152	.677	.414
pre	516.730	1	516.730	12.882	.001
group * pre	.023	1	.023	.001	.981
Error	2406.822	60	40.114		
Total	329472.000	64			
Corrected Total	6563.937	63			

a. R Squared = .633 (Adjusted R Squared = .615)

The final assumption (homogeneity of regression slopes) investigates the relationship between the covariate and the dependent variable for each of our groups to check if there is any interaction between the covariate and the treatment. In the output obtained in Table 4.5, the value obtained for the interaction term was $[f(1,60)= .001, Sig= .981]$, which indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was not violated.

Now that the normality assumptions have been checked, we can proceed with the ANCOVA analysis to find out the differences between our groups.

C. Testing the Research Hypothesis

The main ANCOVA results are presented in Table 4.6.

TABLE 4.6
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable:pos

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	4157.093 ^a	2	2078.546	52.679	.000	.633
Intercept	2255.534	1	2255.534	57.165	.000	.484
pre	964.843	1	964.843	24.453	.000	.286
group	2281.880	1	2281.880	57.833	.000	.487
Error	2406.845	61	39.456			
Total	329472.000	64				
Corrected Total	6563.937	63				

a. R Squared = .633 (Adjusted R Squared = .621)

Here we wanted to know whether the groups were significantly different in terms of their scores on the dependent variable (post-test) while controlling for possible effects of the covariate (pretest). As the table shows, the value obtained for the Group was [$f(1,64) = 57.83, P = .00$ partial $\eta^2 = .487$]. This could imply that groups differed significantly. Therefore, the results *were* significant. That is, there was a significant difference between the self-efficacy clause for subjects in the Control Group and Experimental Group, after controlling for the possible effects of the pretest.

Another piece of information which can be of interest is the effect size, as indicated by the corresponding **Partial Eta Squared** value. The value in this case was .478 that was a great effect size according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines. This value also shows how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable. We can convert the partial eta square value to a percentage by multiplying the value by 100. In our study, this explains for 47.8 percent of the variance.

D. Estimated Marginal Means

Table 4.7 shows the mean differences between the performances of the groups

TABLE 4.7
ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS

Pairwise Comparisons

Dependent Variable:pos

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
experimental	control	12.276 [*]	1.614	.000	9.048	15.504
control	experimental	-12.276 [*]	1.614	.000	-15.504	-9.048

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

As the table reflects, the mean differences between the groups (MD= 12.2778) was significant at $P = 0.00$ which pointed to a better performance of the experimental group.

V. CONCLUSION

The study reported here aimed at examining whether peer interaction would significantly affect EFL learner's self-efficacy in vocabulary learning. The results of the study indicated that in the experimental group, in contrast to the control group, there was a considerable self-efficacy enhancement. As the results of analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) indicated, the null hypothesis of the study was rejected, and it can be concluded that peer interaction can significantly contribute to learners' self-efficacy belief in vocabulary learning.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study has some implications for Iranian EFL teachers, students and curriculum developers. As it was shown that peer interaction could have positive impact on Self-efficacy beliefs in vocabulary acquisition.

First teachers should find out that learning does not happen easily and diversity of elements must be carefully taken into account. So, it is highly recommended that students must have different opportunities to successfully enhance their Self-efficacy.

Here, working in peers provides ample opportunities for learners to enhance their self-efficacy in vocabulary learning by creating flash cards and practicing with each other.

Moreover, the findings of the study imply that students should not only rely on themselves to improve their level of self-efficacy but also should accommodate their learning tasks in group activities which give them more opportunities to be more self-efficacious in vocabulary learning.

Textbook writers and course developers should also understand the importance of peer interaction and cooperative learning in self-efficacy enhancement in successful acquisition of lexical items. Therefore, it is highly recommended that lexical items be presented in a cooperative and collaborative context.

APPENDIX. SELF-EFFICACY QUESTIONNAIRE (PERSIAN ADAPTATION) AS POSTTEST AND PRETEST

نام: _____
نام خانوادگی: _____
کلاس: _____
گروه: _____

لطفا سوالات زیر را به دقت بخوانید و یکی از چهار گزینه را انتخاب کنید.

1_ اگر به اندازه کافی تلاش کنم همیشه قادر به حل مشکلات سخت می باشم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

2_ اگر کسی با من مخالفت کند ، می توانم راه و روشه هایی برای رسیدن به آنچه می خواهم را پیدا کنم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

3_ به راحتی می توانم اهدافم را دنبال کنم و به مقصودم برسم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

4_ مطمئن هستم که می توانم بطور موثری با مسائل غیر مترقبه روبرو شوم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

5_ بخاطر ابتکار و شایستگی ام ، می دانم چطور با موقعیت های غیر قابل پیش بینی مقابله کنم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

6_ اگر به اندازه کافی تلاش کنم می توانم اکثر مشکلات را حل کنم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

7_ در برخورد با مشکلات می توانم خونسردی و آرامش خود را حفظ کنم چون به توانایی درونی خود اعتماد دارم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

8_ وقتی با مشکلات روبرو می شوم معمولا می توانم چندین راه حل پیدا کنم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

9_ اگر در درس بیفتم یا گرفتاری برایم پیش بیاید معمولا می توانم چاره ای بیابم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

10_ مهم نیست چه در سر راهم قرار گیرد، معمولا قادر به رفع یا حل آن می باشم.
اصلا صحیح نیست کمی صحیح است تا حدی صحیح است کاملا صحیح

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A Survey on the Critical Consciousness of English Major MA Supervisors

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Abstract—This research is addressed to the critical consciousness of English major MA supervisors, employing the approach of critical pedagogy. This research includes three dimensions of teachers' beliefs about critical consciousness, corresponding behaviors in the class and reflections after the class. The methods and data were collected by face-to-face interviews and classroom observations from three English major MA supervisors. The research findings can be summarized as the following respects: Firstly, three English major MA supervisors all have a good command of critical pedagogy and critical consciousness. Secondly, two English major MA supervisors bring the awareness to the class topics in the real social life, and pay much attention to the sociopolitical themes. Thirdly, only one supervisor pays close attention to the communicating with students and encouraged discussions, while two supervisors mainly adopt the teaching process of teacher-centeredness. Finally, Three English major MA supervisors do reflect after the class and their reflections do not guide directly their next teachings. What's more, their reflections are not their own behaviors, but their students' learning behaviors.

Index Terms—English major, MA supervisors, critical consciousness, critical pedagogy

I. INTRODUCTION

Our society needs more all-round talented young people. English majors' critical ability is shortest piece of the cast and most of students have already shown the critical thinking absence symptom. Therefore, cultivating English majors' critical ability has been a hot topic in the field of English language teaching. This symptom can be solved through classroom observation. The reason why English majors tend to be lower in critical abilities is that most of English majors' teachers lack critical abilities. It can also be said that teachers' teaching style determines students' studying style, studying efficiency and rate of progress. Cultivating students' critical abilities means investigating teachers' critical consciousness first. The improvement of critical ability calls for the critical and reflective teachers. An eligible teacher requires the new standards with critical and reflective. This practice needs to be adopted the critical pedagogy by teachers. Critical pedagogy is not a theory, but a way of doing learning and teaching (Akbari 2008). Its aim is to recognize and critique the historical and sociopolitical context of schooling and develop pedagogical practices that not only change the nature of schooling, but also merge into the society. Therefore, this pedagogy is not only the teaching and learning of knowledge, but also the transmitting of moral standards and the developing of a person's character in the whole society. The purpose of implementing critical pedagogy is to make a person become a holistic person. Language learning not only pays attention to the way of communication, but also focuses on the practice which constructs and is constructed by the ways that language learners' cognition. The critical consciousness in the English majors' teaching means not only to learn the rules and culture of language but also contributes to the formation of the critical thinking, which brings about the growth of every learner's intellectual, emotional, social, physical, artistic, creative and spiritual potentials.

II. AN OVERVIEW OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY AND CRITICAL CONSCIOUSNESS

A. Development of Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy, inheriting from Apple's terminology "Critical Educational Studies" (1990), focuses on the purpose and the process of teaching, which is developed by Freire (1993). Critical pedagogy is one of main components of critical applied linguistics. Freire integrated with critical theory, a philosophy of education, pedagogy, and social change to develop critical pedagogy. Critical pedagogy does not accept the hierarchical relationships between teachers and students. It proposes a kind of relationship of cooperation. Freire (1993) points out that critical pedagogy is likewise critical of the traditional banking education in which the teacher deposited knowledge in students rather than promoting agency and learning through interacting with the world. The activities of critical consciousness include reading, dialogue, reflection, and action. The key to cultivating critical consciousness is to make learners share with a new self-understanding and self-cognition in historical, cultural and political contexts.

Different scholars have different views about critical pedagogy. Canagarajah (2005) assumes that it is not a set of ideas but a way of doing learning and teaching. Freire (1993) suggests that critical pedagogy aims at critiquing existing educational institutions and practices, and afterward transformation of education and society. Akbari (2008) proposes

that critical pedagogy focuses on these questions of social justice and social change through education. Crawford-Lange (1981) insists that the purpose of critical pedagogy is to develop learners' critical consciousness by presenting learners' situation to them as a problem so that they can perceive, reflect, and act on it. Hence, the arrangement and design of curriculum should pay attention to the life situation of the learners and the context of the educational situation. Giroux (1983) believes that educational systems indicate the societal systems within which they operate and people have discrimination and marginalization in the field of race, gender, or social class in the social systems, and the same biases are generated in educational systems. Therefore, we adopt critical pedagogy to unveil the realities of social, political and cultural power by indicating whose focuses are functioned through the existing forms of education. Critical pedagogy starts out the traditional education and is generally considered to be the banking concept of education (Freire 1993).

To achieve a form of integrative and transformational education and improve the banking education, Freire (1993) proposes the model of problem-posing education. In the model, In critical dialogue, students can better identify the issues from their daily life instead of solving questions from textbooks and life experiences of students are greatly paid attention to, through which teachers and students can consider each other as sources of knowledge. The problem-posing learning is regarded as a developmental process and can gradually acquire knowledge. It is the product of a challenge rather than a preexisting element of facts. Therefore, learners can wrest the initiative their learning and acquire critical view of their learning and social recognition. By regularly contacting learners' life issues in the context of learning, learners can make up their own minds in view of the learning from inside and outside classroom. Freire (1973) points out that the problem-posing learning aims at developing critical consciousness when the presentation of students' own existential situation is regarded as a problem to be addressed in dialogue.

The foreign language classroom guided by critical pedagogy is a place in which learners can make use of new ways to communicate and recognize the world. People's perception of the world may be influenced by his or her world outlook. The practice of language learning and teaching is intrinsically constructed with the political and social factors. This practice is closely related to the real life and hence language learning is regarded as ideology, not just system. Language learning is the dynamic process of language use and it is also the process of mutual penetration and influence in all the social, cultural, and political factors. As Pennycook (1999) points out, language teaching and learning focuses on the relationship between language and social change and it can be connected with the purpose of guiding learners to construe why things are the way they are and how they got to be that way. Norton & Toohey (2010) claim that language is not only a way of communication, but also a practice that can construct and can be constructed by the ways language learners construe themselves, the social surroundings and the possibilities for the future change. Suppose that language classroom become a place in which learners can recognize and construct their own identities and their own social relationship, language learning is the process of being omnipotent. Just as it should be, language teachers can play a pivotal role in empowering students to be more autonomous.

B. Core Ideas of Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy pays more attention to the educational process. It not only focuses on the knowledge itself but also the educational process such as to promote learners' ability about how to learn and how to be critical. To begin with, teachers should interest social problems and provide learners with more chances to think critically and embody high efficiency in real life. Secondly, learners are expected to take appropriate actions to reconstruct their life and social conditions combining with teachers. Learners have a lot of freedom to raise questions and tend to be skeptics about the social phenomenon. Finally, learners can describe the content of discussion in details, identify the phenomenon, personalize the phenomenon, and discuss the alternatives of the phenomenon. Teachers can bring about the social reality and construct relevant knowledge of the world and learners can form the ability to reflect on the surrounding in which they live critically. Critical pedagogy focuses on the social justice and constructs practices capable of changing social relations to some extent in the process of educational practices.

Teachers and learners play an important role in critical pedagogy and they act as different roles in the problem-posing model. Teachers take part in the process of knowing as a learner and make great contribution to their ideas, perceptions and experiences in the dialogical process. The teachers' roles are raising questions while students have the right to make a decision. Freire (1993) looks upon teachers as learners and learners as teachers, and also teachers act as students and students act as teachers. He proposes a structural character that influences the resolution of their roles. Teachers can communicate with students by means of specific culture and social knowledge, which contributes to reflect critically on all things they are learning about. Learners can take appropriate actions to adapt the social transformations. Teachers should be a leader in the classroom, but not controller. They should be authoritative but not authoritarian. Wink (1999) claims that teacher roles in classroom are to produce a pertinent position for discussions, to raise challenging questions for learners' musing and to facilitate students to make appropriate arrangement. Teachers and learners are required to be cooperative learning. Learners are decision makers rather than passive recipients of knowledge. Teachers are not the authority of knowledge and they do not know everything. Teachers can provide rich and various materials, make learners understand how the learning process can be facilitated, and show learners about their own learning experiences. Actually, critical pedagogy is a dialogue between teachers and learners. Dialogue is regarded as the root of critical pedagogy because it indicates that learners are active and reflective in the processing. Dialogue encourages students make voices bravely and requires teachers to talk appropriately. Dialogue requiring the critical thinking can bring about critical reflections. Without dialogue there is no communication, and without communication, there is no real learning.

C. *Main Tenets of Critical Consciousness*

It is generally believed that critical is defined as sharing with the characteristic of being decisive or crucial, or in respect of a state of emergency. Consciousness refers to the state of being conscious, which includes a sense of one's personal or collective identity, covering the attitudes, beliefs and sensitivities processed by an individual or group. Therefore, critical consciousness mainly refers to a level of consciousness that is characterized by a state of in-depth understanding about the world and the resulting freedom from oppression. Likewise it is defined as learners' ability to first perceive social, political and economic oppression and then to take action against the oppressive elements of the society. Freire (1993) believes that critical consciousness is commonly regarded as a kind of measure of completing actions or reflection upon the real life. Critical consciousness requires learners to query how the dominant power has influenced their perspectives about their professional orientation and probe how the taking up of the dominance within their professional orientation can be keeping the dominant power differences. In language learning, critical consciousness emphasizes the ability to accomplish and inquiry the reproduction of socio-cultural and historical injustice, as well as power relationships in one's own culture, the target culture and global cultures.

The main tenets of critical consciousness cover the identity reflection, the analysis of power and the inquiry about assumptions. Likewise it stands for the ability to both critically reflect upon and act upon one's sociopolitical environment. The main tenets of critical consciousness center on reflection and action for transformation. Freire (1993) defines critical consciousness as the action and reflection of people upon their world in order to transform it. Reflection and action should work together as the part of the process in recognition and transformation of social issues because reflection without action is verbalism while action without reflection is activism. Critical consciousness promotes learners' confidence in the power of their thoughts and stimulates their actions for dialogue to consider their life and learning experiences. And finally it capacitates learners to take actions for changes to their contexts.

Freire (1973) describes the development of critical consciousness as a five-stage model. The first stage belongs to a semi-transitive state and in this stage, individuals are controlled fully by survival. The next stage is relevant to transitivity of consciousness. Individuals can reflect upon themselves and their roles and every opportunity, which helps them to dialogue with others and with society. The third stage stands at a state of naïve transitivity. People can communicate each other efficiently. This stage is characterized by an oversimplification of both personal and social problems. Individuals reach the state of critical consciousness at length in the final stage. The awakening of critical awareness arises from educational endeavor and approving historical conditions. The critical transitivity is the highest stage in the development of critical consciousness in which people can examine their conditions in term of various critical measures. That is to say, people have critical consciousness. People are fully aware of the importance and necessity of being transforming and owning critical consciousness. In this stage, people can modify the surroundings and unite surroundings with the social factors. As a matter of fact, critical consciousness signifies a dynamic relationship between critical thinking and critical action. Critical consciousness covers these tenets, such as rights consciousness, dissocialization and self-organization.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

Critical consciousness is about the development of critical awareness of how people's personal identity, ideologies and experiences are influenced by sociopolitical factors. Accordingly, this research is mainly addressed to the relations with practice society and the interactions between teachers and students. It intends to explore the questions about the teachers' knowledge about critical consciousness, teachers cultivate students' critical consciousness in class and teachers reflect on the teaching of critical consciousness. The first question investigates teachers' ideologies and teachers' actions. The second question inquires whether teachers' topics of each class are correlated to the society, politics, or culture and whether teachers and students stand at an equal and dialogical position. And the last question examines the reflection about the class, the performances of teachers and students and the reflection about how to solve the problems in class.

The three subjects of this research are from School of Foreign Languages at a certain university in Chongqing. They have gained Doctor degree and have been studied abroad for years. And the subject classes are for MA graduate students, who have already equipped with English-language skills or competence. Teacher A is teaching Philosophy of language for graduate students. Teacher B is giving a lecture about Second Language Acquisition. Teacher C is delivering the course of Cognitive Linguistics.

The three teachers are conducted by individual interview, aiming at exploring teachers' knowledge about critical consciousness, teachers' reflections upon class and teachers' choices about teaching materials and themes. Classroom observation is employed to investigate the performances of teachers and students during the teaching. Class observations last for three weeks and each time observes three periods. The main purpose of classroom observation is to acquire some general knowledge of classroom interactions and dialogues and teaching contents.

IV. RESULT ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. *Discussion about Teachers' Beliefs in Critical Consciousness*

Three teachers all adopt teaching method of critical consciousness. However, they have a big difference in

understanding critical consciousness. Teacher A assumes that critical consciousness requires reading original materials critically. For graduate students, only by reading many original works, they will become professional. This way can cultivate learners' critical consciousness. Teacher A asks his graduate students to make reading report every week. He believes that reading report is not only the way of understanding the original materials, but also the best path to improve personal critical views. Reading report is the basic requirement and task for graduate students, which is conducive to cultivate them to read critically and think critically. By reading abundant original works, graduate students can have a good command of knowledge of philosophy of language. And by critical reading report, graduate students can know better which principle or idea need to be improved.

Teacher B thinks that the cultivating of critical consciousness needs a long process in Second Language Acquisition. This process is all the same dynamic. Teachers B proposes that graduate students, especially foreign language learners who contact with foreign languages and cultures frequently, should roundly observe the world critically and differently. Second language acquisition is complex and multifaceted phenomenon. It means many different things to many people. He believes that teachers from different courses give learners all kinds of information, so learners' criticalness shows a great difference. Learners should have the ability to reflect and think what are important and what are insignificant. Teachers B points out that graduate students should learn to reflect and think critically, however, the cultivating of critical consciousness requires a long process.

Teacher C proposes that language is not an autonomous cognitive faculty and knowledge of language arises out of language use. He believes that language learning is not only to learn language itself, but also the society. Language is closely related to the social life. Critical consciousness is an important part of cognitive ability of human being. The reason why most graduate students lack of critical consciousness is that they are not aware of the importance of being critical and they do not read a large number of books critically. Teacher C emphasizes that the cultivating of critical consciousness require knowing more about the frontier research and only this way can our graduate students bring forward more new ideas. To be critical means to hold skepticism while we are hearing the common sense. We should form the habits of being used to asking why these matters occurred like this. Suppose that we lack of the critical spirit, we would literally be lost.

Integrating one's personal beliefs into one's teaching is teaching ultimate objective with personalization. This kind of teaching way should encourage other teachers realize their potential critically. We found that three teachers have a good command of critical pedagogy and they have similar understanding about critical consciousness. To begin with, they all propose that critical pedagogy in the language teaching and learning occupies an important place. Secondly, three teachers all believe that the aim of critical consciousness is to arouse learners to distinguish what is valuable and what is unimportant. Milner (2003) argues that critical consciousness is an ever-evolving and ongoing process, which is influenced by the social context. Teacher A considers critical consciousness to be a kind of ability of selectivity and adaptability for reading materials. Social context can change the adaptability of one's reading. As a matter of fact, critical consciousness is equivalent to critical reading and critical thinking. The development of critical consciousness does not come about in a onetime awakening. On the contrary, it displays an ongoing process of various avenues of insightful moments. Teacher B believes that it requires a continuous process to develop critical consciousness, which includes critical thinking, critical learning and critical reflection. Teacher C generally considers critical consciousness to be skeptical and to question the common sense. He believes that when learners and teachers are becoming critic, they will constantly come up with new ideas and finally find new research themes.

B. Discussion about Sociopolitical Related Factors

By classroom observation every week, the three teachers demonstrate the sociopolitical related factors in varying degrees. Teacher A's teaching themes mainly focus on some understanding of classical documents and have less to do with the real life and recent political topics. When we interview Teacher A about the beliefs of critical consciousness, he really points out that language changes in the specific social context and language is the major bond of people's communication in politics and society. Teacher B mainly pays attention to the social-cultural factors in his class and believes that these factors can greatly influence language acquisition and learners' thinking. His class displays some typical social problems, the recent news report, related to social factors, such as ethnic, culture, identity, and gender, etc. Teacher C's understanding of critical consciousness is the most comprehensive one He shows a deep comprehension about critical education because the relationship between language and cognition is one of his favourite themes. He states that language learning covers mental process and information processing. This process includes awareness, perception, reasoning and judgment. Nearly all of his class topics are related to the society and the formation of language. He focuses on how language structures in term of the social factors.

C. Discussion about Teaching Dialogue

Teacher A adopts the problem-posing teaching. His class is divided into three parts. The first part is students' presentations. After the presentations, Teacher A has a discussion to comment the students' presentations. After the discussion, Teacher A gives a brief summary and some suggestions for students which based on the teaching contents. The second part is about introduction of classical documents. This part presents some dialogues between teachers and students. These dialogues are based on certain social contexts or students' experiences and understandings about life. Teacher A gives a summary at the end of class. Therefore, we can conclude that dialogue teaching is to learn the amount

of sacrifice to the pursuit of quality learning.

Teacher B has two periods. The first period is students' presentation and the second period is his lecturing. Teacher B pays more attention to the dialogue between teachers and students. Teacher B gives more presentation time to his students and he asks each student to prepare it carefully. Each presentation lasts for one period. After that, comments will be given students to have a heated discussion. Teacher B also gives some comments on the content of presentation. And sometimes Teacher B would like to put up with some arguing problems to have a discussion together.

Teacher C pays attention to social, cultural, and political related topics most. He has a good command of critical pedagogy and critical consciousness. However, he seldom communicates with his students and hardly raises any questions. There is no dialogue and discussion in class.

According to Pennycook's (1990) two criteria, one is that all knowledge is closely connected with social, cultural, political, and historical, the other is that teachers should neglect the dominant position and can dialogue efficiently with students. The two criteria he proposes are essentially indispensable. Teacher A's topics are based on the introduction of classical documents to draw his own understanding or ideas. He employs PowerPoint to display his teaching contents. Teacher A's teaching contents are the same as the traditional teaching. He assumes that discussion can help them deeper understand some main ideas of classical documents. The purpose of teaching is to pose problems and to have targeted discussions. Teacher A's teaching connect classical documents with learners' experiences.

Teacher B's class is more close to critical consciousness. He lists lots of social-cultural related topics. Presentation is one of most interesting part in Teacher B's class and it reflects learner's motivation or interests, which can trigger them to deepen the related discussion. In the comments part, students can freely ask questions, give comments, and discuss with each other. Presentation requires students to collect the related materials and information and select the valuable information to analyze. Students can learn some course related information by themselves. The whole class displays the equal and dialogical relationship. Students learn not only from teachers, but also from themselves, from his classmates. And likewise Teacher B is a participant who learns from her students and finds out what students need and interest.

Teacher C demonstrates many examples in daily life and social focuses to students. Teacher C is a critic in class. He reminds his students that you should not believe what I have taught and give your own thinking depending on the situation. Although Teacher C employs critical pedagogy well and knows about critical consciousness deeply, he still adopts the traditional teaching methods. Teacher C's class focuses on the recent research, the new reports, and the latest policies but seldom dialogues. Teacher C's class does not agree with the requirements of critical pedagogy even if he has talked the sociopolitical factors. The purpose of advocating sociopolitical themes is to cultivate students' awareness of the current situation in society. But it requires dialogues and discussions to encourage students to reflect their real life and experiences and work out the way to transform the inequality situations.

D. Discussion about Teachers Reflections after Class

In more ways than one, critical consciousness refers to the action and reflection of people upon their world or experiences. Reflection and action can be interpreted not only ourselves but also by a range of significant others and they should be combined together as the part of the teaching and learning process. We would like to get to know better teachers reflect on their teaching about how they evaluate the class and how they arrange the class. And teachers' reflections can be investigated whether they take actual actions after reflecting.

Teacher A explains that the purpose of presentation is to cultivate and improve students teaching and scientific research abilities. He believes that most graduate students will be teachers and scientific researcher in the future. Teacher A believes that presentation has two purposes, one is that students can share what they have read recently and what they have focused. The other is to cultivate students' teaching skills and improve students' level of scientific research. Teacher A hopes that students can make full use of what we are talking in class. And Teacher A focuses on the importance of dialogue and discussions. He concludes that discussion will help students understand the theory by relating own experiences and listening others' experiences.

Teacher B intends to have more interactions with students. In the meantime, students can share their research focus combined with this course, which can be helpful for teachers to get to know students' learning experiences. Teacher B does not provide the fixed topic for the presentation. He believes that everyone has his own interest and different research domains, and he hopes students to link this course to their domains. After the presentation, there was a comments part. Teacher B believes that this part is more important because presentation is a process of sharing learning experiences while students need to acquire various some ideas from others.

Teacher C always gives students a schedule which includes all the topics, requires reading lists, and recommends reading lists of lectures. In the lectures, Teacher C gives some recent heated topics. Teacher C doubts that students can't catch the new topics and innovative views lies in that their learning topics are too far from the states quo. He frequently stimulates students to read more classical literatures and take time to read the latest foreign papers and monographs for searching new information and research directions.

E. Discussion about Reflections Influence Teachers' Next Teaching

What make critical consciousness different from critical thinking is that critical consciousness requires not only reflections but also subsequent actions. The ultimate purpose of reflections is to address whether teachers take actions after reflecting. Teacher B ingeminates the requirements of presentation and encourages students to apply more

examples from their daily life. Teacher C teaches students how to form their own thinking and recommend students to read more books critically. After first reflection, teacher A discusses with students how to make a good presentation and give some suggestions. Teacher B concentrates on some students who are not so active in the class discussion and communicate efficiently with them. Teacher C introduces the hot issues in class all the same.

Reflection can be regarded as criticizing teachers themselves. Teachers should not only reflect students' response, behaviors, and actions but also teachers' teaching behaviors. All teachers reflect their students' behaviors and what students need to do next. Teacher A reflects what he needs to next class. He realizes the disadvantages of the course, then he decides to adopt the dialogue, the discussion, and students' own experiences to make up those shortcomings. Teacher B reflects the class and admits the theory introduction will be boring for students. Then she finds students' interests in the presentation and leads students to relate to their daily life. After reflecting, Teacher C thinks that students lack reading, so he reminds students of reading more in and after class. Teacher C likewise reflects from the daily life, and he clearly knows what students need and lack, so he adds more newly topics in his class. By and large, Teacher A and Teacher B tend to reflect their teaching and students' behaviors. Teacher C tends to reflect the sociopolitical focuses and newly research focuses. Three teachers all reflect to some degree. Although three teachers make reflections, they sometimes do the same things before reflecting.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study means to investigate the critical consciousness of university English teachers from the perspective of critical pedagogy. Though there is not so much teachers gain the highest level of critical consciousness, the prospect of critical pedagogy implication is reasonable. And a class with sociopolitical related issues and operated in an equal, dialogical relationship will bring out students with high critical abilities. The research finds that three English major MA supervisors all have a good command of critical pedagogy and critical consciousness. And two English major MA supervisors bring the awareness to the class topics in the real social life, and pay much attention to the sociopolitical themes. And only one supervisor pays close attention to the communicating with students and encouraged discussions, while two supervisors mainly adopt the teaching process of teacher-centeredness. Meanwhile, three English major MA supervisors do reflect after the class and their reflections do not guide directly their next teachings.

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The Influence of Working Memory on Second Language Learning

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Abstract—The learning ability of a foreign language means the tendency people present when studying a second language. It is already accepted abroad that the learning capacity of a foreign language is one of the factors to predict the individual differences of the language learning results. Working memory is the important concept of cognitive psychology, and has great influence on many aspects of language learning (vocabulary acquisition, language understanding, language performance, reading comprehension and so on). So working memory is regarded as the important element of learning ability of a foreign language. As to the research at home so far, the concentration has been purely on academic reasoning as well as the introduction to research abroad during a selected period. The author of the paper is, having experimented with the psychological research mode, trying to analyze the individual differences in the foreign language learning because of their working memory which affects their vocabulary acquisition.

Index Terms—learning capacity of a foreign language, working memory, vocabulary acquisition

I. INTRODUCTION

Working memory, as an important concept of cognitive psychology, has great influence on many aspects of language learning including vocabulary acquisition, language understanding, language performance, reading comprehension and so on. So it is regarded as an important element of learning ability of a foreign language.

The learning ability of a foreign language means the tendency people present when studying a second language. Lots of researches have proved that it's one of the best factors which predict the result of foreign language learning. It's generally taken as a measure of the individual differences in learning a second language. The modern researches indeed began with an American psychologist named Carroll. He held the opinion that the acknowledgement of the learning ability to learn a foreign language as one of the factors influencing learning a second language includes the understandings as follows: 1. The learning ability of a foreign language and the marks got in tests are different concepts. They are unrelated at the beginning of the teaching while related at the end, which has been proved through lots of researches. 2. The learning ability of a foreign language and the motivations of study are different. 3. The learning ability of a foreign language is a relatively stable, inherent and less changeable factor. 4. The learning ability of a foreign language should be regarded as the speed and level of learning a second language, instead of the prerequisite. 5. The learning ability of a foreign language is different from general intelligence.

Vocabulary is the fundamental part of a language and is considered as one of the factors to measure the learning ability of a foreign language. Vocabulary acquisition of a second language has the marginal feature of cross-discipline. But till now there have been only some specific models like process model and vocabulary knowledge model, instead of generally accepted complete theories or models for it. Many theories or models on learning a second language can't be put into practice because their objects are mainly grammars and patterns. The vocabulary has its own characters, which means that there is a need to conduct a specific research on or make adjustments to the acquisition theory, such as the usage of the input hypothesis "i+1" by Laufer and Krashen. Researchers take advantage of psychological model to explain the vocabulary acquisition, which gets influence of the psychology. For example, it's helpful to understand the learning process of a language through cognitive and linguistic psychology. Compared with that, the function of linguistics is limited, which is represented through the description of the morphology and collocations. The researches on vocabulary acquisition of a second language can improve the theory of linguistics, cognitive science and psychology while making use of them so as to form a theory of vocabulary acquisition. The growing theory of vocabulary acquisition can draw lessons from the experimental methods of philological depiction and the test model of psychology, and in turn, help to cognize processing and explain the overall process of acquisition, storage, withdrawal and the rest.

Nowadays in China it's very common that the students at college are not very good at English, especially in vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension. Sometimes they can't deal with the long and complex sentences, trapped in trouble while learning and reading English. The author of the paper is, having experimented with some psychological research mode, trying to analyze the individual differences in the foreign language learning because of their working memory which affects their vocabulary acquisition.

II. BASIC THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

A. Working Memory

Working memory is generally understood as a limited-capacity processing and storage system that is necessary for carrying out a wide range of tasks (Baddeley, 2003). It's figured out by Baddeley on the basis of research on the short-term working memory. Baddeley proposed three components of working memory: a central executive, which refers to a limited-capacity system responsible for processing information; two sub-components, one of which is the phonological loop temporarily storing phonological or auditory information, and the other is the visual-spatial sketchpad involved in generating and temporarily storing images.

Vocabulary acquisition means the process that a difficult or a new word is becoming familiar to a reader or listener through some amount of information in a linguistic form. If a word has been learnt before, the vocabulary acquisition of it would be much faster with less storage resources used.

B. "Reading Span" Task by Daneman and Carpenter

The publication of a seminal paper by Daneman and Carpenter (1980) initiated over the research on the relationship between working memory and language abilities. They developed a "reading span" task in which subjects are required to read aloud increasingly longer sequences of sentences and to recall the final word of all the sentences in each sequence. The Daneman-Carpenter reading span task, and variants thereof, rapidly became the standard method of assessing verbal working memory.

Despite its popularity, the Daneman-Carpenter task has several features that cause questions about its appropriateness as a measure of the resources involved in language processing. One of these features is that the memory load imposed in the Daneman-Carpenter task is unrelated to the computations that the sentence processing task requires. In contrast, most language comprehension tasks require storage of verbal material that is relevant to ongoing computations. A second difference between the Daneman-Carpenter task and the language comprehension process is that the former requires controlled processing and conscious retrieval of the items held in memory. Though this type of processing is needed in some aspects of the total sentence comprehension process, these controlled and conscious processes are not required to the same degree in many language comprehension processes (Marslen-Wilson & Welsh, 1978).

C. Waters-Caplan Reading Span Measures

Although Daneman and Carpenter have given empirical researches about the differences of low- and high-span readers, there are some criticisms of their theory. In their theory, they didn't consider some other factors which can make influences in the memory or cognitive processes. They didn't pay much attention on the individual differences of comprehension. Waters and Caplan (1996) criticized Daneman and Carpenter's (1980) Read Span task, and they think it should not be used as a measure of working memory on language comprehension. It could also be a measure of storage. But Daneman and Carpenter didn't have the evidence or data to prove that The Read Span has connections between text difficulty and other external processing loads. Therefore, this measure fails to illustrate individual differences in verbal working memory abilities. It means that a single measure of storage is an inadequate measure of the size of this working memory resource, since it does not reflect the tradeoff between processing and storage during the working memory task (Waters & Caplan, 1996). In the Waters-Caplan Reading Span Measures, one of the most obvious differences is that the participants are required to remember the final words and also understand the meaning of the sentences given.

Waters and Carpenter adopted the domain-specific view of working memory in the Comprehension Constraint Capacity theory (CCC theory). They stated that individuals' abilities on coordinating the processing and storing the functions are various. Specifically, the more inefficient the individuals have the smaller temporary storage capacity they have. Waters and Carpenter (1980) argued that a functionally smaller storage capacity would lead to deficits in comprehension, particularly in the processes that integrate successively encountered words. Unfortunately, they have yet to make developments in assessing working memory in reading (i.e., Reading Span task by Daneman & Carpenter, 1980).

The two theories have something in common which is also their goal in setting a connection between human beings' higher level cognition and the nature of the memory system. To achieve this goal, different theories proposed have different characteristics and emphases. And the relationship between the processing and the storage is still controversial, leading to different types of tests and conclusions.

III. THE RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Introduction to Software

The software used in the test is E-prime. E-prime, short for Experimenter's Prime /Best, is a cross platform system which can realize the computer-administered behaviors. It supports the data collection as well as the primary analysis. It specializes in psychological experiments, improving the accuracy on time counting. The accuracy on time counting does help the experiment and verify the reaction. And at last there will come up with the charts to show the data collected, convenient for the further analysis.

The main tasks for the subjects to do in the test are to verify whether the sentences, grammars as well as meanings, are proper, and to remember the last word of every sentence. There are altogether 80 sentences mixed, divided into 20 groups. The 1-4 groups consist two sentences each; the 5-8 groups, three; the 9-12 groups, four; the 13-16 groups, five; and the 17-20 groups, six. The software records the reaction time. After the judgment of one group is over, subjects are

to write down the final words in order. To assure the reference value, all the final words are notional words instead of empty words or mixture of them. And to make sure the distinguishability, the words in the sentences are not too hard to remember, just around the level of CET4.

The results of the test are shown in two charts, one recording the judgment of sentences and the other, the final words remembered. Each of them has the operative process, complex though, making the test run to the purpose of the design.

B. The Tests

1) The Selection of Test Subjects

Since the more a person reads, there will be more resources for the episodic buffer. And the person could get a better processing system. So the hypothesis of test is the person with a better working memory will have much better advantage in processing system than the storage system. And in this way he will do a better reading comprehension, which plays a bigger role in learning a second language. The purpose of the experiment is to prove the existence of difference in individual working memory, and explain it through the difference in a second language learning and processing. Other than that, the ability of reading comprehension represents their reading span.

Because of the budget limitation and the imperfect background the test runs in, there are altogether 70 subjects in this experiment. All of them are chosen randomly from undergraduates as well as graduates. They are from different majors (except English majors) and have different levels of English. At the very beginning of the test, they are required to write down their gender, major, grade and level of English (mainly the scores of their CET4 or CET6), taken as the reference.

2) The Test of Vocabulary Acquisition

There are two parts in the test.

The first part of the test (The content of the test is detailed in the appendices.) is the working memory. In the task, subjects were presented with a series of sentences. Rather than read the sentences aloud, as in the Daneman-Carpenter task, the subjects were required to make a judgment about the acceptability of each sentence in the series. The largest number of the words remembered in the first half of the test is defined as the reading span. The subjects read the sentences silently and decide whether they are unacceptable. As soon as a decision about one sentence had been made, they should move to the next one in the series. When the subjects had made a decision about the last sentence in the series, they should recall the final word of each sentence at once. They were instructed not to put down the last word first, instead to perform as well as they could on the recall task after reading the whole sequence of the sentences. The working memory span could be measured through the reading span test. For the individuals who have a larger reading span, they will save more capacity to store the sentence-final words because the resources of the working memory used in the processing for the comprehension of the sentences are less. On the other side, the ones with a smaller reading span will have little resource to remember the words, since a large proportion of their working memory is consumed for the processing task.

There are four different types of stimulus materials which vary in complexity in the task. The order of presentation of the four sets of materials is counterbalanced across subjects. All of the sentences in each set are of the same syntactic structure. The four sets of stimulus materials have the following structures:

1. It was the gangsters that broke into the warehouse. (cleft subject: CS)
2. It was the broken clock that the jeweller adjusted. (cleft object: CO)
3. The man hit the landlord that requested the money. (object subject: OS)
4. The meat that the butcher cut delighted the customer. (subject object: SO)

These sentences vary along two dimensions: 1. the number of propositions; 2 syntactic complexity. CS and CO sentences have one proposition, and OS and SO sentences have two. CS and OS sentences are considered to be syntactically simpler than CO and SO sentences, as thematic roles are assigned canonically in these sentences (i.e. the first noun is the agent and the second is the theme).

There are 8-11 words in every sentence, altogether 20 in each type, with the span ranging from 2 to 6. Each span has 4 series. The 80 sentences are put according to the length, difficulty and acceptability. The statistics are shown in Chart 1:

CHART 1

span \ set	one	two	three	four
2	CS	CO	OS	SO
3	CS	CO	OS	SO
4	CS	CO	OS	SO
5	CS	CO	OS	SO
6	CS	CO	OS	SO

In the chart half of the sentences are right while others are wrong. The difference of the span between the sentences from different series is less than one. This part lasts about 30-40 minutes.

3) The Test of Reading Comprehension

The Second part of the test is reading comprehension in which subjects are required to read four passages in 35 minutes and then finish 20 multiple choices. It's not an independent test, the result of which must be put together with the first part in the analysis. The test is designed to measure subjects' reading vocabulary, reading comprehension and

the reading speed. It is divided into two sections and each one has its own time design.

The vocabulary section of the test contains the items from the passages and subjects are required to complete as many items as they can. Here is what the question looks like: A *calamity* is a: (a) storm (b) party (c) conference (d) disaster.

The comprehension section of the test is made up of four short passages and after each there are multiple-choice comprehension questions to answer. The passages are chosen from Humanities, Science, and Social Science texts. The questions test both a subject's literal and inferential comprehension abilities.

IV. DATA ACQUISITION AND ANALYSIS

A. Data List

The data recorded in the test are the number of sentence-final words, the number of right judgments as well as the reaction time. More than that, the basic information of the subjects, like the score of their CET4 or CET6, is also collected as a reference. It's to be noticed that although all of the subjects have taken either CET4 or CET6, but not all of them have passed it. To make the data more comparable, we make use of Z score to process them. Here is part of the result after the processing:

CHART 2

Label	Sentence-final Words Recalled	Correct Number	Reaction Time
a1	-0.61717	-0.81272	-1.34182
a2	0.302972	1.30887	-0.67567
a3	-0.1571	0.934472	0.420338
a4	0.763041	1.558468	0.765083
a5	1.959219	1.558468	1.358068

The data is analyzed with the method of SPSS and the results can be seen in the following charts:

CHART 3
DESCRIPTION OF STATISTICS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Average	SD
Accuracy	41	.54	.98	.8115	.10822
Effectual N (List of Status)	41				

NB: This is the data list about accuracy based on the sentence-final words recorded.
 N : the number of the valid data got in the test;
 Minimum: the lowest accuracy rate;
 Maximum: the highest accuracy rate;
 Average: the average level of all accuracy rate;
 SD: standard deviation.

CHART 4
CORRELATION

		Number of Sentence-final Words	Correct Number
Number of Sentence-final Words	Pearson Correlation	1	.706**
	Significance (Double Side)		.000
	N	41	41
Correct Number	Pearson Correlation	.706**	1
	Significance (Double Side)	.000	
	N	41	41

NB: Chart 4 is the analysis on the relationship between the number of the sentence-final words and the right judgment on the acceptability.
 Number of Final Words: the number of sentence-final words recalled;
 Correct Number: the number of right judgment on the acceptability.

CHART 5
CORRELATION

		Reaction Time	Scores of CET4
Reaction Time	Pearson Correlation	1	-.145
	Significance (Double Side)		.366
	N	41	41
Scores of CET4	Pearson Correlation	-.145	1
	Significance (Double Side)	.366	
	N	41	41

CHART 6
CORRELATION

		Reaction Time	Scores of CET6
Reaction Time	Pearson Correlation	1	-.192
	Significance (Double Side)		.230
	N	41	41
Scores of CET6	Pearson Correlation	-.192	1
	Significance (Double Side)	.230	
	N	41	41

CHART 7
CORRELATION

		Accuracy	Scores of CET4
Accuracy	Pearson Correlation	1	-.010
	Significance (Double Side)		.950
	N	41	41
Scores of CET4	Pearson Correlation	-.010	1
	Significance (Double Side)	.950	
	N	41	41

CHART 8
CORRELATION

		Accuracy	Scores of CET6
Accuracy	Pearson Correlation	1	.203
	Significance (Double Side)		.202
	N	41	41
Scores of CET6	Pearson Correlation	.203	1
	Significance (Double Side)	.202	
	N	41	41

NB: Charts 5, 6, 7 and 8 are about the relationship between the reaction time, accuracy, the scores of CET4 and CET6.

Reaction Time: the time taken to verify the acceptability of sentences;

Accuracy: referring to the sentence-final words remembered.

B. Data Analysis

In Chart 3, among the data of 41 subjects (other data are not qualified for analysis), the highest of the accuracy is 0.98, very close to 1. The lowest is 0.54, almost half. It's clear that the disparity of individual learning result is obvious. The highest sentence-final words recalled is 78 while the lowest 37, which means the scope of working memory is relatively big. The average 0.8115 and the sigma 0.10822 show that the general accuracy is relatively high and the general difference is not that big.

Chart 3 helps to understand the relationship between the number of sentence-final words and the right judgment on the acceptability. Partly they represent the relationship between the features of processing and storage system. The data shows that the relativity between them is obvious and it's showing the positive association, that is to say, the person who has a higher working memory span gets better processing system and storage system.

Charts 5, 6, 7, 8 put the scores of CET4 and CET6 in consideration. Here, the Scores of CET4 and CET6 are taken as the result of learning ability at the end of a learning process. We are trying to find out which one, the processing and storage system, has closer relationship with the result of learning. First, the relationship between the reaction time and the scores of CET4 and CET6 is relatively obvious and negative, which means the reaction time is shorter when the scores are higher. And the relationship between the reaction time and the scores of CET6 seems to be closer. Second, the relativity between accuracy and the scores is relatively not so outstanding, compared with that between the reaction time and the scores. The scores of CET4 have almost nothing to do with the accuracy. But it is weakly relative to the scores of CET6, which means the data of them impact each other in an opposite direction.

The hypothesis at the beginning of the test has some rationality. The person with higher working memory span does much better in processing sentences, which plays a relatively important role in the second language learning.

C. Arguments

All of the data above show that the reaction time can better represent the individual difference in working memory than the accuracy. Through the analysis on the data, it's clear to find that the result of the test has something to do with the foundation of English knowledge, that is to say, the ability the subjects hold will influence the working memory span.

And the result of the graduates and undergraduates compared, it's no wonder that the graduates get the upper hand at not only the number of the sentence-final words remembered but also the right judgment. Interestingly, however, the disparity of the latter is much bigger than the former, which means that the graduates do a much better job at the processing, instead of remembering words, than the undergraduates. The condition of the graduates take as the future of

the undergraduates, it's sure that their operating system gets a faster development than the undergraduates'. But limited by the small amount of subjects, other factors, which perhaps also play a role in the working memory, may not have been missed. So it may be perfunctory to get the conclusion so fast.

V. CONCLUSION

According to the data analysis above, there comes the conclusion as follows:

1. The duration of the memory may better represent the individual difference in working memory than the accuracy of memory;
2. In the same condition, the person who has better working memory will finish remembering faster and at a higher accuracy and who also has the tendency to get better scores while learning English;
3. In the whole growth of the working memory (Some psychologists believe that the working memory is a born ability which will keep stable all the time.), the short-term memory will keep relatively stable while the operating system will improve at a faster speed.

These conclusions above will help in learning a second language (mainly English here). The result of learning depends on the capability of working memory. Since the operating system developing faster, it may be helpful to practice more reading to cultivate the so-called language sense. All in all, the learner should pay attention to improving the ability to handle the relationship between the two recourses while learning to find a proper way to get their studying promoted.

APPENDIX

Here is the test as follows:

- 1-1 It was the gangster that broke into the bank.
- 1-2 It was the handsome man that shaved the razor.
- 2-1 It was the pills that the patients healed.
- 2-2 It was the young teacher that the computer assisted.
- 3-1 The investor supported the company that located near the river.
- 3-2 The article composed the journalist that reported the process.
- 4-1 The jewelry that the store showed coveted that woman.
- 4-2 The accident that the girl saw triggered the criminal.
- 5-1 It was the climber that encountered the big snow.
- 5-2 It was the princess that set up the school.
- 5-3 It was the match that broke off the judgment.
- 6-1 It was the crops that the human fed.
- 6-2 It was the beautiful girl that the car rode.
- 6-3 It was the drunkard that the wine poisoned.
- 7-1 The diamond purchased the actor that performed at the movie.
- 7-2 The policeman carried the pistol that injured the thief.
- 7-3 The medicine swallowed the patient that lay on the bed.
- 8-1 The trial that the media covered confused the lawyer.
- 8-2 The loan that the banker refused worried the mayor.
- 8-3 The chemical that the factory produced patented the scientist.
- 9-1 It was the horse that burdened the goods.
- 9-2 It was the green hands that messed up the file.
- 9-3 It was the painter that worked in the gallery.
- 9-4 It was the inventor that struck the new idea.
- 10-1 It was the dirty floor that the housekeeper swept.
- 10-2 It was the elephant that the water cooled.
- 10-3 It was the fresh grass that the cow cushioned.
- 10-4 It was the strong horse that the load carried.
- 11-1 The spy encoded the message that predicted the event.
- 11-2 The child scalded the water that boiled in the span.
- 11-3 The farmer cut the plant that attracted the insect.
- 11-4 The game excited the golfer that fevered all the sports.
- 12-1 The waiter that the boss blamed broke the dish.
- 12-2 The donkey that the man rode burdened the load.
- 12-3 The fire that the fireman fought burned the boy.
- 12-4 The farmer that the crops fed ran over the tractor.
- 13-1 It was the wind that blew down the girl.
- 13-2 It was the drunkard that poisoned the liquid.

- 13-3 It was the car that got off the lady.
 13-4 It was the wool that wound the black cat.
 13-5 It was the boy that ran over the bus.
 14-1 It was the broken clock that the jeweler adjusted.
 14-2 It was the blue ball that the girl threw.
 14-3 It was the huge tree that the boy shaded.
 14-4 It was the famous chef that the dinner cooked.
 14-5 It was the precious tiger that the cage held.
 15-1 the expert helped the machinery that worked in the plant.
 15-2 The stick cast the warrior that protected the country.
 15-3 The rain cooled the lions that lay under the tree.
 15-4 The child loaded the gun that scared the youth.
 15-5 The engineer lifted the rocket that rushed into the sky.
 16-1 The man that the girl called washed the car.
 16-2 The knife that the mother hid brandished the child.
 16-3 The ship that the people rode carried the pirate.
 16-4 The editor that the writer angered tore the book.
 16-5 The car that the sun burned cooled the water.
 17-1 It was the signal that sent out the guard.
 17-2 It was the heavy work that suppressed the doctor.
 17-3 It was the robot that assisted the worker.
 17-4 It was the net that slipped out the fish.
 17-5 It was the green color that took on the snake.
 17-6 It was the flood that flushed away the soldier.
 18-1 It was the new table that the madam destroyed.
 18-2 It was the mad dog that the gun shot.
 18-3 It was the big fish that the lure attacked.
 18-4 It was the magnificent feast that the duke prepared.
 18-5 It was the boiling water that the woman scalded.
 18-6 It was the naughty boy that the plane flew.
 19-1 The bus ran over the boy that played on the road.
 19-2 The fort occupied the soldiers that saved the city.
 19-3 The girl tickled the feathers that floated in the air.
 19-4 The instrument frustrated the student that learned the song.
 19-5 The student educated the school that located near the park.
 19-6 The car crashed the man that broke into the house.
 20-1 The meat that the butcher cut delighted the customer.
 20-2 The pillow that the woman bought clenched the baby.
 20-3 The athlete that the coach supported won the football game.
 20-4 The girl that the cold wind blew rubbed the match.
 20-5 The fish that the man caught attracted the lure.
 20-6 The actor that the merchant supported delighted the play.

After the verification at each set of sentences, the participants are required to recall the sentence-final words of all the set.

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The Effect of Contextual Visual Aids on High School Students' Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—The present study was an attempt to investigate the effect of contextual visual aids on Iranian high school students' reading comprehension. To do so, a thorough review of the related literature was done and a quasi-experimental study was designed in which the participants were 96 female EFL learners at the intermediate level. These participants were chosen out of 140 learners through a homogeneity test. The selected participants were assigned to four groups; three experimental groups (pre-thematic, thematic and post-thematic) and one control group. The participants went through the procedure of pretest, treatment, and posttest. The data was collected by means of three tests: a PET test, a pretest and a posttest of reading comprehension. A one-way ANOVA was run to probe the research questions posed in this study. The findings revealed that contextual visual aids had a statistically significant effect on Iranian high school students' reading comprehension. The study findings also revealed that among the Contextual Visual Aids, pre-thematic aids had the highest effect on high school students' reading comprehension. This was followed by thematic visual aids which had a moderate effect on this process. However, the post-thematic visual aids had slightly significant effect on high school students' reading comprehension.

Index Terms—pre-thematic contextual aids, thematic contextual aids, post-thematic contextual aids, EFL, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Can pictures facilitate one's comprehension of a text? A significant body of research (Daley, 2003; Eisner 2002; Evans 2003; Mackay, 2003) addresses this question directly. The results of such studies prove that visuals in text have positive effects on readers' comprehension (Liu, 2007).

Hibbing and Rankin-Erickson (2003) believe that the supplementation of texts with visuals provides readers with two supplies of information when reading the material. When the readers cannot comprehend a particular text, they may shift their attention from the text to the accompanying visual images. In return, the visuals which they comprehend may lead them to notice the text's linguistic input and thus enable them to comprehend the text through matching factors such as syntax, word recognition, intertextual perceptions, and background knowledge. Then, the interaction between the text and visuals will facilitate readers' comprehension

Lots of research studies support the effectiveness of presenting pictures to help L2 learners' reading comprehension, especially if the learners are at the lower levels of proficiency (Fukuyama, 2006). These studies indicate that presenting pictures contextually related to the content of the passage prior to reading not only provides the readers with background information, but also activates an organizational schema for the text as a whole by facilitating top-down processing; therefore, enhances comprehension of the story (Ausubel, 2000). Omaggio (as cited in Fukuyama, 2006) proved that among the pictures she presented to the participants, the best visual context was the one depicting a scene from the beginning of the story.

A. Statement of the Problem

Reading comprehension is one of the problems of Iranian students in different levels (Rasti, 2009). Success in comprehending the written materials is considered an ever present problem in the EFL classes in the Iranian context in general and in the high school classes in particular (Amiri & Maftoon, 2010). Erfani (2012) also presents that one of the areas which require investigation is the low achievement of reading comprehension among Iranian learners. Even in the IELTS examinations one of the skills in which the Iranian examinees receive low scores is reading comprehension (Rasti, 2009).

Therefore, the current study is designed to expand upon the effects of contextual visuals on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) reading comprehension; with focus on examining what kinds of pictures might be best to use for high school contexts. Moreover, the researcher hypothesizes that reading comprehension of a foreign language text would be facilitated by prior presentations of contextual visuals.

B. Research Questions and Hypothesis

The following research questions and hypothesis are presented:

RQ₁: Do contextual visual aids have a statistically significant effect on Iranian high school students' reading comprehension?

RQ₂: Do the pre-thematic pictures, in comparison to thematic and post-thematic ones, have significant effects on enhancing Iranian high school students' reading comprehension?

H01: Contextual visual aids have no statistically significant effect on Iranian high school students' reading comprehension.

H02: Different forms of contextual visual aids do not have different significant effects on enhancing Iranian high school students' reading comprehension.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Research has generally showed that visuals improve learners' reading comprehension, but there are few studies that reveal what kinds of pictures might be the best to utilize, that is pre-thematic, thematic, or post-thematic pictures (Fukuyama, 2006). This can be considered as a noticeable gap in the realm of the studies on utilizing visual aids in enhancing learners' reading comprehension.

The findings of the present study could contribute both theoretically and practically to language teaching. Although there has been an ocean of research studies conducted on text comprehension from different and differing angles, but literature review proves that we still have a lack of empirical research and studies dealing with the effect of specific contextual visual aids such as pre-thematic, thematic and post-thematic pictures on reading comprehension among Iranian high school students' reading comprehension.

The purpose of the present study, therefore, is firstly to investigate the effect of contextual visual aids on high school students' reading comprehension in the immediate posttest, which presents a specific recall situation, and secondly to investigate the specific form of contextual visual aids (pre-thematic pictures, in comparison to thematic and post-thematic ones) on enhancing Iranian high school students' reading comprehension. Among the various ways suggested for the promotion of EFL learners' reading comprehension, the method of using pictures and contextual visual aids has recently been canonized (Pan & Pan, 2009).

Comprehension is identified as an acquired skill that is focused on the understanding of input. Oxford English Dictionary (2010) defines comprehension as "the action or fact of comprehending with the mind; understanding; ... grasping with the mind, power of receiving and containing ideas." According to Brown (2007), comprehension is "the process of receiving language; listening or reading; input" (p. 379).

Comprehension is recognized as the ability to take in data, analyze it, and come up with an understanding of the input in an accurate and cohesive manner. Well-developed comprehension abilities include using interactive strategy to achieve a meaningful understanding of the input (Lin, 2010). Therefore, comprehension is affected by input while it affects the fluency of a learner's output.

There have been several different views to accurately define L2 reading comprehension. A thorough literature review reveals that there is not a single kind of comprehension. Brantmeier (2003) stated that there "is not one true comprehension, but a range of comprehension" (p. 4). Day and Park (2005), on the other hand, classified reading comprehension into six different modes of comprehension that can work together in parallel or in a linear fashion:

(1) Literal comprehension is described as the "understanding of the straightforward meaning of the text" (Day & Park, 2005, p. 62). This means that any answers to questions coming from a text would be explicitly outlined in the reading. Discovering specific words or their meanings within a text is an example of this.

(2) Reorganization occurs when readers must find different pieces of data from a reading text and combine them for additional understanding. In this way, readers still use literal comprehension, but it is applied to several areas of text in order to answer more specific questions related to the text (Day & Park, 2005).

(3) Inference requires learners to go a step beyond literal understanding and to use their own knowledge in order to find the implicitly stated information (Day & Park, 2005).

(4) Prediction combines readers' prior knowledge with their understanding of a passage in order to guess what happens next; however, in order to be valid, each answer must be supported by the text (Day & Park, 2005).

(5) Evaluation requires a learner to have a general knowledge of the topic under examination and an understanding of the reading material in order to give judgment or opinion about the text (Day & Park, 2005).

(6) Personal response is an open-ended type of comprehension used by readers to express their feelings about the topic. In order for the feelings to be valid, readers need to reason them in relation to the text (Day & Park, 2005).

There has been a large body of research in L2 reading comprehension which has identified such significant factors including, lexical processing (how the brain makes meaning out of input), eye movements, cultural familiarity, and first language (L1) that affect L2 comprehension.

A. *The Effect of L1 on L2 Reading Comprehension*

The L1 provides significant background information, cultural views, and linguistic knowledge in L2 reading comprehension (Fecteau, 1999). L1 plays a role in both lower-level comprehension and advanced comprehension, but in quite different ways. For instance, having insufficient knowledge of the language to demonstrate understanding in the

L2, lower-level L2 readers of English may use their L1 to convey their understanding of the text they just read (Fecteau, 1999). However, upper-level L2 readers of English may employ their L1 reading strategies in L2 tasks. In order to do this, they might need a higher level of reading proficiency (Hill, 2011). Studies proved that both L1 reading skills and L2 linguistic knowledge affect L2 reading comprehension (Fecteau, 1999). For example, many L2 reading comprehension errors result from lack of enough lexical knowledge which, depending on the reader's proficiency level, can be supplied by L1 lexical inference, (Fecteau, 1999).

B. Teaching Methods of Reading

There are many approaches towards teaching techniques of reading comprehension, however, most have drawbacks which demonstrate that there is no one way for teaching comprehension successfully to all L2 readers (Brantmeier, 2003). Common teaching methods used for reading comprehension instruction and their pros and cons are discussed below:

1. *Comprehension Monitoring* which is defined as "the ability to know what has been done right or wrong, and to integrate new information with prior existing knowledge" (Yang, Y., 2002, p. 19).
2. *Bottom-Up Approach* in which individual units or pieces of language contribute to the overall interpretation of text (Celce-Murcia, 2001).
3. *Top-Down Approach* that means to get the text's overall purpose in order to understand isolated sounds and words (Celce-Murcia, 2001).

C. Intensive and Extensive Reading

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), intensive reading is related to further improvement in language learning under the teacher's guidance. It provides a basis for extending knowledge of vocabulary as well as explaining difficulties of structure. Thus, intensive reading mainly deals with comprehension at lexical and syntactic level (Rashidi & Piran, 2011).

Comprehension beyond the above mentioned two levels (i.e., lexical and syntactic level) deals with another sub-skill of reading that is, extensive reading. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), extensive reading means reading in a large quantity in order to gain a general understanding of what is read. Extensive reading is intended to develop good reading habits, to build knowledge of vocabulary and structure, and to encourage the learners for reading (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). The aim of extensive reading is to train the learners to read fluently and directly in the target language for enjoyment without the help of the teacher (Rashidi & Piran, 2011).

Schmitt (1988) also points out the difference between extensive reading and intensive reading. He states that people learn how to read just by reading (Smith, 1988). However, extensive reading differs from intensive reading. In intensive reading, students normally deal with short texts and close guidance from the teacher. The aim of intensive reading is to develop reading skills, such as recognizing text connectors and identifying main ideas, to help students obtain detailed meaning from the text, and to enhance vocabulary and grammar knowledge. It is important to note that these two approaches to teaching reading (i.e., intensive and extensive reading) should not be considered as the opposites, since both serve different but complementary purposes (Renandya, 2007).

D. Reading Strategies

Success in reading comprehension is not an inborn capacity and it can be learnt. Thus, four variables have to be taken into consideration to learn how to read successfully: the reader, the text, the strategies, and the goal. As far as readers are concerned, their reading skills, as well as their interest in the topic, are vital. Some factors like hunger or sleepiness also play a crucial role. All these factors influence the success in reading (Nadera, 2001).

There are many different reading strategies, but they are all based on the same basic assumptions. First, the readers should think about the purpose of reading. Second, they should look at the title, headings, pictures, or any other visual cues accompanying the text. Third, they should read the introduction and conclusion, or read the first line in every paragraph, then read the entire text. Fourth, the whole text should be scanned to look for the most critical parts to focus on during detailed reading. Fifth, the readers should take notes as they read. Sixth, having problems with understanding the text, the readers should stop and reread it once again. Seventh, since the longer the readers work with the text, the less they can focus on it entirely; long texts should be divided in shorter parts. Finally, the readers should retell difficult material in their own words, and possibly answer the questions concerning the contents of the text (Rashidi & Piran, 2011).

After the reading has been completed, the text ought to be considered in three ways. The basic data provided on the printed page should be thought about. Then, additional information from between the lines should be drawn, and finally, the meaning of the text should be referred to the readers' own experience (King, 1999). The description of some reading strategies are provided below to illustrate particular steps they entail.

The *skimming* strategy is utilized whenever the reader needs to get an overall idea of the passage. Applying this strategy, the readers are enabled to say what kind of text it is and what kind of data it contains. Thus, the readers can expect what the passage is about and, consequently, they can activate appropriate schemata. Estimating the relevance of the text by skimming it quickly, the readers can decide whether the text is relevant for their particular purposes. Since this technique provides the reader with the main ideas of the text, it affords a logical framework for details to be fitted

into it during more intensive reading. It is critical to note that during skimming the readers pay no attention to details and even can skip new words provided that the text can still be understood (Nadera, 2001).

However, if the readers need to quickly look for specific key words or data, *scanning* should be applied. During scanning the readers move their eyes down the text in search for particular data. Since they can be key words in the text, unfamiliar words encountered in the text should be looked up in a dictionary. Scanning is also very helpful if the reader needs to search out statements, definitions etc. To sum up, the use of both skimming and scanning improves retention of important details contained in a reading passage, as well as the speed of completing a reading task (Renandya, 2007).

SQ3R, SQ4R, and PQ4R strategies refer to particular steps which are suggested to be taken during reading. 'S' stands for survey, 'Q' for question, 'P' for preview or purpose, and 'R' can stand for read, recite, review, reflect or write. Although some other differences also exist, all the listed methods mainly differ as far as the number of 'R' factors is concerned (Nadera, 2001).

E. *Concomitant Processes in Reading Comprehension*

"The reader rather than the text is at the heart of reading process" (Nunan, 1995, p. 65). Therefore, the focus of all language teachers and linguists carrying research on reading behavior should be on the readers' mental processes, rather than merely on processes which a text undergoes. The way the readers arrive at the meaning is of paramount importance (Nunan, 1995).

Mental representations, in the next stage, are integrated into the existing mental model of the subject matter which is aided by cognitive schemata. Additionally, "the text comprehension can be facilitated by multimedia aids such as pictures, animations and other visual or auditory cues. Multimedia aids are independent of the presentation mode of the text; however, they support the process of text comprehension" (Chun & Plass, 1997, p. 71).

Cognitive Schemata: Reading a passage, readers make some assumptions about the contents of it and, on the basis of their background knowledge, predict the events that will happen. Rumelhart (1977) provided a short fragment of a story to be considered as an example. It begins with "Mary heard the ice cream man coming down the street. She remembered her birthday money and rushed into the house..." (Rumelhart, 1977, p. 265). These few words are enough for most readers to guess why Mary rushed into the house. The interpretation seems to be obvious: she needed to take the money and buy an ice cream. Such data is not contained in the passage, but readers consider it unavoidable unless it is contradicted by some other data. After all, Mary could have been afraid that the ice cream man could steal her money and she wanted to hide her possession (Hill, 2011).

Such concepts that help readers interpret the text are called cognitive schemata. The term was first used by Barlett in 1932 (Nunan, 1995). According to schema theory, "the readers' background knowledge and linguistic cues contained in the text are organized into interrelated patterns which are made use of in reconstructing meaning" (Nunan, 1995, p. 68).

Mental Model: According to Chun and Plass (1997), "a mental model is a mental representation consisting of parts that interact with one another according to principle-based rules" (p. 64). Mental models of actions with involvement of characters are constructed when the learners read a text.

There are three categories of mental models:

- Category A: representations of actual objects, events, or situations;
- Category B: representations of imagined objects, events, or situations; and
- Category C: structures which combine these, plus sundry individual stimuli, into a fully integrated functional unit (Hill, 2011).

Multimedia Aids for Comprehension: Three types of the aids can be distinguished:

- Aids for selecting information
- Aids for building internal connections
- Aids for building external connections

F. *Theoretical Background of Utilizing Visuals in Language Learning*

Many researchers have employed various theoretical frameworks to describe the visual effects on learning. In other words, the proponents of the positive effects of using visuals on language learning in general and reading comprehension in particular have employed a number of theoretical frameworks to explain and predict the effects of pictorial context on reading comprehension (Erfani, 2012). The most important ones are the theory of mental models (Johnson-Laird, as cited in Erfani, 2012), the transmediation theory (Siegle, 1995), the repetition hypothesis (Gyselinck & Tardieu, 1999) and the dual coding theory (Sadosky & Paivio, 2001). The most comprehensive theory that elaborates upon the relationship between pictures and reading is the dual coding theory (Erfani, 2012).

Undoubtedly, one of the influential rationales behind using pictures and text together is Paivio's (1991) dual-coding theory. In other words, mental representations consist of two distinct knowledge systems: (a) Nonverbal systems which are related to holistic processing of data, and (b) Verbal systems which are related to abstract and sequential processing of data. When reading text and related pictures are presented together, verbal and nonverbal data are processed in different cognitive systems. However, they are interconnected and integrated and lead to better retention of data and enhanced learning (Jee & Li, 2014).

G. *Empirical Studies on the Learning Effect of Visual Aids*

Different types of images are used in language learning materials to improve understanding of the language. The findings of empirical studies in L2 language acquisition show that dynamic images can act as effective advance organizers and improve students' comprehension and retention of material in those multimedia applications. When creating multimedia applications, it is essential for teachers and designers to determine the type of images to be incorporated in accordance with the objectives of teaching. Therefore, the effects of images should be investigated empirically (Fukuyama, 2006).

A large body of research supports the effectiveness of presenting pictures to help L2 learners' reading comprehension, especially if the learners are at the lower levels of proficiency (Fukuyama, 2006). These studies indicate that presenting pictures contextually related to the content of the passage prior to reading not only provides the readers with background information, but also activates an organizational schema for the text as a whole by facilitating top-down processing; therefore, enhances comprehension of the story (Ausubel, 2000). Omaggio (as cited in Fukuyama, 2006) proved that among the pictures she presented to the participants, the best visual context was the one depicting a scene from the beginning of the story.

Numerous researchers have used DCT as a theoretical framework to examine whether or not contextual visuals improve readers' comprehension of a text. Purnell and Solman (1991) proved in their study that students received both the text and the visuals performed better than those received the text alone. The findings are in accordance with DCT in that activation of both codes can have additional effects on comprehension (Paivio, 1991).

Other findings also demonstrate consistency with DCT. An investigation conducted by Kullhavy, Lee, and Caterino (as cited in Pan & Pan, 2009) proved that fifth graders understood data in maps and prose directions better when it was presented in both spatial and elaborated verbal forms rather than either form alone. In another study carried out by Gambrell and Jawitz (1993), students who had access to both text and illustrations performed better than those who had studied text alone.

Furthermore, Hall, Bailey, and Tillman (1997) conducted a study to examine the effects of illustrations on reading comprehension, and the findings indicated that the with-illustration groups outperformed the text-only group. Using DCT as the basis for their theory, the researchers demonstrated that there was a marked improvement in participants' comprehension when they were exposed to data presented and processed in both verbal and imagery systems.

In another study on reading comprehension, Tang (1992) asked one group of seventh-grade EFL students to read academic texts with the help of graphic classification trees reflecting the organization of the text; another group of students read the text without the graphic trees. The results proved that the students who had the graphic trees performed significantly better on comprehending the text.

Further evidence is the research conducted by Hudson (1982). The results of his study revealed that reading comprehension in lower proficiency students enhanced when the students first viewed some pictures related to the passage, then were asked some questions, and finally wrote down predictions before reading the passage. Regarding the findings, Hudson concluded that the visuals facilitated reading comprehension because they offered additional contextual data to the students, confirming the value of DCT.

In a nutshell, reading research studies within the DCT framework indicate that the combination of text and visuals have beneficial effects on the comprehension of the materials. Visuals not only offer additional contextual data to facilitate comprehension, but also trigger referential connections between verbal and imagery systems, and therefore provide an additional route for comprehension. It is believed that the use of visuals in the enhancement of instructional materials will improve reading comprehension (Pan & Pan, 2009).

III. METHODOLOGY

The participants of the study were 96 intermediate level female students in the age range of 15 to 16 studying at Hekmat high school in Parsabad city, Iran. These participants were chosen from 140 intermediate students according to their performance in a sample Preliminary English Test (PET).

The data for the present study were collected by means of three tests: a PET test, a researcher-made test of reading comprehension as the pretest and another researcher-made test of reading comprehension as the posttest.

In the present experiment, a series of reading texts which were pictorial English short stories suitable for the level of the participants in the current study were used.

The first phase of this study was the pilot phase during which 30 intermediate students with similar characteristics in age, level, and gender participated. Item analysis was performed for all the items in the reading tests and the malfunctioning items with unacceptable facility and discrimination indices were removed.

In the second phase of the study the participants were selected. First, the piloted PET was administered to 150 intermediate students to homogenize them regarding their general English proficiency. Out of 150 students, 100 students whose scores fell one standard deviation above and below the mean shaped the main participants of the study. The selected participants were assigned to three experimental groups, namely pre-thematic, thematic and post-thematic and one control group with 20 to 30 students in each.

In the third phase, the participants of the study in all groups took part in the piloted teacher-made multiple choice reading comprehension pretest to assure their homogeneity regarding their reading comprehension.

Then the treatment period began and continued for 16 sessions. The whole semester included eight weeks and the learners attended the classes two days a week each session lasting for 90 minutes in all groups. Considering the fact that the syllabus of the high school should be covered during this semester too, 30 minutes was allocated to the experiment in the experimental groups. Therefore, the classes of experimental groups and the control group received the same hours of instruction and practice. Also the researcher herself taught all the groups. Hence, the researcher tried to keep all the conditions for the experimental and control groups the same.

In order to conduct the present study, four intact high school classes were used under the following four contextual conditions: (a) no visual context, (b) pre-thematic context, (c) thematic context, and (d) post-thematic context (Fukuyama, 2006). All participants read the same passage under one of the four conditions. Prior to reading, using power point slides, the participants of the experimental groups were provided with illustrations related to the content of the reading passage. The pictures depicted scenes from the beginning (i.e., pre-thematic context) for the experimental group A, the climax (i.e., thematic context) for the experimental group B, and the end of the story (i.e., post-thematic context) for the experimental group C. Meanwhile, the control group was instructed to read the passage with no pictures. Then each group received a copy of the same reading passage, and was given time to read it. Immediately after reading the passage, the participants were asked to answer a 10-item discrete point test for reading comprehension based on the material found in the reading passage not in visual contexts. It is also worth mentioning that the same teacher handled all four classes to control the possible effect of different teachers on students' learning.

Following the treatment the learners in all groups received the posttest of reading comprehension. The posttest was administered for the purpose of checking the effect of the treatment on the reading comprehension of the participants.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The one-way ANOVA was followed by planned (a-priori) contrasts in order; a) to compare the three experimental groups with the control group to probe the first null-hypothesis, and b) to compare the pre-thematic group with thematic and post-thematic groups to investigate the second null-hypothesis.

As displayed in Table 1 the pre-thematic ($M = 20.44$, $SD = 3.26$) had the highest mean on the posttest of RC. This was followed by thematic ($M = 16.60$, $SD = 2.30$), post-thematic ($M = 14.91$, $SD = 2.35$) and control ($M = 14.57$, $SD = 1.03$) groups.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, POSTTEST OF RC BY GROUPS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	23	14.57	1.037	.216	14.12	15.01
Pre-thematic	25	20.44	3.267	.653	19.09	21.79
Thematic	25	16.60	2.309	.462	15.65	17.55
Post-thematic	23	14.91	2.353	.491	13.90	15.93
Total	96	16.71	3.337	.341	16.03	17.38

Based on the results displayed in Table 2 ($F(3, 92) = 30.58$, $P = .000$, $\omega^2 = .430$ representing a large effect size) it was concluded that there were significant differences between the means of the four groups on the posttest of RC.

TABLE 2
ONE-WAY ANOVA, POSTTEST OF RC BY GROUPS

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	528.195	3	176.065	30.583	.000
Within Groups	529.638	92	5.757		
Total	1057.833	95			

The results of planned (a-priori) contrasts indicated (Table 3) that;

A: The three experimental groups ($t(92) = 4.79$, $p = .000$) had significantly higher mean than the control group on the posttest of RC. Thus, the first null-hypothesis of the study was rejected.

TABLE 3
CONTRAST TESTS; POSTTEST OF RC

Contrast		Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Posttest	Assume equal variances	1	8.26	1.722	4.797	.000
		2	9.37	1.184	7.912	.000
RC	Does not assume equal variances	1	8.26	1.141	7.237	.000
		2	9.37	1.470	6.371	.000

B: The pre-thematic groups ($t(92) = 7.91$, $p = .000$) had significantly higher mean than the thematic and post-thematic groups on the posttest of RC. Thus, the second null-hypothesis as of the study was rejected.

V. CONCLUSION

The findings revealed that contextual visual aids had a statistically significant effect on Iranian high school students' reading comprehension. The study findings also revealed that among the *Contextual Visual Aids*, pre-thematic aids had the highest effect on the high school students' reading comprehension. This was followed by thematic visual aids which had a moderate effect on this process. However, the post-thematic visual aids had a slightly significant effect on high school students' reading comprehension. The findings could be employed by English teachers, EFL learners, and materials developers in the field of ELT in the Iranian context to pave the way for the improvement of ELT status in the EFL classes.

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How the Diversity of Values Matters in Intercultural Communication

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Abstract—Communication is one of the most common features of human beings that is different from other animals. People of different countries connect with each other through languages and other ways of communication tools. People's values diversity really matters a lot in intercultural communication and sometimes may keep them apart because of misunderstanding if they don't know how to deal with it properly and efficiently. Values are, according to Rokeach, "a learned organization of rules for making choices and for resolving conflicts." (Rokeach, 1973, 161). It is inevitable that values diversity has impact on different fields of human society. It may cause communication problems in intercultural communication. How to improve intercultural communication? How to deal with and solve the problems in intercultural communication and avoid misunderstanding? In this article, the causes and approaches of improving intercultural communication will be further discussed. Values diversity really matters in intercultural communication.

Index Terms—values, values diversity, intercultural communication, cultural shock

I. INTRODUCTION

As is known to us all, cultural and communication, although two different concepts, are directly linked. They are so inextricably bound that some anthropologists believe the terms are virtually synonymous. To live in societies and to maintain their culture they have to communicate. (adt.lib.swin.edu.au 2014) Culture is learned, acted out, transmitted, and preserved through communication. Although the concepts of communication and culture work in tandem, we separate them for purposes of our understanding. We begin by examining communication because to understand intercultural interaction, we must recognize the role of communication. Communication refers our ability to share our ideas and feelings and it is the basis of all human contact. Whether we live in cities or in villages, we all participate in the same activity when we communicate. The results and the methods may be different, but the process is the same. Humans on earth communicate so that we can share our realities with each other. We study the intercultural communication with an analysis of human communication and we will be better able to improve our own communication behavior and more fully appreciate that of others.

Think for a moment of all the bodily activity that accompanies even the simple act of saying "hello" to a friend. From the stimulation of your nerve endings, to the secretion of chemicals in your brain, to the moving of your lips to produce sound, many of components are in operation. Smith's say (1966): "Human communication is a subtle and ingenious set of process. It is always think with a thousand ingredients---signals, codes, meanings---no matter how simple the message or transaction." (dSPACE 2013) clearly described the complexity of human communication. Communication becomes even more complex when we add cultural dimension. Although all cultures use symbols to share their realities, the specific realities and the symbols employed are often quite different. In one culture, you just smile to express greeting in a casual manner, and in another cultural situation, people may bow formally in silence. Some just embrace to greet friends.

In order to deal with the problems caused by the complexity of communication, most researchers focus on those aspects that are related to their special interests. For instances, neurologists look at what the brain and the nervous system do. Psychologists are apt to examine issues related to perception, and linguists inspect the language people use. Each of these disciplines carves out a kind of territory called human communication.

It is well-known that values diversity is one of the most common features of humans which has an effect on intercultural communication. With the development of transportation and economy, we can reach anywhere in the world in a matter of hours, and the globalization making today's contracts far more commonplace than in any other period of the world's history. It is obvious that international contact become more and more common place. People's cognition structure consists of many values, which are arranged into a hierarchical order that is highly organized and according to Rokeach: "exists along a continuum of relative importance." Values can be classified as primary, secondly and tertiary. Primary values are the most important: they specify what is with the sacrifice of human life. In the United States, democracy and the protection of oneself and close relationship among family members, for example. In the United States, if you ask people which is more important, work or family? Ninety nine Americans should answer with the question like this: family. The last one should be considered as a workaholic. After 7 o'clock and the weekend is belongs to personal time.

If at that time, the boss let the employees do work, he should be very sorry to their employees and ask them to go

home as soon as possible when they finished their work.

But in china, in our companies, all of us thought that the benefits of the enterprises are the first .The managers thought that every time belongs to the companies. The managers have the rights to let their employees do more work for them. .And all of us thought it is natural things. Secondary ,values are also quite important .In the United States the securing of material possessions is also very important .In the United States, it is reasonable to pursue the wealthy so long as not hurt the others .They thought that pursue the wealthy can also make the other happy. But in china, they think justice is against benefit .We Chinese think money is vulgar. Tertiary values are at the bottom of hierarchy. In the United states, they thought it is independent .There is a news from china news net (2004-9-27).A girl named Jane lived in American for several years ,when she came back she found that she can not be used to living china. One day, her good friend invites her to go shopping together, but her friend has something to do first, Jane thought if she has no time, the dates can be canceled. But Jane’s boyfriend said that she didn’t treat friendship more seriously. Jane shocked, because she thought everybody should be independent, even though our friend has something to do, it is natural to esteem to theirs

Intercultural communication, as you may suspect, is not a new concept. In ancient times, the recognition of alien differences lacked accompanying cultural knowledge and often elicited the human propensity to respond malevolently to those differences. This notion was expressed over two thousand years ago by the Greek playwright Aeschylus,“ Everyone’s quick to blame the alien.” This statement is still a powerful element in today’s social and political rhetoric. For example, it is common in today’s society to hear that all of the social and economic problems in the United States are caused by immigrants. Despite the persistence of this concept, today’s intercultural encounters differ from earlier meetings. (www.lunwen daixie.com 2013) They are rich and because of the interconnectedness of the world, more significant. Today, the web linking us together becomes vivid when we see a newspaper headline that tells us “America Once Again into Africa...etc,” Additionally, the emergence of the information age has allowed us the opportunity to expand our knowledge so that the recognition of cultural differences need not result in hostile encounters. Think of the message sent to the world when U.S. And Russian astronauts--- whose countries a decade ago were archenemies--- began to participate in joint space ventures. (yy.lw61.com 2013)

The above instances emphasize the changes that have taken place throughout the world and at home. Many of us will be able to verify the instances to document these alterations in intercultural contact, for some of us have had firsthand experiences with people whose cultures are different from our own. Our rational for looking at these changes is from three aspects. First of all, as the familiar gives way to a new and different world, the entire human race is affected. Secondly, many of the events that have brought diverse groups together have been too subtle to detect and have taken place over a long period. Hence, we believe that many of them may have been overlooked. Thirdly, by demonstrating both the quantity and quality of these changes, we might be better able to arouse our interests in intercultural communication. We begin by looking at the quantity and quality of intercultural contacts, both abroad and at home, and their implications to the study of intercultural communication. (www.englishlover.net 2012)

II. DIVERSE CULTURAL PATTERNS

It is known that culture serves the basic need of laying out a predictable world in which each of us is firmly grounded and thus enables us to make sense of our surroundings. As the English writer Fuller wrote two hundred years ago,“ Culture makes all things easy.” Culture makes “things easy” for the reasons as following: Culture helps facilitate the transition from the womb to this new life by providing meaning to events, objects, and people--- thus making the world a less mysterious and frightening place. And culture makes life less confusing because most of culture is automatic and subconscious. Culture is ubiquitous, multidimensional, complex, and all -pervasive.

Culture is both vague and specific; it is both all of an individual and but part of an individual. Each human being is unique, and each is shaped by countless factors. At any given moment, our ways of behavior are the products of millions of years of evolution; our genetic makeup; the social groups we have been in; our gender, age, race, and individual background, political affiliation, perceptions of others, and current circumstances; and many other factors. We must keep in mind that we are, at our basic core, individuals, and therefore, the values and behaviors of a particular culture may not be values and behaviors of all the individuals within that culture. Roman playwright Terrence noted, “As many men, so many minds; every one his own way.” Culture offers us a common frame of reference, we are not captives of our culture. We are, instead, thinking individuals with the rationality and potential to engage in free choice. Because we can continuously learn, we can develop the philosophic perspectives necessary for intercultural communication, apply them to the process of interacting with culturally diverse peoples, and appropriately modify our learn to value discrete groups of people regardless of race, ethnicity, religion, country of origin, gender, , or sexual preference. (bbs.gter.net 2014)

In cultures that tend toward individualism, an “I” consciousness prevails Larry (A. Samovar, Richard E. Porter, Lisa A. Stefani, 1998, p68): competition rather than cooperation is encouraged; personal goals take precedence over group goals; people tend not to be emotionally dependent on organizations and institutions; Individuals have the right to their private property, thoughts, and opinions. These cultures pay more attention to individuals’ initiative and achievements, and they value individual decision making.

Collectivism is featured by a rigid social framework that distinguishes between in-groups and out-groups. People rely

on their in-groups to care about them, and in exchange for that they believe they own absolute loyalty to the group

In collective societies such as those in Colombia, Taiwan, China and Peru, (A. Samovar, Richard E. Porter, Lisa A. Stefani, 1998, p68), people are born into extended families or clans that support and protect them in exchange for their loyalty. A “we” consciousness prevails: identity is based on the social system; the individual is emotionally dependent on organizations institutions; the culture emphasizes belonging to organizations; organizations invade private life and the clans to which individuals belong; and individuals trust group decisions. Collective behavior, like so many aspect of culture, has deep historical roost (www.benkelunwen.com 2014).

III. CULTURE VALUES ARE DERIVED FROM THE LARGER PHILOSOPHICAL ISSUES THAT ARE PART OF CULTURE’S MILIEU. (LARRY A. SAMOVAR, RICHARD E. PORTER, LISA A. STEFANI, 1998, P60)

1. Culture values are transmitted by a variety of sources: power distance, stereotype and culture shock. In the oriental, power distance is also associated with 'the family culture' (Trompenaars, 1993,p139). In this kind of corporate culture the manager is like the "caring father" who knows better than his subordinates what should be done and what is suitable for them. The subordinates always esteem the managers. Because of the managers age and experience. That is usually how employees get their promotion. There are both positive and negative parts in the family cultures. I feel it is an easy managing system. But sometime it is hard to get young creative employees work well cause of the hierarchy. As Trompenaars (1993, p 142) told us "family culture at their least effective drain the energies and loyalties of subordinates to buoy up the leader." So in family culture, the power distance can be viewed as the subordinates respect the superiors. That is the corporate culture in orient. Let us take a look at the western way. It is not a whole converse phenomenon. There is 'the Eiffel Tower culture' (Trompenaars, 1997, p166) in the international management. (www.k2k.net 2013) In china, we think that managers have power to decide the work time. So it is natural to do work beyond the work time. But in America, most of them think everyone is equal, so if he works for his boss beyond the work time, it means he himself is kind.

2. Stereotypes were ways of constructing our social status into firm and simple categories that we once stand for the whole gathering of people. Stereotypes tend to interfere intercultural communication in that they stress and enforce beliefs until they often take for “fact”. How do we acquire stereotypes? First, people learn stereotypes from their parents, relatives, and friends. When I was very young, my parents and my teacher always taught us that we can not emphasize the money .Because money maybe lead the people in the wrong way .And we always think that being rich is not always a good thing. They sometimes do not earn the money in an honor way. But in America, they think earn more money also can make others happy! There is a stereotype issue.

3.Thirdly,it refers to culture shock .Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse .These signs or cues include the thousand and one way in which we orient ourselves to situation of daily life: how to give orders ,how to make purchases. (Managing Cultural Differences, 2011) Now these are which may be words gestures ,facial expressions, customs or norms are acquired by all of us in the course of growing up and as much a part of our culture as the language we speak or the beliefs we accept .All of us depend for our peace of mind and efficiency on hundreds of these cues, most of which we are not conscious by aware , (www.docstoc.com 2013) this lack of common experiences and familiar surrounding creates varying degrees of consequences .Just like the news which I mentioned. The girl studied in the United States and accept culture which she lived .When she came back to china, she found she can not suit for her mother land culture, it means culture shock. This factor will be influenced the relationship.

IV. WAYS TO IMPROVE INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION.

1. Firstly, how do we require stereotype? People learn stereotype from their parents, relations and friends. Individuals who hear their parents say “It is too bad that all those Jews are in control of film industry” are learning stereotypes. It requires us to learn more knowledge to improve our ideas. Do not only believe what our parents say. Second, stereotypes develop through limited personal contact .If we meet a person from Brazil who is very wealthy, and from their meeting we conclude that all people from Brazil are wealthy, we are acquiring a stereotypes from limited data .If we want to reduce the time of failure, we should touch more Brazil people and learn new things from different people, then make a conclusion. But it is a good progress to you. Finally, many stereotypes are provided by the mass media. Television has been guilty of providing distorted images of many ethnic groups .From now on, I think there is another meaning underlines in newspaper or on TV. Chinese always work very hard. I remembered that one time when I went to school by train, I bought a berth ticket, when passengers were ready to get off the train, most of them did not put the quilt in order, except a man who was from American .I was puzzled, and asked why he did so. I thought these things can be left to service on railway. But he said that it stands for his country, most of them should be tidy and diligent.

2. Secondly, know yourself is very helpful for improving intercultural communication. For as simplistic as it sounds, what you bring to the communication event greatly influences the success or failure of the event. Although the idea of knowing yourself is common, it is nevertheless crucial to improving intercultural communication. There are some aspects to know yourself as more as possible .To begin with, know your culture. The first step toward introspection should begin with our own culture, regardless of what that culture might be. Remember, we are products of our culture

—and that culture helps control communication. Once I master enough cultural knowledge of our own, I should explain why I do so. That is a very efficient way to persuade others. We can detect the ways in which these attitudes influence communication. Finally, know your communication style—the manner which you present yourself to others. Many communication scholars have attempted to isolate the characters that compose a communication personality. Awareness is the first step to meaningful action. Furthermore, communication style is meant the topic people prefer to discuss their favorite forms of interaction—ritual, repartee, argument, self-disclosure—and the depth of involvement they demand of each other. It includes the extent to which they are tuned to the same ways—voiced, physical—for transmitting information, and the degree to which they have the same level of meaning, that is, to the factual or emotional of information.

3. Thirdly, develop empathy is an important role in the international communication. Empathy has recognized as important to both general communication competence and as a central characteristic of competent and effective intercultural communication. What is empathy mean? It means that we need to develop empathy—be able to see things from the point of view of the others. First, we should pay attention to the others, problems associated with concentration can be overcome if we work on staying focused on both the other person and how the topic goes on. Second, you and your communication partner must be expressive. If you have no more to talk, the atmosphere will become stern. That may not reach the purpose of communication. Third, empathy can be enhanced through awareness of specific behaviors. In China, when old friends meet together again after a long time. They will not hug first. Maybe they will tease each other first. Then come to the topic which they really take care of. Finally, the empathy can be increased if you resist the tendency to interpret the other's verbal and nonverbal actions from your culture's orientation. For example, if we hate American we should not understand their action. We should wear the others shoes to walk then we can know why they do that.

4. Fourthly, learn about cultural adaptation. The adaptation needs a long process. First, acquire knowledge about the host culture. When you read many books or watch TV or through other ways to get enough information to realize the host culture, you can realize the action which is taken by others. Just like the example which I mentioned above. But when she came back she was not adapt the Chinese culture, it is also called culture shock, but it means reverse culture shock. In other words, it means that when you leave your familiar environment for several years, you will be puzzled by the old one. So you should pay the attention to the

Cultural adaptation means you need to learn to be open and flexible. Openness does not mean you talk to every stranger you encounter; rather it implies that you are willing to accept change and are not closed to new ideas. Flexibility means that you should adapt your communication style to each culture and situation that confronts you. Third, increase contact with the host culture. As you would suspect, direct contact with the host culture promotes successful adaptation to a new culture. Just like Confucius said it far more eloquently: “The essence of knowledge is, having it, to apply it.” We also can say: “have accurate knowledge and apply it.”

V. CONCLUSION

Culture, as we have presented the concept, is a complete pattern of living. It is elaborate, multidimensional, and all-pervasive. Aspects of culture are acted out each time members of different cultures come together to share ideas and information. Because documenting all of these variables would be an impossible task, we have selected those cultural elements that we believe have the greatest impact on intercultural communication. These elements work in combination. They are like the components of a stereo or computer system: each one is related to and needs the others. Most communication scholars grant that perceptions are part of every communication and have evolved a fairly consistent taxonomy for perceptual variables that influence intercultural communication. All human beings also use nonverbal symbols to share their thoughts and feelings. Although the process of using action to communicate is universal, the meanings for those actions often shift from culture to culture. Therefore, nonverbal communication becomes another element one must understand if one is going to interact with people from different cultures. (www.academypublisher.com 2014) All communicative interaction takes place within some physical context, context influences how we send and respond to messages. In most cases, the setting in which we find ourselves resonates with cultural overtones. Unless both sides intercultural communication are aware of how their cultures affect the context, they may encounter some surprising communication difficulties. Our perceptions of the world are representations we make from both the nerve impulses that reach our brains and our unique set of experiences supplied to us as members of a particular culture. There is significant diversity within cultures just as there is diversity among cultures and we know that culture really affects perception and communication and also strongly influences our subjective reality and that there are direct links among culture, perception, and behavior. Behavior -- how we react to our perceptions of the universe is largely a result of our learning and cultural conditioning.

Although every citizen has his or her different cultural value, and value is the deepest part of culture, the core of the intercultural communication. Through intercultural communication, people from varied cultures and values can enhance their relations and communication because of the common human nature and the connections to the nature and deal with the conflicts and misunderstand caused by varied cultures and values. In this article, we mainly talk about the culture values diversity such as values on work, on wealthy and on personal friendship. There are three causes caused this: power distance, stereotype and culture shock. and discuss further on some ways to improve intercultural

communication. Different values do matter in intercultural communication. We cannot change the culture differences. To avoid misunderstanding, culture shocks, and prejudices, we should try our best to understand the different values, adapt themselves to fit into the communication environment, and make an effort to communicate with different countries people!

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The Image of Woman as Motherhood in Rabindranath Tagore's *Gora*

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Abstract—This article evaluates the image of a traditional Indian motherhood in *Gora* written by Rabindranath Tagore. In *Gora*, Tagore portrays a divine mother and a goddess as well as the conception of the central character in relation to development of social, political, religious, and economical decisions of male. Yet, he insists that woman has the important roles in man's life and she should make the best identity for her own life in the family or in the larger society. However, This essay can be read as the ideology of a feminine ideal that compares nature of India motherland with mother of everyone in all aspects of life but it examines distinctions between Tagore and Wollstonecraft concerning women's role as mothers within the family because as a feminist she argues that the rights of women are demanded within the republic. In order to explore Rabindranath Tagore's treatment of motherhood, Virginia Woolf's perspective will be analyzed in respect to her feministic approach. So, disregarding how Tagore demonstrates the idea of words, Woolf realizes ideal of motherhood was essential in women's life and develops a female atmosphere in which women portray their status in the real world and fight against their patriarchal mother.

Index Terms—Rabindranath Tagore, Mary Wollstonecraft, Virginia Woolf, motherhood

I. INTRODUCTION

In relation to discussion of feministic interpretation, Rabindranath Tagore (1861-1941) is recognized as a prominent thinker during the 19th Bengal. He is admired for depicting the various aspects of Indian values and cultures through a character in his novel. He is known as a significant and complex personality and also is seen as a great and complete man of new age. Tagore's novel *Gora* reveals the basic principle woman characterization. Through his novel, he was able to portray a new and different woman and also reveal countless social injustice, especially regarding women. A woman is completely different from the woman who is observed as the symbolic representation of Mother India through asserting her own personality upon her position as a woman in the social, moral, and spiritual fields and also emphasizing on her own rights as a woman. While Tagore views woman as a mother and wife at home, Mary Wollstonecraft holds a different and particular argument of motherhood discussing that woman must represent herself in a notion of feminine ideal in society rather than the icons of subjectivity or maternal duty.

VIRGINIA WOOLF

Virginia Woolf (1882-1941) was a significant figure for presenting feminist views in her first novel, *The Voyage Out*. This novel was essential to the development of her literary career, not her marital life. In this text, Virginia Woolf revealed her rejection of motherhood in which the woman is allowed to establish new opportunities for her own identity and challenge with false political, social, and literary structures about her gender identity. Woolf fought that motherhood as a role is not sufficient for woman whole life, in her writings she continued to seek for "everything -love, children, adventure, intimacy, work" (qtd. Saika Kanai, 2013, p.9). To Woolf, writing meant to return to identify herself, and to re-create it in her own form of writing. *The Voyage Out* encourages women to obtain freedom from repressions and limitations on them. *The Voyage Out* is not a representation of her desire for Victorian marital life, but it is a product of the complex stream of consciousness regarding her desire for her mother's role and her ambition as a writer. Woolf pursued this ideal of motherhood throughout her life. However, her marriage was not an avenue for motherhood; her husband did not allow her to have children because he was concerned about her health. Subsequently, Woolf's early writing career was marked by her anxiety about her failed motherhood as well as her ambivalent feelings towards her mother. In her earlier life with her parents, Woolf realized that the Victorian ideal of womanhood was essential in a woman's life. She observed that her mother was satisfied with maintaining her family and feeling the delight of life as a woman in this role. Julia was an ideal mother to Woolf and was a model of the Victoria ideal of womanhood, which required devotion to husband and children, Woolf's interaction with her mother made her see that supporting a husband and children was the perfect pleasure for a woman. Marriage and childbearing were essential events in a woman's life.

So, Woolf encourages women to take control of restricted position that is determined by the existence of men. Men seize the available opportunities to control the political, economic, social structures and conditions and they also treat women as inferior. Virginia Woolf emphasizes the notion of destiny and encourages women to jump over the barriers of oppression, reject their melancholy, and get equality or balance of family norms for themselves within the society.

II. DISCUSSION

The novel of *Gora* is important for its description of young female characters and the manner in which how their identities is form through their interactions with their families and society. Such characters as Sucharita and Anandamoyi are shown in relation to the discussion of feminism as they develop new identities and shape different ways of interaction with men and society. In fact, this study emphasizes on Mrs. Anandamoyi who is the protagonist in *Gora*. She considers Gora as a God gift to her although she is an Irish-British child and does not pay attention to the society's pressure. As a result, she ignores all violations and lives in loving her son. "The altar at which woman may be truly worshipped is her place as mother, the seat of the pure, right-minded lady of the house". (*Gora*, 1910, p.12) It could be said that in this novel much attention has been given to the ideology of motherhood as divine mother, the source of energy, power, fertility, love, self-effacing, and faithfulness thus in this paper all the aspects of woman identity and oppression in patriarchal structure will be revealed. In patriarchal structure, a woman depicts her identity as wife or mother and tolerates pressures in space of man's life. Rabindranath Tagore explains that every mother is not suppressed by male but some mothers perform their role as goddess or motherhood by the male. Tagore's aim was the emancipation of women through his novels, essays, poems and plays. The importance of this novel is to show the myth of motherhood in Indian culture wherein the most women expect to form the symbols of purity, grace, and love giving. So, Tagore creates ideal life within identity of female through her effort for development of personality, beliefs, emotions, and imaginations in which enables her to establish the depiction of womanhood in man's life. He believes that woman in social systems can play the central role by preserving the dignity of country and providing education, security, and also comforts with people. Then, she can have power to carry out ideas and plans for making a better world where she is able to realize the correct ways of promoting society based on freedom, love, and cooperation. In order to give hopefulness to women Wollstonecraft advocates political responsibilities and public roles to women and then focuses on duties demanded women in family. Wollstonecraft illustrates this aspect: "he clearly did not regard women as citizens" (Schwartz, 1985, p.41). According to her, the ideal feminine can separate her from the traditional notions instead of placing her in all public and domesticated roles. She believes that traditional society much discusses on the weakness of women's mind and body and ignores the power of women within family and society. It shows that the women have the ability to associate with duties on both mother and father within family, thus it makes women take part in right of citizenship and not limit themselves in duties of mother and wife. In the other hand, she suggests that the parents should participate and experience republic and membership of public before informing next group of republic and civic citizen. Wollstonecraft believes that if the women advocate the ideas of citizenship and motherhood for themselves in many social, political, and family roles; they can better care for their children and indicate acquiring acts such as education, free will, power, and peace to private and public areas. According to her, women would take part in social, political, and economical activities and even recognize duties of husband and father in these activities and also develop them in a better way by "allowing them to share the advantages of education and government with man." (qtd. Wendy Gunther, 1999, p.484) Then, she rejects the limitations of women life and elevates particular duties and public superiorities among them.

In *Gora*, Tagore depicts Anandamoyi as "face of motherland" who desires to develop her human beings without encountering with terrible attitude of religions, customs, and societies. However, the identification of motherhood emerges in Tagore's *Gora* when the icon of motherhood has the enormous importance in the cultural life of India. The image of real mother becomes a major part of Bengal or India. Anandamoyi is an angle that is in the house and lives with her family, "Let this face be the image of my motherland, let it direct me towards my duty, let it make me steadfast in performing it" (Tagore, 1910, p.190). This mother can embrace the responsibility of woman as a Goddess in patriarchal structure and this woman attempts to have a meaning or purpose in life, and thus it would create normal life. According to Tagore, a woman like a man is a creative being but woman's creative side is revealed at home when she serves her family as a mother and wife. For many women, a working career can give them a sense of superior, being, and a reality that the main image of mother is here. Anandamoyi finds her identity and can improve her fulfillment and happiness as wife and mother in society. So, Anandamoyi's belief reflects the Victorian women because of the idea of feminist and motherhood has been much different than our modern of society. While she often stayed at home during the years preceding the industrial revolution, factories made many of her duties around the home obsolete as manufactured products replaced goods produced in the home. It was a weak or uncertain existence and there was no place in polite society for a woman. Tagore sometimes uses descriptions of female characters to make a common view of women in society. He portrays them as natural limited domestic creatures that possess moral attitudes and have their own identity in society. In studying of domestic life, Virginia Woolf sees it as a need for human being's socialization especially for women. In Virginia Woolf's novels the married women are often women of society and domestic life in Virginia's mind is entirely social and there is no privacy and limitation for women. Consequently, it is impossible for the female to create her own identity freely and independently in an isolated room without any consideration of external

influence. From this aspect, the women in private space lose their revolutionary sense and even their knowledge. Thus, they should both face the masculine influence and also pursue a new feministic way until being able to get an opportunity to express their ability and intelligence into society. However, Woolf broke traditional stereotypes associated with women to free them from these limitations. Virginia Woolf demands a new space for women and strives to remove traditional notions of personal and political boundaries. Women had to find solace where they could get it, in religion or daydreaming, if they did not choose to let themselves be absorbed in domestic details. Thus, by challenging these ideals, her feminist ideas become very clear and she raises her own voice in order to gain equality, women's rights and their position in society.

Rabindranath Tagore gives his female characters respectful faces and he believes that love and respect are two important elements for a woman in her family since her useful role as a mother leads to the equality between all of men and women. At Tagore's time, there was such respect for women in India: "Christianity made the wife equal to man. But Hinduism instead of doing so went further. It made her the goddess of man, the object of his worship. All the gods are pleased when the woman is worshipped." (Basu, 2005, p.25) Rabindranath Tagore believes that the role of woman in India is so glorious and holy as she advocates all her life for her husband and children. He thinks that right of woman should be given according to the principle of equality and goddess when a man treats her wife respectfully. In other hand, Craft discusses the principle of 'logic', 'equality', and 'development' and establishes her idea about how woman should take place as a "human nature" (Halldenius, 2007, p.77) toward social structures. If logic dominates in social and political issues, so humanity can progress in social positions and mode of living. Then, she is demanded to change the modes of unjust or even disrespect and develops the nature of humanity and moral outcomes among man and woman. Accordingly, in Wollstonecraft's view, woman's rights and moral principles or even respect should be legalized in a way that alters social, political, and domestic positions of a woman.

Rabindranath Tagore represents the state of two women in various situations in which they have different contributions on their emancipation and their state of being in the society and family. Tagore attempts to describe a developing condition of women's rights and the empowerment of them towards the social issues of his contemporary society in *Gora*. In *Gora*, Tagore focuses on the character of Sucharita, the liberated young woman who has courage and strength in trying situations and plays the key role within her own wishes to break down restrictions of her society. In this novel, Sucharita endeavors to attract the opposite personality; she has no hesitation to adopt a more open-minded life style for herself and during the novel to divulge her agitation for keeping her thinking. So, she has an individual and independent mind that attempts to create a modern and normal life for own identity. Tagore believes that Sucharita feels to have a strong mind of her own and it is important for her to create her own role with a liberated outlook inside and outside of 'home'. She finds her role in society as men have the same position in society in this way that she and male characters of society will have the same functions, values, attitudes and as a result they will receive the same rewards and desired purpose. Tagore is able to differentiate between Anandamoyi is as the face of a traditional Indian woman and Sucharita is as a young woman who try to rebuild a normal life and wants to participate in the society that enriches and enhances her growth. Sucharita is the heroine who is an educated person with her own point of view in life. She imparts this educated class to fulfill needs of herself or even her country and also to prepare herself for the service of the country. In the words of Tagore:

When we find that our learning is not in tune with the way we live, that it does not depict ... the social milieu we are rooted in, that it does not reflect our relation with our parents, friends, brothers and sisters ... it becomes obvious to us how impotent it is to fulfill all the needs of our life. (qtd. Kalyan Sen Gupta, 2005, p.32)

Tagore talks about the form of education and gives the new thought to educational methods in India and also begins to realize the problems of education and transfers educational system to rural life. Tagore puts his perspective on education and reveals education as the most necessary element in opening the channel of communication between the East and the West and also the development of a country. According to him "The highest education is that which does not merely give us information but makes our life in harmony with all existence." (Das, 2014, p.3) So education provides a sense of harmony and identity in a one's life and develops the individual personality in any field. In the other hand, he wants the woman to have a universal personality like himself in which she overcomes the feeling of colonial power so that she can live and contact with the worldwide developments. Tagore believes that freedom and creativity make life meaningful and some women should remove the limitations of their lives and join to freedom, humanism, and unity and then develop their creativity in categories of technology and sciences. Hence, he feels that lack of education prevents the progress of a nation and also creates a lot of problems such as getting money, financial gains, and so on. However, education develops our beliefs and imaginations, creativities and enables us to improve our conditions and natural and spiritual needs. Then, Wellstoncraft asserts that woman can empower herself through education, profession, and political participations. He adds that the woman would expand her experience in different affairs until she achieve to power in household. "Contending for the rights of woman, my main argument is built on the simple principle, that if she be not prepared by education to become the companion of man, she will stop the progress of knowledge and virtue; for truth must be common to all" (Wollstonecraft, 1989a, p.66). Therefore, it is better for a woman to participate in society, take her education and abilities seriously, put them to use and ultimately she has to compete with men. She emphasizes that the woman would show her interest in government and would use her mental capacity in education in which performing of these abilities by woman undermine the correct way and stability in home. So, "It is not empire,

but equality they should contend for” (Wollstonecraft, 1989a, p.173). Moreover, woman would get equality and balance of freedom and rights for themselves in social and political life and also take control of restricted conditions that are determined by power predominant of men.

In fact, Rabindranath Tagore brings the nature of motherland as a symbol with an idea of the nation in the cultural life of India. Anandamoyi was a divine mother in the house that she was responsible for sewing, knitting and so on, she also was supposed to take care of someone and her work is only in house who obeys her husband; the gentleman made sure that the home was a place of comfort for the husband and children and they were free from all the burdens of outside work. So, Anandamoyi as a mother appoints ‘human being’ in positive paths and even creates self-sacrifice against her family because all her thought and activity remain in the shadow of tradition of India. Finally, Tagore emphasizes that India would fix power and force in harmony with the rest of world and the whole people of a nation create political and social freedom for themselves. He believes that a nation should be in harmony with universal humanity, dignity, equality, and freedom which are the tendency in human mind to build and promote superiority among country. He states that,

A woman’s identity is no longer limited to the role of a mother or a wife. We have arrived at a stage when women are demanding their right as human beings. They want to be counted unreservedly in their identity as individuals. (Rachanabali, 1961, p.79)

Rabindranath Tagore is a social reformer whose idea was derived from some of his experiences. He writes about his feeling for value of humanity and efforts to give India the spiritual and natural needs that are in harmony with the large nation. He believes that woman as a human being can create a substitute model of personality, whether male or female because God created her as part of society. In order to reach this equality, woman should establish a well-balanced relation with others that provide a sense of one’s identity as a total man. Then, Tagore brings freedom in Indian nation with the true religion and creed doctrines which are necessary in growth of social and intellectual factors in a socio-political entity. In the other hand, he gives brands of self-confidence and self-respectful to woman in society and attempts to bring place of woman in the social formation. Tagore seeks modern resources for improvement of woman in terms of physical, intellectual and economic conditions and his aim was independence of India and to eradicate the alien powers and even the imposed injustice. In Tagore's opinion, woman couldn't be poor but could be educated and she should gain freedom of mind and action, and also should resist against social pressures or stresses of a man because it is possible that this equality stay between man and woman in a society. Woman, like any other man, should have legal property rights and should consider for herself some property and defend herself rights against other people so that she is treated equally in society. Finally, woman can create new means of bettering herself and her environment. Virginia Woolf suggests that women like men should seek to achieve equality in moral, social, economic and political fields. In her call, she offers women to believe in themselves and maintain integrity of their values. Woolf wants women to exclude all masculine values of hierarchy, dominance and power from society. As a result, Woolf believes that this true identity allows women the power of thinking and standing up for their rightful place in society. Virginia Woolf makes image of identity more clear and hopeful for releasing the barrier of domination and allowing freedom to emerge in the course of social and political power for women.

III. CONCLUSION

As a whole, Rabindranath Tagore’s novel can be viewed as the best example of motherhood; Tagore was able to promote an unusual or irregular ideology of mother character in a Hindu community. *Gora* is a novel that depicts the effects of a noble hearted woman who did not want to encounter an intellectual world which was resonated with the ideas of liberalism, freedom, and so on, but Tagore desired to enhance and enrich our growth as 'human beings'. He shows the conflict between roles of women in the house as wives and personal aspiration and that the women would not expect to complete their roles as woman but would expect to protect their wishes as the expression of personal aspiration. Undoubtedly, both the female characters, Anandamoyi and Sucharita, have liberal outlook in their thinking. Thus, Tagore has persistently advocated equal rights for women as that it only would enhance and enrich our growth. Moreover, women must be allowed to have the opportunity to improve their thoughts, feelings, emotions and senses and liberate themselves from constraints of society and marriage.

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Backward Pragmatic Transfer: An Empirical Study on Compliment Responses among Chinese EFL Learners

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Abstract— This present study aims at investigating compliment response strategies used by different groups of Chinese English as a foreign language (EFL) learners in order to find out the evidence of the existence of backward transfer from foreign language (FL) or second language (L2) English to their first language (L1) Chinese at pragmatic level. The data is collected through a written Discourse Complete Task (DCT) among four levels of EFL learners in a university in China. The data suggests that backward transfer occurs in their L1 Chinese compliment response. Moreover, backward pragmatic transfer is enhanced by EFL learners' L2 proficiency. The results of this study are compared with those of Qu & Wang (2005) to see the great changes in the past ten years. The results of this study point to the complexity of language transfer and its interaction with L2 proficiency.

Index Terms— backward transfer, pragmatic, compliment response, speech act

I. INTRODUCTION

Pragmatic transfer or sociolinguistic transfer, as defined by Kasper (1992), describes “the influence exerted by learners’ pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production, and acquisition of L2 pragmatic information” (p.207). From its definition, pragmatic transfer mainly concerns how language learners’ pragmatic knowledge of language and culture in their L1 influences their pragmatic knowledge or behavior in L2, the pragmatic transfer from L1 to L2, also called forward pragmatic transfer.

Since the introduction of multi-competence by Cook (1991), the pragmatic transfer from the learners’ newly learned language to the previously mastered language or from L2 to L1 and the bi-directionality of pragmatic transfer has aroused attraction. For instance, Cenoz (2003) examined the fluent Spanish-English bilinguals’ request behavior, the results show that they adopted the same way of request making in their L1 and L2. Su (2004, 2010, and 2012) investigated the bidirectional pragmatic transfer (from L1 to L2 and from L2 to L1) on the speech act of request and apologizing behavior among intermediate and advanced L2 learners. On the speech act of request, both the two levels used indirect strategies less often than English native speakers in making English request but more often than Chinese native speakers did when requesting in Chinese; On the speech act of apologizing behavior, effects of L1 on L2 are obvious for the intermediate EFL learners, the effect of L2 on L1 are more noticeable on the advanced EFL learners. The results show that cross-linguistic influence occur bi-directionally at the pragmatic level in foreign language learners.

While in the previous studies, all of their researches on backward pragmatic transfer have been done in a L2 environment or bilingual environment. What about the pragmatic transfer in the EFL learners’ L1 environment? In mainland China, most of the students study English as a foreign language for the examination, they only study it in the instructed classroom learning environment without using it in their daily life. This study tries to test the following issue:

Could backward pragmatic transfer occur in Chinese EFL learners’ compliment response in Mainland China?
Is the backward pragmatic transfer influenced by the EFL learners’ L2 proficiency?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Compliment Responses

Complimenting and compliment responses (CR) have been a central issue in the speech act for decades. Compliment functions as a negotiation of solidarity with the addressee (Wolfson and Manes, 1980) (cited in Herbert, 1986), the compliments offered by the speakers are part of a general conversational postulate make hearer feel good (Goody 1978; Lakoff, 1975) (cited in Herbert, 1986). CRs vary with people’s cultural and social values (Chen, 1993; Chen, 2003; Gu, 1990; Holmes, 1988; Mao, 1994; Manes & Wolfson, 1981; Pomerantz, 1978; Yu, 2003; Wu, 2006). The major difference between the Chinese people and the English people is that the former tend to reject the compliment while the latter are inclined to accept the compliment. In CR research, a wide variety of taxonomies have been used for categorizing its utterances, such as Pomerantz (1978) identified two constraints about the CRs: Agree with the speaker and avoid self-praise. The former expresses one’s acceptance of the compliments, while the latter objects the

compliment by downgrading. Herbert (1986) redefined these two categories into three principles: Agreement, Non-Agreement, and Other Interpretations. The detailed categorization and examples are shown in Table.1.

TABLE 1:
HERBERT'S TAXONOMY OF COMPLIMENT RESPONSE TYPES

A. Agreement I. Acceptances 1.Appreciation Token 2.Comment Acceptance 3.Praise Upgrade II. Comment History III. Transfers 1.Reassignment 2. Return	Thanks; Thank you[smile] Thanks, it's my favorite too. Really brings out the blue in my eyes, doesn't it? I bought it for the trip to Arizona. My brother gave it to me. So's yours.
B. Nonagreement I. Scale Down II. Question III. Nonacceptances 1. Disagreement 2. Qualification IV. No Acknowledgment	It's really quite old. Do you really think so? I hate it. It's all right, but Len's nicer. [silence]
C. Other Interpretations I. Request	You wanna borrow this one too?

While this classification has been popular, there are more different systems of labels for CRs. Holmes (1988) classified twelve types of CRs into three categories: Acceptance, Deflection/Evasion, and Rejection. Yu (2004) groups the CRs used by the Taiwanese into six types. Yuan (2002) adopts another way of labeling the data collected from her Kunming Chinese data, two new ones: invitation and suggestion.

B. Researches on Chinese EFL Learners' Compliment Response

(1). Forward pragmatic transfer

As regard to the Chinese EFL learners' compliment response, a lot of contrastive research between English native speakers and Chinese ESL/EFL learners have been investigated, for example Chen (1993) (English questionnaire) carried out a contrastive study between American English speakers and Chinese speakers. The results show that the subjects rejected 95.73% compliments, accepted 1.03% compliments and deflected 3.41% compliments. Seventeen years later, Chen and Yang(2010) report a longitudinal study of CRs in Chinese by adopting the same instrument among the similar subjects population, and the data conveys that 62.60% accept the compliments, 9.13% reject the compliment and 28.27% deflected compliment. They attribute the great change to the influx of Western culture influences that has occurred in the city of Xi'an since the early 1990s.

Liu (1995) showed clear evidence of pragmatic transfer from Chinese in the participants' production of CRs. Although the participants possessed high English proficiency and with well master of the ways of responding to compliments, they still employed their native Chinese pattern in their response.

Yu (1999) revealed that Chinese speakers use non-acceptance CRs more often than English speakers who tend to choose acceptance strategies. Yu (2003) attributed Chinese speakers' choice of non-acceptance strategies to the social value on modesty and humility.

Qu and Wang (2005) compared the CRs used by American English speaker and Chinese learners of English, revealing the similarities and differences and providing evidence of pragmatic transfer from Chinese. The study shows no significant relationship between the CRs produced by the English major and non-English major Chinese English learners.

Evidence of forward pragmatic transfer could also been shown in Cheng's (2011) study. It compared the CRs produced by American English native speakers and Chinese ESL and EFL speakers through a naturalistic role-play task. The results showed both the Chinese English speaking groups respond differently to compliments from the native English speakers. Although all Chinese English learners know how to say "thank you/thanks" to respond to others' compliments, the EFL speakers cannot do as well as the ESL speakers in using different response strategies. Two major factors: L1 culture and low L2 linguistic proficiency are noticeable in their CR strategies.

Chen, W. (2012) carried out a contrastive research between English native speakers in the United States and Chinese speaking English learners. The results show that the sixteen Chinese ESL learners use similar strategies with those of native speakers. One difference lies in the Chinese ESL learners use "really?" or "oh really?" the Chinese way of CR in their English CR.

(2). Backward pragmatic transfer

All of the above studies are examined about forward pragmatic transfer, they tempt to find out the influence from L1 Chinese to L2 English at pragmatic level. Very few researches have touched the issue of pragmatic transfer from the reverse direction, the influence of the L2 on the L1, or backward pragmatic transfer. Liu (2010) distributed 92 DCT questionnaires in Chinese to non-English majors and English majors, the results showed that English majors were more

inclined to adopt acceptance strategies than non-English majors. The paper attributes it to the longer history of L2 learning and higher L2 proficiency, it shows the existence of pragmatic “borrowing transfer” in the L2 learning process.

III. THE CURRENT STUDY

A. Participants

This study is designed to four different levels of English learners in the university. The questionnaires are distributed among 50 freshman at junior college, 52 English level A freshman in the university, 50 English majors at grade two, 53 English teachers in the university. They are at different phases of English learning, they can represent four different levels of Chinese EFL learners. For the 50 freshman at junior college, data collected from their questionnaires show that their English score at the National College Entrance Examination are around 75-105 in 150, and they just reach the intermediate English level for high school students. For English level A freshman, they are the English A level students in the university, most of them have passed the National College English Test Band 4 (CET4), they have very good English speaking and writing. The English majors at grade two mostly have passed the national English test Band 4 for English majors, they have higher level of English proficiency in reading, writing and other language skills. For the English teachers, all of them have passed the national English test Band 8, that is the highest level they English majors could reach in their language learning.

B. Instrument & Procedure

The present study adopts discourse completion task (DCT), one of the most frequent forms employed in interlanguage studies (Yu, 2004) to collect the data. At the very beginning of the questionnaire, participants are required to tick out their personal information such as gender, age and major, and provide more information about their English proficiency and their score in the corresponding examination. In the DCT questionnaire, the participants are introduced to write down their response to the compliment in the situation in Chinese. If they have nothing to say in some situation they could tick the corresponding item. So the participants could take down their real response to the corresponding compliments, and the data collected will be more realistic. In the four groups of participants, one group is university English teachers, the other three are all students, and so two versions of questionnaire are used with trifle changes. In the two questionnaire, the compliment topics involved are ability, performing quite well in something, appearance, new possessions (new watch or new phone).

C. Data Analysis

Herbert (1989)'s coding scheme is adopted to categorize the compliment response strategies. There are three main strategies: Agreement, non-agreement and other interpretation. Under the agreement strategy, there are six sub-strategies: appreciation token, comment acceptance, praise upgrade, comment history, reassignment and return. For example, when the complimentee is praised for having a pretty new hairstyle, he/she may respond with “Thank you” or “Thanks”, the strategy used here is appreciation token. If the complimentee responds as “I have it done in the barber shop around the corner.” he uses comment history strategy in his response. For the nonagreement strategy, there are five substrategies under it, they are: scale down, question, disagreement, qualification and no acknowledgment. Table. 1 gives example of each strategy.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After collecting the data and figuring out the strategies used in the questionnaire by each participant, a quantitative method is adopted to analyze the data, the tokens and frequencies of compliment responses. One-Way ANOVA test is used to test the significant difference among the four groups for their strategies used in their responses.

From the above Table. 2, the participants' compliment responses are clearly shown. It seems that the four groups adopted quite similar strategies when they are complimented, the data shows that the two English major groups (English majors and English teachers) tend to take more agreement strategies than the non-English major groups (freshman in Junior college and freshman in university) when they respond to compliment. As shown in Table. 2, the percentage of agreement strategies used by the freshman in junior college are 59.3%, by the English Level A freshman are 59.8%. The percentage of agreement strategies adopted by English majors is comparatively higher than the non-English majors (the previous two groups), 67.3% by the English major students and 71.7% by the English teacher group. It is likely that this pattern could be explained by the concept of backward pragmatic transfer, while the English native speakers tend to use agreement strategies in their response to compliment, Chinese like to adopt non-agreement strategies to show their humble. If backward pragmatic transfer exists in Chinese English learners' mind, they tend to choose more agreement strategies in their speech act. The data suggests that backward pragmatic transfer is more noticeable if the Chinese EFL learners have a higher L2 proficiency. For the different four groups the English teacher group possess the highest L2 English proficiency, all of them have passed the national test for English majors band 8, they respond to the compliments in the situations by adopting more agreement strategies than the other three groups. In order to find out whether there is significant difference among the four groups, especially the English majors and non-English majors, One-Way ANOVA test is taken.

TABLE 2:
TOKENS AND PERCENTAGE OF PARTICIPANTS' COMPLIMENT RESPONSES

CR Strategy	Freshman in Junior college 12*50=600		English Level A Freshman CET 4 12*52=624		English Majors Sophomore EMT 4 12*50=600		English Teachers EMT 8 10*53=530	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
A. Agreement								
Appreciation Token	164	27.3	137	22	215	35.8	242	45.7
Comment Acceptance	65	10.8	81	12.9	74	12.3	70	13.2
Praise Upgrade	42	7	48	7.7	14	2.3	2	0.4
Comment History	7	1.2	1	0.2	9	1.5	15	2.8
Reassignment	28	4.7	17	2.7	18	3	9	1.7
Return	36	6	25	4	22	3.7	5	0.9
Combination	14	2.3	64	10.3	52	8.7	37	7
Total	356	59.3	373	59.8	404	67.3	380	71.7
B. Nonagreement								
Scale Down	51	8.5	32	5.1	34	5.7	44	8.3
Question	7	1.2	16	2.6	30	5	20	3.8
Disagreement	39	6.5	103	16.5	56	9.3	47	8.8
Qualification	4	0.7	3	0.5	3	0.5	0	0
No Acknowledgment	129	21.5	60	9.6	62	10.33	27	5.1
Combination	5	0.8	22	3.5	10	1.7	12	2.3
Total	235	39.2	236	37.8	195	32.53	150	28.3
C. Other Interpretations								
	9	1.5	15	2.4	1	0.17	0	0

TABLE 3:
THE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE AMONG THE FOUR GROUPS

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Score

LSD

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-4.03085	3.66713	.273	-11.2618	3.2001
	3	-12.46400*	3.70291	.001	-19.7655	-5.1625
	4	-18.04728*	3.65013	.000	-25.2447	-10.8498
2	1	4.03085	3.66713	.273	-3.2001	11.2618
	3	-8.43315*	3.66713	.022	-15.6641	-1.2022
	4	-14.01644*	3.61383	.000	-21.1423	-6.8906
3	1	12.46400*	3.70291	.001	5.1625	19.7655
	2	8.43315*	3.66713	.022	1.2022	15.6641
	4	-5.58328	3.65013	.128	-12.7807	1.6142
4	1	18.04728*	3.65013	.000	10.8498	25.2447
	2	14.01644*	3.61383	.000	6.8906	21.1423
	3	5.58328	3.65013	.128	-1.6142	12.7807

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Table 3 shows that there is significant difference between group 1 and group3, group1 and group4, the significance <0.05 , but not between group1 and group2, the significance $0.273 > 0.05$. It shows that there is no significant difference between the freshman in Junior college and English A level freshman in university. Although their L2 proficiency are different, there is no significant difference in their performance of the questionnaire. The data in Table 3 conveys that no significant difference exists between group 3 English majors and group 4 English teachers. Table 3 describes the significant difference between English majors and non-English majors. There is great difference between English majors and non-English majors in their production of compliment responses. The English majors tend to use more English-like acceptance strategies when they respond to compliments in their L1 Chinese than their counterparts. In other words, the backward pragmatic transfer is enhanced by the EFL learners' L2 proficiency.

V. COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PRESENT STUDY AND QU & WANG (2005)

Compared to Qu & Wang's (2005) study, a dramatic change can be seen in the past ten years in university students' compliment response. Table 4 shows the CR types used by the participants in his study and the results of the present study. In terms of appreciation token, the subjects in the present study pick more than double the number of the participants did. Another great difference lies in that the participants in the present study adopt more combination strategies than the students in Qu & Wang's study.

TABLE 4
COMPLIMENT RESPONSES IN CHINESE

CR Types		Qu & Wang(2005)	Freshman in college	English Level A	English Majors	English Teachers
Agreement	Appreciation token	10.41	27.3	22	35.8	45.7
	Comment acceptance	11.76	10.8	12.9	12.3	13.2
	Praise upgrade	0.45	7	7.7	2.3	0.4
	Comment history	3.17	1.2	0.2	1.5	2.8
	Reassignment	5.88	4.7	2.7	3	1.7
	Return	3.62	6	4	3.7	0.9
	Combination		2.3	10.3	8.7	7
	Total	35.29	59.3	59.8	67.3	71.7
Nonagreement	Scale down	18.10	8.5	5.1	5.7	8.3
	Question	4.98	1.2	2.6	5	3.8
	Nonacceptance	30.77	7.2	17	9.8	8.8
	No acknowledgement		21.5	9.6	10.33	5.1
	Express embarrassment	0.90				
	Combination		0.8	3.5	1.7	2.3
	Total	54.75	39.2	37.8	32.53	28.3
Other interpretations		9.96	1.5	2.4	0.17	0

(Based on Qu & Wang 2005 and the present study)

For the combination strategies in agreement and nonagreement part. The Chinese EFL learners' response are different from the native English speakers. For Situation one: Recently you have changed your hairstyle, one day you come across a friend in the street, he/she says "That's a nice hairstyle, it suits you." In the questionnaire, subjects respond like "Thank you, I have it done in the barber shop near our university", "Thanks, it brings out my elegance." "Thank you, really?" When the Chinese EFL learners try to respond to compliments, they adopt appreciation token and some other strategies, they use quite a lot of combination strategies in their questionnaires. It provides evidence of Cook (1991)'s multi-competence theory, for the foreign language learners, they have more than one language in their mind, each language they speak are connected. When they speak their L1 and L2 will naturally show hints of the other language.

In the after interview about the questionnaire, the participants explains the reason for ticking "No acknowledgement", first reason is that they do not know how to respond to the complimentary words, the second reason is that they totally agree with the complimenter's words, and accept their compliment silently without showing any verbal response.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study has examined the possible existence of backward pragmatic transfer in Chinese L1 environment through the investigation of four groups of EFL learners' compliment response in a DCT questionnaire. The collected statistics display that all four groups of participants tend to choose more agreement strategies than non-agreement strategies, they prefer accepting the compliments instead of rejecting the compliments. It is shown that there is significant difference between English majors and non-English majors in their responses, the backward pragmatic transfer is enhanced by the EFL learners' L2 proficiency, and English majors use more acceptance strategies than the non-English majors.

As the present study did consider the topics of gender, social status, and age in the complimentary conversation, there should be enormous difference in compliment responses once given social status difference. Limitations of the current study also promise some opportunities for future researches. The issue of this present study is the existence of backward pragmatic transfer from EFL learners' compliment responses and its correlation with L2 proficiency. It is hoped that more findings may be potentially applicable to backward transfer, especially the influential factors which have not deeply discussed.

APPENDIX A. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

请根据您的实际情况在下列相应的方框中划“√”。

您的性别: 男 / 女

您的年龄: 17-20岁 20-24岁 24-28岁 28以上

您的专业是: 非英语专业文科 理科 工科 英语

您的(请至少提供一项):

1) 英语高考成绩: 30%-60% 60%-80% 80%-100% 分数为 _____

2) 大学英语四级考试成绩: 通过 未通过 四级成绩: 通过 未通过

3) 英语专业四级考试成绩: 通过 未通过 四级成绩: 通过 未通过

您是从什么时候开始学习英语的? 幼儿园 小学 初中 高中

您有出国的经历吗? 没有 有, 但呆了不到一年 。有, 呆的时间超过1年

填写说明：请仔细阅读以下十个生活场景，如果您遇到此种情形，您会作何回应。请用中文写下您的真实回答，尽可能地写得详尽、逼真，表情或是肢体语言可用括号注明。如果您觉得在某些场景什么也不愿意说的话，请在 B 选项上划√。

场景一

您刚换了个新发型，突然碰到一个朋友，互相致意后，他/她说：“新发型么？不错不错。很适合你。”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景二

当您的老师发作业时他对您说：“做的不错！”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景三

您戴着一只新手表，一个朋友看见了，他/她说：“新手表吗？好漂亮！”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景四

您的老师看到您在打球并注意到您打的很好，他对您说：“你打的挺不错的！”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景五

您班上开圣诞晚会，您注意打扮了一番。在您到达晚会现场的时候，碰到班上一个女生/男生，她说：“哎呀~好靓啊！”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景六

运动会，您刚赢得跳高冠军，班上一个男生/女生过来，说：“恭喜恭喜！比赛很精彩！”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景七

聚餐时老师尝了您做的一道菜后，她对您说“你的手艺不错！”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景八

您刚买了个新手机，班上一个男生/女生看见了，说：“新手机么？不错不错”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景十

寒假您邀请了几个朋友到您家，并亲手做了一桌子菜。其中一个女孩尝了一口后，笑笑对您说：“手艺真不赖！可以当大厨了哦！”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景十一

您和朋友去听一个学术讲座，之后他/她对您说：“我觉得你提的问题提的很好！”

A. 您会说：_____

B 您什么也不说。

场景十二

一次考试您考得很好, 下课后您老师对您说: “考得不错!”

您会说: _____

您什么也不说.

非常感谢您抽取宝贵的时间参与本次问卷调查!

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ENGLISH TEACHERS

尊敬的老师: 您好! 请根据您的实际情况在下列相应的方框中划“√”。

您的性别: 男 女

您的年龄: 24-28岁 28-35岁 35岁以上

您的(请至少提供一项):

您的英语水平: 英语专业四级 英语专业八级 其它

您是从什么时候开始学习英语的? 幼儿园 小学 初中 高中

您有出国的经历吗? 没有 有, 但呆了不到一年。 有, 呆的时间超过1年

填写说明: 请仔细阅读以下十个生活场景, 如果您遇到此种情形, 您会作何回应. 请用中文写下您的真实回答, 尽可能地写得详尽、逼真, 表情或是肢体语言可用括号注明. 如果您觉得在某些场景什么也不愿意说的话, 请在 B 选项上划√.

场景一

您刚换了个新发型, 突然碰到一个朋友, 互相致意后, 他/她说: “新发型么? 不错不错. 很适合你.”

A. 您会说: _____

B 您什么也不说.

场景二

当您的领导看到您年终科研成果时他对你说: “今年做的不错!”

A. 您会说: _____

B 您什么也不说.

场景三

您戴着一只新手表. 一个同事看见了, 他/她说: “新手表吗? 好漂亮!”

A. 您会说: _____

B 您什么也不说.

场景四

您的领导看到您在打球并注意到您打的很好, 他对你说: “你打的挺不错的!”

您会说: _____

B 您什么也不说.

场景五

今天上新学期的第一节课. 您注意打扮了一番. 在您到达教师休息室的时候, 碰到教研室的一个同事(异性), 她/他说: “哎呀~好漂亮啊!”

A. 您会说: _____

B 您什么也不说.

场景六

运动会上, 您刚赢得跳远冠军. 一个同事过来, 说: “恭喜恭喜! 比赛很精彩!”

A. 您会说: _____

B 您什么也不说.

场景七

您刚买了个新手机. 一个同事看见了, 说: “新手机么? 不错不错”

A. 您会说: _____

B 您什么也不说。

场景八

寒假您邀请了几个同事到您家, 并亲手做了一桌子菜. 其中一个同事尝了一口后, 笑笑对您说: “手艺真不赖! 可以当大厨了哦!”

A. 您会说: _____

B 您什么也不说。

场景九

您和同事去听一个学术讲座, 之后他/她对您说: “我觉得你提的问题提的很好!”

A. 您会说: _____

B 您什么也不说。

场景十

一次教学竞赛您讲得很好, 赛后您领导对您说: “讲得不错!”

您会说: _____

您什么也不说。

非常感谢您抽取宝贵的时间参与本次问卷调查!

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A Study of Relationship between Translation Studies Students' Critical Thinking Ability and the Quality of Literary Prose Text Translation

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Abstract—This study aims to find the relationship between students of translation studies' Critical Thinking Ability and the quality of translation of prose text. To this end, a Ricketts Critical Thinking Ability questionnaire (2003) which contained 33 items and some paragraphs of Mrs Dalloway novel by Virginia Woolf, which is literary text, were given to the 60 MA students of translation study at Fars Science and Research Azad University. The students' translation corrected based on Vinay and Darbelnet's model. The obtained data were analyzed by using SPSS software and the correlation between Critical Thinking ability and Translation Quality Scores found to be .320 and significant at .013. Thus the results indicated that there was a relationship between Critical Thinking Ability of translators and their translation quality of literary text.

Index Terms—critical thinking, translation, literary text

I. INTRODUCTION

Atichon (1997) said critical thinking (CT) has been always accounted an important issue in human life, as all the time, we need to make a decision, and this process involves critical thinking. Thus, it is not odd to claim that critical thinking ability is one of the main notions investigated in education. Today the role of critical thinking in foreign and second learning is very significance. And critical thinking refers to be able to consider, criticize and defend of opinions, inductively or deductively and according to the sound inferences which come from unequivocal opinion or knowledge cause to achieve the real results (Freeley and Steinberg, 2000).

A. Definition of Critical Thinking

Critical thinking defined as a decision which is deliberate and automatically regulate and the result of expression of documentary, perceptual, methodological or attention to the context are according to this judgment (Facione, 2000). Chance (1986) declared critical thinking is decomposition of facts, produce and arrange the thoughts, vindicate the thoughts, make conclusion, consider the reasoning and dissolve difficulties. Tama (1989) said critical thinking is a kind of study which needs to defend of one's ideas. Critical thinking is capability of a man/woman to have criticism thinking which is awareness of his/her thought processes (Paul, 2004). It seems the best intelligible definition for critical thinking is the capability of thinkers to accept the responsibility of their own thinking, which requires a developed sound critical and criterions for considering and evaluating their thinking and therefore improve its quality by using those criteria and standards (Paul & Elder, 1997). Paul (1995) believed an incomparable and purposive thinking in which the thinker regularly and conditionally exert criteria and intellectual scales upon the thinking, accepting the responsibility of the framework of thinking, conducting the framework of the thinking based on critical thinking criteria, and determining the effectiveness of the thinking according to the goal, specification and criteria of thinking (Paul, 1995). Ennis (1992) stated that critical thinking means rational and logical thinking based on the making decision for what he/she performs.

B. CT and Translation of Literary Texts

Besides critical thinking, translation of literary texts is another important issue. Literature is seen as an ideological and historical group with its political and social performance (Culler, 1997). The best define of literature is "a highly valued kind of writing" (Eagleton, 2008, p.9). Toury (1980) displayed it as "the presence of a secondary, literary code superimposed on a stratum of unmarked language" (p.78). As literary texts are important, this study may help ones who care about literary translation.

As translation studies is a new discipline in Iran, many researchers and scientists try to explore the different elements that have influence in translation in order to increase translation quality. Some scholars work on the translator

himself/herself to find the translator's role and their specific personalities on the text which they translate. Undoubtedly, specific personalities such as experience, creativity, knowledge of the translator, feature of the translator and other different abilities which the translator utilizes in procedure of the translation can have effect on the quality of translation. Recent years, translation studies and the field of psychology are linked together (Pourgharib & Dehbandi, 2013). Many issues may be affected the translation of literary texts such as SL and TL culture, SL and TL norms, TL readership, and many other factors. In Iran Ghanizadeh and Mirzae (2012) worked on the EFL learners' self-regulation, critical thinking and language achievement was considered in order to find out the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' self-regulation, critical thinking and language achievement. The results showed that the self-regulation of EFL learners find out near 53 percent of the achievement of language but the CT of EFL learners find nearly 28 percent of the achievement of language. Fahim and Rezanejad (2014) considered the critical thinking in the EFL context of Iran. Hassani, Rahmani and Babaei (2013) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and reading comprehension performance in journalistic texts. And strong correlation found out between two variables. So the results indicated that students who are critical thinkers have better performance in reading journalistic texts. In this connection this study attempts to investigate whether there is any relationship between translators' critical thinking ability and the quality of their literary translation text based on Vinay and Darbelnet's model; who introduced two strategies of translation, one of them is direct and the other one is oblique. The direct one includes literal translation, calque translation and borrowing translation. The oblique one includes adaptation translation, equivalence translation, modulation translation and transposition translation.

II. BACKGROUND

The way of thinking has been discussed over the years. Russel (1999) finds out critical thinking as the process of evaluation or classification in terms of fundamental knowledge which obtained previously. Critical thinking (CT) is a basic part of management, decision making, clinical judgment, professional achievement, and effective collaboration in the community (Akyuz & Samsa, 2009).

A. *Philosophical Approaches to Critical Thinking*

Many scholars and scientists write about philosophical approach such as Richard Paul, Matthew Lipman, Aristotle, Plato, and Socrates. Lewis & Smith (1993) and Thayer-Bacon (2000) believed that the concentration of philosophical approach is on supposition of critical thinker, counting individual features than actions/conducts that a critical thinker may perform. Some definitions of critical thinking which appear from the philosophical tradition are as follow: Ennis (1985) stated CT is the reasonable and reflective thinking which concentrates on the decision that he/she do or believe. Lipman (1988) noted because of three factors the responsible and skillful thinking make easy the good judgment: based on criteria, sensitivity of context and self-correcting. Paul (1992) declared CT is organized and self-oriented thinking and represents the perfect thoughts which are proper to a specific or attitude of thought. Bailin et al., (1999b) suggested thinking is purposeful; and thinking intends to make a judgment and itself facing with criterion of precision and adequacy. CT is a reflective way of making decision for what he/she believe or do (Facione, 2000).

According to Mertes (1991) CT is the awareness and ponders process which can explain the information with a series of intellectual abilities and attitudes which leads to the contemplative opinions and activities. Passmore (1967) introduced critical thinking as a procedure which is imaginative and reflective. Other scholars like Bullen (1998) said thinking is rational and intellectual and concentrated on what to think or do. Beyer (1995) suggested that "Critical thinking means making reasoned judgments" (p.8). Siegel (1988) described critical thinking as pedagogical roots of reasonableness. He mentioned two definitions for critical thinking: one of them is the skill which is pure and the other one is the skill beside attentions. He believed the critical thinking meaning for the first one entirely concentrate on a one's ability to completely measure or assess the certain types of statements. Based on this notion, if an individual has the proficiencies or skills which are needed for the appropriate assessment of statements, one can be a critical thinker. But, Siegel (1988) mentioned as this meaning disregard main points of actual functions of abilities and skills in the individual's daily life, this definition is not perfect. Lipman (1991) believed Critical thinking is a fine hesitancy, while Norris and Ennis (1989) explained critical thinking as rational and intellectual thinking that its central point is making decision for what he/she believe. Critical thinking is thinkers' ability that must be responsible for the contemplation procedure and raises the rational standards for measuring their thinking (Elder and Paul, 1994). Halpern (2003) recommends critical thinking as using the cognitive abilities which enhance the desirable result that is deliberate. Maiorana (1992) stressed that achieving the understanding and solving the problems is the task of critical thinking. Bensley (1998) believed critical thinking is intellectual thinking, i.e evaluating evidence to reach a reasonable conclusion. Levy (1997) defines critical thinking as cognitive strategy for examining, understanding, solving problems based on evidence and wisdom. Diestler (2001) declares critical thinking is utilizing the particular standard to measure the rational thinking. Dewey (1933) described critical thinking as always considering belief and knowledge based on the context and the conclusions it wants to cause. Moreover, Chafee (1988) noted critical thinking means our activity and our aims attempt to create feeling of our universe by look out our thoughts and others thoughts in order to illuminate and make better our opinions. Bassham, Irwin, Nardone, and Wallace (2011) assert that critical thinking is regular thinking which controlled by explicit intellectual criterions.

B. *Literary Texts*

Carrier of an aesthetic function is the important characteristic of a literary work of art. According to Hermans (2007) other important characteristic of the texts which are literary is the connection of distribution of various meaning of vocabularies for realization of texts which are accomplished just by an exact plotting of the whole aspects of denotative connotative and denotative meanings. Moreover, it is asserted that the main feature of literary text is not on content it is on the message. (Landers, 2001; Burkhanov, 2003; Hermans, 2007; Sánchez 2009,). Thus, translating literary text is a type of aesthetic communication, aiming a target text with a form as similar to the original as possible, similar to the original text and based on the literary and translation norms of the target culture and language (Burkhanov, 2003). In literary translation, the translator explored the aesthetic pleasures of working with tremendous pieces of literature, in order to recreating that in a TL. Traditionally literary translation divided into translation of poetry, prose (fiction), and drama. Although in the translation of poetry, the main aim is to receive the same emotion effect on the TT, in drama the relationship between text and performance goes under focus (Hrehovčik, 2006). But, fiction translation is not dedicated with an insignificant social influence. The reason is that translated novels or short stories may be read by millions readers and sometimes many movies may be make from the successful novels.

The main difference between Literary and non-literary Text is that non-literary text includes facts, information and reality, but literary text contains ideas and feelings and imagination. Peter Newmark (2004) compared literary and non-literary translations. He declared although man/woman can practice both of literary translations and non-literary translations, but they are disparate works. They are supplementary of each other. Both of them are valuable in ST but literary translation is aesthetic and figurative, while the non-literary translation is factual. Sometimes the cultural backgrounds of both are different and refer to the two various cultures that are against each other.

C. *Translation*

Larson (1984) declared the translation is a change of form. Form means the actual paragraphs, sentences, Phrases, clauses, words, etc. Besides, Bell (1991) suggested a meaning for translation. He said that translation is the expression of one language in to the other language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences. Different views of translation describe different concepts of translation quality. According to Maier (2000), the term “quality” and “value” have various definitions and uses in relation to translation. Maier asserted that for defining value of the translation, “some refer to this determination as evaluation; others use assessment, and many, if not most, use the two interchangeably, often without indications that they consider the terms synonymous” (p. 137). Because of difficulty and importance of distinguishing these concepts, Maier (2000) declared “one sees a shared emphasis on defining and assessing quality in the context of specific situations, especially pedagogical ones” (p.103). Melis and Albir (2001) described that “evaluation in the pedagogical context encompasses not only examinations but also the educational system as a whole” (p. 275). In the evaluation of translation, the main question is that are there any certain measures for the quality of the translation. Sager (as cited in Williams, 1989), suggested there are some proper translations for the target that translation has, but no absolute criteria are exist for the quality of translation.

Darvish (2001) explained translation quality as an intellectual, logical, purposeful and result-oriented process that produce a series of characteristics that can be explicit or implicit. He mentioned if we consider translation as an accidental activity, it will be away from principles of translation quality which is relying on logical and awareness of deciding.

Many scholars and researchers worked on translation and different elements of translation and suggested various techniques for translating. Jakobson asserted three kinds of translation: intralingual which means rewording or creating the idea with another verbal sign in the same language, interlingual which refers to translation between two different languages; and inter-semiotic translation which means the interpretation of verbal signs in to the non-verbal signs. He said the interlingual translation included replacing messages in one language. In fact, the translator recodes and conveys the message which received from another source. Nida stated meaning is divided in to “linguistic meaning” which borrows from Chomsky’s model, “referential meaning” that means dictionary meaning and “emotive (connotative) meaning” which is culture-based or context-based. Then, Nida noted there are two types of equivalence: one of them is “Formal equivalence” which is writer-oriented and it focuses attention on the message, both content and meaning. Another one is “Dynamic equivalence” which is receptor-oriented and target text language should not represent interference from source language. Newmark believed success of equivalent efficacy is illusive and the gap between TL and SL will stay as the main problem in translation practice and theory. Thus, he declared “Semantic” and “Communicative” translation for Nida’s “Formal” and “Dynamic” translation. Koller (1979) mentioned five different kinds of equivalence for translation: 1) “Denotative meaning” that means dictionary meaning. 2) “Connotative meaning” which should be find in the text. 3) “Text-normative equivalence” which is related to the texts types and is based on the usage in various communicative situations. 4) “Pragmatic equivalence” is Nida’s Dynamic equivalence. This is TT oriented. 5) “Formal equivalence” is relevant to the form and aesthetic of the text. Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) introduced two general translation strategies, direct translation and oblique translation. These two strategies include seven procedures. Direct translation consists of three procedures: Borrowing (Source Language word directly is transferred to the Target Language. Borrowing procedure occurs when the word does not exist in target language), Calque (Source Language expression is transferred in a literal translation), Literal translation (This is a kind of word for

word translation between languages which has the same culture and family). Oblique translation consists of four procedures: Transposition (changing of one part of speech for another without changing the sense), Modulation (changes the point of view and semantic of SL), Equivalence (This is used where the languages have the same situation by different structural means), and Adaptation (This is changing the cultural reference. This procedure occurs when the situation in SL culture does not exist in TL culture). In this study, the researcher tried to consider on Vinay and Darbelnet's Model of translation.

D. Who Is an Interpreter?

According to House (1997) the interpreter is the intermediacy of bilingual factor among monolingual connections contributors in the two various language societies. This means the interpreter detects messages in language and after that he/she re-codes messages into the other language (decoding and coding). As Bell (1991) mentioned this re-encoding process distinguishes bilingual translator from monolingual communicator. They are both receivers who should decode the statements but are engaged in a different encoding process. Razmjou (2003) stated a good translator must increase a good competence in source and target language and upgrade the skills in using the dictionaries. Besides, he mentioned translation must rehearsal in the academic places and neophytes try to increase their knowledge in theories of translation and work on the practicable works under the supervision of instructors.

E. Translation and Psychology

In translation, two scientists have endeavored to survey translators' personalities in the context of psychological framework: Katharina Reiss (2000) and Thilde Barboni (1999). Reiss (2000) talked about types of translator personality. She declared that the translator personality is a divided entity to that of the author's. And also the temper of the translators is the key factor in the process of translating. Thild Barboni (1999) combined translation with psychoanalysis. As cited in Hubscher-Davidson (2009) Barboni noted many factors such as unconscious, psychology, Freudian which are interference in the process of translation but up to now they are not been completely researched. She stated that in the face of stressful situation, the translator respond in a specific manner based on his or her personality. Thus translators use difference defense mechanisms.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

In this study, 60 Iranian M.A students of English-Persian translation study, both male and female, between ages of 20-30 were selected randomly from Fars Science and Research Azad University. As the number of participants was limited, the participants were selected randomly.

B. Materials and Instruments

The materials which used for this investigation include a critical thinking questionnaire and some paragraphs of *Mrs Dalloway* novel.

Ricketts critical thinking questionnaire (2003) which contains 33 closed questions was used to measure the Critical Thinking Ability of the selected sample. In this study, the Persian version of CT was used. This questionnaire was made based on Facione (1990) Critical Thinking Questionnaire. The scales of CT were ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". As this questionnaire is created according Facione (1990), the validity is confirmed (Ricketts, 2003, Roberts, 2003). The total reliability of the questionnaire was found to be 0/73 by calculating Cronbach's alpha. Besides, the reliability and validity of the questionnaire are reported in some theses in Iran such as Ghoddoumizadeh (2013).

Mrs Dalloway is the novel by Virginia Woolf. Some paragraphs are chosen from this novel.

C. Data Collection Procedure

To obtain the research question of this study, the Ricketts critical thinking questionnaire (2003) and three paragraphs which were chosen from *Mrs Dalloway* novel were distributed to the selected sample at the same time. First, they answered the questionnaire and then translated the text in to the Persian. There was no limitation of time for answering. And also using any dictionary for translating the text was free.

D. Data Analysis Procedure

After collecting the data and correcting the students' translation based on Vinay and Darbelnet's model, the data were analyzed by using SPSS software and made correlation in order to find if there is any relation between translators' critical thinking ability and the quality of literary text translation and compare the data.

IV. RESULTS

In order to obtain the research question, the Ricketts Critical Thinking Questionnaire (2003) and three paragraphs of *Mrs Dalloway* novel by Virginia Woolf distributed to the 60 male and female MA students of translation study from Fars Science and Research Azad University, who were studying at semester three and the range of age was 20 to 30. First, they answered the questionnaire which was included 33 closed questions and ranging from "strongly disagree" to

“strongly agree” (strongly disagree=1, disagree=2, no idea=3, agree=4, strongly agree=5). And then they translated the text from English to the Persian. Students were free in using dictionary and there was no limitation of time.

After collecting the data, the translation of students corrected based on Vinay and Darbelnet’s model. Then the researcher scored the participants’ translation out of the total mark 10.

The researcher entered the scores of translation and CT questionnaire in the SPSS software. The total score of the questionnaire computed for per student. At the end, the investigator made correlation between the translation and the total score of the CT questionnaire.

The results of descriptive statistic which obtained from the data are stated in Table 1.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CRITICAL THINKING AND TRANSLATION QUALITY SCORES

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Translation Score	60	5	10	7.57	1.500
Total Score of CT	60	94	158	120.68	11.972
Valid N (listwise)	60				

As shown in Table 1, the number of participants is 60 (N = 60). The mean of the translation score is 7.57. The lowest score is 5 out of 10 and the highest score is 10. The standard deviation of translation score is 1.500.

The mean for Critical Thinking is 120.68. The minimum and maximum score of CT is 94 and 158 respectively. And the standard deviation of CT is 11.972. (N = 60)

The histogram of descriptive statistic of translation quality scores is presented in Fig. 1.

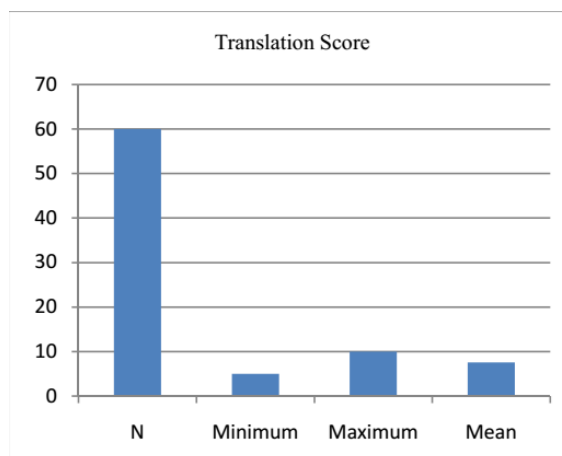


Figure 1. Histogram of Descriptive Statistic of Translation Quality Scores

As it is clear in in Translation Quality Scores chart in Figure 1, the maximum and minimum score is 10 and 5 out of 10. And the mean score is 7.5.

The histogram of descriptive statistic of critical thinking scores is presented in Fig. 2.

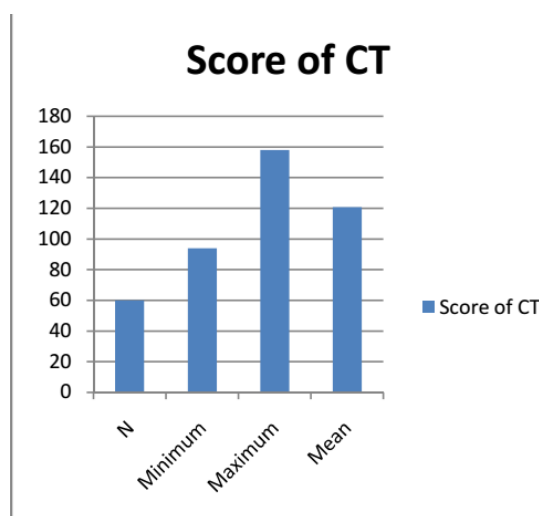


Figure 2. Histogram of Descriptive Statistic of Critical Thinking Scores.

With due attention to the Critical Thinking chart, by looking at the figure 2, we easily can see the mean score of CT equals 120. The minimum score which shows the low level of CT is 94. And the maximum score of CT is 158 which indicate the high level of CT.

TABLE II.
CORRELATION OF CRITICAL THINKING AND TRANSLATION QUALITY SCORES

		Total Score of CT	Translation Score
Total Score of CT	Pearson Correlation	1	.320*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.013
	N	60	60
Translation Score	Pearson Correlation	.320*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	
	N	60	60

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

According to Table 2, the correlation between Critical Thinking ability and Translation Quality Scores found to be .320. And significant at .013, so the significant is below .05 and the null hypothesis is rejected. This correlation coefficient is significant ($r = 0.320$). Based on the information, there is significant correlation between Critical Thinking ability and Translation Quality Scores. In other words, there is positive relationship between translators' critical thinking ability and the quality of their literary translation. This shows that the Critical Thinking ability has effect on Translation Quality Scores.

V. CONCLUSION

The research question of this study investigated the relationship between critical thinking ability and literary text translation. The findings demonstrated that there was significant correlation between translators' critical thinking ability and the quality of their literary translation. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is relationship between the translators' critical thinking ability and the quality of their literary translation. The results of this study can be beneficial for teachers who teach the translation students to educate the future translators. It may be helpful for translators who translate literary texts and, for publishers who publish translated books, especially literary books.

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A Summary of Research on Informatization of Specialized Language in the Framework of Sino-foreign Cooperative Education*

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Abstract—This paper narrates firstly characteristics of specialized language teaching, educational informationization and Sino-Foreign cooperative education. Then it reviews briefly the research situation of informatization of specialized language both at home and abroad, introduces the development of specialized language teaching in colleges and universities in China. This paper mainly discusses the content of research on informatization of specialized language teaching with a specific case, and proposes that the problems of specialized language teaching could be solved with the aid of educational informationization.

Index Terms—specialized language, educational informationization, Sino-foreign cooperative education

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last decades, the foreign and domestic scholars, such as Hoffmann (1987), Pudzuhn (1994), Fluck (1996), Zhu & Zimmer (2003), Schade (2009), Hoberg & Zhu (2011), Hammrich (2014), Michalak (2014), Chen (2012), Du (2016), have been discussing the specialized language and, especially, the teaching of specialized language. Teaching of specialized language is often interpreted as a foreign language teaching activity pertinent to a certain discipline. It is a version of the foreign language teaching with special teaching purposes. It aims to cultivate and improve the learners' foreign language capacities in other specialties. These foreign language capacities include a correct understanding of the implications of the content in the professional articles in the target language and correct, clear and distinguishing expression of the disciplinary professional knowledge in the target language.

The specialized language course is an important part of foreign language teaching. It plays a very important role in cultivating the comprehensive quality and interdisciplinary learning and working abilities of the foreign language majors. The specialized language teaching differs from the traditional language teaching and teaching of professional courses due to its own interdisciplinary characteristic.

The Communist Party of China and the Chinese government have always been attaching high importance to educational informationization since the 21st century. The Communist Party of China and the Chinese government have proposed synchronous development of "Four Modernizations" and incorporated informatization into the national strategies. The General Office of Ministry of Education (2014) noticed that "Driving educational modernization by educational informationization" is vital to the reform and development of the higher educational cause in China. It is an integral part of further comprehensive reformation of the higher education field. It helps promote educational equality and improve the educational quality.

Informationization in education is a practice with many diverse forms. Among of it, there is a form that has come into practice within the last century and has begun to get a lot of recognition, which is "E-learning". According to Rosenburg (2000), E-learning is a relatively new education form through the use of computers as an instructional medium. E-learning is used to educate people of all different ages. It has been around for decades and is used for students in primary school, middle school, high school and even college or university. In the process of higher education, some colleges and universities, in some ways, actually have tried to take courses over the computer as a way to learn more about majors or exercise on new programs. The information from e-learning need to be familiar with, then knew, and finally mastered. As an aid for the learning or studying, the students are expected to be able to teach themselves from the materials they are given. Often these materials include mainly online activities, like Internet, website, e-mail, online social forums, and digital materials, like E-book, corpus and computer software etc. E-learning offers many new challenges, but also many great opportunities. According to Stennes (2009), although the E-learning have

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disadvantages like (1) it requires the learner to obtain new skills to achieve success, (2) it is a learning form lack of social integration, (3) not everyone is able to afford the technology needed, (4) it costs more to develop, its advantages are also obvious and significant: for the learners there are (1) possibility of student-centered teaching approaches, (2) combination of new ideas, development of a solid foundation for learning, sharing of opinions, (3) offer of additional layer of instructor accessibility, (4) provision of 7-24-hour accessibility to course materials; for the instructors (5) addition of pedagogical benefits, (6) more helpful for instructors.

II. INFORMATIZATION OF SPECIALIZED LANGUAGE AND SINO-FOREIGN COOPERATIVE EDUCATION

It is necessary to deeply integrate the specialized language teaching and informatization, study the correlation between the information technology and the development and reform of specialized language teaching, integrate and optimize allocation of the information technology resources, build an informatization learning platform, promote sharing of high-quality educational resources, innovate the talent cultivation mode, serve the specialized language teaching practice, and lay a theoretical foundation for informatization of specialized language teaching. It could say that Informatization of specialized language plays a decisive role, especially in the framework of Sino-Foreign cooperative education.

In the context of the information age, the globalization development is particularly important. One of the typical manifestations in the educational field is Sino-foreign cooperative education. Wang (2005), Hu (2010) and Xu(2015) argued that the Sino-foreign cooperative education has begun to take shape, achieved more rational distribution, optimized the disciplinary specialty structure, and entered a rapid, stable, and high-quality developmental stage over the course of time, particularly since promulgation and implementation of the educational planning outline. So far, there have been more than 2000 Sino-foreign cooperative education institutions and programs. At present, one of the tasks faced by the Sino-foreign cooperative education is introduction of high-quality educational resources and improvement the overall strength of cooperative education. Each of the Sino-foreign cooperative education institutions and programs is challenged by cultivation of internationally-oriented interdisciplinary talents. It is important to improve the quality of foreign language teaching and classroom efficiency. The foreign language teaching in Sino-foreign cooperative education has its own characteristics relative to common foreign language teaching. On one hand, we can directly contact with cooperative overseas colleges and universities, integrate the teaching resources, and improve the advantages of the teaching efficiency; on the other hand, the existing 11 disciplines involved in cooperative education are dominated by the field of nature science. Unlike the traditional foreign language teaching, in addition to the language necessary for daily life and communication, the students should also learn specialized language to meet the demands of their major. Vom Brocke (2012) pointed that German University of Münster and New Zealand Massey University mix and group the students from the two countries and complete different tasks by using various communication tools such as voice and video chatting etc. on an open network platform. The students will always participate in interactions during the process. However, difficulties still exist in selection of working languages, conflicts of interests etc.

At present, the Sino-foreign cooperative education in China is still in the exploratory stage. The foreign language teaching has a short development course. The foreign language teaching is largely in the pure basic language teaching stage. It has not mobilized the available resources and lacked teaching exploration of the professional language necessary for cooperative education. The informatization of specialized language could provide a new thought for the future development of Sino-foreign cooperative education.

III. RESEARCH SITUATION OF INFORMATIZATION OF SPECIALIZED LANGUAGE TEACHING BOTH AT HOME AND ABROAD

The research on the informatization of higher education in China dates back to 1990s. The early research is primarily based on the foreign advanced experience. Guo and Xi (2002) noticed that under the inspiration and influence of Campus Computing Project (CCP), a research program of informatization in U.S. colleges and universities, Peking University and University of Hong Kong jointly initiated the first international higher education informatization research program in Asia in 2002: Asian Campus Computing Survey (ACCS). Since then, the research on informatization of higher education in China has started and exhibited a trend of multi-dimensional development. The early research focused on introduction of experience, such as *Concept of Higher Education Informatization in Russia* by Li Tianze in *Digest of Management Science* in 1996. Subsequent research focused on comparative research on combination between overseas experience and domestic actual construction and similarities and differences in educational informatization among different regions in China, such as *Comparative Research on Development of Higher Education Informatization in U.S., China, and Japan* by Zhao Guodong in *comparative education research* in 2004 and *Comparative Research on the Informatization Development Situations in Colleges and Universities in Hong Kong and Mainland* by Ye Song in *Educational Informationization* in 2005. According to Shen & Chen (2003), Zhao(2003), Ye(2005) etc., currently, the higher education informatization in China focuses on the specific implementation steps, management modes, facilities allocation, talent cultivation etc. of domestic reform and development based on the actual situations for preliminarily establishing of the educational informatization system with Chinese characteristics and approaching the international advanced level. The research involves multiple participation,

multi-dimensional development trends, and combination of microscopy and macroscopy and primarily focuses on strategic planning, resource construction and management, development and training of teacher education informatization. The informatization starts later in China but it develops rapidly. Of course, there exist some issues. Department of Instructional Technology of Peking University has explained the current development situations of the colleges and universities in China in term of educational informatization and analyzed related issues in the informatization survey for colleges and universities in China. Jiang Dongxing et al. from Tsinghua University have explained the common problems during the process of higher education informatization. Informatization of specialized language teaching has been increasingly arousing attention from the domestic academic theory circle. More and more experts and scholars have studied and discussed the current situations, modes, management, promotion measures etc. both theoretically and practically. In recent years, they have been increasingly focusing on integration and optimization of the educational resources of specialized language, combination of internationalization and informatization, and leapfrog development. Thus, cross-over studies on informatization and Sino-foreign cooperative education, informatization and specialized language teaching have appeared. According to Xu (2003), Qin (2006), Wang (2007), Xu (2009) etc., the studies involve classroom teaching, resource construction, talent cultivation, present situations and counter measures etc.

The overseas educational informatization starts early and has achieved great success. Such countries as U.S., UK, Germany, Russia, Japan etc. invest substantially in educational informatization and have many research directions, including "Survey of the Current Situation of Computer Application on Campus" in U.S., "Survey of the Current Situation of Multimedia Application" in Japan, virtual university of Michigan in U.S., practice in University of Hong Kong (MVU) etc. The research on educational informatization in Germany highlights an all-round mode including application methods, innovation capacity, information prediction capacity etc. and involves establishing multiple web portals for informatization research. Vascoda (a web portal for scientific information) is a typical example. It provides extensive retrieval and convenient acquisition of the information of different disciplines and full text data and supports disciplinary retrieval and interdisciplinary retrieval.

Based on the research on the current development situations both at home and abroad, it has been found that the research problems regarding informatization of specialized language teaching mainly include three aspects: (1) The research scope for informatization focuses more on the major fields and less on the interdisciplinary fields such as cooperative education. (2) The research perspective for informatization of specialized language teaching focuses more on the domestic current situation and less on combination with international development, not reflecting the trend of combination of globalization and localization. (3) The research achievement of informatization of specialized language teaching has no prominent characteristics and partial research achievement is not transformed.

IV. DEVELOPMENT OF SPECIALIZED LANGUAGE TEACHING IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES IN CHINA

At present, the development of the specialized language teaching in China primarily involves English. In 2003, the Ministry of Education initiated reform of college English teaching and proposed that we should attach importance to cultivation of the listening and speaking ability and application of the computer technology in college English teaching in response to the weak links in English teaching. Gu(2010) , Zhu & Shen (2010) noted that the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) teaching is based on the need of the learners. It involves conducting demand analyses, interest analyses, and objective analyses and designing development courses for individual learners. Wang (2010) argues that there are many questions to be studied, such as the theoretical basis for existence of ESP, teaching material construction for ESP, teaching methods, teaching means, construction and utilization of network resources, tests and assessment, faculty development etc. Over the past several years, ESP has developed rapidly in college English teaching in China but it has also faced many difficulties such as lack of powerful faculty and proper teaching material. The information-based teaching is on-line, open, and shared. It can relieve the pressure of colleges and universities in terms of faculty and teaching material to a great extent.

V. CONTENT OF RESEARCH ON INFORMATIZATION OF SPECIALIZED LANGUAGE TEACHING

The informatization of the specialized language teaching is a huge systematic project. From the macroscopic perspective, it involves such fields as management, teaching, scientific research, social service etc. of the higher educational institutions. From the microcosmic perspective, it covers information infrastructure construction, teaching resource construction, talent team construction, management system building etc. for the colleges and universities. Currently, the level of specialized language teaching in China needs to be improved. The internationalization and modernization needs to be combined. We focus on the informatization and microcosmic perspective, analyze an specific example, namely Chinesisch-Deutsche Technische Fakultät of Qingdao University of Science and Technology, implementing Sino-foreign cooperative education, and study the informatization and specialized language teaching in a leapfrog manner.

Firstly, improve the classroom efficiency of specialized language teaching using the information technology The multimedia teaching resources and platforms are applied to the classroom teaching of foreign language to study the

effect of information-based teaching on the efficiency of foreign language class and verify the cause-and-effect relationship between use of information technology, frequency of use, how to use and the classroom efficiency.

Secondly, information construction for specialized language teaching resources: Integrate and develop information technology and multimedia teaching resources more appropriate for specialties learned by the students in cooperative education.

In the research on informatization of specialized language teaching, special attention should be paid to the following two aspects: (1) We should combine the informatization and specialized language teaching and search the multimedia resources necessary for specialized language teaching in cooperative education relying on the platform of Sino-foreign cooperative education. We should also construct an information-based teaching platform and teaching resources for the remote teaching platform. Data collection and statistics should be performed for the changes in the quality of the specialized language teaching after introduction of information-based teaching. (2) There are numerous and varied multimedia resources. Different multimedia resources should be classified and analyzed in the context of specialty and language complexity. Appropriate resources are utilized.

In the research on informatization of specialized language teaching, the selection of the research methods is also very important. The theoretical analysis method and the empirical analysis method should be combined. We should understand the latest material data on development of educational informatization both at home and abroad and the latest development of specialized language teaching. Meanwhile, the quantitative data should be collected and integrated by using questionnaire surveys, contrast tests, classroom interviews, questions and answers by teachers and students etc. The statistical method should be used to study the relationship between utilization of informatization resources and the effectiveness of specialized language teaching.

VI. CHALLENGES FACED BY INFORMATIZATION OF SPECIALIZED LANGUAGE TEACHING

In the process of the development of the informatization of specialized language teaching, there are both opportunities and challenges. Among them, the challenge is mainly manifested in the following aspects:

A. *Level of Campus Informationization Construction*

The campus informationization construction, including wireless network coverage, network transmission performance etc. determines the possibility of teaching informatization implementation.

B. *Needs Analysis and Learner-centered Approach*

Some scholars have pointed out that the information-based teaching, such as Massive Open Online Courses (MOOC), substitutes the interactions and communication between teachers and students in class making it impossible to timely know the situation of the students. It is impossible to consider the students' needs. Thus, the designers of the specialized language informatization courses are required to analyze the students' needs and define goal-oriented tasks.

C. *Quality of the Courses*

A specific analysis should be conducted to judge whether the content of the specialized language informatization teaching conforms to the needs of major background and language level. How to assess the students' learning outcomes and the course quality is another challenge. The famous German specialized language scholar Roelcke (2014) has proposed that the specialized language teaching should be divided into common specialized language and special specialized language, courses for students with disciplinary background and the courses for students without disciplinary background or students just started to learn the professional discipline, the courses for students of higher level of a foreign language and the courses for students of lower level of a foreign language, etc.

D. *Teacher Training*

The most majority of the foreign language teachers in the colleges and universities in China are masters and doctors of linguistics and literature. Generally, they are not the students graduating from normal colleges. And they have not been trained for teaching methods before teaching. The ordinary foreign language teachers lack the academic background knowledge. It is very hard for these teachers to design course content and study the specialized language course. Dudley Evans and St. John (1998) proposed that qualified foreign language teachers should have the following five roles: 1) teacher, 2) course designer and materials provider, 3) collaborator, 4) researcher, 5) evaluator. Thorsten Roelck has also in 2010 stated that, a qualified specialized language teacher should have three core capabilities: The teachers should have a deep understanding of the levels of native languages, foreign languages, and specialized language of their students. They should also understand the professional knowledge of related specialties (in cooperation with related specialized teachers) and have the ability of language teaching. There is still a long way to go for construction of qualified teaching faculty.

VII. CONCLUSION

The combination of specialized language teaching and information technology contributes to popularization and application of specialized language teaching. Based on informatization, the specialized language multi-media teaching

resources are collected to establish a multimedia database for foreign language teaching, which can be shared by a network platform. Establishing an informatization remote teaching platform by mobilizing the cooperative colleges and universities to participate in information sharing contributes to direct utilization of the foreign resources by the domestic students and promotion of the process of educational informatization of specialized language.

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The Impact of Teaching Critical Thinking Skills on Reading Comprehension of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—the purpose of the present study was to investigate the impact of teaching critical thinking skills on reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. A sample of 50 students from Arshia Language Institute in Ilam, Iran participated in this study. They were both male and female students who were selected among 80 students based on their performances on PET. The participants were randomly divided into experimental and control groups. First, the two groups were exposed to the pre-test of reading comprehension in order to evaluate their knowledge on reading before the treatment. Based on scores obtained from the Pre-test, no significance differences were observed between two groups. After that the treatment was started and the experimental group was exposed to teaching critical thinking skills. Meanwhile, traditional methods of teaching reading comprehension were used for teaching reading comprehension to the control group. Finally, post-test of reading comprehension was delivered to both groups at the end of treatment to check possible differences. To analyze the collected data, ANCOVA was run using SPSS Software Version 16. The results showed that teaching critical thinking skills positively affect reading comprehension of intermediate EFL learners, but the interaction of gender and teaching critical thinking was not significant.

Index Terms—critical thinking, reading comprehension, autonomy

I. INTRODUCTION

Today, students take reading comprehension tests which are not directly made from students' textbooks, but rather the texts are sometimes beyond their acquired knowledge from

With reference to ability, Lai (2011, as cited in zare et al, 2013) asserts that critical thinkers are successful in analyzing argument, evaluating, and making decision.

According to Ku (2009) autonomy in second language classes is possible when we target learner' potential for learning through critical reflection. Students must criticize information and learn to maximize their skills to judge information, evaluate alternative evidence and discuss with logical reasons. Moreover, critical thinking and critical instruction are two important factors to develop potential for learning through critical reflection. Without active critical thinking no one can succeed in any area (Wanger, 1997).

Due to the fact that “reading comprehension is a complex cognitive process” (Griffith &Ruan, 2005, p. 22), EFL/ESL learners need effective reading skills to master their reading. Despite all attention, investment and efforts in the field of English teaching in Iran, students seem to suffer from many considerable weaknesses in the area of reading comprehension. The problem seems to be rooted in the out of date methodologies used by traditional teachers. According to Paul(1990) in most educational systems, students turn to rote learning resulting in misunderstanding , prejudice, and discouragement in which students use some short term techniques to tackle their short term problems including memorization. Establishing such techniques block students' thinking about what they read.

Students are not born with critical thinking skills. According to Fisher and Scriven (1997; as cited in Malmir & Shoorcheh, 2012) critical thinking skills are required to be taught because students' thinking skills are not adequate to help them encounter the problems they deal with in education and even in their lives. Therefore, it is necessary for educators to concentrate on teaching critical thinking to equip students with essential skills instead of transmitting information.

According to Paul Elder, and Bartell(1997 as cited in Nair et al,2013) critical thinking is defined as” the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information which gathered from observation, experience, reflection, reasoning or communication as a guide to belief and action” (p.4).

Mc Peck (1981) considers critical thinking as a skill and propensity to engage in an activity with reflexive skepticism in a given context. Opposing the classical view of critical thinking as the mere acquisition, retention of information and

possession of a set of skills, Paul (2000) believes that critical thinking involves processing those skills and the habit based on intellectual commitment of using them to guide behavior.

There is almost a unanimous agreement that reading is one of the most important skills in second or foreign learning. According to Nuttal (1998), "Reading has been described as the most studied and the least understood process in education" p.2. Regardless, the agreement on the importance of reading comprehension, different views and opinions exist about the definition of reading. Moeini (2002) defines reading as what traditionally regarded as a passive process of reconstructing the author's intended meaning through reconstructing and realizing the printed letters and words. Kaplan (2002) gives a broader definition of reading as a rapid, strategic, interactive and purposeful process that requires adequate knowledge of world, extensive time on task and efficient as well as strategic processing.

According to Redua, Monza and Arzubiga (2001) socio-affective factors which are commonly referred to as monitorial factors are considered amongst the key features of reading. They believe that an engaged reader is one who is monitored, knowledgeable, strategic, and socially interactive in the reading process.

Alyousef (2005) asserts that reading comprehension is "a combination of identification and interpretation skills" p.143.

Grabe (2010) states:

"Comprehension is not a unitary phenomenon but rather a family of skills and activities. A general component in many definitions of comprehension is the interpretation of the information in the text

At the core of comprehension is our ability to mentally interconnect different events in the text and form a coherent representation of what the text is about" (p.39).

It can be seen that the comprehension process needs not only linguistic resources and automatic processing but also higher-order abilities and skills (Grabe, 2010, p. 50) such as assessing situations and monitoring current comprehension processes that are associated with metacognition.

According to Nikoopour et al (2011) a significant relationship exists between critical thinking and the overall direct language learning strategies and cognitive strategies. In other words critical thinkers preferred the cognitive language learning strategies. According to Khorasani and Farimani (2010), the existence of critical thinkers and non-critical thinkers in Iranian setting is that the whole educational program is more teachers centered. Also, according to Fahim et al (2012) the teachers are the authorities of class, because they themselves have been brought up by this old view of education and view education mainly as filling their students' memory banks with bits of information therefore, they are unable to take their students any further than what they themselves are.

Sheikhy (2009, as cited in Kamali & Fahim, 2011) conducted a study exploring the relationship between autonomy, critical thinking ability and reading comprehension of Iranian learners. The results revealed that there existed a significant relationship between critical thinking ability of learners and their performance on reading comprehension. In other words, it was concluded that the higher the critical thinking ability, the higher reading comprehension. Also, the findings of the study showed that critical thinking and autonomy of students were highly correlated.

In another study, Kamali and Fahim (2011; as cited in Ashgharheidari & Tahriri, 2015) investigated the relationship between critical thinking ability, resilience and reading comprehension of texts containing unknown vocabulary items. The results indicated that there was a significant relationship between critical thinking ability, resilience and reading comprehension suggesting that good internal resources such as high levels of critical thinking ability and resilience can affect academic performance, i.e. competence in reading and may be considered as protective factors among L2 learners.

Along the same line, Fahim and Sa'eepour (2011) conducted a research investigating the impact of teaching critical thinking skills on reading comprehension ability as well as the effect of applying debate on critical thinking of EFL learners. The results showed a significant difference between the two groups on critical thinking test. Finally, based on the results, it was concluded that critical thinking skills in EFL context can improve language learning.

To explore the role of critical thinking in other areas, Yarahmadi (2011) conducted a research to investigate the relationship between extraversion personality dimension of Iranian EFL Learners and their critical thinking and concluded that there was a significant relationship between the two variables.

Similarly, Hashemi and Zabihi (2012) in their study on the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their receptive English language proficiency skills and found a significant relationship.

Nosratinia and Sarabchian (2013) investigated the relationship among EFL Students' five personality traits and predictability of their critical thinking ability. The findings proved the existence of significant relationship between critical thinking and domains of personality.

Moreover, Nosratinia and Zaker (2013) conducted a research to investigate the EFL learners' critical thinking and their autonomy. They came to the conclusion that there was a positive relationship between the two. And finally, Mall-Amiri and Ahmadi(2014) also found a positive relationship between students' critical thinking and meta cognitive strategies.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

A sample of 50 out of 80 students from Arshia Language Institute in Ilam, Iran participated in this study. The participants were both male and female. They were selected based on their performance on a Preliminary English Test

(PET) designed by Cambridge ESOL. Their age ranged from 20 to 33. Based on this test the examinees whose scores fell between 90 and 100 were selected.

B. Instruments

1. Preliminary English test for Homogenization

One of the instruments used in this study was a standard proficiency test, Preliminary English Test (PET). It is a second level Cambridge English Test for speakers of other languages (ESOL).

2 Reading Comprehension Test

Two IELTS reading parallel tests were administered as the pre-test and post test.

C. Material

Based on the purpose of the study, 12 highly controversial topics were chosen by the researchers, they were selected from the ACTIVE Skills for Reading by Anderson (2013). The ACTIVE series also, include critical thinking questions which help students think beyond the texts. The advantage of these books over other similar books is that they are updated and interesting.

D. Procedure

Following the pre-test, the selected topics were given to the experimental group to choose 8 of them based on their interests. As Halvorsen et al (2005) suggest, it is essential to choose topics appropriate to the interests of the students. In order to hold a debate in the classroom, the researchers followed the steps offered by Halvorsen (2005). At first, the topic was introduced to the students and they were given the texts to take home to research on and gather the relevant information. As Willingham (2007, as cited in Fahim & Sa'eepour, 2011) asserts, research of cognitive science shows that "the process of thinking is intertwined with the domain of knowledge" (p.8). Therefore, it was constantly emphasized that they had to equip themselves with relevant knowledge from media, newspapers, magazines, the internet, books and share the collected data with their friends, classmates, and family members to evaluate the evidence on the issue.

In the next step, the students were divided into small groups to share their ideas and think about the potential arguments that might come from other side. In other words, they were supposed to challenge each other's ideas. After that, the debaters were divided into two groups each having its own position. Initially, one of the students would introduce the topic clearly and define the concepts and terms accurately to eliminate any misunderstanding and misconception about the exact meaning of the words. According to Djuranovic (2003, as cited in Fahim & Sa'eepour, 2011), defining the terms in debate is very important because they determine the topic of the debate and its limitation.

In the following step, the debaters would present their opinions through argumentation. After exchanging ideas, the teacher would follow up the debate with a summary of the students' opinions.

After each session students were asked to write an overall report of the class and their final views of the issue. In the debate session, the teacher tried to teach the students how to distinguish between facts and judgments or opinions, how to prove their claims based on examples, common sense, statistic and expert opinions.

They learned to start the argument with "I think/believe that.....because.....therefore....." (Krieger, 2005, p2-3, as cited in Fahim & Sa'eepour, 2011).

III. RESULTS

TABLE I
KOLMOGROV- SMIRNOV AND SHAPIRO-WILK TESTS OF NORMALITY OF THE DATA

Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk			
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.	
PreReading dimension1	EX	.164	25	.080	.960	25	.415
	Cont	.101	25	.200*	.979	25	.854
PostReading dimension1	EX	.188	25	.022	.923	25	.060
	Cont	.121	25	.200*	.974	25	.739

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

As it is evident in Table 1 the data or the scores of groups both in the pretest and posttest have been normally distributed ($P > 0.05$ in all cases).

TABLE2
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS SHOWING THE HOMOGENEITY OF THE SLOPE OF REGRESSION LINES

Dependent Variable:PostReading

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	794.538a	3	264.846	110.872	.000	.879
Intercept	3.843	1	3.843	1.609	.211	.034
Group	5.164	1	5.164	2.162	.148	.045
PreReading	504.211	1	504.211	211.078	.000	.821
Group * PreReading	2.417	1	2.417	1.012	.320	.022
Error	109.882	46	2.389			
Total	21835.000	50				
Corrected Total	904.420	49				

a. R Squared = .879 (Adjusted R Squared = .871)

TABLE3
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

Dependent Variable:PostReading

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.721	1	48	.196

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Group + PreReading + Group * PreReading

Table 3 shows that the variances of the groups are equal [$F_{(1,48)} = 1.721, P = 0.196, P > 0.05$] indicating that the data or scores of the groups have been distributed normally.

TABLE4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Dependent Variable:PostReading

Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
EX	22.72	3.542	25
Cont	18.20	3.808	25
Total	20.46	4.296	50

Table 4 indicates the mean score and standard deviation of the groups on the posttest (post reading). The mean score and standard deviation of the experimental group are 22.72 and 3.542; while those of the control group are 18.20 and 3.808 respectively. Based on this descriptive statistics independent variable has been effective so that it had caused the experimental group outperform the control one although a sound judgment cannot be made based on descriptive statistics.

TABLE5
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS SHOWING THE MAIN EFFECT OF THE TREATMENT

Dependent Variable: PostReading

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	792.121a	2	396.061	165.762	.000	.876
Intercept	6.091	1	6.091	2.549	.117	.051
PreReading	536.741	1	536.741	224.640	.000	.827
Group	471.985	1	471.985	197.538	.000	.808
Error	112.299	47	2.389			
Total	21835.000	50				
Corrected Total	904.420	49				

a. R Squared = .876 (Adjusted R Squared = .871)

Table 5 shows that the main effect of the experiment, that is, the effect of group (independent variable or teaching critical thinking) on the posttest scores (dependent variable or reading comprehension) has been significant [$F_{(1,47)} = 197.538, P = 0.000, P < 0.001$]. Thus, the first hypothesis of the study_ teaching critical thinking skills positively affect reading comprehension of the learners _ is verified. The effect of independent variable has been 0.808, that is, 080% of the change on the dependent variable has been due to the effect of the independent variable.

TABLE6
ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS

Group
Dependent Variable:PostReading

Group		Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
dimension1	EX	23.742a	.327	23.084	24.401
	Cont	17.310a	.319	16.669	17.951

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: PreReading = 16.98.

Based on Table 6 the estimated marginal mean of the experimental group is 23.742; while that of the control group is 17.370. Figure 8 supports the information in Table 6.

TABLE7:
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES OF SCORES ON THE POSTTEST BASED ON GENDER

Dependent Variable:PostReading

F	df1	df2	Sig.
1.032	3	46	.387

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.
a. Design: Intercept + PreReading + Group + Gender + Group * Gender

As Table 7 shows the variances of the scores of the male and female participants in both groups have been equal [$F_{(3,46)} = 1.032, P = 0.387, P > 0.05$]

TABLE8
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Dependent Variable:PostReading

Group	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
EX	M	24.00	3.961	14
	F	21.09	2.119	11
	Total	22.72	3.542	25
Cont	M	20.07	3.518	14
	F	15.82	2.750	11
	Total	18.20	3.808	25
Total	M	22.04	4.185	28
	F	18.45	3.609	22
	Total	20.46	4.296	50

Table 8 shows that the mean score and standard deviation of the male participants in the experimental group have been 24 and 3.961 respectively; while those of the female ones have been 21.09 and 2.119. On the same line the mean score and standard deviation of the male in the control group have been 20.07 and 3.5018; however, those of the female ones have been 15.82 and 2.750.

TABLE9
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS SHOWING THE HOMOGENEITY OF REGRESSION LINES

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	813.542a	4	203.385	100.710	.000	.900
Intercept	9.805	1	9.805	4.855	.033	.097
PreReading	394.596	1	394.596	195.392	.000	.813
Group	440.858	1	440.858	218.299	.000	.829
Gender	14.488	1	14.488	7.174	.010	.138
Group * Gender	5.197	1	5.197	2.573	.116	.054
Error	90.878	45	2.020			
Total	21835.000	50				
Corrected Total	904.420	49				

a. R Squared = .900 (Adjusted R Squared = .891)

Table 9 shows that the effect of interaction of group (i.e., independent variable) and gender on the dependent variable has not been significant [$F_{(1,45)} = 2.573, P = 0.116, P > 0.05$]. The effect size has also been 0.05%, therefore, the second hypothesis of the study _ the interaction of teaching critical thinking skills and gender positively affect learners' reading comprehension _ is rejected.

IV. DISCUSSION

As a result of data analysis we found that there is a significant positive relationship between critical thinking skills and students' reading comprehension proficiency. One explanation, perhaps, is that students might have benefited from class discussion. Critical thinking involved all learners in presenting their own ideas through accessing the prior knowledge and information; it foster active learning through mental activity and spontaneous discussion in finding new opinions, ideas and views. Applying critical thinking skills in class helps students reach synergy through peer learning, access their current level of knowledge, its depth and context, organize their thoughts and reach group consensus, be responsible and reflective for their own learning, and finally be creative and innovative in the learning process which in turn facilitates critical thinking. This finding is verified by many studies in the literature.

Similarly, Nikpour, Farasani & Nasiri (2011, as cited in Nour Mohammadi,2012) found a positive relationship between Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking and their use of direct language learning strategies including cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies.

Also, the results of the current study revealed that the effect of interaction of group (i.e., independent variable) and gender on the dependent variable was not significant. Therefore, based on the table 9 the second hypothesis of the study-the interaction of teaching critical thinking skills and gender positively affect learners' reading comprehension – was rejected. This finding is supported by (Thompson, 2001) as cited in Fahim (2011) who found that gender had no predictive value of critical thinking or learning style. (Pienaar, 2000; as cited in Fahim, 2011) conducted a South African study of adolescents' critical thinking in the context of political issues, and found that gender had no significant relationship with critical thinking ability.

However, the results appear to be in contrast to a view that has almost become general: the assumption that female students are in general more successful in language learning than their male counterparts (Sunderland, 2000).

V. CONCLUSION

The outcomes of the current study may be gleaned in the form of three important points. First, the existing literature emphasizes the crucial role of critical thinking strategies in learning. Second, the first research question_ does teaching critical thinking skills significantly affect Iranian intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension? _ was answered positively and its corresponding directional hypothesis was verified implying that the effect of the treatment has been significant. In other words, the critical thinking skills which were taught to the participants had amplified their reading ability.

Third, the second research question _ does the interaction of gender and teaching critical thinking skills significantly affect Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' reading comprehension?_ was answered negatively and its corresponding directional hypothesis was rejected implying that gender had not enhanced the effect of critical thinking skills on the learners' reading comprehension.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Reading is considered as one of the essential skills for university and institute students studying English as foreign language (EFL). These students need to master reading for different reasons and purposes. The findings of the present study provide empirical support for the effectiveness of implementing and teaching critical thinking skills in EFL reading classrooms.

Exposing learners to critical thinking skills, produces a language learning environment which can have a real impact on learning. Also, the findings of the study can inspire the syllabus and material designers to include critical thinking issues both in students' textbooks and in teacher training courses. Learners are in the urgent need of textbooks that invoke their critical thinking and meet their coming needs. Also, teachers should be trained to change their attitudes toward students and themselves (Kabilan, 2000).

The application of challenging topics in language classroom shows the importance of domain of knowledge in critical thinking. As it is stated in ADSA (2006, as cited in Fahim & Sa'eepour, 2011)"Familiarity with the issue is the key aspect of preparation for debate....." (p.10). Also According to Pierce (2005), "debate can improve the four skills of the students-speaking, listening, reading and writing"(p.4).

Test developers are also recommended to develop tests to affect the quality of teaching as well as the students' ability and skills to be creative in their performance on tests. As a practical and popular model for test developing in critical thinking, Bloom's Taxonomy (1956, cited in Kennedy et al., 1991) can be used which the requirement for testing in critical is thinking program.

VII. THE LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Since the study was conducted in an institute and each term lasted for about three months, we did not have enough time to work more on critical thinking skills with students. We wish we had more time to spend on debates. Also, at first, it was difficult to persuade participants to take part in the study.

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On Cultivating Chinese Non-English Majors' English Thinking Ability to Improve Their English Writing

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Abstract—Writing is a big part of language learning and the writing ability of a language learner can well embody his language competence. Many Chinese non-English majors have difficulty writing a decent English essay. Although many teachers and scholars have been probing into ways of teaching English writing effectively, the results of the national CET 4 and CET 6 indicate that there is no big change in the writings of Chinese non-English majors. A careful study of many students' essays and interviews with some of them showed that students' ignorance of the differences between Chinese and English thought patterns contributes a lot to the problem. So, this paper first gives a brief introduction to thought pattern and the relationship between thought pattern and language, then analyzes the main differences between Chinese and English thought patterns, followed by a description of the negative transfer of Chinese thought pattern in students' writing, and finally proposes some practical and effective methods to help non-English majors learn to think as native English speakers do and improve their writing ability.

Index Terms—English thinking ability, Chinese non-English majors, cultivating, English writing ability

I. INTRODUCTION

With the globalization of world economy and the increase of international communication, many Chinese people have realized the increasingly important role English is playing and will play in our life and work. Many students in colleges and universities are struggling to learn it well and many teachers are trying every possible means to help them achieve their goal. But unfortunately, the results of CET 4 and CET 6, two national exams to check the English proficiency of non-English majors in China, indicate that Chinese non-English majors usually score higher for the reading part while much lower in listening, translating and writing. Most of them can master the basic structures of English, but seem to have a hard job writing in English. Why? After making a careful study of many students' essays and interviewing some of them, we found that students' ignorance of the differences between Chinese and English thought patterns contributes a lot to the problem. To improve Chinese non-English majors' English writing ability, it is necessary for both teachers and students to have a clear idea of the differences between the two thought patterns. So, this paper will, based on the analysis of the differences between Chinese and English thought patterns and teaching practice, propose some practical and effective methods to help non-English majors learn to think as native English speakers do and improve their writing ability.

II. THOUGHT PATTERNS

Porter and Samovar (1995, as cited in Xu, 2012) defined thought as the process in which the conceptions, judgment and reasoning are used to reflect the objective reality. In their opinion, thought pattern refers to the mental process of reasoning and problem solving prevalent in a community.

Although general thought patterns can be found in every community, people from different communities have different thought patterns. Let's take the Chinese thought pattern and English thought pattern for instance. The Chinese thought pattern is circling while the English thought pattern is straightforward. The Chinese have a circling thought pattern mainly because they are greatly influenced by Taoist views. In their opinion, people are not instantly rational, and they can solve problems quite differently. With the passage of time, they form the habit of beating about the bushes. Different from the Chinese, the native English speakers attach great importance to logic connection and rationality and therefore tend to think linearly. They maintain that they can find the truth if they adopt scientific methods and engage in logical calculations. In short, Chinese thought pattern is imaginative, subjective, synthetic, group-oriented, concrete, non-systematic and cyclical; western thought pattern is abstract, objective, analytic, egocentric, conceptualized, systematic, and linear.

III. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THOUGHT PATTERN AND LANGUAGE

Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis holds that there are no restrictions on the amount and type of variation to be expected between languages, including their semantic structures and that the determining effect of language on thought is total—

there is no thought without language (Whorf, Carroll, Levinson, & Lee, 1956). Jean Piaget (1980, as cited in Kong, 2009), however, has a different opinion; after doing many experiments he draws the following conclusion: language is the qualification for people to develop formal thought, but it is not enough. People develop their ability to think while engaging in social activities, after which their language ability develops. It is hard to tell whether language is the result of thought or vice versa. Many psychologists hold that on the one hand thought patterns influence language and on the other hand they interact with each other. In Chinese as in the other languages, such interaction does exist. To master a foreign language, it is necessary to understand how the native speakers think, and how they arrange and express their ideas.

To help Chinese non-English majors improve their writing ability, we must have a clear idea of the differences between Chinese and English thought patterns.

IV. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CHINESE AND ENGLISH THOUGHT PATTERNS

Since Chinese and English belong to different language systems, they are bound to be different in thinking patterns. The differences between Chinese thought pattern and English thought pattern can be summarized as follows: imaginative versus abstract, synthetic versus analytical, united versus opposite and group-oriented versus ego-centered.

A. *Imaginative versus Abstract*

On the whole, we Chinese are usually involved in imaginative thinking, which involves lots of metaphors, analogies, symbols and similes; the native English speakers adopt the abstract thought pattern, which is viewed as logic thought, of which the thought forms are making conceptions, judgments and reasoning. For example, in Chinese, father-in-law is called *Taishan* (a symbol of great weight or importance) and the husband of one's wife's sister is called *Tiaodan*. In Chinese classics, figurative analogies and metaphors are frequently employed to express such feelings as love, hatred, friendship and missing etc. English thought pattern is characterized by its strict grammatical structure, because the English language is controlled by logic connection. In addition, the idea of English language is very clear and its sentence structures are tightly organized.

B. *Synthetic versus Analytical*

Hu Wenzhong (1997) holds that "the thought pattern of people in the east is synthesis, while the thought pattern of people in the west is analysis" (p.153). Synthesis combines the separate parts, and elements of the objects into a whole while analysis separates the whole object into parts. Chinese people prefer synthetic thinking, which makes Chinese tend to think in historic reasoning while English-speaking people prefer analytical thinking. For example, Beijing Opera represents Chinese synthetic thought pattern, as it involves dancing, reciting, and singing. This kind of artistic synthesis can fall into four kinds of Western arts: dance, ballet, opera and play. The Western natural science has benefited a lot from analyzing. It is true that the more Western people analyze, the more concrete the object is.

C. *United versus Opposite*

We Chinese have a thought pattern of unity, for the traditional Chinese culture emphasizes that human beings and everything on the earth form one unity (Chen, 2005, p.368). In our culture, collectivism is highlighted. That's why we Chinese are unlikely to separate subject and object so clearly. And that's why Chinese students often mix subject with object, experiences with facts. The Western people, especially Americans, like analyzing things into two opposites: cause and effect, success and failure, good and bad and entertainment and work. It is no wonder that native English speakers avoid talking about work when they are having a party or holiday.

D. *Group-oriented versus Ego-centered*

Chinese people believe in collectivism, while native English speakers in individualism. G. Hofstede, and G.J. Hofstede (2005) define collectivism and individualism as follows:

Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: Everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty. (pp. 75-76)

Collectivists tend to think that personal goals are less important than those of groups; while individualists tend to give priority to their personal goals. The two different concepts have great influence on people's choice of words, building of sentences, and even their creation of writing styles.

Now we have had a clear idea of the differences between Chinese and English thought patterns, but that is not enough. To help Chinese non-English majors improve their English writing ability, we also need to know clearly what negative influences Chinese thought pattern has on their English writing.

V. NEGATIVE TRANSFER OF CHINESE THOUGHT PATTERN IN CHINESE NON-ENGLISH MAJORS' ENGLISH WRITINGS

In the writings of Chinese non-English majors we can easily find some common mistakes in diction, syntax, paragraph or passage structure and literary style.

A. *Negative Transfer of Chinese Thought Pattern in Diction*

Language is the carrier of culture and words carry the cultural connotations. Diction is the basis of a language, especially in writing. Lack of a large vocabulary, improper use of words, together with misspellings will definitely lead to poor performance in writing. Thus, wording should be considered first when we discuss the drawbacks in the writing of Chinese non-English majors.

A1. Using too Many Specific or Concrete Words

Chinese students are prone to use specific and concrete things to express themselves in order to form a sense of things. For example, some non-English majors would write such sentences like this: "In the past, the Chinese people led a life in deep water and hot fire." Reading such a sentence, the native English speakers will feel puzzled and wonder how Chinese people could lead a life in deep water and hot fire. To get across the idea clearly, we had better write like this: "In the past, the Chinese people led a life of extreme hardship". Comparing the choice of words used in the two sentences, we find that the native English speakers prefer abstract words instead of concrete ones.

A2. Using too Many Verbs, Less Prepositions and Nouns

English appears to be virtual, static and abstract, while Chinese appears to be solid, dynamic and specific. English usually enjoys preposition and noun advantages, while in Chinese sentences there are many verbs. For example:

a1. This English book too difficult, I can not read. (Original)

a2. The English book is totally beyond / above me. (Revised)

In (a1), "read" is a verb, while in (a2), "beyond," or "above" are prepositions. Influenced by Chinese, Chinese students tend to use more verbs to express ideas. Let's look at another example:

b1. To promote the kind of new products is not an easy task. (Original)

b2. The popularization of the new products is not an easy job. (Revised)

In (b1), "promote" is a verb, while (b2) "popularization" is a noun. English native speakers prefer nouns to verbs.

A3. Word Redundancy

The Chinese thinking is emotional. Non-English majors usually stress the importance of the situation and like to use rhetoric devices to strengthen the tone. For example, some write sentences as "We should take positive and progressive attitude towards life." and "We should have a good healthy body." and so on. The following is another example of redundancy found in Chinese Non-English majors' writings.

c1. We must oppose the practice of cheating in the final exam. (Original)

c2. We must oppose cheating in the final exam. (Revised)

Of the two sentences above, c1 is obviously wordy while c2 is short and concise. Semantic redundancy is one of the main features of Chinese English. Redundancy can be nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc., of which the most typical is a noun and verb redundancy.

B. *Negative Transfer of Chinese Thought Pattern in the Connection of Sentences*

English grammar is clear; English sentences are usually logical and coherent; English emphasizes hypotactic relations. However, Chinese grammar is rather vague; Chinese sentences are usually broken; Chinese stresses paratactic relations. The different grammatical features between the two languages make the two languages adopt different connective devices to combine sentences. Influenced by Chinese grammatical system, Chinese Non-English majors are likely to write some broken sentences or sentence fragments. The following is a case in point: "My father is a teacher. He works in a rural middle school. He has some good habits. He very much likes doing sports. He also likes reading every day."

This paragraph consists of five simple short sentences, every one of which begins with the same pronoun "he", and sounds broken and quite monotonous. In fact, the author could have combined some of the sentences and make the paragraph look like this: "My father is a teacher who works in a rural middle school. He has some good habits such as doing sports and reading every day."

The improved version is made up of two sentences with connectors and thus it is clear and memorable. From this example we can learn that to show a subordinate relation in English, we can use prepositional or participle phrases, attributive clauses or some other devices. But in Chinese, to indicate a paratactic relation, we prefer to employ parallel structures.

C. *Negative Transfer of Chinese Thought Pattern in Paragraph or Passage Structure*

When English-speaking people express their ideas, they comply to the tight logic. They state the main idea first and then support it by offering examples, quotations, statistics, and so on. English sentences have a rigorous subject-predicate structure. But the Chinese people adopt a scattering thinking, and they express their ideas according to the logic of things, time sequence, casual relationships. Chinese sentences are linked by the idea, although the structure is quite loose. Influenced by the Chinese thinking way, Chinese non-English majors have difficulty in composing an English paragraph or passage. Here is an example.

A Letter Given To the President of the University

Hello President, I am a student of our school, and my name is Li Ming. For the school has many sports venues and sports equipment, and I thank you. For the school has many sports venues and sports equipment, and I thank you. As we all know, exercise on their health and their growth is very important. Our school has a basketball court, football, table

tennis and so on almost all movement of sports venues and sports facilities. This gives students the school provides a good workout environment. Exercise is beneficial to the growth of human bones, muscles, enhances the cardiopulmonary function, improves blood circulation system, respiratory system, the function of the digestive system condition, is conducive to the growth and development of the human body, and improves the disease resistance, enhances the organism's ability to adapt. Sport is one of the most positive and effective means of enhanced physique. For today's university students, sports are one of the most important, have the sports venues and sports equipment, they can better get exercise, rather than stay in the dorm to play computer every day. For this I thank you once again. Thank you for your reading this letter. [Mistakes are original]

The student writer should have followed the format of a letter and written a letter of thanks. That is, he should have stated his purpose in the opening paragraph, then explained why he should thank the president of the university, and in the last paragraph expressed his appreciation again. But he arranged his ideas at will and put what he wanted to say in one paragraph, having no sense of how to write an English letter, which resulted in his failure to express himself clearly and effectively. We may classify the above type of writing into Chinglish pattern, not a typical English writing pattern, which is usually general-particular pattern, problem-solution pattern or matching pattern.

D. Negative Transfer of Chinese Thought Pattern in Literary Form

Modern English is characterized by being brief, forceful and simple. Chinese non-English majors, however, usually write a passage with too many sayings or metaphors, therefore, making sentences vague. Here are some examples:

d1. "I take a step as boundless as the sea and sky in smooth water;" is every essential quality of successful people.

d2. "Endure what others can not endure", this is the essential quality of a successful man.

d3. There is a celebrity saying "a man can succeed at almost anything for which he has unlimited enthusiasm."

d4. They should join in social practice, operation ability, and improve their interpersonal skills, such as speech contest and community activity. In other words, no pain no gains.[Mistakes are original.]

Frequently cited sayings or proverbs are often taken as "clichés" to native English speakers, even if they are grammatically correct. Mao Ronggui (1997) pointed out that "American people place far greater importance of the work of the writer who conveys ideas in fresh, new ways than on the one who wonders about on the crutch of cliché use" (p. 471; as cited in Ren, 2013, p. 523).

Since Chinese non-English majors are not able to compose decent English essays mainly because of the negative influence of Chinese thought pattern and their lack of English thinking ability, what can we do to cultivate their English thinking ability?

VI. STRATEGIES FOR CULTIVATING CHINESE COLLEGE STUDENTS' ENGLISH THINKING ABILITY

To cultivate Chinese non-English majors' English thinking ability, we can adopt various measures, but the following are the most practical and workable.

A. Familiarizing Chinese College Students with the English Thought Pattern through Critical Reading

Since it is mainly the lack of English thought pattern that has led to Chinese non-English majors' poor English writing, what we need to do first is familiarize them with the English thought pattern. To achieve the purpose, the most time-saving and effective is having them read authentic English essays critically, because reading and writing are closely related, while the former is receptive, the latter is productive. As far as reading is concerned, we should keep the following in mind:

1. Selecting English Essays Elaborately

With the purpose of knowing what the Chinese non-English majors have read, a survey was carried out in April of 2015. 100 freshmen who major in Computer Science and Politics participated in the survey of what have you read in learning English: articles in textbooks, articles in test-paper, articles in periodicals and English novels. The author of the paper got the result: 62 students claimed that they only read articles in textbooks or test-paper, 22 students claimed they read articles in some magazines occasionally, only 14 students claimed that they had read English novels and 2 students didn't return the questionnaire. From the survey, we can easily know that some Chinese non-English majors lack enough reading, especially critical reading. It is hard for them to get to know how the native speakers express their ideas and how they think differently from us. So it is quite necessary for Chinese non-English majors to read extensively and intensively.

If we Chinese are to get to know how people think in English-speaking countries, selecting what to read is very important. When it comes to choosing reading materials, we should follow several principles. First, we should select articles written by native speakers because these articles can well embody how native speakers think and convey their ideas. Second, we should select essays of different topics such as politics, economy, science, education, arts, sports and entertainment, etc. to meet the needs of different majors of college students. Hopefully, students can take interest in articles of their choice and engage themselves in critical reading. Third, articles of different writing styles including expository, descriptive, persuasive, and narrative ones should be taken into account so that students can soon get familiar with these styles after reading them. Finally, the newly-published articles can not only help students get to

understand how native speakers voice their ideas about different issues, but also help them get to know the latest development of the world.

Another point is to determine how many articles to read per term. In many Chinese colleges and universities, students are required to finish 6-10 units of a textbook and every unit usually consists of two passages. The author of the paper thinks that it is not enough for students to read 12-20 articles per term. So, it is advisable to select ten more English essays for non-English majors to read extensively in their spare time per term. And students can select three-to-five essays to read intensively by making reading notes.

2. Requiring Students to Read English Essays Critically

The traditional ways of teaching reading and learning to read English essays will definitely result in students' poor competence in English. On the one hand, some college English teachers just help students understand the passage by explaining some language points and help students finish the exercises following the passage without analyzing the passage. On the other hand, while reading, Chinese non-English majors usually fall into the habit of remembering new words and expressions, or some useful sentence patterns and they are content after they can understand the passage. Therefore, college students just get surface understanding of the passage. With the aim of improving the efficiency of college English learning and teaching, we need to require college students to read critically.

Reading critically involves several steps. Firstly, students must realize that the words in one language do not fit together in the same way as the words of another language do and they need to figure out the different usages of words and how they are used in different contexts. Then, they need to analyze how the English sentences are connected. More importantly, students need to analyze how the ideas are organized in the paragraph or essay. Finally, they need to analyze the style of the essay so that they can get to know the different writing styles in English culture. "In fact, critical reading strategies enable readers to differentiate the major viewpoints from the minor one, drawing inference, understand the writer's position or attitude, evaluate whether the evidence listed in the text is relevant, effective or logical, and reflect on the text and its impact on the readers' value, attitude and way of thinking" (Ma & Pan, 2014, pp.78-79). After reading critically, Chinese non-English majors are more inclined to understand the characteristics of ideography and information transmission in English discourse. Thus, teachers can hope to elevate students' logical reasoning, generalization and creativity.

3. Requiring Students to Write Summaries or Comments on a Regular Basis

Writing summaries or comments on a regular basis not only helps non-English majors master the usage of some words and sentence structures in the recently read passages, but also force them to read intensively, think deeply and express ideas in an ordered way. When they are writing summaries or comments, what they should think first is how to make them understood by native English speakers. Many scholars hold that the English thought pattern has a basic feature of straightforwardness. When developing a paragraph or even a passage, the English writer will, though not always, place the thesis statement of the essay, or topic sentence of the paragraph at the beginning with a statement. Then he will try every means to get his main idea or point of view directly illustrated with a number of sentences in a paragraph, or a number of paragraphs in an essay. At the end, he will come naturally to a conclusion to get the main idea or point of view restated for emphasis, if necessary. Writing summaries or comments on a regular basis helps non-English majors imitate how native English speakers think, organize and express their ideas gradually.

B. Deepening Students' Understanding of English and Chinese Words through Lectures

In the language system, some differences of words in the two different languages cast great difficulties on the writing. Therefore, it is highly suggested that Chinese non-English majors should understand English words deeply and make appropriate use of them in English writing.

Some words are unique in English. "Garage sale", a typical way of selling in Britain does not exist in China. It is usually practiced by many English people in Summer and Fall, who open the garage door, put their spare items priced for sale, and put the flag of "Garage sale" on the pole near the road when the weather is sunny, usually for anyone who wants to buy without paying tax. Some words in Chinese may have particular meaning while in the English culture do not. It is known that things or animals like cattle, horse, and dog, dragon have different meanings in different contexts, so they has to be changed into the things with equivalent connotation in their context. For example, the proverb in Chinese "guozhe niuma burude shenghuo" can be converted into "lead a dog's life" in English for the word "dog" in western countries means loyalty, which is different from its connotation in China. The dog is "man's best friend", and almost everyone likes dogs, just as the saying "love me, love my dog". But in the Chinese culture the dog is a dirty and dangerous animal. For another example, "lida runiu" should be converted into "as strong as a horse" for ox in Chinese culture is equivalent to horse in terms of the strength in English culture.

There are other differences of usage and meaning between Chinese and English words. College English teachers need to deliver some lectures about words and help non-English majors to deepen their understanding of Chinese and English words.

C. Helping Students to Learn to Write Effective Sentences

Sentences usually serve as the bridge between words and ideas, so it is important to write effective sentences to convey our ideas in English. Unfortunately, some non-English majors often make run-on sentences such as "A foreign

student faces many problems, for example, he has to cope with a new culture.” and “It was raining hard, the farmers could not work in the cornfields.”

On the one hand, we need to make students know effective sentences mainly involve several qualities such as clarity, brevity, and variety. On the other hand, we need to guide students how to achieve these qualities while writing. Helping non-English majors to write effective sentences can fall into several steps. First, to achieve clarity (the essential quality of writing), students should be taught to avoid jargons, most euphemisms, vague modifiers and fancy words and use the active voice on most occasions because lack of clarity in sentences often leads to misunderstanding, even failure in communication. Secondly, students should be told to avoid over-repetition, the first person pronoun and over-emphasis to achieve brevity. Thirdly, students are expected to change sentence openings, sentence lengths and structure and word choice to give a paragraph or passage rhythm and life. Finally, teachers need to list as many ineffective sentences as possible to help students revise them repeatedly. By doing the above, non-English majors can learn to write effective sentences step by step.

D. Familiarizing Students with the English Writing Process

The basic aim of a writing course is to develop the ability to write essays. But unfortunately, in many colleges and universities in China, the non-English majors do not have English writing course, so they cannot learn the writing techniques systematically and cannot get systematic writing training, which is in fact very important in English learning.

The process of English writing usually falls into several steps: prewriting, writing and rewriting, or planning, drafting and revising. We need to let non-English majors know what they should do in each stage. In the prewriting stage, they need to choose a theme, think about what to write and how to write, make an outline, consider the writing style, and work out an attractive beginning; in the writing stage, they should organize and write down the ideas in their mind; in the rewriting stage, they decorate their writing by checking for spelling and grammatical mistakes, looking critically at what has been written down and reviewing the writing at a number of levels and paying attention to the variety of sentences. Undoubtedly, this process is not linear; they can move back and forth, if necessary. After non-English majors get familiar with the writing process, they are more likely to divide the writing task into several parts and they may think it will be easier for them to write an English essay by following the regular writing steps.

E. Setting up a Writing Platform

In China, teachers and students seldom communicate as to what to teach and how to teach no matter in or after class, and nor do the students ask teachers any questions even if there is something they feel confused about. For this phenomenon two main factors are responsible. One is that teachers are always occupied with their teaching. A college English teacher usually has 16 or more classes a week. He has to teach listening, reading, writing, translating, and so on. In other words, he has to teach everything about English, which leaves him/her little free time. The other is that a majority of Chinese students are self-conscious; they are introvert and do not like talking with others, not to say express their ideas about something or ask teachers questions. So, to promote teacher-student communication, it is imperative to set up a writing platform.

With a writing platform, students and students, and students and teachers can communicate with one another anytime and anywhere. They needn't worry about being found asking silly questions or saying something unidiomatic and as a result being laughed at. With a writing platform, we can upload some well-written essays written by the native English speakers or by the students themselves. By reading the native English speakers' essays now and then, students can gradually become aware of how native English speakers think and how they express themselves clearly and effectively and then have a better understanding of the differences between Chinese and English thought patterns. By reading the essays written by students themselves, they are most likely to build up their confidence to write well in English. By communicating with teachers and classmates now and then, they can enhance their friendship, learn from one another and learn to express themselves more freely, confidently, and effectively. Then their composing acceptable English essays will be expected soon.

VII. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, writing ability is the comprehensive embodiment of a person's English proficiency. To improve the writing ability of the non-English majors in China, not only should we make them aware of the differences between Chinese and English thought patterns and spare no effort to guide them to think as native English speakers do by reading extensively and critically, but we should also make them aware of the different implications of some words in Chinese and English and help them learn to use words appropriately, exactly and idiomatically. Besides, getting them to know how to make effective sentences, how to develop a paragraph and how to compose an essay is absolutely necessary. With the help of other students and guide of the teacher through a writing platform, the non-English majors are sure to give full play to their potentials and creativity and make excellent English learners.

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The Impact of Feedback Provision by Grammarly Software and Teachers on Learning Passive Structures by Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—A major concern in today's world of pedagogy in general and language teaching, in particular, is the application of computer-assisted learning to improve students' achievement. There has been a long time that in the classroom setting only the teacher's feedback in a traditional way has been used in teaching. Due to the fact that this kind of notion can be traced back to a traditional attitude toward feedback, we looked for a new alternative in order to bring some innovation in an educational environment, namely Grammarly Software feedback provision. Therefore, the aim of the present study was to explore the impact of feedback provision by Grammarly Software and teachers on learning passive structures by EFL learners. Through convenience sampling, 70 intermediate male and female EFL learners were selected, then they were randomly assigned to two main groups: the experimental and control group. A grammar pre-test, a post-test, and a delayed post-test were administered to the participants in six sessions. The results of the data gathered from pre-test and post-test reveal that the effect of teacher on learning passive structure, in pre-test and post-test, were more than the effect of Grammarly Software on learning passive structure of the learners, and the effect of Grammarly Software on learning passive structure in delayed post-test scores was more than the effect of teacher on learning passive structure of learners. The results might have implications for language teachers, learners, and materials developers.

Index Terms—grammarly software, software feedback, teacher's feedback, passive structure

I. INTRODUCTION

Technology development in human being's life has brought so many changes around. In traditional view of learning, undoubtedly, the whole teaching and learning activity was done both by the teacher and the learners in the face to face manner. Ellis (2003) states that in traditional language teaching there is a sense of being less active and tedious from the learners. Thus, there would not be left any interest for the learners to take part in learning actively. Regarding the various developments taken place in the human life, nowadays, the way of learning is something away from the traditional pinpoint in which technology has entered the human life to make everything easier than before.

By applying technology to the curriculum, Brown (2002) claims that, now, most of the work which is to be done in the classroom environment is put on the learners' shoulders. Utilizing computers throughout the classes, it gives the learners a sense of autonomous for their learning. As far as CALL-based is concerned, it needs learners' active participation role, and it is believed to be conducive to learner's active participation in his/her own learning.

In CALL environments like the traditional view of teaching and learning, all of the theories of language and teaching are there, but in the former, the presence of technology is something which makes it different from the latter. Historically speaking, the trend of CALL entering the curriculum set out in three different decades from the 1970s, 1980s, and the 21st century. Each of these decades has its own characteristics. To be more specific, what makes these decades different from each other is using some terminologies namely stage, technology, English teaching paradigm, view of language, the principal use of a computer, and principle objective.

Regarding the above-mentioned overview, it is best to remember that computer is not a substitution for the teacher but rather it is an enabler to help both teachers and learners have more chances to experience various innovative methods in teaching and learning. Up to 1990s, the reciprocal concern of the teachers and computer scientists smoothed doing a set of research and to CALL. Yet, the research on the effectiveness of CALL in the language domain has been an ongoing process in the modern societies (Warschauer & Healey, 1998).

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Learning a foreign language has always been a big problem for most of the learners in their educational background. Richards and Renandya (2002) maintain that the role of grammar is perhaps one of the most controversial issues in language teaching. Traditionally speaking, grammar was taught by the teachers in these circumstances, learners have not become involved in learning and the ends of the curriculum were not fulfilled then.

In spite of the fact that there seems to be good outlook in CALL, there are few students interested in this domain. As the matter of fact, this kind of technology, in Iran, has recently entered the educational curriculum, there are not many teachers who use technology in their daily programs. The reason which is left behind this problem is due to being less familiar with the technology. Being less familiar with the multimedia, it provides no motivation, if any, for the users to continue their professional jobs. CALL along with the other teaching materials are used to make use of the instruction delivered to the learners in the most effective way. Because learning through computer software increases the students' confidence, in this case they will become independence of their teachers and they will be responsible for their own learning. Nowadays, English teachers use many English softwares in their professional job to manage their learning in the classroom settings.

Grammarly software which is dealt with throughout this study and used as a tool in class not only helps teachers to assess learners' progress but also raises their awareness and make progress in a course. So for the use of such a software in this kind of environment like traditional face to face teaching and learning, there must be some kinds of reactions for the learners to internalize the learning material in the context of learning. Many studies have been done on the effect of feedback on language grammar. The gap here in the EFL literature is, to the researchers' knowledge and literature review, that few studies have been done on CALL-based software especially no studies on Grammarly Software; therefore, we attempted to investigate whether feedback provision by Grammarly software and teachers dose have any effect on making better the knowledge of the passive structures of the Iranian EFL learners. It goes without saying that each language is consisted a large number of grammatical rules. Therefore, for the sake of the easiness of the study, this study will aim at the instruction of passive structures.

III. SIGNIFICANT OF THE STUDY

Feedback is necessary when learners want to expand their learning. The most common complaint of the learners is usually not being well feedback provided by the teachers in their classroom setting. Thus, this research is of much importance because it attempts to fill the gap by examining both feedback provision by CALL-based and teachers on learning passive structures by Iranian EFL learners who carry out their learning activity through CALL-based environments. Therefore, due to the importance role of feedback in our learning and significance of developing heuristic natures of the learners, it is helpful to determine if feedback provision by CALL-based and teachers can improve learning performance of Iranians. (Sadeghi, Biniaz, & Soleimani, 2016).

A. *History of CALL*

It was in 1920 that computers were utilized by the classroom setting by the teacher. And one thing which was of great importance in this regard was, the number of instructors who could use a computer as a means of their learning activities, only a small number of instructors were able to use computers in their profession. Activities such as recording students' voice by computer and analyze if they made mistakes, used Microsoft Office for teaching the alphabet in different shapes and colors and such simple activities. Historically speaking, the utilization of CALL in educational setting would trace back to the 1960s trends of CALL namely traditional, explorative, multimedia, and web-based CALL.

B. *Definition of CALL*

Levy (1997) provides a brief definition of the CALL as the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning. The majority of CALL practitioners have accepted this definition of CALL. The computer itself is a machine that works with a lot of information with high speed and accuracy. It processes information by displaying, storing, recognizing, and communicating information to other computers. Generally speaking, they treat numbers, words. In the 1970s, CALL projects were limited basically to universities, where the use of computer programs extended on huge central computers. For example, the PLATO project, began at the University of Illinois in 1960, is an important discovery in the early development of CALL (Marty, 1981). There are four developmental moving pictures, and sounds. The computer has affected the way people work, learn, communicate, and play. Students, teachers use it as a learning tool all over the world by individuals at home to study, work and entertain as well.

C. *Technology and Language Learning*

Biggs (1996) believed that technology in the delivery of information has shifted the responsibility for learning away from the instructor to the learning. Biggs further maintained that it is the essential ingredient of a constructivist approach to learning where learners construct their knowledge and frames of reference through individual and social activity. The constructivist theory has several characteristics that suited to web-based activities easily. Some of these features include learner construction of meaning, social interaction and student problem-solving in real.

As Technology in the L2 Curriculum is a new subject-matter in Second Language Classroom Instruction. It plants itself firmly in the world where basic familiarity with computers and basic Internet use can deem for both teachers and learners. Today, most of the classroom setting for getting the highest qualification of the educational programs with the approval of the Ministry OF Education are equipped with different kinds of technologies to make better their lessons and incorporate them in their syllabi.

D. Feedback in Curriculum

Richards and Schmidt (2010) maintained that the term feedback is defined as any information or comments that the learners receive concerning their success on learning task or test either from the teacher or another person. Feedback has something to do with the learning activity, about the process of activity and about the learners' management of their learning. There are different forms of feedback such as verbal, written, or can be given through other technological tools.

E. Electronic Feedback

Kukich (2000) believed that the need which is felt to integrate technology into the classroom instruction is due to the rapid pace of the educational technology which plays a crucial role. And this thigh relationship existed between technology and the second language learning move toward on the concept of the electronic feedback. They can be on the different subject-matter, e.g. an email note, or from other fields of study. Interest in automated electronic feedback on essay writing has been blossoming in the last ten years. Ware and Warschauer (2006) said that electronic feedback is a slippery term that is used across a range of often different approaches to the teaching of writing. Just as the purposes of literacy take on different meanings and uses in a range of contexts, so do the uses of technology come to bear in a variety of ways depending on the research lens and pedagogical frame.

F. Teacher's Feedback

Being more effective in teaching profession, it is necessary for the teachers to provide some feedbacks on their teaching careers. Giving feedback to the learners, it enhances their self-confidence to do their best to succeed. Generally every teacher wants to know how he or she is doing throughout his or her teaching; therefore, there must be some clues delivering to the learners to reach the main goal of his or her course. (Prvinchandar & Ayub, 2014) Teacher's feedback is the teacher's verbal reaction to grammatical errors committed by the learners in the process of teaching and learning. (OECD, 2009)

G. Empirical Studies on CALL

Alsouki (2001), conducted a study on the impact of using computers in the teaching of L2 composition on the writing performance of learners. The research findings divulged that there were significant differences in using computers as an effective writing tool. Nutta (2001) investigated the effect of computer-based grammar instruction and the teacher-directed grammar instruction. The findings of their study are accordance with the impact of Grammarly Software feedback on retaining passive structure in delayed post-test. Sivapuniam (2001) mentioned in a study carried out by some institutions of higher learning in Malaysia. The results of the study showed that there was an increased use of email for communication purposes. (as cited in Kabilan, Razak, & Embi (2006), p. 177)

Rahimi and Hosseini (2010) carried out a study in order to understand the relationship between Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and listening skill of Iranian EFL learners. The results obtained throughout the study indicated there was a considerable difference between CALL users and nonusers in favor of the experimental group. Mehrgan (2010) study the results of the study through a post-test revealed the fact that the experimental group outperformed the control group. Therefore, CALL appeared to be useful in developing English grammar of the TEFL students.

Bataineh, Ruba, Bani Hani, and Nedal (2011) investigated the potential effect of a computerized instructional program on Jordan sixth-grade students' achievement in English investigated the potential effect of a computerized instructional program on Jordanian sixth-grade students' achievement in English. The results of their findings showed that achievement is notably affected by the medium of instruction, as marked differences are found between the achievements of the medium of instruction, as marked differences are found between the achievements of traditionally and computerized instruction. Parsa (2012) investigated the effect of Web-based discussions on the speaking skill of a group of Iranian female learners of English. The results showed that there is a significant difference between the performances of the students in the experimental group received Web-Based Instruction.

Shyamlee (2012) investigated the role of technology in language teaching and learning. The result of the study showed that technology plays a crucial role in this domain. As a result, technology plays a very important role in English teaching. Talebi and Teimoury (2013) carried out a study to show the impacts of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) on Iranian female students' pronunciation skills. They chose two groups who were homogeneous in terms of their pronunciation skills at the entry level. The performance of the experimental group on pronunciation test showed that the mean score of this group was considerably higher than the control group.

This study was an attempt to investigate the impact of feedback provision through Grammarly software and teacher on learning passive structures by Iranian EFL learners. In effect, the study sets itself the objective of investigating the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There is not any statistically significant difference between feedback provision by Grammarly Software and teachers on learning, i.e., short-term memory, passive structures by Iranian EFL learners.

Hypothesis 2: There is not any statistically significant difference between feedback provision by Grammarly Software and teachers on retaining, i.e., long-term memory, passive structures by Iranian EFL learners.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

To go through the research hypotheses, the current study pursued the quasi-experimental design in terms of using one experimental group and one control group. These groups were chosen non-randomly from intermediate levels from Karaj Azad University, Iran. In the experimental group, using an on-line grammar software, namely Grammarly, students were required to write passive sentences and the program would notify their problems. At first, they were required only to revise themselves, if they could not, they would be asked to click the Grammarly icon or the tense to learn the correct form. In fact, the feedback was given by the software, not the teacher.

In the control group, participants attended deductive teaching by their instructors. Then they were asked to do some exercises on passive structures taught in the class. They received feedback later by their teachers. That is, their teachers did the corrections for them. A pre-test was administered to check the target structure at the beginning of the study. A post-test was given to test their achievement at the end of the research. Also, a proficiency test (Oxford Solution Test) was taken to homogenize the subjects at the beginning of the study.

B. Participants

Seventy female and male students were selected from 4 available classes through a non-probability convenience sampling technique. These students were in the first semester at Karaj Islamic Azad University, Iran. All the participants were Persian-speaking students learning English as a foreign language. The homogeneity of the participants was ensured by administering an English proficiency test. In order to carry out the experiment, the participants were assigned randomly to two groups namely control group and experimental group. (Experimental group N= 35, Control group N= 35, age range 20 up to 39, and mean age of all participants was 29 years old).

C. Materials and Instruments

1. Grammarly Software

The Grammarly Software type is a kind of Corporation and is founded in 2009 in and its main generating unit is located in San Francisco in the United State of America. The users of this Grammarly have been distributed in all over the world; therefore, its area of served is worldwide one. The founders of this software are Alex Shevchenko and Max Lytvyn, but the key people which have a crucial role are Brad Hoover (CEO). The main product of the Grammarly is Grammar checker, Spell checker and it can do other services such as proofreading, plagiarism detection.

2. Nelson Proficiency Test

The first instrument of this study was a Nelson English language test in the intermediate level. The test (Appendix A) included 35 items multiple choice tests and were graded from simple to more difficult ones. The contents of the tests are related to what an average student can be expected to cover the corresponding number of hours of study. The selected test contained only one section in the form of multiple-choice questions. The allotted time was 25 minutes for 35 items. It was administered to ensure the homogeneity of the participants in terms of their average general English proficiency.

3. Modern English: Parts of speech, part 1

This textbook is a practical reference guide. It provides the learner of English as a second language with carefully controlled and integrated practice in mastering sentence elements. Learning is facilitated through examples and abundant practice rather than through extensive explanations. It concentrates on the correct form and position of words presents detailed information about current English usage. Modern English (Frank, 1993) represents a synthesis of the old and the new. The conceptual framework for the book has been determined by modern grammatical theories (both structural and transformational). The exercises are arranged systematically for ease of location. They progress from the less difficult to the more difficult, from strict control to looser control. In general, American usage is recorded in this book; however, differences between American and British usage have been pointed out. In addition, different levels and varieties of usage have been accounted for. Finally, emphasizing both formal and informal written English, it features a number of examples in natural language.

4. Grammar pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test

The 30 pretest items in multiple-choice form and the allotted time was 20 minutes and these items were constructed by one of the researchers. The other types of the items which were used for doing complete the purpose of the thesis were post-tests too, reasoning that the time interval (five weeks) was long enough for the participants not to remember the items from the first administration. The focus in this test was on passive structures. The test was administered to two groups in the first and the last sessions of the experimental period and control period. Given that the items were selected and adopted from various sources, there was a need to check the reliability as well as the content validity of the test. In order to estimate the reliability of the tests, the tests were piloted with a group of 20 learners who were similar to the

learners of the main study in terms of age and proficiency level. The reliability of the piloted test, measured through Kuder-Richardson 21 formula, turned out to be Cronbach's Alpha the EFL university professors approved its content validity.

5. *Modern English: A Practical Reference Guide*

This textbook presents detailed information about current English usage. Some of which will not be found in other grammar books. The emphasis of this book is on written English, both formal and informal.

In general, American usage is recorded in this book; however, differences between American and British usage have been pointed out. In addition, different levels and varieties of usage have been accounted for. (Frank, 1993). Emphasizing both formal and informal written English, it features a number of examples in natural language. the researcher utilized chapter three of the above-mentioned book from page 67 up to page 73 to make some multiple choices for the pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test to be handed to the participants as a sign of their mastery through treatment sessions.

6. *Data Analysis*

For data analysis, we used descriptive statistics, normality tests using both numerical and graphical tests of normality. The scores of the participants on the pre-, post, and delayed post-test were analyzed by using, non-parametric tests such as Mann-Whitely U test and Fried Man Test. The collected data in this particular study consist of the results of researcher-made pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test to determine if there were any significant difference in the mean scores between and within the experimental groups and the control group on the pre, post, and delayed posttest administrations of the passive structure tests. Furthermore, the results of the delayed post-tests were analyzed through Post Hoc Tukey Test to determine any possible significant difference among experimental group and control group. All statistical analyses were carried out using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18.

V. RESULTS

The normal distribution is merely an idealization. It is only an idealized pattern which is based on the population of an infinite number of cases to describe individuals' behaviors. The term normal in the normal distribution refers to the fact that the distribution is found frequently to check the normal distribution of population, normality tests were conducted (see Table 1 for descriptive statistics).

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRETEST OF CONTROL GROUP AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

		Statistic	Std. Error
CG	Mean	18.80	.85
	Median	20.00	
	Variance	25.81	
	Std. Deviation	5.08	
	Skewness	-.152	.39
	Kurtosis	-.634	.778
EXP.G	Mean	18.03	.99
	Median	18.00	
	Variance	32.40	
	Std. Deviation	5.69	
	Skewness	-.26	.40
	Kurtosis	-.57	.79

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POSTTEST' SCORES OF CG AND EXP.G

		Statistic	Std. Error
CG	Mean	24.66	.47
	Median	24.00	
	Variance	6.71	
	Std. Deviation	2.59	
	Skewness	-1.19	.42
	Kurtosis	3.21	.83
EXP.G	Mean	23.46	.90
	Median	25.00	
	Variance	24.32	
	Std. Deviation	4.93	
	Skewness	-.92	.42
	Kurtosis	-.11	.83

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR DELAYED POST-TEST SCORES OF CG AND EXP.G

		Statistic	Std. Error
CG	Mean	24.61	.74
	Median	25.00	
	Variance	17.11	
	Std. Deviation	4.13	
	Skewness	-.47	.42
	Kurtosis	-.36	.82
EXP.G	Mean	25.12	.77
	Median	19.79	
	Variance	4.44	
	Std. Deviation	15.00	
	Interquartile Range	-.01	.79
	Skewness	25.12	.77
	Kurtosis	23.54	

Based on the results of above descriptive statistics, we concluded to some basic information for each group of this study. The means and standard deviations of three pretests, post-test and delayed post-test of the control group, pre-test (M= 18.80, SD=5.08), post- test (M=24.66, SD= 2.59) and delayed post-test (M=24.61, SD=4.13) were compared (see Table 4 for a summary of descriptive statistics for the control group).

TABLE 4.
SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CONTROL GROUP

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre.T	35	18.80	5.08
Post.T	30	24.66	2.59
Delay.T	31	24.61	4.13
Valid N (listwise)	27		

And the results of descriptive statistics of the experimental group revealed the means and standard deviations for pre-test (M= 18.03, SD=5.69) for post-test (M= 23.46, SD= 4.93) and delayed post-test (M= 25.12, SD=4.44) (See Table 5 for a summary of descriptive statistics for experimental group).

TABLE 5.
SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre.T	33	18.03	5.69
Post.T	30	23.46	4.93
Delay.T	33	25.12	4.44
Valid N (listwise)	26		

By comparing the means and standard deviation of both groups, it might be concluded that the effect of teacher on learning passive structure, in pre-test and post-test, are more than the effect of Grammarly Software on learning passive structure of Iranian EFL learners, and the effect of Grammarly software on learning passive structure in delayed post-test scores is more than the effect of teacher on learning passive structure of Iranian EFL learner.

Testing Normality

The most famous numerical ways to test the normality, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, and Shapiro-Wilk tests, were used them for this study (see Table 6 for the result of normality test of the control group and Table 7 for the result of normality test of experimental group).

TABLE 6.
RESULT OF NORMALITY TEST OF CONTROL GROUP

	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre.T	.123	27	.200*	.974	27	.715
Post.T	.150	27	.120	.906	27	.018
Delay.T	.112	27	.200*	.933	27	.084

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

TABLE 7.
RESULT OF NORMALITY TEST OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Kolmogorov-Smirnova			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pre.T	.133	26	.200*	.973	26	.707
Post.T	.188	26	.019	.886	26	.008
Delay.T	.140	26	.200*	.898	26	.014

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction
*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

The results of normality of tests indicated that the scores of post-test and delayed post-test of both groups didn't distribute normally, (Shapiro-Wilk, sig <.05); therefore, non-parametric tests would be used in future calculations.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A. Hypotheses One: The Feedback Provision by Grammarly Software and Teachers on Learning Passive Structure by Iranian EFL Learners

Having collected the results of the passive structure through Grammarly Software and teacher, the researchers analyzed the data by employing Mann-Whitney U Test. The purpose of this analysis was to determine the effect of treatment and examine the first hypotheses. The researcher constructed a posttest for this goal.

TABLE 8.
RESULT OF MANN-WHITNEY U TEST FOR BOTH CG AND EXP.G OF THEIR POST TEST

	Post.T
Mann-Whitney U	426.50
Wilcoxon W	891.50
Z	-.35
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.72

a. Grouping Variable: Group

A Mann-Whitney U Test was calculated to compare the effect of treatment for both groups at the end of the study by their posttest scores. By the result of Table 4.9, the researcher concluded that there was not a significant difference between the groups after the treatment, he reached to this result because the amount of Sig >.05. The probability value (p=.72) is not less than or equal to .05, so the result is not significant. However, A Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant difference between feedback provision through Grammarly Software and teacher on learning passive structure at the end of the study.

TABLE 9.
RESULT OF MANN-WHITNEY U TEST FOR BOTH CG AND EXP.G OF THEIR DELAY POST TEST

	Delay.T
Mann-Whitney U	463.50
Wilcoxon W	959.50
Z	-.64
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.51

a. Grouping Variable: Group

The researcher again used the Mann-Whitney U Test to compare the effect of delay post-test between two groups. By the result of Table 9, the researcher concluded that there was not a significant difference between the groups after the treatment, he reached to this result because the amount of Sig >.05. The probability value (p=.51) is not less than or equal to .05, so the result is not significant. However, A Mann-Whitney U test revealed that there is not any significant difference between the delayed post-test of two groups.

B. Hypotheses Two: The Feedback Provision through Grammarly Software and Teacher on Retaining Passive Structure by Iranian EFL Learners

The researcher conducted delayed post-test to determine the effect of time on retaining the treatment after two weeks and to answer the second null hypotheses of this study. Meanwhile, in order to determine the effect of repeating on the respondents' respond of experimental group or the learner's retaining the treatment, the researcher applied Friedman Test. Table 10 represents the results of this test.

TABLE 10.
RESULTS OF FRIEDMAN TEST FOR CONTROL GROUP

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Percentiles		
						25th	50th (Median)	75th
Pre.T	27	19.29	4.71	10.00	29.00	15.00	20.00	23.00
Post.T	27	24.74	2.72	16.00	29.00	23.00	25.00	27.00
Delayed.T	27	25.00	4.07	16.00	30.00	22.00	25.00	29.00

RANKS	
	Mean Rank
Pre.T	1.17
Post.T	2.30
Delayed.T	2.54

TEST STATISTICS	
N	27
Chi-square	29.45
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.00

a. Friedman Test

The result of the Friedman Test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of the control group in three pretests, post-test, and delayed test. This is indicated by a Sig. the level of.00 (which really means less than .0005). Comparing the Mean Rank for the three tests, for pretest (MR=1.25), for Post Test (MR= 2.33) and for Delay Post Test (MR=2.42) showed the increase in the mean scores of CON.G in three tests.

TABLE 11.
RESULTS OF FRIEDMAN TEST FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum	Percentiles		
						25th	50th (Median)	75th
Pre.T	26	18.42	5.74	6.00	28.00	14.00	18.00	23.00
Post.T	26	24.19	4.41	15.00	30.00	22.00	25.50	27.25
Delay.T	26	25.11	4.51	15.00	30.00	22.00	26.00	29.25

N	26
Chi-square	22.71
Df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.00

a. Friedman Test

The result of the Friedman Test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in the mean scores of the experimental group in three pretests, post-test, and delayed test. This is indicated by a Sig. the level of.00 (which really means less than .0005). Comparing the Mean Rank for the three tests, for pretest (MR=1.25), for Post Test (MR= 2.33) and for Delay Post Test (MR=2.42) showed the increase in the mean scores of EXP.G in three tests.

VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In order to achieve the purpose of this study two hypotheses were posed. Regarding findings of the research, it was declared that in the phase of pre-test and post-test of both groups, i.e., the control group and the experimental group, there was not any significant difference between the impact of feedback provision through Grammarly Software and teacher's feedback on learning passive structures by the EFL learners. And also, the impact of the teacher's feedback was more than the impact of feedback provision through Grammarly Software. Also, regarding the above- mentioned hypothesis, it was made known that the impact in the phase of the delayed- post- tests, the impact of feedback provided through Grammarly software was more than the impact of the teacher's feedback on retaining passive structures by EFL learners. In other words, there was a significant difference between feedback provision through Grammarly software and teachers on retaining passive structures by EFL learners.

By comparing the means and standard deviation of both groups, the researcher came to this conclusion that the impact of teacher's feedback on learning passive structure was more than the impact of feedback provision Grammarly Software on learning passive structure of Iranian EFL learners, and the impact of Grammarly software on learning passive structures in delayed post-test scores is more than the impact of teacher's feedback on learning passive structures of Iranian EFL learners. We again used the Mann-Whitney U Test to compare the effect of delay post-test between two groups. The researcher concluded that there was not a significant difference between the groups after the treatment.

The results of the present study indicated that feedback provision has statistically significant impact on learning passive structures by Iranian EFL learners through Grammarly software and teacher. In other words, the question was answered negatively. In addition, it was found that feedback provision has statistically significant impact on retaining passive structures by Iranian EFL learners through Grammarly software and teacher there is not any statistically significant difference between feedback provision through Grammarly software and teacher on retaining passive structures by Iranian EFL learners.

Discussion of the Research Hypothesis

1. The first research hypothesis.

H01: There is not any statistically significant difference between feedback provision through Grammarly Software and teacher on learning, i.e., short-term memory, passive structures by Iranian EFL learners. There is not any

statistically significant difference between feedback provision through Grammarly Software and teacher on learning passive structures by Iranian EFL learners. There for the above mentioned was answered positively. Because the impact of the teacher's feedback was more than the impact of feedback provision through Grammarly Software in the phase of the pre- test and post- test of both groups.

2. The second research hypothesis

HO2: There is not any statistically significant difference between feedback provision through Grammarly Software and teacher on retaining, long-term memory, passive structures by Iranian EFL learners.

Unlike the present study (the second null hypothesis), Alsouki (2001), in Jordan, conducted a study on the impact of using computers in the teaching of L2 composition on the writing performance of learners. The research findings divulged that there were significant differences in using computers as an effective writing tool. Therefore, finding of the second part of this study goes with the second question of the present study posed.

Nutta (2001) investigated the effect of computer-based grammar instruction and the teacher-directed grammar instruction. The results indicate that computer-based instruction can be an effective method of teaching L2 grammar. The results of their study are accordance with the impact of Grammarly Software feedback on retaining passive structure in delayed post-test.

Sivapuniam (2001) mentioned in a study carried out by some institutions of higher learning in Malaysia. The results of the study showed that there was an increased use of email for communication purposes. (as cited in Kabilan, Razak, & Embi (2006), p. 177); therefore, the impact of feedback provision through Grammarly Software was highlighted in this study.

Rahimi and Hosseini (2010) carried out study in order to understand the relationship between Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and listening skill of Iranian EFL learners. The results obtained throughout the study indicated there was a considerable difference between CALL users and nonusers in favor of the experimental group; therefore, the impact of feedback provision through Grammarly Software was highlighted in this study.

Mehrgan (2010) study the results of the study through a post-test revealed the fact that the experimental group outperformed the control group. Therefore, CALL appeared to be useful in developing English grammar of the TEFL students. Therefore, CALL appeared to be useful in developing English grammar of the TEFL students. And the results are in accordance with the second question of the present study.

Bataineh, Ruba, Bani Hani, and Nedal (2011) conducted study in order to understand the relationship between Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and listening skill of Iranian EFL learners. The results obtained throughout the study indicated there was a considerable difference between CALL users and nonusers in favor of the experimental group. Therefore, the findings of this study are in accordance with the second question posed.

Parsa (2012) investigated the effect of Web-based discussions on the speaking skill of a group of Iranian female learners of English. The results showed that there is a significant difference between the performances of the students in the experimental group received Web-Based Instruction. It was declared that the feedback received from the subjects indicates that in spite of all authenticity, attraction, novelty, and fruitful learning environment provided by the Internet for the language learners, autonomous learning will better pay off providing that it is postponed to more advanced levels. The results of their study are accordance with the impact of Grammarly Software feedback on retaining passive structure in delayed post-test.

Shyamlee (2012) investigated the role of technology in language teaching and learning. The result of the study showed that technology plays a crucial role in this domain. As a result, technology plays a very important role in English teaching; therefore, the results of this study are accordance with the effect of Grammarly provision in language learning.

Talebi and Teimoury (2013) carried out a study to show the impacts of CALL on Iranian female students' pronunciation skills. The performance of a pronunciation test showed that the two groups were homogeneous in the case of their pronunciation skills at the entry level. While both groups had the same instructor during eight sessions. Just the experimental group received the materials by using a computer. The administration of the experimental group on pronunciation test held at the end of the end of the course showed that the mean score of this group was remarkably higher than the control group. As a consequence, the students' learning based on CALL can increase the motivation and interest of learning among the learners and have a profound effect on the students' achievement of pronunciation.

Prvinchandar and Ayub (2014) compared the effectiveness of two types of computer software for improving the English writing skills of pupils in a Malaysian primary school. The findings indicated that the students who were exposed to StyleWriter had significantly better scores in all the writing components compared to the control group using Microsoft Word in both pen-and-paper and computer-based essay writing assessments. This study showed that StyleWriter enhanced the students' writing skills even when computer assistance was no longer available; therefore, the impact of feedback provision through Grammarly Software was highlighted in this study.

On the whole, it seems that both the feedback provision by Grammarly Software and teachers can influence the learning of passive structures learning, but in the role of the Grammarly Software in retaining the passive structures is more highlighted than the teacher's feedback.

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