Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Assessing Students in an Authentic and Ongoing Manner in the English Classroom

Diego P. Ortega

English Department, Universidad Nacional de Educación, Javier Loyola – Azogues, Ecuador

Olga E. Minchala

English Department, Universidad Nacional de Educación, Javier Loyola – Azogues, Ecuador

Abstract—These days, assessment has a central role in the teaching-learning process of different subjects. Teachers are expected to shift away from traditional, dominant testing procedures and employ authentic, genuine assessment practices in today's education. When authentic assessments are incorporated into the classroom, teachers are more likely to obtain a more complete picture of what their (language) students know and can do over the course of instruction. Thus it is imperative to get a solid understanding of Performance-Based Assessment (PBA) and Formative Assessment, as the application of these kinds of assessments can have a positive impact upon (language) learning and enhance teaching as well. Therefore, in order to better apply the aforementioned assessments in the language learning classroom, this article examines authentic assessment vs. standardized assessment, PBA, authentic strategies of PBA, the historical background and conceptualization of formative assessment, the fundamentals and attributes of formative assessment and its applications, as well as it discusses formative assessment within ESL/EFL educational contexts.

Index Terms—assessment, authentic assessment, performance-based assessment, formative assessment, strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

Currently, assessment is a critical component of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) curriculum and in today's language education there is a trend from shifting away from traditional, dominant testing procedures and embracing authentic assessment and formative assessment practices. Within the context of an English curriculum in non-English speaking countries, assessing language learners by means of authentic assessments and formative assessments should have a central role in EFL teachers' professional practice. As they implement these two assessments into the classroom, they are more likely to obtain a more complete picture of the knowledge and skills their students possess. Additionally, by employing formative assessment language teachers can gather evidence about their students' strengths and weaknesses while teaching is still taking place. Thus teachers are better equipped to make well-informed decisions aimed at adjusting their subsequent instruction with the aim of enhancing student language learning. Therefore, based upon the importance of being able to assess language learners in a genuine, authentic and ongoing manner in the language learning classroom these days, this paper puts forward key notions with regard to authentic assessment vs. standardized assessment, performance-based assessment (PBA), authentic strategies of PBA, the historical background and conceptualization of formative assessment, the fundamentals and attributes of formative assessment and its applications. In addition to these, the use of formative assessment in ESL/EFL educational settings is highlighted. The information presented in this paper has the aim of helping teachers be aware of the beneficial, positive impact and key classroom implications the two aforementioned assessment types may have in the English language classroom.

II. AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT VS. STANDARDIZED TESTS

Assessments need to be appropriate and authentic and when educators are checking students' learning, it is essential for them to use an assessment practice that best fits a specific learning situation (Gallavan, 2009). Standardized, or norm-referenced tests, are commercially published tests that contain a set items and have a uniform procedure for administration and scoring (ERIC, 2001). They provide a comparison of individual performances to that of state or national samples (Kellaghan, Greaney & Murray, 2009).

First and foremost, authentic assessment is also referred to as naturalistic assessment, play-based assessment, contextualized assessment or performance assessment, which assesses learners in their natural environment (When applying authentic assessment in the classroom, the instructor is able to gather information by doing constant observations for adjustments, modifications, and adaptations regarding student's learning. Essentially, authentic assessment help educators to reflect upon their instruction and be aware of when, how and why to assess their students in order to gather authentic evidence of students' learning and knowledge (Gao & Grisham-Brown, 2011).

Since, authentic assessment allows teachers to gather valuable evidence for monitoring students' behavior as well as students to demonstrate their knowledge, it addresses not only the product but also the process (Mintah, 2003).

According to Mintah (2003), authentic assessment is grounded in the constructivist theory and believes that all students have prior knowledge before entering school. According to Herrera, Morales and Murry (2013), "authentic assessments identify and build on student's strengths such as language, prior experiences, interests, and funds knowledge to facilitate learning" (p. 23). Any time teachers assess their students during the learning process, the content of the assessment has to be closely related to what they have taught to their students; however, standardized tests have been disapproved for the lack of this crucial aspect at the time of assessing students' knowledge (Shepard, 2001)

Wiggins (1998) brought to light the following points about authentic assessment: it evaluates students' skills in a real life context; it allows students not only to demonstrate knowledge through actions or performances, but also employs the knowledge acquired to deal with difficulties; it permits students to use several skills at once to complete a task; and it constantly provides opportunities for educators to give feedback throughout the process (as cited in Janesick, 2001). When using authentic assessments, educators are measuring or evaluating not only what students are able to do but also what they know. Activities within this approach are both demanding, beneficial to integrate students' skills for completing them, and are students centered thereby boosting critical thinking (Finch, 2012).

III. PERFORMANCE-BASED ASSESSMENT

Key examples of authentic assessments are performance-based assessment and formative assessment. In order to have a clear understanding on how to use these two types of authentic assessments in the classroom, their most critical notions are highlighted in this paper. Performance-based assessment is first analyzed and then the discussion moves on to formative assessment.

Herrera, Morales and Murry (2013) noted that Performance-based Assessment (PBA) is a type of authentic assessment. That is to say PBA typically involves the actual doing of task. PBA encompasses a variety of ways to observe and monitor student learning over various spans of time and involve much more authentic applications than do traditional paper – and – pencil tests.

As Herrera et al. (2013) noted, since performance based assessment require that students actually perform the task, the amount of learning, reasoning and communicative skills that can be addressed are enormous. In this regard, Finch (2002) went on to explain that this type of assessment concentrates on student-centered and student-managed ongoing assessment, which helps to develop other areas of language acquisition, such as collaborative learning and individual learning styles and preferences. By focusing on the time that teachers devote when they have to plan, analyze, select, organize, intervene, and report assessment tools, it is decisive for them to have a clear understanding of performance-based assessments. Although the effective implementation and management of performance-based assessments contribute to evaluate students' knowledge accurately, teachers still elude using these type of assessments since they find the application of these assessments in their instruction as a complicated and unclear process (Gallavan, 2009).

McMillan (2001) stated that all the activities in which the students are able to show and apply their knowledge or skills they acquire by producing a product, generating an answer, or explaining a topic are called Performance – based Assessments. "In an English classroom setting students do the aforementioned activities with the lively use of the second language" (McMillan, 2001, p. 196). In addition to this, it is imperative to consider that since Performance – based Assessment is extremely related to instruction in planning, it allows the teacher to be aware of what, how, when, where to assess in some meaningful ways (Gallavan, 2009).

Many authors (e.g. Kane & Mitchell, 2009; McMillan, 2001; Gallavan, 2009) agreed that performance – based assessment involves students active learning as a part of the assessment. In so doing, students are provided with many opportunities to demonstrate knowledge in different ways besides paper-and-pencil tests. In the search of strategies that provide students with many opportunities to show what they have learned, teachers identify multiple specific-criteria to measure progress (Stiggins, 2005). Since in performance – based assessment students are provided with these criteria before the assessment actually takes place, students are able to meet the criteria throughout the assessment. The moment that students are using the aforementioned criteria they are also evaluating themselves as a form of self-assessment (McMillan, 2001).

AUTHENTIC STRATEGIES OF PERFORMANCE-BASED ASSESSMENT

PBA incorporates authentic strategies and techniques that prompt higher order thinking and the integration of skills. Some of those authentic strategies are as follows: Self- Assessment and Peer Assessment, Cooperative Group Assessment, and Rubrics.

Gallavan (2009) stated that learners assess their own outcomes first or their peer assesses one another's outcomes for authentic assessment. Student self-assessment is a valuable tool for learning as well as measurement. Herrera, Morales and Murry (2013) agreed that when students are engaged in assessing their own work, they more thoroughly and purposefully understand the criteria for high-quality products and performance and experience greater motivation for meeting the established criteria. Students involved in effective self-assessment work toward a positive vision of the instructional goals. This vision is enhanced and authenticated by students' own perspectives and interpretations.

Teachers who gather observational data frequently find it a powerful tool for measuring learning over time. Effective classroom teachers use rubrics to plan observed academic language performance according to established criteria. Rubrics provide benefits for the classroom teacher by heightening her or his awareness of key criteria throughout the instructional day. Rubrics based on the stages of language acquisition (preproduction, early production, speech

emergence, intermediate fluency, advances fluency) are also a popular means of quantifying student progress (Herrera, Murry & Morales, 2013).

Gallavan (2009) stated that rubrics can be used with individual activities and assignments for a particular learning experience or for an entire unit of learning. Creating a template is ideal for preparing rubrics for an entire unit. In addition, it is essential that rubrics are given to students ahead of time, that is, before an assignment is submitted. Rubrics serve as the schedule, agenda, and frame for the unit of learning.

Another authentic strategy to assess students is Cooperative Group Assessment (CGA). As Herrera et al. (2013) argues schools and educators are increasingly recognizing that many students are better able to demonstrate their genuine skills, knowledge, and proficiencies through cooperative learning and assessment activities. Planning for CGA requires teachers to consider both group rewards and individual accountability (Slavin, 2006).

Cooperative learning implicates more than students working together on a lab or field project. It requires teachers to *structure* cooperative interdependence among the students. Five key elements differentiate cooperative learning from simply putting students into groups to learn (Johnson et al., 2006).These key elements are the following: Positive Interdependence, Individual Accountability, Face-to-Face (Promotive) Interaction, Interpersonal and Small Group Social Skills, and Group Processing. They can be implemented in a variety of ways. Assessment activities can be implemented at different stages of the cooperative learning exercise and can be conducted by either the instructor, the student, or group peers.

IV. FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT: A BRIEF OVERVIEW OF ITS HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

In addition to learning about performance-based assessment, this paper now deals with formative assessment. When implementing these two types of assessments into the language classroom, we are better able to know about what our students know and do in the target language.

According to Greenstein (2010), formative assessment can be traced back to Socrates' days (fifth-century). In his role as a practitioner, Socrates instructed his students, and then asked them about the subject matter as a way to check for comprehension. Using his students' responses, he evaluated their gained knowledge, which directed his further instruction. It is also indicated that educators have employed the Socrates' practice and "other forms of meaningful questioning" (Greenstein, 2010, p. 20) for a long time. The situations described above can be understood as the very early days of formative assessment in practice.

In contemporary days, a debate regarding what formative assessment and summative assessment involve has been raised. Therefore, in 1967, Scriven came up with a work, which aimed at distinguishing the terms formative and summative based on the idea that they had two different roles in educational evaluation. Scriven (1967) noted that they differed in how the information was collected and the ways the same information was later utilized. He went on explaining that while a program was being planned and developed it could still be modifiable, and the way of doing it was through the data obtained along the program, which in turn contributed to needed changes or improvement (as cited in Greenstein, 2010).

With regard to formative assessment, as indicated by Patel (2012), it was discussed in Benjamin Bloom's (1968) book titled *Learning for Mastery*; there the term was referred to as "a tool for improving the teaching-learning process for students" (p. 28). Patel (2012) pointed out that the creation of the influential book *Handbook of Formative and Summative Evaluation* written by Benjamin Bloom, Thomas Hasting and George Madaus came into existence in 1971. In the book, Bloom and colleagues demonstrated ways of connecting formative assessments to course content in different school subjects. In other words, Bloom and associates (1969) recommended the idea of applying Scriven's (1967) distinction of formative and summative assessments to the evaluation of student learning in the classroom setting (as cited in Iowa CORE, 2011a).

The Black and William's meta-analysis work "Assessment and Classroom Learning" was brought to light in 1998. This work included a comprehensive review of 250 reports, which were used in the final meta-analysis, and it reported significant student gains in learning sparked by formative assessment. Then, in the same year, Black and William published an article titled "Inside the Black Box: Raising Standards Through Classroom Assessment," which was an abridged version of their meta-analysis (Popham, 2008). In their second work, Black and William (1998b) demonstrated the effectiveness of formative assessment classroom practices. Black and William's (1998b) key finding in their study was that "improved formative assessment helps low achievers more than other students—and so reduces the range of achievement while raising achievement overall" (p. 3).

After Black and William's critical contribution, according to Popham's 2008 book, a critical event in the history of assessment took place in the U.S. in 2006. That year, the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) came up with an initiative that highlighted the necessity of a better, more balanced method of teachers' educational assessment. From that year to the present time, the initiative has reported long-lasting influence upon assessment in U.S. public schools. In addition, in the same year, a newly-created group adopted the name of State Collaborative on Assessment and Student Standards (SCASS), which was part of the CCSSO's initiative. The group started operating by having formative assessment as its focus of attention. Later on, it came the creation of a new SCASS group known as Formative Assessment for Students and Teachers (FAST) in mid-2006. FAST SCASS embarked on the task of implementing formative assessment in classroom settings to influence positively the process of teaching and learning.

Popham (2008) explained that in October 2006 in Austin, Texas, FAST SCASS had a four-day meeting, and one of the aims of the meeting was to create a nation-wide, common definition of formative assessment. The definition was based on the latest research findings about the improvement of quality in student learning, the discussion of early definitions, and thoughtful conversations about assessment practices. After this process, FAST SCASS adopted this definition in order to help educators to better understand this type of assessment: "Formative assessment is a process used by teachers and students during instruction that provides feedback to adjust ongoing teaching and learning to improve students' achievement of intended instructional outcomes" (as cited in Popham, 2008, p. 5).

A. Defining Formative Assessment

In order to obtain a more complete picture of the type of assessment under discussion, it is important to take into account more definitions on formative assessment besides the one provided by FAST SCASS above. In so doing, Popham (2008) referred to formative assessment as an approach, and an appropriate definition of such approach needs to include essentially what the most relevant was about it. According to Popham (2008), the approach involves a planned process consisting of multiple, varied activities, such as formal and informal assessment procedures. These assessments allow educators to obtain evidence about what students know and can do. Such evidence enables teachers to guide and modify their subsequent instruction as well as it helps students become aware of adjustments they may need to make for successful learning. All of these actions are aimed at improving student learning as a whole. Additionally, formative assessment has been described as an approach having specific characteristics within a teaching-learning environment. According to Heritage (2011), assistant director for professional development at the National Center for Research on Evaluation, Standards and Student Testing (CRESST) at UCLA, "the important thing about formative assessment is that it is not a test, nor an instrument, but rather an approach to teaching and learning that uses feedback as its centerpiece in a supportive classroom context" (p.19). In her article, the researcher then went on discussing the teacher's role, the students' role, the importance of feedback, and classroom climate—key considerations for an effective, consistent formative assessment. Such assessment consists of day-to-day tools designed for improving student learning and, consequently, enhancing teaching (Heritage, 2011).

Formative assessment is not only regarded as an approach as noted above but also as a system. Frey and Fisher's 2011 book talked about a formative assessment system that consists of four major components: 1) feed-up, 2) feedback, 3) checking for understanding, and 4) feed-forward. Each component is associated with a guiding question. These questions are as follows: 1) Where am I going?, 2) How am I doing?, 3) Where am I now?, and 4) Where am I going next? Feed-up involves students' clear comprehension of the purposes of various learning activities that teachers use during the instructional process. This component also involves informing students on how they will be assessed. Checking for understanding is intended to direct instruction and identify students' progress regarding established learning goals. Feedback is concerned with providing students with helpful information concerning their achievement and necessities. Lastly, feed-forward includes building upon feedback from the previous component and making use of students' performance information to help students improve their achievement (Frey & Fisher, 2011).

B. The Fundamentals and Attributes of Formative Assessment

After providing a thorough conceptualization with regard to formative assessment, so a better understanding about this topic can be obtained, it is now critical to learn about its essential fundamentals. In this regard, in Greenstein's 2010 book *What Teachers Really Need to Know About Formative Assessment*, these three fundamental concepts of formative assessment are analyzed: "(1) formative assessment is student focused, (2) formative assessment is instructionally informative, and (3) formative assessment is outcomes based" (p. 15).

According to Greenstein (2010), the first concept is concerned with the act of learning in a purposeful manner, and it emphasizes how students learn rather than how teachers instruct. It is aimed at examining student processes of receiving, understanding, and applying new knowledge. The second concept involves an action in which practitioners modify their teaching practices to promote student learning by means of data collection from formative assessment procedures. In this way, educators and learners have the opportunity to analyze and reflect on the results drawn from formative assessments. Lastly, the third concept states that, based on evidence, teachers are better prepared to guide future instruction with the purpose of helping students achieve learning goals. In order for students to achieve established goals, constant and practical feedback is needed in the process of teaching and learning.

After Greenstein's (2010) key notions regarding the above-mentioned fundamentals were highlighted, the Iowa CORE (2011b) enters the scene by providing six critical attributes of formative assessment, which lead to increased student learning. Therefore, educators need to have a good understanding of all six attributes so that they can effectively take formative assessment into practice. These attributes include "learning progression, clear learning goals, instructional modifications based on elicited evidence of learning, descriptive feedback, self-and peer-assessment, and a collaborative classroom climate" (Iowa CORE, 2011b, p. 2). With regard to learning progression, it allows teachers to effectively plan pre-assessment practices, plan assessment practices for student learning tasks, find out students' future development levels, and provide differentiated instruction. Having an understanding of clear learning goals is crucial in the teaching-learning process. In this respect teachers and learners both need to stay focused on learning goals throughout the course of instruction. Work samples of low and high quality are suggested to be used in order to let students know what is actually expected from their own work in the future.

An inherent part of formative assessment is based on the idea that instructional modifications are based on evidence (or assessment-based evidence). In this regard teachers document ongoing evidence of each individual student and identify how every student is doing towards the achievement of learning goals. After student learning gaps are identified, teachers provide "descriptive feedback to students and plan instructional modifications based on the students' zone of proximal development" (Iowa CORE, 2011b, p.3). With regard to descriptive feedback, teachers need to tell their students how well they did on different learning activities. Also, students need to know what areas still need improvement and receive recommendations on how to improve and advance their learning.

Iowa CORE (2011b) pointed out that formative assessment enables students to engage in independent learning as well as to take responsibility for their own learning. In so doing, self-assessment and peer-assessment both are critical in student learning process; therefore, teachers should encourage their pupils to use these two strategies along the way. By taking part in stress-free, less formal ways of assessing, learners can become active participants by providing and receiving feedback to help improve their own and others' work. A collaborative classroom climate, the fifth attribute, involves a learning environment that is a partnership between students and teachers. In this partnership, first and foremost, students need to feel respected. Additionally, the key components of this kind of classroom environment are "a sense of trust ..., appreciation of differences, and transparency in the learning objectives" (Iowa CORE, 2011b, p. 4).

C. Applications of Formative Assessment

After looking at the fundamentals and attributes of formative assessment, it is critical to be aware of when this type of assessment can be more beneficially employed in the process of teaching and learning. In this respect, Popham (2011) suggested a framework that consists of five applications. The framework is aimed at informing teachers on when formative assessment could be best employed at the classroom setting. Popham (2011) asserted that these five applications are intended to enhance pupils' learning: "To make an immediate instructional adjustment. To make a near-future instructional adjustment. To make a last-chance instructional adjustment. To make a learning tactic adjustment. To promote a classroom climate shift" (p. 14).

According to Popham (2011), when the initiative of implementing formative assessment emerges in the classroom setting, a teacher's crucial decision is concerned with what specific application to use. Therefore, in order to facilitate decision-making the five applications need to be discussed in greater detail. With regard to the first application, immediate instructional adjustments, Popham (2011) noted that teachers need to collect information, examine it, and decide if whether or not it is the right moment to modify instruction during the learning process. "Immediate instructional adjustments can be based either on (1) teacher-administered assessment procedures ... or (2) student-reported levels of understanding" (p. 15).

As reported by Popham (2011), application two, for near-future instructional adjustments, focuses on teacher decision making about what to do differently in subsequent classroom instruction once evidence is gathered about students' current state of learning. Application three, for last-chance instructional adjustments, involves identifying areas that need improvement in order to help students to achieve established curricular goals. Application four, for learning tactic adjustments, is concerned with the idea that collected evidence from formative assessment procedures can allow students to better monitor their own progress and to enhance students' strategies used to learn the subject matter on their own. Finally, the fifth application, for promoting a classroom climate change, emphasizes a necessary shift from a traditional learning environment into a place where every student has opportunities to learn and progress.

V. FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT IN ESL/EFL SETTINGS

As previously mentioned, formative assessment has come a long way in the educational world. However, it is a relatively new practice in ESL/ EFL classroom settings, so the need for more research is evident in order to better understand the key role it may have for the language acquisition process of English language learners (Ketabi & Ketabi, 2014). Ketabi and Ketabi (2014) pointed out that studies concerned with formative assessment in the field of English language teaching started in 2000. Scholars (e.g. Rea-Dickins & Gardner, 2000; Cheng, Rogers & Hu, 2004) have contributed along the way by conducting studies and taking initiatives towards an integration of formative assessment practices into English language teaching and learning. According to Ketabi and Ketabi (2014), these contributions have helped English teachers be aware of the need for more consistent, authentic assessment procedures that truly reflect English language learners' growth of acquired knowledge and new abilities as well as their attainment of learning goals during the course of instruction.

Rea-Dickins and Gardner's 2000 study was aimed at interviewing and observing English as an Additional Language (EAL) teachers. These scholars found out that teachers' decision-making towards subsequent instruction based on students' performance was key. However, if decisions were made carelessly, they could not help enhance students' current level of L2 proficiency. In order to make informed decisions during the process of instruction in the English language classroom setting, teachers should employ varied assessment procedures in order to ensure the reliability and validity of L2 classroom assessment (Rea-Dickins & Gardner, 2000).

Cheng, Rogers and Hu (2004) carried out a research study in three different learning contexts—Canada, Beijing, and Hong Kong. Their study investigated the aims, practices, and methods of assessment in EFL/ESL classrooms. Cheng and colleagues (2004) pointed out that little was known about classroom assessment of EFL/ESL instructors. The

scholars argued that the presence of formal testing was evident in large classes within the research contexts, having an impact upon classroom assessment. In addition to this, course subject matter, instructors' teaching experience, and students' proficiency levels were found to influence classroom assessment as well. The study findings were reported to be complex, and they differed in the three research settings. For instance, there were fewer assessment practices and objective scoring procedures among English teachers in Hong Kong than among their counterparts in the two other settings.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, there are many ways to apply authentic assessments to evaluate students' academic achievement and monitoring their progress. When selecting an assessment strategy, EFL/ESL teachers must be aware of when, why and how to apply that specific strategy to succeed and push themselves to do better. Therefore, teachers have to consider the application of authentic assessment in a variety of ways to benefit our EFL students' learning, and change some of the traditional(formal assessments) ways of assessments that show only valid inferences about the student's performance, and that still are common in education. When we assess, our main goal must not just be to want students to *know* the content of the disciplines when they graduate. We, of course, want them to be able to *use* the acquired knowledge and skills in the real world. So, our assessments have to tell us if students can apply what they have learned in authentic situations. If a student does well on a test of knowledge we might infer that the student could also apply that knowledge. But, we could more directly check for the ability to apply by asking the student to use what they have learned in some meaningful ways (Mueller, 2016). Then authentic assessments provide the most direct and authentic evidence of students' knowledge and allow educators to know student's competences and different learning abilities. Besides, it is significant the application of formative assessment to prepare students to demonstrate their knowledge and skills on high level tests and contexts. Since formative assessments are tools and strategies that educators use to determine what and how students are processing the information they are being taught, they provide opportunities for teachers to gather data during the lesson as they observe students using their sociocultural, language, academic, and cognitive backgrounds to make sense of new content and skills. Such observations then allow teachers to modify the lesson while students are still actively engaged in learning (Herrera, Perez, and Escamilla, 2010).

Therefore, it is essential for EFL/ESL teachers to utilize formative assessment at everyday learning activities to obtain evidence of students' knowledge and understanding from almost everything they do in the classroom. Besides, these assessments will allow educators to modify their instruction and provide scaffolding based on students' needs.

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Diego P. Ortega is an instructor and researcher at Universidad Nacional de Educación in Azogues, Ecuador. He teaches undergraduate courses dealing with learning theories, curriculum development, and English as a foreign language. He has been an instructor at the university level for about six years. He earned his bachelor's degree in Education, concentration in English Language and Literature, at Universidad de Cuenca and he also holds a master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction with emphasis in TESL from Kansas State University. He is interested in the English curriculum within the Ecuadorian educational context, educational and second language research, contemporary language teaching methodologies, and TICs.

Olga E. Minchala is an English and education instructor at Universidad Nacional de Educación in Azogues, Ecuador. She holds undergraduate and graduate degrees in English language teaching and curriculum. She also holds a master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction with emphasis in TESL from Kansas State University. She has taught at the university level for over seven years. She is interested in translation and English language teaching strategies for the development of the writing and reading skills. She holds national and international conferences and workshops related to EFL/ESL teaching.

The Impact of Direct-indirect Corrective E-feedback on EFL Students' Writing Accuracy

Ahmed Hassan Seiffedin
Faculty of Education, Menoufeya University, Menoufeya, Egypt

Samah Mohammed Fahim El-Sakka
Faculty of Education, Suez University, Suez, Egypt

Abstract—**The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of direct-indirect corrective feedback via e-mail on the writing accuracy students at kindergarten section, Suez Faculty of Education, Egypt. The design of the study was a pre-post quasi experimental design. The main instrument of the study was a pre-post writing test. The participants were forty eight junior EFL students at the kindergarten section, randomly divided into two groups: experimental group (n=25) and control group (n=23). Both groups were tested using the pre-post writing test before and after the experiment. During the treatment, the experimental group received direct-indirect teacher corrective feedback on their writing compositions via e-mail while the control group received no feedback. Differences between the participants' mean scores on the pre test and post test were calculated for each group separately using Paired Samples T-Test which revealed significant differences between the pre-test and posttest of the experimental group mean scores. Independent Samples T-Test was used to calculate the differences between the experimental and the control groups' mean gain scores on the pre and post test of writing. Significant differences existed in favor of the experimental group mean gain scores.**

Index Terms—**direct corrective feedback, direct-indirect corrective feedback, indirect corrective feedback, kindergarten University students, writing accuracy**

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is a very challengeable skill for EFL/ ESL learners who need it as a tool for employment and promotion (Graham & Perin, 2007). Celce-Murcia (2001) believes that a major achievement for EFL/ESL learners is to express their ideas in writing with reasonable accuracy that even many native speakers of English never master. Also, for many researchers (e.g., Celce-Murcia 1991; Schmidt 1994; Shaw & Liu 1998) writing accuracy is essential for FL learners to achieve their educational and professional goals. Additionally, in many educational contexts, especially Egypt, teaching writing is based on examination, with accuracy as the most significant criterion of assessment (Ghassemi, et al. as cited in Talatifard, 2016). Therefore, writing accuracy is one of the important pillars for writing appropriate and acceptable texts (Kadkhodaei, Gorjian, & Pazhakh, 2013).

Improving students' writing accuracy is an essential factor in effective writing because the effectiveness of a piece of writing will be determined, in part, by its accuracy (Baleghizadeh & Gordani, 2012). That is why corrective feedback has received so much attention in the recent decades (Maleki & Eslami, 2013). Although it is not easy for EFL students to reach writing accuracy (many FL speakers may have similar difficulty), they should do their best to improve it to make their writing as readable as possible (Baleghizadeh & Gordani, 2012). Therefore, many FL writing teachers try hard to help their students produce accurate writings (Almasi & Tabrizi, 2016).

As a lecturer of TEFl, the researcher noticed that most students in the kindergarten section suffer from low levels of writing accuracy. Most of them have difficulty discriminating English phonemes that do not already exist in the phonology of their native language (i.e. Arabic) (August, Shanahan, & Escamilla, 2009; Gilmore, 2011; Yeung & Chan, 2012; Escudero, 2014), therefore most of their word spellings are wrong (e.g., spelling "hed" instead of "head", and "sed" instead of "said"). Also, reviewing their results in the subject of *English for non-English major students* revealed that most students perform badly in the exams that are accuracy based. Even their achievement in the subjects taught in English (e.g., *Ways of teaching English*) is very low because they lack the ability of writing readable paragraphs. In the Egyptian context**,** Ghoneim and Elghotmy (2015) found weaknesses in kindergarten university students' reading accuracy and phonemic awareness but no study, to the researcher's knowledge, examined the writing accuracy of EFL students in the kindergarten section.

The kind of corrective feedback provided to students is one of the important variables for developing the writing accuracy of EFL learners (Tafazoli, Nosratzadeh, Hosseini, 2014). Burstein et al. (2004) assures that the best way for learners to improve their writing accuracy is to write, receive feedback, revise depending on the feedback, and finally repeat the whole process as often as possible.

A. Statement of the Problem

The problem of the present study was the low level of writing accuracy among kindergarten junior students at Suez Faculty of Education, Suez, Egypt. Therefore, the present study would integrate the direct and indirect electronic feedback to develop kindergarten students' writing accuracy.

B. Hypotheses of the Study

A. There would be no statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the control group on the pre and post test of writing accuracy.

B. There would be no statistically significant differences in the mean scores of the experimental group on the pre and post test of writing accuracy.

C. There would be no statistically significant difference in the gain score of the control group and that of the experimental group on the post test of writing accuracy.

C. Significance of the Study

A. It is hoped that the findings of this study can serve as evidence on the effectiveness of combining direct and indirect corrective feedback to improve EFL students' writing accuracy.

B. Teachers, curriculum developers, as well as educational authorities should become familiar with integrating direct and indirect corrective feedback strategies into the writing courses in order to create an environment which positively affects the learning process as a whole.

C. It would show the feasibility of integrating technology in writing classes.

D. Terminology

Direct-indirect corrective e-feedback is operationally defined as a proposed strategy of corrective feedback via e-mail. It combines the direct and the indirect types of corrective feedback. It consists of three main phases: The first phase is the encoded indirect phase where the teacher only underlines or circles students' mistakes without giving any symbol indicating the type of the error or how to correct it, giving students the chance to think and try to detect the errors and correct them by themselves. In the second phase, the teacher underlines the mistakes and writes symbols indicating the type of errors in order to help the students correct them. Finally, the direct phase of feedback where the teacher directly corrects the errors the students were unable to correct, by writing the correct form over/behind the mistakes.

Writing accuracy is operationally defined as the improvement in the participants' ability to write a paragraph without committing errors in the following writing aspects: punctuation, articles, subject-verb agreement, spelling, and conjunctions as manifested by their gain scores between the pre test and the post test of writing accuracy.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. History of Corrective Feedback

Before 1996, many teachers, educators, and researchers implicitly agreed that corrective feedback helps in improving EFL learners' writing accuracy (Sameera, Amin, Siddiqui, 2016). However, in 1996, all that changed when John Truscott published his report about the inefficacy of the corrective feedback. He claimed that students feel stressed when they are notified of their errors and this, in turn, prevents them from writing or finding writing as an interesting learning activity. To support his claim, Truscott cited many studies (e.g., Hendrickson, 1980; Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; and Kepner, 1991) that showed error correction as an ineffective activity. Additionally, he mentioned Semke's (1984) and Sheppard's (1992) studies to assure that corrective feedback can be harmful because it impacts fluency. Building on that, Truscott concludes that corrective feedback should be abandoned (Sameera, Amin, & Siddiqui, 2016).

One of the major opponents to Truscott's views was Dana Ferris who noted that Truscott ignored some positive evidence in favor of corrective feedback. He also acknowledged that more research was required to reach a conclusive answer in discussing whether different types of feedback have different results on students' writing or not. Hyland and Hyland (2006) confirmed that feedback helped students gain control over the writing skill. Also, Sheen, Wright and Moldawa (2009) stated that corrective feedback helped learners to notice their errors and controlled the accuracy of their writing. Students become frustrated if their teachers do not give them feedback on their writing (Hedgcock & Lefkowitz, 1994; Ferris, 1995; Lee, 2004). To evidence the positive effect of feedback, Evans, Hartshorn, and Tuioti (2010) conducted a survey among 1053 ESL and EFL writing instructors and found that 92% of the instructors provide some sort of error correction because: 1) it improves students' ability to correct and understand errors, 2) students expect feedback on their writing, and 3) students prefer it. On the other hand, with the absence of feedback, Brookhart (2008) stated that students become unmotivated, and lose sense of which factors of their writing need improvements. Additionally, Lee (2008) argues that learners may have inaccurate impression about their writing performance with the absence of feedback.

B. Theoretical Perspectives of Corrective Feedback

The idea of corrective feedback has a strong foundation in major learning theories that focus on what happens inside the learner's head by focusing on the effective role of attention and rehearsal in facilitating the process of acquisition (Kim, 2012; Almasi & Tabrizi, 2016).

Firstly, corrective feedback is based on Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis which underlines the significant role of grammar and conscious attention to form in fostering the process of language learning. He argues that learners' awareness of the existence of differences between their target language and their interlanguage (i.e., "noticing") is "the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input to intake" (p. 129). In 2001, Schmidt states that for language acquisition to take place there must be some exclusive attention to form. Accordingly, error correction (also known as grammar correction or written corrective feedback) is important as it draws learners' attention to language form (Ji, 2015).

To the behavioral theories, feedback is considered as a means of encouraging learners' motivation and ensuring their linguistic accuracy. Ellis (2009) shows that feedback may be positive or negative. To him, positive feedback occurs when a learner's response is correct. This positive feedback provides affective support to learners, fosters their motivation, and encourages them to continue learning (Ellis, 2009).

According to the cognitive load theory the working memory should have as less load as possible to optimize learning (Sweller, 1988). For learning to take place, there should be a link between schematic structures of long term memory and new data for the learning to be lasting (Sweller, 1988). Therefore, corrective feedback helps learners' to focus on the areas they have difficulty with while freeing their minds to process language content (Maleki & Eslami, 2013).

C. Types of Corrective Feedback

Many researchers and theoreticians (e.g., Bates, Lane, & Lange 1993; Ferris, 1995; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ellis, 2009) have agreed upon two main kinds of corrective feedback, namely direct corrective feedback and indirect corrective feedback.

Direct (Explicit) Corrective Feedback

Direct feedback is a strategy that helps students correct their errors by providing the correct linguistic form (Ferris, 2006). The teacher provides students with the correct form of their errors or mistakes orally or in written (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Elashri, 2013). Direct feedback takes different forms; it may be done by striking out an incorrect word; inserting a missing word, phrase, or morpheme; and providing the correct linguistic form usually above the wrong form or in the margin (Ferris, 2006; Ellis, 2008). Bitchener and Knoch (2010) argue that direct feedback is more helpful to writers because it explicitly shows learners what is wrong and how it should be written correctly; minimizing students' confusion over teachers' feedback. Therefore, this type is more appropriate to student writers of low proficiency level who do not have the ability to self-correct their errors even when they are marked for them (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005; Ellis, 2009).

Many researchers (e.g., Ko & Hirvela, 2010; Elashri, 2013) argue that direct teacher feedback is one of the least effective methods of giving feedback to students. Clements et al. (2010) as well as Elashri (2013) believe that this type leaves no work for learners to do and no chance for them to think about the errors. Rewriting teacher's corrections is a passive action that does not teach students how to recognize or correct errors on their own. Therefore, it does not lead to long-term learning because it requires minimal processing on the part of the learner (Khodareza & Delvand, 2016).

Indirect (Implicit) Corrective Feedback

On the other hand, indirect feedback is a feedback strategy that indicates the existence of an error without providing the correct form (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). In this type, teachers only provide indications that make students aware about their errors but they do not provide the students with the correction (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Lee, 2008). For example, teachers can provide general clues about the location and type of an error by using a line, a circle, a code, a mark, a highlight or a cursor to show omissions in learner's text (O'Sullivan & Chambers, 2006), or by placing a cross in the margin next to the line including the error (Talatifard, 2016). In this type, Elashri (2013) mentions two sub-types: Coded and uncoded indirect feedback. As for the coded indirect feedback, the teacher underlines the error and writes the symbol above that error, and then he/she gives the composition to the student to correct the error as this symbol encourages the student to think. In the uncoded indirect feedback, the teacher underlines or circles the error without writing any symbols and the student has to think what the error is and corrects it. These symbols and codes indicate the location and type of error (Ibid).

In the indirect feedback, students are cognitively challenged to correct the error based on their informed knowledge. This type increases students' engagement and attention to forms and improve their problem-solving skills which many researchers (e.g., Ashewell, 2000; Ferris, 2003; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008) agree that it is beneficial for fostering long-term acquisition. The advantages of this type has been supported by Moser and Jasmine's (2010) study which revealed that students who were indirectly corrected by using an error code in revising their essays achieved significantly greater gains than those whose writing assignments were directly corrected by the instructor. On the other hand, Srichanyachon (2012) argues that students with low level of writing proficiency may be unable to recognize and correct errors even when they become aware of their location.

Regardless the type of corrective feedback, it is crucial to consider how the students respond to the provided correction (Khodareza & Delvand, 2016). When the teacher provides the feedback, he/she should expect a new version of the writing assignment that shows how the students have responded to his/her comments. In this way, feedback

becomes a part of the language learning process because students become able to diagnose the mistakes they have made then correct them. If students have made the changes to their writing assignment and correct them, the process of feedback is now finished (Khodareza & Delvand, 2016). If students, as Harmer (2001) argues, refer to books of grammar or dictionaries to correct the errors, the provided feedback has achieved its positive outcome.

Corrective E-Feedback

Nowadays, the role of net-worked communication in language learning process is inevitable. The integration of technology and foreign language learning shows itself in electronic feedback (Farshi &Safa, 2015). Several types of technologies have been implemented in FL writing classes to investigate their role in increasing the efficiency of the process of feedback (Saadi & Saadat, 2015). The last decade has witnessed a huge interest in the study of electronic email in general (Trenchs, 1996), and e-feedback via e-mail as one of the most prevalent applications of computers in writing classes in particular (e.g., Nagata, 1997; Tuzi, 2004).

Many researchers suggest many benefits of electronic feedback, such as greater levels of participation (Gonza´1ez-Bueno, 1998), more motivation and interest (Skinner & Austin, 1999 as cited in Shang, 2007), providing non-threatening environment (Colomb & Simutis, 1996), reducing anxiety (Kupelian, 2001), etc. Additionally, Learners can contact and communicate their teachers and even their peers at any time and even more easily; by doing so, the distance between learners and teachers becomes much closer than past (Farshi &Safa, 2015).

In Koolivand and Iravani's study (2013), students who received electronic corrective feedback made greater improvement than learners who received traditional feedback. Also, Tafazoli, Nosratzadeh, and Hosseini's (2014) study revealed that electronic feedback has positive effect on the writing accuracy of Iranian ESP students. The obtained results from Farshi and Safa's (2015) study showed that electronic feedback was more effective and profitable than traditional type.

Direct-Indirect E-Feedback

Many researchers (e.g., DeKeyser, 1998; Hulstijn, 1995) think that there is a connection between direct and indirect knowledge bases. Accordingly, the researcher suggests integrating direct and indirect corrective feedback to develop the writing accuracy of EFL students. Through indirect feedback, learners can diagnose their errors and use their mind, resources to correct their errors. Then, through the direct feedback, the researcher can fill the gaps in their linguistic knowledge and provide them with the direct knowledge concerning the complex structures. Therefore, the process of feedback follows the following steps:

Encoded Indirect Feedback Through E-mail.: The students send their paragraphs to their teacher via e-mail. The teacher underlines or circles the error or the mistake without writing the correct answer or any symbols above or behind the error, and the student thinks about errors and tries to correct as many errors as possible. The aim of this step is to engage students in deeper processing. After correcting as many errors as possible, each student has to re-send the essay to the teacher via e-mail.

Coded Indirect Feedback Through E-mail: In this step, the teacher underlines the errors and writes the symbols indicating the errors above or beside the them. Then, teacher re-sends the composition to each student to try to find out the types of errors based on these symbols.

Direct Feedback via E-mail: This is the last step in the suggested feedback model, the teacher provide students with direct feedback whether positive if there is no more errors or negative if errors are still found.

To the researcher's knowledge, no empirical study has investigated the effect of direct-indirect feedback on the writing accuracy of EFL students till now. Therefore, the present study aims to examine the impact of integrating indirect feedback with direct feedback on the writing accuracy of EFL students in the kindergarten department.

D. Corrective Feedback and Writing Accuracy

Accuracy is defined by Skehan (1996) as "how well the target language is produced in relation to its rules" (p.23). In its simple form, accuracy is defined by Foster and Skehan (1996) as the freedom of the written work from error. Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki and Kim (1998) defined writing accuracy as being free from errors while using the language in written communication.

Many researchers (e.g., Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hong, 2004; Ferris, 2006; Truscott & Hsu, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Saadi & Saadat, 2010; van Beunigen, de Jong, & Kuiken, 2012) are interested in whether corrective feedback in general has any effect on written accuracy. For example, the effects of corrective feedback in reducing the number of errors were evidenced in Ferris' (2006) study with 92 ESL students. He found a significant reduction in the number of errors from the first draft to the last draft. Also, Bitchener and Knoch (2010) emphasized the importance of written corrective feedback on improving language accuracy of advancedL2 learners. Moreover, Saadi and Saadat (2015) revealed that the effect of direct and indirect corrective feedback on writing accuracy was significant in favor of post tests.

Reviewing the literature, it is found that direct corrective feedback is only effective for certain types of errors (Sheen, Wright & Moldawa, 2009). For example, it is found in the previous research that direct corrective feedback is effective on structural and lexical errors (e.g., Leki, 1991; Ashwell, 2000). In the Chinese context, Chen and Li (2009) revealed that direct corrective feedback was significantly better than indirect correction on students' accuracy. Almasi and Tabrizi (2016) examined the effect of different types of written corrective feedback on the writing accuracy of Iranian

EFL learners. Results revealed that the direct feedback group significantly outperformed the other groups in their writing accuracy.

On the other hand, other studies found indirect corrective feedback more effective on writing accuracy. For example, Wang and Hu (2010) found support for indirect error correction in improving language accuracy compared with the absence of teacher feedback. Additionally, Khodareza and Delvand (2016) investigated whether the type of feedback (direct or indirect) given to 60 intermediate EFL learners on six types of errors (verb tense, noun ending, word choice, sentence structure, article and preposition) resulted in improved accuracy in narrative writing or not. The study found a significant effect for the indirect feedback on accuracy improvement because the indirect group outperformed the direct group on accuracy improvement for total errors.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design

This study employs the pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design. Employing this design, the researcher assigned two groups (control and experimental) selected from EFL students, kindergarten section at Suez Faculty of Education, Suez University, Egypt. The two groups were first pretested in writing accuracy to find out their initial levels in the dependent variables (writing accuracy). During the experiment, the experimental group was exposed to the direct-indirect electronic feedback. At the end of the experiment, both groups were posttested.

B. Participants

Forty eight EFL students, kindergarten section at Suez Faculty of Education participated in this study. Their ages ranged from 19-21 years old. The participants were chosen on purpose during the first semester of the 2016-2017 academic year. They were divided into two equivalent groups (control and experimental) depending on their scores in the pretests of writing accuracy, devised by the researcher. The experimental group received the direct-indirect feedback via e-mail. The participants learn English during the course of "English for non-major students" where they learn the four language skill with emphasis on some grammatical points.

C. Instrument

To accomplish the objectives of the study, the researcher designed a writing test to measure students' writing accuracy before and after participating in the study. The test included two questions. The first question consisted of two topics and students should choose one of them to write about. Each student should write an essay within a 30-minute time limit. The second question required each student to search and correct, also in 30 minutes, a writing sample that had 20 errors covering the five writing accuracy aspects highlighted during the study. Each writing accuracy aspect received four points, one point for each error, with a maximum question score of 20. Each student was required to underline the error and correct it.

The test re-test technique was used to measure the reliability of the test. The test was administered twice to a pilot study of ten kindergarten students within a two-week interval between the two tests. The reliability coefficient of the test was 0.81, which is statistically acceptable for the purposes of the study. Additionally, to assure the reliability of the scores, correlation test was performed between the scores given by the two raters to the same writing to check the inter-rater reliability. The average of the two scores was considered as the final score. The difference between the pre and posttest of each participant was considered as the amount of improvement.

D. Measuring Writing Accuracy

Analyzing writing accuracy is based on counting the number of errors in a written text (Wolf-Quintero et al., 1998). Many researchers (e.g. Sharma, 1980; Homburg, 1984; Hirano, 1991; Henry, 1996; Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998) agreed that there were two main approaches for analyzing writing accuracy. The first approach is to find out whether clauses, sentences or T-units are error-free. Here, the accuracy is measured by "counting the number of error-free T-units per T-unit (EFT/T) or the number of error-free clauses per clause (EFC/C)" (Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998:35). The second approach was developed by Homburg (1984). This approach deals with the number of errors in a text. Errors can be categorized into two types (syntactic or lexical), or three different levels (normal, serious and grave). As indicated by Polio (1997), this approach is based on counting errors in T-units and then classifying them into types which is a more detailed approach.

To find out if students' improvement could be attributed to the feedback provided to them during the quasi-experimental study, the error counting method can be applied in several ways. For example, Fischer (1984) counted the number of errors (grammar and vocabulary) per clause. Zhang (1987) counted the number of errors per 100 words to calculate linguistic accuracy. Carlisle (1989) counted the number of errors per T-unit to calculate frequency. To analyze the effect of two types of feedback on students' writing, Kepner (1991) counted all grammatical, vocabulary and syntactic errors at sentence level. In the present study, following Fischer (1984)'s with a minor adaptation, accuracy was also calculated by counting the number of errors committed in the following writing aspects: Subject-verb agreement, punctuation, spelling, articles, conjunctions)

E. Procedures

The procedures of the study followed the following four successive stages:

A. Pre-Testing the Participants: The participants were pretested on writing accuracy using the writing test developed by the researcher. The purpose was to determine students' level of writing accuracy in order to insure the equivalence of the two groups (control and experimental) in the dependent variables (writing accuracy). Depending on their scores in the pretest, participants were divided into two groups: the control group (23 students) and the experimental group (25 students).

B. Setting the Scene: Before starting, the researcher made sure that all the participants had e-mail accounts and they knew how to send and receive e-mails. Then, orientation session was given to the participants about how to write expository and narrative paragraphs (the most commonly used genres) using MS-word and how to send their paragraphs via e-mail. To the experimental group only, the researcher gave an additional session about how to understand the symbols of the coded and the encoded indirect feedback. They agreed on specific symbols to be used during the process of feedback. Also, the researcher explained to them the steps of the suggested feedback process that will be followed during the term.

C. Manipulation: The experiment lasted for ten weeks, each week the researcher assigned a topic to all of the participants who were supposed to write it by means of their PCs, laptops, tablets, cell phones, etc. and send their written paragraphs to the researcher via email within three days. They were asked to write their paragraphs by Microsoft Word software so that the researcher could put her comment on each intended error. As for the experimental group's assignments, the direct-indirect e-feedback process followed three phases:

Encoded Indirect Corrective E-Feedback: In this phase, the researcher underlined or circled the errors and she did not write any symbols above or beside the error indicating its kind. She only makes the place of the error clear to students. Then, she sent them the assignments. The aim of this step was to make students detect the errors and try to correct them. The participants should be able to decide what kind of error is causing the problem (whether pronunciation, morphology, syntax, or semantics). The participants should try to decide the kind of errors and correct them. They might use dictionaries, search the web, a book, ---etc. Finally, they resend their paragraphs to the researcher.

Coded Indirect Corrective E-Feedback: In this step, the researcher underlined the errors or mistakes for the students and wrote the symbol indicating the error above or beside the targeted error. Then, she re-sent the composition to each student to think what the error was as this symbol helped the student to think more specifically.

Direct Corrective E-Feedback: This is the last stage in the feedback process. This type of feedback may be positive or negative. If the participants succeeded to correct all the mistakes in their writing, so the researcher sent positive feedback in the form of encouraging words. If there were still errors, she directly corrected them and re-sent the draft to the participants to write their final draft.

However, for the control group, no corrective feedback was given to their written paragraphs.

D. Post Testing: After finishing the ten sessions, the post test was administered to all of the participants.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To investigate the first hypothesis of the study which stated that "There would be no statistically significant difference in the control group mean scores on the pre and posttest of writing ", the paired samples t-test was used. The results of the paired samples t-test was shown in the following table.

TABLE 1
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE IN THE MEAN SCORES OF THE CONTROL GROUP ON THE PRE AND POSTTEST OF WRITING ACCURACY

Test	M	SD	N	DF	t-value	Sig.
Pre	18.84	2.9935	23	22	**2.558**	0.132
Post	21.24	2.5304	23			

As shown in Table 2, the paired samples t-test revealed insignificant difference (t = 2.558, p > 0.05). Consequently, the first hypothesis is completely accepted. Here, though there was a difference between the mean scores of the pre and post test in favor of the post test, yet, this difference is insignificant. This result may be due to the fact that with the absence of feedback the control group was prevented from knowing their mistakes and as a result their writing accuracy was not improved. If they are not provided with suitable feedback, Brookhart (2008) stated that students become unmotivated, and they do not recognize which factors of their writing need improvements. Additionally, Lee (2008) argues that learners may have inaccurate impression about their writing.

To test the second hypothesis of the study which stated that *"There would be no statistically significant difference in the experimental group mean scores on the pre and the posttest of writing accuracy"*, paired samples t- test was also used. It revealed a significant difference (t = 23.252, p<0.05), in favor of the posttest as depicted in the following table:

TABLE 2
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE IN THE MEAN SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ON THE PRE AND POSTTEST OF WRITING ACCURACY

Testst	M	SD		DF	t-value	Sig.
Pree	21.60	2.96	25	24	23.252	0.000*
Post	36.62	2.19	25			

This finding can be attributed to different explanations. Firstly, combining the direct and indirect corrective feedback strategies helped students benefit from the two types at the same time and overcome the challenges of each type separately. The direct-indirect e-feedback process helped the participants recognize their errors which they are struggling with, encourage them to modify their interlanguage system in line with the feedback provided. This explanation finds theoretical basis in Schmidt's (1990, 1994) noticing hypothesis which states that only items which are noticed by the learners will be acquired. Therefore, the process of feedback becomes a part of the language learning process because students become able to diagnose their mistakes and correct them. Also, the direct-indirect e-feedback draws learners' attention to the areas they have difficulty with while freeing their minds to process language content. This explanation goes with Sweller (1988)'s cognitive load theory which states that working memory should have as less load as possible in order to optimize learning which occurs in humans and expedite the alternation in long-term memory ideally. Additional explanation might be related to the non-threatening atmosphere of e-mail through which the feedback process is provided. Undoubtedly, overemphasis on error correction may lead students to perform writing tasks in a stressed condition, while an electronic communications channel (i.e., e-mail) tends to provide a relaxed environment. Providing participants with positive feedback might be another possible explanation for the previous finding. Ellis (2009) assures that positive feedback is necessary to learners because it provides affective support to them, fosters motivation, and encourages them to continue learning. A final explanation may be related to the several feedback phases the participants were subjected to. The participants experienced three kinds of feedback, and after each kind they have to modify their paragraphs and re-send their modified drafts. Trying to detect errors and writing their drafts more than one time might have improved their writing accuracy. These findings are in line with several studies that have found error correction helps improve language accuracy (Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hong, 2004; Ferris, 2006; Truscott & Hsu, 2008; Ellis, Sheen, Takashima & Murakami, 2008; van Beunigen, de Jong, & Kuiken, 2012). These findings are also in agreement with what is reported by AbuSeileek (2013) and Hossaini (2013), namely that learners who received electronic feedback performed significantly better than those who did not receive corrective feedback in terms of writing.

In an attempt to determine whether any change in writing accuracy from pre to posttest was greater for one group rather than the other, the researcher used independent samples t-test between the two groups, employing a gain score in writing accuracy for each of the participants in the study.

TABLE 3
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES t-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE IN THE MEAN GAIN SCORES OF THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON THE PRE AND POSTTEST OF WRITING ACCURACY

Group	N	M. Gain Score	S D	DF	t-value	Sig.
Controll	23	0.913	1.2216	46	22.73	0.000*
Experimentalntal	25n	16.840	3.484			

As shown in Table 4, a statistically significant difference existed between the mean gain score of the control group and that of the experimental group in writing performance (t = 22.73, p < 0.05) in favor of the experimental group. This result could be attributed to the beneficial effects of the direct-indirect electronic feedback in the discussion of the second result above and can also be attributed to the problems of the absence of feedback mentioned in the discussion of the first result.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following recommendations have been formulated: 1) University EFL/EL teachers should reconsider their methods of teaching writing. 2) University teachers should combine direct with indirect corrective feedback in teaching writing. 3) Students should be given enough opportunities to use modern technology in their learning; i.e. e-mails, weblogs, wikis… etc. 4) Contact between the university teacher and his/her students should not be limited to only lectures, but it should extend to online contact. Also, the following areas are suggested for future research: 1) A study of the effect of direct- indirect oral feedback on improving speaking proficiency and reducing speaking anxiety of EFL students. 2) A comparative study of teacher corrective feedback and peer corrective feedback on EFL writing performance. 3) An investigation of the attitudes of students and teachers toward the use of electronic feedback.

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Ahmed Hassan Seiffedin is currently a full professor of TEFL at Menoufya Faculty of Education, Menoufya University, Shibin El Koum, Egypt. He obtained his master's degree in English Language Teaching. He received a Ph.D. degree in teaching English as a foreign language. He has presented and published many papers at national and international conferences and journals. He supervised many master and PhD. candidates in many Egyptian universities. He is a reviewer in many national and international journals and associations. His research areas of interest include teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), computer assisted language learning (CALL), new theories in English learning and teaching, and Technology based instruction.

Samah Mohammed Fahim El-Sakka is currently assistant professor in TEFL at Suez Faculty of Education, Suez University, Suez, Egypt. She holds a bachelor's degree in English and Education from Suez Faculty of Education. She obtained her master's degree in English Language Teaching from Suez Canal University, Egypt. She received a Ph.D. degree in teaching English as a foreign language from Suez Canal University, Egypt. She has presented and published many papers at national and international conferences and journals. Her research areas of interest include teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL), computer assisted language learning (CALL), new theories in English learning and teaching, and Technology based instruction. She is particularly interested in studying the English language teaching and learning strategies.

Students' Preferences toward Oral Corrective Feedback in Speaking Class at English Department of Lambung Mangkurat University Academic Year 2015/2016

Dea Rizky Ananda
English Department, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan, Indonesia

Emma Rosana Febriyanti
English Department, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan, Indonesia

Moh. Yamin
English Department, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan, Indonesia

Fatchul Mu'in
English Department, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan, Indonesia

Abstract—**The aims of this research are to find out kinds of oral error corrective feedback which students prefer, to find out how oral error corrective feedback should be given which students prefer, and to find out when oral error corrective feedback should be given which students prefer. This research uses qualitative approach and the subjects of this research are 76 students of English Department of Lambung Mangkurat University in batch 2015 who are taking Speaking I course. By using total sampling technique, the subjects are given questionnaire to conduct the data. Then, the data will be analyzed and calculated. The result shows repetition becomes the most wanted kind of oral error corrective feedback which students prefer. Second, on how oral error feedback should be given, most of students prefer the lecturer gives corrective feedback privately or individually for every error which the students made. Last, the majority of students prefer being corrected in the classroom immediately. Overall, the students give positive attitude towards oral error corrective feedback. However, the lecturer should consider the appropriate kind and ways to give oral error corrective feedback to the students for it can help them in improving their English skills.**

Index Terms—**students' preferences, oral error, corrective feedback**

I. INTRODUCTION

In Indonesia, English is regarded as a foreign language. English is learnt as the subject in formal or non-formal educational institutions. English is not used as a daily language. In the process of learning,many students make some errors while they use English orally. They do not have much time to think the appropriate expression which they should produce. In this case, some errors may appear in their utterance.

In this relation, giving corrective feedback errors made by language students is very important. When language students always make errors without any correction the errors will be fossilized and it will disturb the meaning of English they use. The students may think that they have used English appropriately, because their lecturer never gives correction when they use English. It also can cause misunderstandings between the speaker and the hearer. Therefore, English lecturer's role is important to guide language students in correcting students' oral errors while using English.

In giving corrective feedback of students' oral errors, a lecturer needs to consider students' perception toward teaching learning process. Horwitz (1988) says that lecturers need to know students' beliefs about language teaching and learning because mismatch between students' expectation and the realities they encounter in the classroom can prevent improvement in the language acquisition. Nunan (1995) proposes, "Lecturers should find out what their students think and feel about what and how they want to learn" (p.140). Since, students' beliefs will give impacts in students' attitude while teaching and learning process, it is important for a lecturer to know how they want to be taught and what they want to learn. When lecturers know what their students want in teaching and learning process, the lecturers can prepare the appropriate method in teaching and it will help students in understanding the subject which they learnt in the classroom.

There are some effects if a lecturer does not give students feedback or delay the giving of corrective feedback when they make error. It will decrease their motivation in learning and they may not know their errors. To avoid those

negative attitudes, the way a lecturer in giving corrective feedback of oral error made by students is very important to be known. If a lecturer and students have matched their belief and perception in teaching learning, error can be corrected and reduced without any occurrences of students' negative attitudes. A lecturer also can fulfill their objectives in teaching English.

Based on the discussion above, we know that students' preferences toward oral error correction from their lecturer are very important. Most of the students expect their lecturer to give oral error corrective feedbacks because it will help them in acquiring English. When the lecturer does not give any oral error corrective feedbacks, the students may give negative attitude in learning English; it will give a bad impact for the students in acquiring English. Therefore, this research is done with focus of this research to describe speaking I class students' preferences toward oral error corrective feedback from their lecturer at English Department of Lambung Mangkurat University academic year 2015/2016. This research adapts the studies of Katayama (2007) and Smith (2010) with some changes. This research is done based on the to find out whether the students of English Department will have the same prefere following research problems (1) What kind of oral error corrective feedback do the students prefer?, (2) How should oral error corrective feedback be given that the students prefer?, and (3) When should oral error corrective feedback be given that the students prefer?

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Schulz (2001) found that students' motivation is influenced by their beliefs and perceptions, and has surveyed of Colombian postsecondary EFL and FL students and found a strong preference for the study of grammar and for error correction. Catchart & Olsen (1976) found that students want most oral their mistakes corrected. But, in their study has not found the kind of corrective feedback which students prefer.

Not only about kind of corrective feedback which is used by the lecturer, but also how and when corrective feedback should be given by the Lecturer being important things to be considered by lecturer. Should all errors made by the students be corrected or only some important things? Should it be done immediately or delayed? Should it be done in individual or group? Every student may have different preference to answer those questions. By knowing students' preferences, it will help lecturer to achieve their objectives in teaching language in classroom.

Students' preferences of error correction may also depend on the skills and activities they study. Based on the study conducted by Kavaliauskiene, Anusiene, and Kaminskiene (2009), the students prefer error correction for their writing performance but not for their speaking performance (p.2). It is because some students feel disturbed to be corrected in the middle their speaking performance. It can make them lost their concentration and forget things they want to say.

Error

George (1972) stated, "Error is unwanted form by lecturer or course designer. The reason why error is unwanted is because in teaching learning process the lecturer or course designer use standard to achieve the objective of the teaching". Errors can occur when students always get something wrong consistently. Norrish (1983) defined 'an error' as a systematic deviation that happens when a student has not learnt something and consistently 'get(s) it wrong' (p.7).

According to Dulay*et al*, (1982), making errors is an inevitable part of the language learning process because students cannot learn language without first systematically committing errors. Error is part of learning; by making error he/she knows how to fix it and they will learn something. Afterwards the appearance of oral error while using English cannot be denied. Since, students need to deal with a new vocabulary, new grammar, and rules of the target language due to the language is different with their mother tongue (first language) (p.138). Based on Corder (1981), "Errors can occur as the result of the interference from the habit of the first language" (p.73)

Even though students are allowed to make some errors while learning process, yet it does not mean language students are allowed to do errors all the times. Rydahl (2005) also stated when student pronounce words incorrectly, make syntax errors, or use words in a context where they do not belong, it may be necessary for the students to receive feedback that makes him/her aware of the error and thus provides information about how to avoid making the same mistakes again. When it is happened, lecturer's role in the classroom is very important. Lecturer needs to give feedback which can notice and avoid students to make the same errors (p.32). There are three kinds of verbal feedback based on Gattullo (2000) and Harmer (2001), they are evaluative feedback, interactive feedback, and corrective feedback. In order to make students notice to their errors, this research focuses to corrective feedback.

Kinds of Feedback

Gattullo (2000) and Harmer (2001) have divided feedback into three different kinds which are evaluative feedback, strategic feedback, and corrective feedback.

a. Evaluative Feedback

Evaluative feedback is given by lecturer in using words and phrases to indicate to which students' performance is good or not, for example: "good", "excellent", or "poor performance". This feedback is used to help students to fix their errors and improve their performance. Gatullo (2000) suggests that evaluative feedback is mostly used in English second and foreign language classrooms.

b. Strategic Feedback

Harmer (2001) mentions strategic feedback is used to improve students' performance and become self-reliant by giving some advice and technique. In other word, a lecturer gives suggestions or advices to the students how to

overcome their mistake by themselves. For example, for students who cannot pronounce "the", the lecturer might say, "Look at my tongue, put your teeth on your tongue, and say, the." So, strategic feedback can be done by giving guidance or technique to the students in order they can correct their error by themselves. Tsui (1995) suggest that strategic feedback can enhance student learning and make them more confident.

c. Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is used to correct the students' error. This type will explain how the utterance is correct or wrong. In language learning, corrective feedback is related with accuracy.

In addition, McNamara (1999) and Ayoun (2001) have pointed out that lecturer's oral feedback might affect students' attitude in learning to positively or negatively. Therefore, feedback can be considered as positive or negative. It depends on how lecturer uses the feedback toward their students. Positive feedback shows lecturer is interested with student's performance and at the same time encourage the student. In other hand, negative feedback shows lecturer's displeasure toward student's performance or it can involve some kind of punishment. In teaching English, the lecturer should consider what kind of feedback that they should give to the students in the classroom in order to encourage them in acquiring English and avoiding them to make some errors.

Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback is used to correct the errors made by the students. Based on Ellis (2009), corrective feedback can be considered as negative feedback, because the giving of corrective feedback by lecturer indicates the language user uses the language incorrectly (Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p.171). Since it does not provide the correct form, corrective feedback will force the students to use their own knowledge about the language to fix their error.

Brandt (2008) considered corrective feedback is more effective when it is focused, contains relevant and meaningful data, it is descriptive rather than evaluative, and it contains a moderate amount of positive feedback with a selected and limited amount of negative feedback, it allows for response and interaction.

Corrective feedback can be implicit or explicit. Implicit feedback does not provide any additional information to students to correct their utterance. So, while lecturer gives implicit feedback, usually he/she does not interrupt the conversation but directly correct the error that student makes. Explicit feedback types offer additional or clear information for students to correct their error. Lecturer will provide any information about the correct form of the language and indicate how the utterance is erroneous.

Kind of Oral Error Corrective Feedback

Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified kind of oral error corrective feedback into six. They are:

1. Repetition is when lecturer repeats the student's error and changes the intonation to draw student's attention to indicate that there is a problem.

For example:

S: I have one hundred dollar in my /*pakıt*/.

T: /*pakıt*/?

S: /*pokıt*/

2. Elicitation is when lecturer elicit the correct form from the student by asking question. There are at least three techniques that Lecturer use to directly elicit the correct form from the student. First, lecturer use questions to elicit correct forms "What do we say to someone who help us?" Second, "elicit completion", pausing to allow the students complete lecturer's utterance, for example: He is a good …" The last is asking students to reformulate the utterance, for example: "Can you say that again?"

3. Metalinguistic feedback contains comments, information, or question related to the correct form of student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form. Metalinguistic comments such as, "Can you find the correct form?"

For example:

S: there aren't book on the table.

T: + *there are* is used for plural noun, for example: there are six apples in the fridge. If there is only one book on the table, it should use *is*.

4. Clarification request, the instructor asks what the speaker meant by the error utterance by using phrases like "Pardon me? Excuse me?, Again?". It is indicated if student's utterance has been misunderstood by lecturer or instructor.

For example:

S: There aren't many /*hotils*/ in this town.

T: Pardon me?

5. Recast is generally implicit, because in this case it does not show expressions like "Oh, you mean …", "You should say …" However, recast are more salient than others in that they may focus on one word only. Recast is when lecturer repeat of the utterance, replace the error with the correct form without directly pointing out that the student's utterance was incorrect.

For example:

S: Kania like watermelon.

T: *yes, Kania likes watermelon.*

6. Explicit correction refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. As the lecturer provides the correct form, he or she indicates that the student had said was incorrect. (e.g. "Oh, you mean …", "You should say …")

For example:

S: I drive a motorcycle.

T: You should say "I **ride** a motorcycle because drive is used for car or bus; when ride is used for motorcycle, horse, bicycle, and so on."

Before Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified kind of oral error corrective feedback into six, Fanselow (1997) has stated 16 kinds of oral error corrective feedback. His taxonomy included traits such as vocal emphasis and gesture as defining characteristics. However, since Lyster and Ranta published their findings in 1997, their six kinds of oral error corrective feedback have been used to guide people in considering corrective feedback.

Students' Preferences toward Oral Error Corrective Feedback

As we know that not only about kinds of oral error corrective feedback which lecturer should consider in giving oral error corrective feedback to the students, but also how and when it should be given have to be considered in order to help students in notice and correct their errors. The way which lecturer uses in giving oral error corrective feedback matters to students in noticing and correcting their errors.

Which errors should be corrected by the lecturer, every error or only important errors? Should it be done privately between the lecturer and the student or it should be done individually while they are studying in the classroom? Should it be done in the class or after the class over? These questions are needed to be considered because it affects students' attitude in learning and acquiring English.

Hendrickson (1978) stated that when lecturer allows some errors and correct others, students feel more comfortable speaking than if the lecturer is to correct every error. Havranek's (2002) suggests if the corrective feedback is best for correcting simple grammar rules such as verb endings and the auxiliary *do* is an example of the research indicating that the type of error being corrected may determine whether or not it should be corrected. When Catchart & Olsen' study (1976) found that students want most oral their mistakes corrected.

Based on Krashen (1994) and Truscott (1999), corrective feedback which is done in the classroom can give negative emotional experience to the students which can impede them in learning process. In another hand Smith's (2010) study showed most of the students want their error be corrected immediately in the class.

However, the lecturer should have his/her own priorities and consider many things in giving the corrective feedback to the students and it should be coincided to the circumstances in the teaching and learning activity for it can influence students' emotional experience in learning and acquiring English. Firwana (2010), in his study found that finding the perfect timing of doing corrective feedback is very important to be considered by the lecturer.

Effect of Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback can give positive impact and negative impact. Positive impact will appear if the corrective feedback is given correctly by the lecturer and negative impact will appear if corrective feedback is given incorrectly by the lecturer. Although the giving of corrective feedback is important to be given to the students, but the way of lecturer in giving it and kind of corrective feedback which suitable in teaching and learning process is still need to be considered.

Corrective feedback can increase students' motivation in learning English if lecturer gived it in appropriate way. Sometimes when lecturer correctst students error excessively it will decrease students' motivation in learning. To avoid that, lecturer need to know learners' preferences toward oral error corrective feedback, in order to reach the objective in teaching English.

III. METHOD OF RESEARCH

The method which used in this research is descriptive method which describes many kinds of oral error corrective feedback and students' preference toward oral error corrective feedback. Populations of this research are all students of English Department of Lambung Mangkurat University Banjarmasin batch 2015 who are taking Speaking I course. Total students who take Speaking I course are 76 students.Data collected using lecturers interview and a questionnaire adapted and modified from the questionnaire used in Japan by Katayama (2007) and Smith (2010).Data are analyzed throughsome steps: Collecting the data, Classifying the data, Calculating the data, Discussing and Summarizing.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Students' Preferences toward Kinds of Oral Error Corrective Feedback Given By the Lecturer

This part shows the students' answer of their preference toward kinds of oral error corrective feedback. On the questionnaire, the students are given the explanation and example of six kinds of oral error corrective feedback described by Lyster and Ranta (1997) in a form of Likert scale. They need to choose between 1. Strongly agree, 2. Agree, 3. Neutral, 4. Disagree, 5. Strongly disagree. The following table shows the result of the questionnaire of the first research question.

TABLE 1.
STUDENTS' PREFERENCE TOWARD KINDS OF ORAL ERROR CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK.

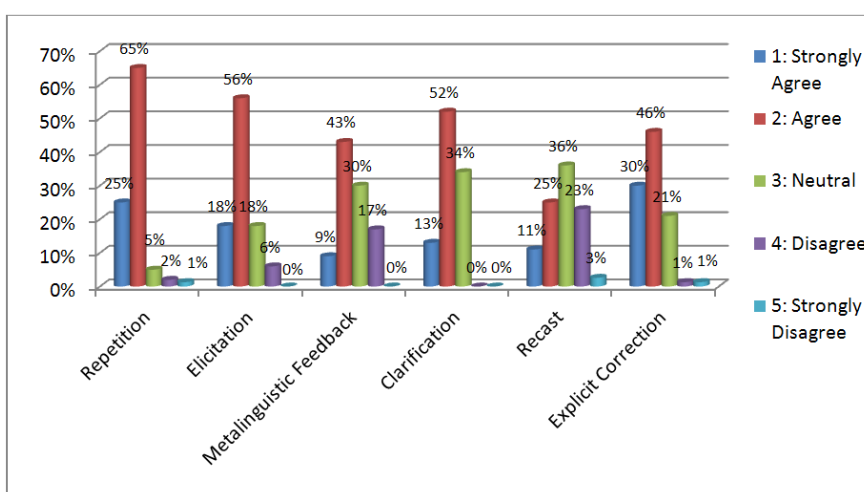|	1	2	3	4	5
Repetition	19	50	4	2	1
	25%	65%	5%	2%	1%
Elicitation	14	43	14	5	0
	18%	56%	18%	6%	0%
Metalinguistic Feedback	7	33	23	13	0
	9%	43%	30%	17%	0%
Clarification Request	10	40	26	0	0
	13%	52%	34%	0%	0%
Recast	9	19	28	18	2
	11%	25%	36%	23%	2%
Explicit Correction	23	35	16	1	1
	30%	46%	21%	1%	1%
Total = 76 students					
1. = Strongly agree			4. = Disagree		
2. = Agree			5. = Strongly agree		
3. = Neutral					

Figure 1. Students' preference toward kinds of oral error corrective feedback.

The Figure 1 shows percentage of each kind of oral error corrective feedback. Based on the highest percentage of it, it shows that most of the students agree to prefer to Repetition (65%), Elicitation (56%), Clarification Request (52%), Explicit Correction (46%), Metalinguistic Feedback (43%), and prefer for being neutral on Recast (36%).

Students' Feeling When Oral Error Corrective Feedback is given by The Lecturer

There are some statements which ask about students' opinion and feeling toward oral error corrective feedback. These feelings will present the students' feeling toward the giving of oral error corrective feedback.

The following table reports the results of the aggregate data of the students:

TABLE 2
STUDENTS' FEELING WHEN ORAL ERROR CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IS GIVEN BY THE LECTURER.

| Statements	1	2	3	4	5
Statement1: I prefer when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error.	28	42	6	0	0
	36%	55%	7%	0%	0%
Statement 2: I feel embarrassed when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error.	0	13	20	26	17
	0%	17%	26%	34%	22%
Statement 3: I feel annoyed when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error.	0	0	14	38	24
	0%	0%	18%	50%	31%
Statement 4: I feel confused when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error.	0	4	23	37	12
	0%	5%	30%	48%	15%
Statement 5: I feel reassured when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error.	9	29	37	1	0
	11%	38%	48%	1%	0%
Statement 6: I feel fine when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error.	17	44	13	2	0
	22%	57%	17%	2%	0%
Total = 76 students					
1. = Strongly agree			4. = Disagree		
2. = Agree			5. = Strongly agree		
3. = Neutral					
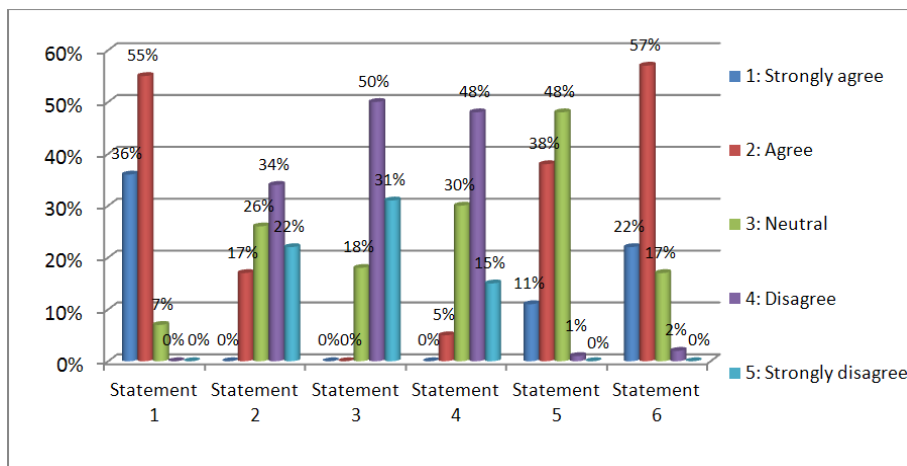
Figure 2. Students' feeling when oral error corrective feedback is given by the Lecturer.

Figure 2 shows the chart of percentage of each statement. Based on the highest percentage of each statement, students 55% agree for getting corrective feedback, 34% disagree if they get embarrassed when they get oral error corrective feedback, 50% disagree if they get annoyed when they get oral error corrective feedback, 48% disagree if they get confused when they get oral error corrective feedback, 48% are neutral if they get reassured when they get oral error corrective feedback, 57% agree if they are fine when they get oral error corrective feedback.

Students' Preferences toward How Oral Error Corrective Feedback Should be given by the Lecturer

In this part, students are asked to answer the questionnaire which related to their preference toward how oral error corrections should be given by their lecturer.

The result of those questionnaires is reported on the following table:

TABLE 3
STUDENTS' PREFERENCES TOWARD HOW ORAL ERROR CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK SHOULD BE GIVEN BY THE LECTURER.

|	1	2	3	4	5
Statement 7: I prefer when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to every error which made by me.	24 / 31%	40 / 52%	10 / 13%	2 / 2%	0 / 0%
Statement 8: I prefer when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to only important errors which made by me.	9 / 11%	18 / 23%	29 / 38%	12 / 15%	8 / 10%
Statement 9: I prefer when my lecturer does not give corrective feedback to error which made by me.	0 / 0%	3 / 3%	16 / 21%	36 / 47%	21 / 27%
Statement 10: I prefer when my lecturer gives me corrective feedback in private.	10 / 13%	18 / 23%	40 / 52%	7 / 9%	1 / 1%
Statement 14: I prefer to be corrected individually by my lecturer.	6 / 7%	15 / 19%	39 / 51%	15 / 19%	1 / 1%
Statement 15: I prefer to be corrected when everyone in the class makes the same error as me.	8 / 10%	22 / 28%	36 / 47%	9 / 11%	1 / 1%
Total = 76 students 1. = Strongly agree 2. = Agree 3. = Neutral			4. = Disagree 5. = Strongly agree		
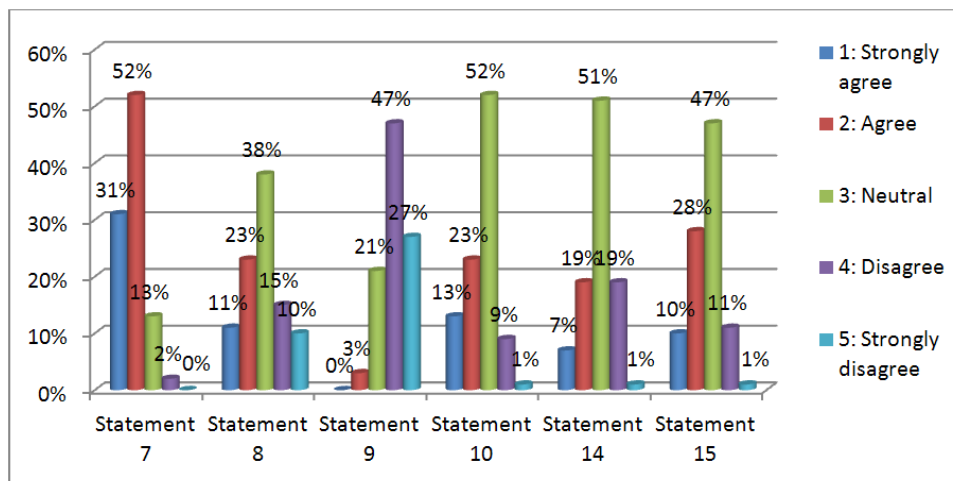
Figure 3. Students' preferences toward how oral error corrective feedback should be given by the Lecturer.

The result of highest percentage of each statement are 52% agree if their every oral error are corrected, 36% are neutral if only their important error which is corrected, 47% disagree if there is not corrective feedback on their oral error, 52% are neutral on getting corrective feedback privately, 51% are neutral on getting corrective feedback individually, 47% are neutral on being corrected when everyone in the class makes the same error.

Students' Preferences toward When Oral Error Corrective Feedback Should be given by the Lecturer

In this last part, students are asked to answer the questionnaire which related to their preference toward when oral error corrections should be given by their lecturer.

The following table is the result of the aggregate data:

TABLE 4
STUDENTS' PREFERENCES TOWARD WHEN ORAL ERROR CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK SHOULD BE GIVEN BY THE LECTURER.

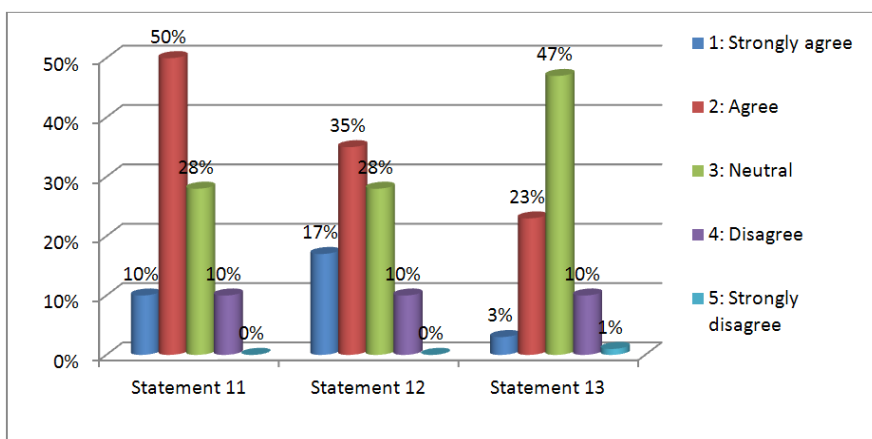|	1	2	3	4	5
Statement 11: I prefer when my lecturer gives me corrective feedback in class.	8 10%	38 50%	22 28%	8 10%	0 0%
Statement 12: I prefer when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error immediately.	19 25%	27 35%	22 28%	8 10%	0 0%
Statement 13: I prefer when my lecturer gives corrective feedback to my oral error after the class.	3 3%	18 23%	36 47%	8 10%	1 1%
Total = 76 students 1. = Strongly agree 2. = Agree 3. = Neutral				4. = Disagree 5. = Strongly agree	

Figure 4 Students' preferences toward when oral error corrective feedback should be given by the Lecturer.

Figure 4 shows the percentage of mode of each statement. Based on the highest percentage of each statement, it shows 50% of students agree if corrective feedback is given in the class, 35% of students agree if corrective feedback is given immediately, 36% of students are neutral if corrective feedback is given after the class.

Students' Oral Errors during Teaching and Learning Process Based on Lecturer Interview.

Based on the interview which researcher did to all lecturers who teach Speaking I course, the lecturers have their own method in giving corrective feedback to their students. The interview proves that the most of the students often produces errors while teaching and learning process in the class. The errors which usually appear are in many aspects, such as: grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary. In order to notice the students to their errors which they produce, the lecturers always do the corrective feedback. Each lecturer has their own way in giving corrective feedback, such us direct feedback, peer correction, or ask them to clarify their utterance.

The lecturers only give the corrective feedback to only some important errors which are produced by the students and two of the lecturers give the corrective feedback individually and immediately during teaching and learning process, when the other lecturer summarizes the errors which students produced and gives the corrective feedback in the post activity.

Discussions of the Result

On the aggregate data which have been collected, most of students show they are fine when their lecturer gives the corrective feedback to them. They are not embarrassed, annoyed, confused, nor reassured. 55% of students are agreed and 36% of students are strongly agreed if their lecturer gives corrective feedback to their oral error. It means most of students show positive attitude toward oral error corrective feedback which given by the lecturer.

The discussion will be divided into some parts based on research problems in this study. They will be explained in these parts below.

Students' Preferences toward Kind of Oral Error Corrective Feedback

On the data which has been collected, it has some results which show students' preferences toward kind of oral corrective feedback, such as 65% agree to Repetition, 56% agree to Elicitation, 52% agree to Clarification Request, 46% agree to Explicit Correction, 43% agree to Metalinguistic Feedback, and 36% neutral to Recast.

Based on the results above we can find that Repetition get the first rank of the most prefer kind of oral error corrective feedback and it follows by Elicitation and Clarification request in the second and third rank. Explicit correction in the fourth rank, Metalinguistic feedback in the fifth rank and Recast in the last rank.

In this study repetition becomes the most prefer kind of oral corrective feedback by the students and recast is being the last preferred kind of oral error corrective feedback. It has the same result with previous research which done by Coskun in 2010. In giving repetition as an oral error corrective feedback, lecturer will repeat the student's error and change the intonation to draw student's attention to indicate that there is a problem in his/her utterance.

By doing repetition, lecturer encourages their students to do self-correction. Vigil and Oller, 1976 mentioned that pushing student in doing self-correction is believed to be beneficial for students' interlanguage development as students' production promotes the development of cognitive connections. Student will recall his/her background knowledge to fix the error which he/she has made. In this case the lecturer should give enough time so, the student can think and do self-correction. By using repetition, the students will have meaningful learning because they try to fix their error by themselves.

Two other results which have the highest rank after repetition, elicitation and clarification request also encourage the students to do self-correction. In elicitation, the way to encourage students' self-correction is by asking question, pausing in the middle of sentence to allow students complete lecturer's utterance, and asking question which reformulate the utterance. Meanwhile, in clarification request, the lecturer uses phrases to ask the students' meant in their utterance, for example: "Pardon me?", "Say again, please!", or "Excuse me?"

On these three highest ranking in the finding, we can see that most of students' preference is oral error corrective feedback which encourage them to do self-correction. They only want their lecturer to show or give a hint that there is an error in their utterance without corrects it immediately. It is quite different from the corrective feedback which is usually given by the lecturers in the class. The lecturers usually give corrective feedback which corrects it directly or in some occasions, the lecturer will ask the other students in the class to give the corrective feedback to their friend's errors directly. This method does not enough to encourage the students in doing self-correction. They may know the correction but it may be forgotten because it can be considered as not meaningful learning.

When the students correct their error by themselves by recalling their background knowledge that they already have and make a connection to the error they made, it can be considered as meaningful learning. It will avoid them to do the same error later. As Bot (1996) stated the importance of pushing students to produce correct forms themselves after some kinds of corrective clue so they can make meaningful connection in their brains. So, lecturer can give some clues in order to notice the students to their errors, and give the students time in correcting their error by themselves.

Students' Preferences toward How Oral Error Corrective Feedback Should be given by the Lecturer

There are many statements which have been asked to the student related to how oral error corrective feedback should be given by the lecturer; do they want their lecturer corrects every oral error, only the important error, or not give the corrective error for all the errors? And how should corrective feedback is given; privately, individually, or it will be done if everyone or most of people in the class do the same mistake?

Based on the collected data, majority of the students prefer if the lecturer corrects their every oral error, 52% of students. It shows that the student wants to know all error they made. So that, they can learn from the error they have made. It has the same result as Catchart & Olsen' study (1976) which also found that students want most oral their mistakes corrected. Yet, the lecturers only correct some important errors which students produced. There is mismatch between students' perception and lecturer' perception in how corrective feedback should be given. When the students expect their lecturer will correct their every error, the lecturer only correct some important error which they think it is needed to be corrected. This mismatch is shown in Truscott's study (1999), it shows majority of the students in his study wanted their errors to be corrected by the lecturer in the classroom, yet more than 50 percent of the lecturer s believed that the errors should not be corrected.

Meanwhile, another data which present how oral error corrective feedback should be given gets neutral response from the students. Yet, giving oral error corrective feedback privately gets the highest neutral rank and it is followed by individually. In this result privately and individually get a tight result.

Giving corrective feedback privately and individually may be considered has the same treatment but actually they are different. By doing it privately, the lecturer will give the corrective feedback to the student in a place with only both of them there without anyone else around, while individually is done in an open place directly to the student who made the error with many people around, for example in the classroom. Doing oral error corrective feedback privately or individually will be also beneficial for the students because the lecturer only focus on one person and it will be easier to the student to focus on error which he/she made. This may be different with the situation in class, while sometimes lecturer will give corrective feedback when everyone in the class makes the same error. By doing this, students may not know all the error which they have been produced.

Students' Preferences toward When Oral Error Corrective Feedback Should be given by the Lecturer

On the collected data, the majority of the students prefer their lecturer gives corrective feedback in the class immediately after they made an error. Two highest results show 50% of students agree if corrective feedback is given in the class and 35% of students agree if corrective feedback is given immediately. Another result shows students 36% neutral to giving oral error corrective feedback after the class.

In this case, the students prefer the corrective feedback is given in the class immediately. It has the same result as Quinn's (2014) study, majority of the students prefer if the lecturer gives oral error corrective feedback immediately. It because students are impatience to know errors they have made. They cannot wait to find it out. If corrective feedback is delayed, the students may forget what errors which they have produced or said and it may be difficult to analyze which error they made. As Quinn (2014) found that some participants believe learning occurs in the midst of communication. It proves that many students want immediate correction feedback from the lecturer so they can correlate the correction feedback which their lecturer gives to their own error. They can immediately fix the error in order to get the correct form. However, sometimes lecturer will summarize the error of his/her students and give the corrective feedback in the post activity. It can be considered as delayed corrective feedback which can cause the students forget about their errors.

Some of the studies show different result of this study. Otavio (2010), in his ELT page, mentioned that delayed corrective feedback has positive effect on fluency and accuracy. Kavaliauskiene, Anusiene, Kaminskene (2009) said that during communication activities, lecturer should not interrupt students just to give corrective feedback to students' errors, because interruptions may raise stress levels and hinder communication. Another study also said that delayed corrective feedback can be considered as a good idea to be done by the lecturers in the class. However, many studies show that postponed corrective feedback may be good to be done by the lecturer, yet the disadvantage of it is the students may forget their error which they produced.

This study also shows the giving of oral error corrective feedback in the classroom gets higher percentage than giving oral error corrective feedback after the class. By giving oral error corrective feedback in the classroom can be helpful for the students in the classroom. As what is mentioned above, making an error is a part of learning process, it can be beneficial not only for the one who produced the error but also his/her friends in the classroom. All students can learn what the errors are and how to fix the error together; so, all students can learn from others' error.

V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Conclusion

The aim of this study is to find students' preferences toward oral error corrective feedback given by lecturer. The data were collected through questionnaire in a form of Likert scale and it was distributed to 76 students who are taking Speaking I class in English Department of Lambung Mangkurat University. It also can be beneficial to avoid mismatch between students' perceptions and lecturer's perceptions in corrective feedback given to the students in the class.

Based on the aggregate data which have been collected, it shows that most of students have positive attitude toward oral error corrective feedback and repetition becomes the most wanted oral error corrective feedback which encourage students to do self-correction and by doing self-correction, students can have meaningful learning. However, the lecturer should give time to the students to think and connect their background knowledge to their error in order to correct it by himself/herself.

On how oral error corrective feedback should be given; the majority of students prefer the lecturer gives corrective feedback privately or individually for every error which the students made, due to most of students want to be focus on fixing or correcting their every error.

Last, students' preference on when oral error corrective feedback should be given; majority of students prefer being corrected in the classroom immediately. By doing so, it will prevent the students forget their error which they made. Some lecturers will consider to do postpone corrected feedback to their students to encourage the students' confidence in speaking ability. The lecturers let students to produce long sentences even though there are a lot of errors which are produced.

The result of this study shows that some of students' preferences are different from lecturers' preferences for corrective feedback. Hence, to make teaching and learning process can be done meaningfully, the lecturers should consider students' preferences, especially in giving corrective feedback to students' error, because it can minimize the mismatch between students' perception and lecturers' perception in teaching and learning process. Hopefully, it can help the students' to do corrections to their errors and have meaningful learning which can be very beneficial for them.

Suggestion

As the suggestion for the further researches, instructor or lecturer may be involved to the researches as the subject beside the students. It will provide a better comprehending by relating and comparing the students' preferences and lecturers' preferences of oral error corrective feedback.

In addition, to minimize confusion between kinds of oral error corrective feedback, the next research can present videos of kinds of oral error corrective feedback to the participants before they fill the questionnaire. It can help the participants to understand the differences of oral error corrective feedbacks and they can decide which one of those corrective feedbacks that they most wanted. Subject interviewing can also be carried out to the research for broaden researcher perspective of their preferences on oral error corrective feedback.

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Dea Rizky Ananda is a Graduate of English Department, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan-Indonesia.

Emma Rosana Febriyanti is a Lecturer in English Language Teaching atEnglish Department, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan-Indonesia. She received her Master of Education degree in 2013 from Universitas Negeri Malang, East Java, Indonesia.

Moh. Yamin is a Lecturer in Writing and Translation at English Department, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan-Indonesia. He finished his Master of English Teaching and Education in Universitas Islam Malang, East Java, Indonesia.

Fatchul Mu'in is a Lecturer in Linguistics at Universitas Lambung Mangkurat, Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan, Indonesia. He earned his Master of Humanities from Universitas Gadjah Mada, Yogyakarta, Indonesia and Doctor degree from Universitas Negeri Malang, East Java, Indonesia.

An Archetypal Study on William Faulkner's *Absalom, Absalom!*

Haihui Chen

Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China

Abstract—This paper attempts to analyze Faulkner's novel from archetypal perspective with a focus on Biblical allusions in the novel *Absalom, Absalom*. My purpose is to induce a kind of pattern in Faulkner's writings which reveals the artist's capability to assimilate archetypes as well as displace them. His unique method of using archetypes remarkably foregrounds the themes of his fictions and marks him as an innovative and talented writer.

Index Terms—archetypal, Biblical allusion, assimilate, displace

I. INTRODUCTION

Being a man with great talent of making inventions and experiments, William Faulkner has added to the theory of the novel as an art and evolved his own literary strategies. Critics have paid much attention to his themes, his narrative techniques, and his particular style. Enormous comments have been made on his use of stream-of-consciousness, multiple points of view and his juxtaposing the past with the present to construct his stories. However, there is another important feature of Faulkner's works that is seldom discussed by critics. That is his use of mythological or Biblical allusions in his fictions.

Myth, as a great heritage of ancient cultures, is an inexhaustible source of ingenious ideas, pleasing images, interesting subjects, allegories and emblems. The term "myth" has a truly protean existence in contemporary thought and criticism, with the capacity to assume a bewildering variety of meaning, "myth" or "mythical" can, for example, signify any of the following: "stories about gods and heroes; philosophical fables such as those of Plato; a special and 'higher' kind of insight that is denied to the merely rational man; or ideologically distorted history" (Verma, 1990, p.1). According to this wide-range definition, stories in the Bible can also be classified into the category of myth.

In Faulkner's works, according to Coffee's(1983) accurate statistics, "he [Faulkner] altogether quoted from the Bible or alluded to it for 379 times. Among them, 183 are from the Old Testament and the other 196 from the New Testament" (p.183). He either directly took the title for his novels from the Bible, such as *Absalom, Absalom!* and *Go Down, Moses;* or indirectly used the story of the Bible as a parallel to his own, such as *The Sound and the Fury* and *The Bear*. For this reason, some critics judged Faulkner as a "Christian writer". Faulkner himself also said that he bore a kind of "Christian Complex" which was formed from his adolescence to his adulthood. However, with a closing reading of his works, it is evident that Faulkner, actually, is not a "preacher" of Christianity. Faulkner once said,

The writer must write out of his background. He must write out of what he knows and the Christian legend is part of any Christian's background, especially the background of a country boy, a Southern country boy. My life was passed, my childhood, in a very small Mississippi town, and that was a part of my background. I grew up with that, I assimilated that, took that in without even knowing it. It's just there. It has nothing to do with how much of it I might believe or disbelieve—it's just there.
(Gwynn & Blotner, 1959, p. 86)

As for the use of mythologies, Faulkner further explained, "the myths, for me, are just a kind of tool. That is a matter of the carpenter trying to find the hammer or the axe that he thinks will do the best job. They are used to write about men and women, human beings, the human heart in conflict with its fellows, or with its environment" (ibid 19). These remarks give us two hints: one is that Faulkner did not write his works for the preachment of the Christianity, he was not a theologian; the other is that, in spite of the first one, Biblical mythologies play an important role in the world of his fictions. For this reason, archetypal criticism, which focuses on myths or mythical allusions in a literal work, can be an illuminating approach to Faulkner's mysterious fictional world.

II. BIBLICAL ARCHETYPES IN *ABSALOM, ABSALOM!*

As we have mentioned in the introduction, archetypes are the communicable units which recur again and again in literature. It can be a certain image, a certain symbol, a certain narrative or even a certain theme. In this part, I try to identify the Biblical archetypes in the novel by examining the parallel correspondence between the Biblical narratives and the plots of *Absalom, Absalom!*

Absalom, Absalom! constitutes an important part of the entire Yoknapatawpha Saga and vividly depicts characters. While being regarded as the greatest of Faulkner's works, it is also the most difficult one. Because in the novel, what is

called the Sutpen legend actually consists of no more than some fragments. The chief problem in reading this novel is the complexity of the narration. In the novel, on the foreground is a group of narrators busy weaving and reweaving the legend according to their own designs to interpret, to make sense of its fragments. Like the baton in a relay race, the Sutpen legend is passed from mouth to mouth. But unlike it in a relay, the succeeding narration is not at all a mere development upon its forerunners. It changes, contradicts, criticizes, and even attacks what goes before and what will come after. Thus, readers often feel confused by the complicated plots. But if we pay enough attention to the title *Absalom, Absalom!*, it will give us some enlightenments.
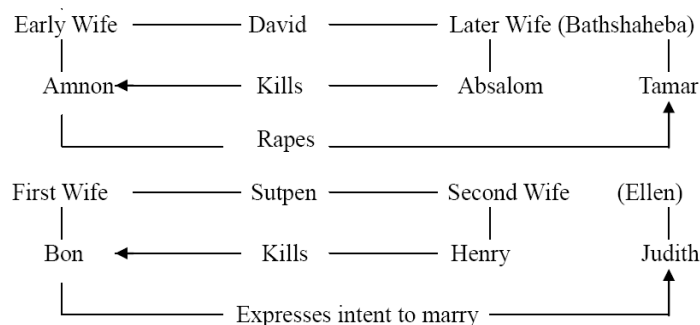
As Faulkner himself indicated, the title came from David's lament, "O my son Absalom, O Absalom, My son, my son!" (II Sam. 19:4). Although the novel is full of Biblical allusions, there is not a single reference to David or to Absalom. While with the cue of the title, readers will think of the story about King David and his son Absalom in II Samuel. Faulkner also commented that "the story in that book [*Absalom, Absalom!*] was of a man who wanted a son and lost that son" (Gwynn & Blotner, 1959, p.143). This illuminating remark as well as the title leads us to think of the connections between the Biblical narratives and the novel.

The story of revolt, incest and fratricide in II Samuel: 13 – 19 might be summarized as follows: King David cruelly killed Uriah and married his wife Bathshsheba. Later they had a son named Absalom and a daughter Tamar. But Amnon, David's son by another wife, "fells sick for his sister," and Tamar was willing to seek her father's permission to be mated with him. Upon the advice of his cousin Jonadab, Amnon tricked Tamar into coming to his bedside where he raped her. Immediately his love for her turned to hatred and he had her removed from his house. When he learned of these events, David was angry, but did not seek retribution. Absalom, however, nursed his wrath for two years; then, during a sheep-shearing festival at which all the King's sons were present, he commanded his servants to slay Amnon. Absalom then fled to Geshur for three years, returning only after the King's councilor Joab interceded with David on his behalf. But David would not see him. When Joab refused to arrange a meeting between the king and the son, the angry Absalom set fire to Joab's crops. Upon being summoned by David to account for this, Absalom bowed down in a gesture of submission and David embraced him. Restored to his father's favor, Absalom became ambitious. He built a powerful following among the people and developed a network of spies. When the time was ripe, Absalom led a successful revolt against David, and the king, accompanied by loyal followers, fled to Jerusalem. Absalom then rejected the advice of Achitophel to seek reconciliation with David's followers and heeded instead on the advice of Hushai to pursue the fleeing King and his retinue and crush them all. But Hushai was secretly loyal to David and sent him warning of the plans. Although David commanded that in the forthcoming battle Absalom be spared, Joab slew Absalom when he found him hanging from a tree in which his hair had been caught. Despite victory in a battle in which 20,000 men were killed, David so lamented the death of Absalom that he had no interest in ruling his restored kingdom. Only after Joab chided him and warned of further strife in the land did David agree to return to Jerusalem and resume his authority.

In Faulkner's *Absalom, Absalom!,* the plot centers around the career of the Mississippi planter Thomas Sutpen who came to Jefferson when it was still a frontier community. He bought a hundred-square-mile section of land ("Sutpen's Hundred"), imported a French architect to build a mansion, and brought in a wagonload of slaves. After he had finished furnishing the house in expensive taste, he consolidated his position in the community by marring Ellen Coldfield, daughter of a leading citizen of Jefferson. His wife bore him a son, Henry, and a daughter, Judith. Henry went off to the university and there met Charles Bon; by coincidence Charles was Henry's half brother. Thomas Sutpen had been married before to a Western Indian woman, but had abandoned her after discovery of her Negro blood. Now this ghost of his marriage returned to haunt him; Charles met his half-sister Judith and fell in love with her. At this point the source of Sutpen's wealth was revealed; it came from the dowry of the first wife he had abandoned. He refused to recognize Charles as his son. The war intervened. Then, as Charles was about to marry Judith, he was mysteriously killed by Henry Supten. Henry fled and dropped out of sight for many years. Meanwhile, Thomas Sutpen returned from the war to find his wife dead, and developed an obsessive desire to perpetuate his line. Since Charles was dead, Henry a fugitive, and Judith vowed to spinsterhood, he planned another marriage to Rosa Coldfield, his dead wife's little sister, if she could produce a son first. Rosa fled from him in indignation, and in 1867 Sutpen, still seeking an heir, entered into a liaison with Milly Jones, granddaughter of the tenant farmer Wash Jones. In 1869 Milly bore a child, and Wash killed Sutpen in a rage. Henry returned to Jefferson, and was hidden at Sutpen's Hundred by Clytemnestra, a Sutpen daughter by a Negro slave, and both died in the 1910 burning of the mansion to the ground.

The story in II Samuel and *Absalom, Absalom!* do indeed seem to be remarkably alike. In both, the patriarchal fathers, King David and Thomas Sutpen rose through their power to high station among men; later both of them broke the moral law and brought suffering upon his children. In both the house of David and the house of Sutpen, retribution took the form of violent crimes by the children—revolt, incest and fratricide. Both of the eldest sons of the vital and forceful patriarch seek an incestuous relationship with their half-sister and both were killed by their half-brother.

The parallels between the Bible narratives and *Absalom, Absalom!* may be diagrammed as follows (Hagopian, 1974, p.23):

```
Early Wife ———————— David ———————— Later Wife (Bathshaheba)
    |                                       |
Amnon ◄———————— Kills ———————— Absalom        Tamar
    |_____ Rapes _____|

First Wife ———————— Sutpen ———————— Second Wife    (Ellen)
    |                                       |
Bon   ◄———————— Kills ———————— Henry          Judith
    |_____ Expresses intent to marry _____|
```

From the diagram, we see very clearly the parallel correspondences between the Biblical narratives and the plots, between the Biblical figures and the characters. Bearing this in mind, a reader, as long as he has sufficient knowledge of the Bible, will have a better understanding of the novel. What's more, by using the Biblical narratives as an archetype, Faulkner indicated continuity in the human condition through centuries of time. The predominant themes of Faulkner's novels, such as revolt, incest and fratricide recur again and again in different works of different periods. So with these archetypes, Faulkner built a bridge between his own works and the whole body of human literature. He presented the story of the Sutpen household, which was set in the American South around the Civil War, against a background of eternity. Thus in his works, readers may discover a feeling for the American South that bespeaks a concern for human beings both in the modern world and in some larger, more inclusive realm as well.

III.   DISPLACEMENTS OF THE BIBLICAL ARCHETYPES IN *ABSALOM, ABSALOM!*

The correspondences between the story of King David and the story of the Sutpens obviously show that in *Absalom, Absalom!* Faulkner deliberately foregrounded two archetypes: incest and fratricide. The novel repeats the archetypal triangular structure of seducer, victim, and revenger in the act of incest. Therefore, the triangular relation of Bon, Judith and Henry is a repetition of that of Amnon, Tamar and Absalom. However, when the actions and especially the motives and emotional attitudes involved in these two narratives are closely examined, the differences between them are very notable, even significant. Faulkner did not simply take the Biblical narratives as the archetypes; he made crucial changes for certain purposes. These changes, or in Frye's word, "displacements", are actually the keys to the better understanding of the novel. In this part, I try to expound the displacements in the novel with a focus on incest archetype and fratricide archetype, trying to demonstrate the close relationship between these displacements and the themes of the novel.

A.   *Motives of Incest*

The Biblical archetype of Charles Bon is Amnon. Both of them had sex, or intended to have sex with their own sisters and were thus murdered by their half brothers. In spite of these similarities, their motives of incest were quite different. Amnon, an acknowledged son of David, merely lusting for Tamar, did not seek marriage with her and felt revulsion against her after he raped her; Bon (in Shreve's final version of the Sutpen legend) did not show sexual desire towards Judith and respected her to the end. But why did Bon still seek an incestuous relationship with her? Obviously Bon's motives of incest are more complicated and mysterious than that of Amnon.

To explore Bon's motives of incest, we should first take Bon's life experience into our consideration. Where did Bon come from? Who were his parents? What did he come to Sutpen's Hundred for? All these questions are very crucial in understanding Bon's intention to marry Judith. In terms of Bon's origin, there is no direct or definite description throughout the whole novel, but with the help of those clues provided by different narrators, especially those of Quentin's, we gradually get a clear idea: before Thomas Sutpen came to Jefferson, he married a woman named Eulialia Bon Sutpen in Haiti, but when he discovered that she had some Negro blood, Sutpen put aside her as well as their son, Charles Bon, who was a one-sixteenth Negro.

With this background knowledge, the puzzles why Bon came to Sutpen's house and why he wanted to marry Judith can be solved. Bon came for nothing else but Sutpen's acknowledgment. When Bon agreed to go to Sutpen's Hundred with Henry for Christmas, he did not come to "see the third inhabitant [Judith] of Henry's fairy tale, not to see the sister because he had not once thought of her: he had merely listened about her: but thinking 'So at last I shall see him [Sutpen], whom I had even learned to live without'"[1] (398). He even imagined "how he[Bon] would walk into the house and see the man who made him" and there would be "an instant of indisputable recognition between them…"(398). However, what Sutpen did disappointed Bon a lot. When he "saw face to face the man who might be his father, nothing happened—no shock, no hot communicated flesh that speech would have been too slow even to impede—nothing" (400).
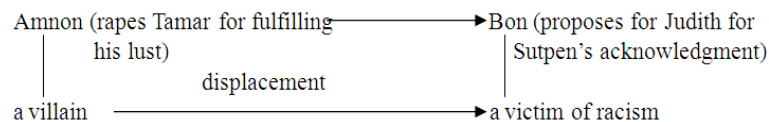
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[1] All the quotations from *Absalom, Absalom!* are quoted from William Faulkner, *1945*, *Absalom, Absalom!*, New York: Viking Press. Further references are seen in the parentheses.

After their first meet, Bon still held a ray of hope that Sutpen would acknowledge him one day. While unfortunately, his hope was shattered at the end of the Civil War. Desperately, he set his plan to marry Judith in motion, hoping that Sutpen would then be forced to acknowledge him in order to prevent the marriage. In Chapter Eight, Bon implicitly confessed that the reason why he made approach to Judith was not to have sex with her, but that he was waiting for Thomas Sutpen, his father, to intervene between them, because Sutpen's intervention might indicate the fact that Judith was the prohibited object of Bon's desire, because she was his "sister". For Bon, therefore, Sutpen's acknowledgment of him as son had more significance than incest itself.

"Charles Bon's search (the search-for-a-father-theme) is a theme prevailing in modern literature. Faulkner combined this with incest, miscegenation, and the fate of the South. Bon's search for a father is made more poignantly appealing in that he did not desire a formal acknowledgment but only a sign, however small"(Roberts, 1964, p 68). What he dreamed of was only a piece of paper from Sutpen which said, "I am your father. Burn this" (408). Or even "a sheet a scrap of paper with the one word 'Charles' in his hand. Or a lock of his hair or a paring from his finger nail" (408). If given this information, Bon "will not even demand to know what my mother [Bon's mother] did that justified his action [Sutpen's abandonment] toward her and me" (408). But to Bon's great disappointment, all his hopes and waiting ended in vain. Sutpen didn't show even a vague sign of accepting him, let alone formal acknowledgment.

The part which puzzles the readers most of the novel is Sutpen's insistent refusal to acknowledge Bon, even if Bon had stated that he would be satisfied with the slightest sign of acknowledge. However, if we take Bon's one-sixteenth Negro blood as well as Sutpen's design into our consideration, this puzzle will become understandable. Sutpen was eager to build a great dynasty which would protect his offspring from racism and white supremacy. If he took a Negro as his son, his design was doomed to be a failure. And we know from the story that it is Sutpen's refusal which motivated Bon's incestuous relationship with Judith and later forced Henry to murder Bon. Thus, Sutpen was in a delimma because if he acknowledged Bon, then the design would fail; if he refused to acknowledge him, then the design collapsed. Therefore, the link between Sutpen's design and his failure to achieve it is represented in Sutpen's refusal to recognize Bon. "Bon's need for recognition and acceptance as he was turned away from his father's door paralleled the episode where Sutpen was turned away from the plantation" (Roberts, 1964, p.55). In this sense, when "Sutpen rejected his son, he seemed to have forgotten all the torment and anguish he felt when he was himself rejected. Sutpen's rejection as a boy brought about the inception of the design, and Sutpen's rejection of his own son brought about the failure of the design and its total collapse" (Roberts, 1964, p.56).

From the above analysis, we can see that all the tragedies, the death of Bon, the collapse of the Sutpen household, are due to one thing: Bon's one-sixteenth Negro blood, or to say more explicitly, the separation among people of different races. Faulkner put Bon in the background of racism. In comparison with Amnon, what Bon hoped to detect was a mere hint of Sutpen's acknowledgment. Their motives of incest are totally different. This displacement may be diagrammed as follows:

Amnon (rapes Tamar for fulfilling ─────────────▶ Bon (proposes for Judith for
          his lust)   Sutpen's acknowledgment)
      │   displacement   │
a villain ──────────────────────────────▶ a victim of racism

Unlike Amnon who committed a villainous crime, Bon will arouse the readers' sympathy, for he is depicted as a victim of racism who wanted to cross the gap between white and black at the cost of committing incest. Through this displacement, the theme of racism is forcefully stressed.

B.   Attitudes toward Incest

Incest has always been regarded as a basic prohibition by human being. Incest prohibition lies in the deeper structure of human society. Even in primitive societies, people had attached great importance to the function of incest prohibition. Claude Levi—Strauss(1983), a social anthropologist, explains this as follows "In primitive societies, by casting sisters and daughters out of the consanguineous group, and by assign them to husbands who belong to other groups, the prohibition of incest creates bonds of alliance between these biological groups, the first such bonds which one can call social. The incest prohibition is thus the basis of human society: in a sense it is the society" (p.546). It is possible to infer from this quotation that in any society, incest is severely problematized morally, ethically and genetically, thus the more developed a society is, the more strict the incest prohibition should be.

In *Absalom, Absalom!* the triangular relationship between Henry, Bon and Judith is very intricate. Henry felt very strongly towards his sister and later formed a very strong attraction for Bon. Even after he knew that Bon was his half brother, he still acted as go-between of Bon and Judith. When Sutpen forbade the marriage, Henry violently repudiated his father and his birthright to support their marriage. So why did Henry react so strangely to this incestuous relationship?

With a close study of the following accounts, we may get some clues to the above question.

When talking about Henry's pride in his sister's virginity, Mr. Compson explained to his son, Quentin, how virginity could exist as virginity:

Henry… may have been conscious that his fierce provincial's pride in his sister's virginity was a false quantity which

must incorporate in itself an inability to endure in order to be precious, to exist, and so must depend upon its loss, absence, to have existed at all. (118)

He then further explained:

In fact, perhaps this is the pure and perfect incest: the brother realizing that the sister's virginity must be destroyed in order to have existed at all, taking that virginity in the person of the brother-in-law, the man whom he would be if he could become, metamorphose into, the lover, the husband; by whom he would despoiled, choose for despoiler, if he could become, metamorphose into the sister, the mistress, the bride. Perhaps that is what went on, not in Henry's mind, but in his soul. (118—119)

This paragraph indicates Henry's purpose to support the marriage as well as his attitude towards incest. As indicated in the novel, Henry was sexually attracted by Judith and Charles at the same time. So in supporting Bon's decision of marrying Judith, he fulfilled two desires in his nature which he could never realize in his life: one is a kind of incestuous desire for his sister, the other is a mildly suggested homosexual desire for Bon.

We have mentioned that the Biblical archetype of Henry is Absalom. But their attitudes towards incest are totally different. Absalom safeguarded the honor of a sister and punished incest, while Henry, a young man of good education, not only connived at incest, but also desired for it. What are the reasons for this sharp contrast?

To answer this question, we should turn to examine the whole Sutpen household, or even the whole plantation owners' households in the old South. The incestuous relationship between brothers and sisters doesn't merely exist in *Absalom, Absalom!*, but also in many of Faulkner's other works. For instance, Quentin and Caddy in *The Sound and the Fury*, Horas and Nacisia in *Sartoris*. So it is a phenomenon, not a special case in the families of Yoknapataqpha County. In such families, husbands and wives show no sign of love and mutual understanding to each other, so do parents and their children. Growing up in such kind of family, therefore, children's desire for love is unfulfilled and distorted. They are turned down by their parents and as a result, they can only seek love from their brothers or sisters. Thus the abnormal, incestuous love became a common phenomenon. Just as Kerr (1983) point out "In the area of Yoknapatawpha, the coldness between husbands and wives is ironically put on the opposite to the consanguineous love between brothers and sisters" (p. 401). This is not only Faulkner's artistic creation, but also proved and supported by some researchers studying the society and culture of the American old South.

Then, let's turn back to the Sutpen household for further illustration. For Sutpen, the family mattered only for its necessary place in his design. Its essential element, the begetting of sons, demanded only that he transmitted his seed; and fatherhood, degraded to mere policy, carried no further obligation or delights. Yet, Judith, Henry, and Charles did act, as their father had never done, out of love. Henry, whose bond with Judith was so strong that they seemed as one, himself wooed Bon for her, read the letter they exchanged, waited patiently for Bon to repudiate his mistress. Aching for his father's recognition of him, Bon was willing to force it, even through the marriage to his half-sister, and significantly unlike his father, he refused to abandon his mistress and son. Judith acceded to Henry's probation period, buried her lover, and reared his orphan son. In all of these actions, "there is the impulse toward family loyalty, filial affection, and common humanity that seeks to subvert the implacable inhumanity of the father's master plan" (Tobin, 1989, p.84).

Nevertheless, this sense of family is doomed to be ultimately and tragically inconsequential; for the method they chose is in the wrong way. As we have mentioned that, incest prohibition is a basic social taboo. To despise this social taboo is to subvert humanity. In this sense, Henry and Bon's attitudes towards incest partially lead to the collapse of the family. In spite of this fact, Faulkner didn't mean to put the blame on them, who he indicted is the father, Thomas Sutpen, his great design, or more broadly speaking, the reality of the old South which conditioned man with its hierarchical stratification and judged people by their origin, by their wealth and by their status.

As we have noticed that, Henry's attitude towards incest is totally different from that of his Biblical archetype, Absalom. So, here also exists a displacement which can be diagrammed as following:
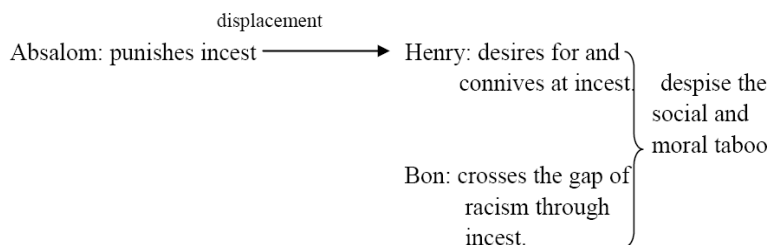
Through this displacement, Faulkner put his blame on the reality of the old South which had dehumanized the young generation by forcing them to cultivate false values. The so-called Southern aristocratic families as well as the whole society were doomed to decay and collapse.

In discussing this displacement, we still leave an important issue untouched—Bon's attitude towards incest and racism when these two were juxtaposed before him. He chose to eliminate the power of racism through incest. So in comparison with incest prohibition, racism influences people's morality and action more profoundly. Here, Faulkner

protruded the theme of racism again. Actually, this was the same with Henry. After the Civil War, Henry's attitude towards the marriage of Judith and Bon turned sharply. In order to prevent it, he even murdered Bon, his half-brother and his ideal, at the gate of Supen's Hundred. So what happened? Why he changed so abruptly? In the following section which deals with the displacement of fratricide, we will find answers to these questions.

C.   Motives of Fratricide

In order to answer the above questions, let us first illustrate how Henry's attitude towards Bon and Judith's marriage changed, following Quentin's process of putting together his collected information.

In chapter 4, the romantic relationship between Bon and Judith became clear. A possible obstacle for their marriage, according to Mr. Compson, was bigamy: Bon was married to an octoroon, and there was a son between them in New Orleans. This mulatto woman, in spite of her looking like a white, was identified in that racist society as black, not exceptionally under the law that an eighth of black blood surpassed the rest seven eights of white blood. It was not unusual for a white man of the upper class in the South to have a few (slave) children as a result of sex with slave women. Although he could not come to terms with the fact that Bon held a wedding ceremony, Henry after all took her simply as a slave. Mr. Compson concluded that Henry prohibited the marriage not because of "the fact that Bon's intention was to commit bigamy but that was apparently to make his [Henry's] sister a sort of junior partner in a harem" (94). In spite of Henry's voices of "I will" and "I believe" that repetitively break into Mr. Compson's narrative, what he would do and believe still remained quite ambiguous. In the following chapter, Quentin revealed the fact that Judith could not marry Bon because "he is her brother" (235). While Henry, believing Bon had abandoned his octoroon mistress, approved this marriage. The problem of incest foregrounds here, but the story goes farther than incest. In chapter 8, when Henry visited his father to tell his decision to realize the marriage of his brother and sister, he confronted a new fact that completely upset his plan: Bon was black. Henry oscillated between Bon as brother and as "nigger", until Bon definitely identified himself as following:

"You are my brother."

"No, I'm not. I'm the nigger that's going to sleep with your sister.
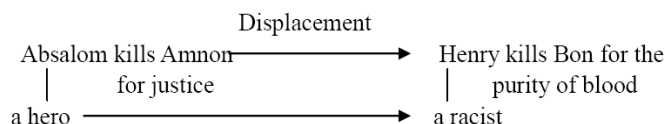
Unless you stop me, Henry." (286)

Henry really stopped Bon by taking radical action, killing Bon at the gate of their home. So we can conclude from the changing process that what drives Henry to kill Bon is not incest, but the truth that Bon was a black. Though he was only one-sixteenth black, he was not a white suitor for Judith but a black who conspired to rape a white lady. In this sense, it is quite important that Henry, who had convincingly said he made them marry because God was dead, could not stand a black's having sex with his sister whether the suitor was his brother or not. Bon also recognized Henry's predicament based on racism and said, "So it's the miscegenation, not the incest, which you cant bear" (285). Thus, *Absalom, Absalom!* , in spite of its title, problematizes race rather than incest.

In the previous section, we have discussed the doom of the old southern family which brought by lacking love and the hierarchic society. Up to this point, we must add to the list another element that determined the collapse of the family and the society. That is the powerful Southern taboo on miscegenation. In *Absalom, Absalom!*, both of Sutpen's design and Southern tradition depended for their ends upon a family that was a pure white, male dynasty. For the Sutpens and the South, the question of color generated the disastrous irony of their strength and their defeat. In *Absalom, Absalom!*, marital and familial bonds could not survive any conflict involving racial considerations. Because of "black blood," a wife was discarded, a son orphaned, a brother murdered, a sister widowed. The family fell apart when faced with the fear or fact of miscegenation.

In Thomas Sutpen and his son Henry and Bon, Faulkner provided a parallel to King David and his son Absalom and Amnon. Both of Absalom and Henry killed their half-brothers Amnon and Bon. While in terms of the motives of fratricide as well as the father's attitude towards the murder, we can find many differences.

Absalom killed Amnon because of the Hebrew code that a brother should safeguard the honor of a sister. Besides this, his murder of Amnon appears to be motivated also by rivalry for the inheritance of his father's power and status; Henry welcomed and even abetted the incestuous relationship between Bon and Judith. He was prompted to murder only by his obsessive bigotry against miscegenation. David heartedly forgave Absalom for the murder and maintained his love for his oldest son, making no gesture of punishment; Sutpen tried desperately to prevent the union of Judith and Bon and finally goaded Henry into acting as his instrument of doom by revealing to Henry that Bon was a Negro. The reason for all these differences is that the conflicts in King David household are just in the context of consanguinity, while the conflicts in the Sutpen household are promoted into the context of racism. Through this displacement concentrating on the motives of fratricide, the theme of racism is again foregrounded. In a society like the old American South which conditions a person by his blood, the bond of family, of consanguinity is rather weak when challenged by the gap of white and black.

This displacement can be diagrammed as follows:

Displacement

Absalom kills Amnon ——————→ Henry kills Bon for the
       | for justice | purity of blood
a hero ——————————————→ a racist

D. Results of Fratricide

As we have mentioned that Absalom killed Amnon partially for the inheritance of his father's power and status. And finally, he actually took his brother's place in line for the throne and eventually rebelled against his father. In this sense, Absalom becomes a triumpher after fratricide.

However, Faulkner did not present a power struggle between Henry and Bon, but concentrated on the sister-incest theme. Henry felt obliged to protect a sister from miscegenation in accordance with a code that was binding in the South of Civil War times. In addition, Henry did not kill in anger, but in love. Bon had "seduced" Henry, his classmate at the University of Mississippi, before he met the sister, Judith. Bon was shown as committing a kind of suicide in forcing his execution upon a reluctant Henry. He took out his pistol and handed it to Henry, the butt extended:

"Then do it now," he says.

Henry looks at the pistol; now he is not only panting, he is trembling; when he speaks now, his voice is not even the exhalation, it is the suffused and suffocating in breath itself.

"You are my brother."

"No I'm not. I'm the nigger that's going to sleep with you sister. Unless you stop me, Henry." (286)

Bon's murder was an act of sacrifice which Henry felt obliged to perform to save a sister from an interracial marriage. Like Absalom, Henry became estranged from his father. But Henry was not ambitious for property or power. After the killing, he "abjures" his birthright, left the family home, and became a voluntary sacrificial lamb for the sins of his father. So, when Henry killed Bon, he was not a murder, but a victim.

Henry paid a price for a sin out of the remote past. Miss Rosa Coldfield, sister-in-law to Thomas Sutpen, saw her family as paying the penalty for some sin of the ancestors. The fact that Sutpen (whom Rosa considered a demon) had met Ellen Coldfield in church made the young sister believed that the family's fate was part of some eternal plan:
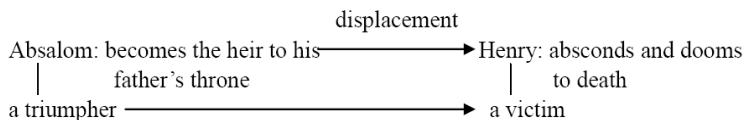
In church, mind you, as though there were a fatality and curse on our family and God himself were seeing to it was performed and discharged to the last drop and dreg. Yes, fatality and curse on the South and on our family… (21)

Little Miss Rosa, too short for her chair and thus looking like a "crucified child", could not understand what her forbears could have done that her family would be "cursed to be instruments not only for that man's [Sutpen's] destruction, but for our own" (21).

The answer lies in the disordered relationship in the Southern family garden. As the South was punished by the Civil War, Sutpen was destroyed because he ignored God's will. Sutpen's fall occurred because of the rapacity which is the sin of the South: Sutpen attempted to "hold for himself and his descendants inviolable title forever, generation after generation, to the oblongs and squares of the earth", he failed to "hold the earth mutual and intact in the communal anonymity of brotherhood"[2] (Faulkner, 1973, pp.13-14).

Absalom, Absalom! presents no solution for the restoration of the Southern family garden. By killing Charles Bon, Henry doomed the family line because he became a fugitive from law and never married. Like many other Faulkner protagonists, Henry could only suffer; he was unable to get rid of the past or to provide any modern solution to inherited problems.

As for the results of fratricide, the displacement may be diagrammed as follows:

displacement

Absalom: becomes the heir to his ——————→ Henry: absconds and dooms
       | father's throne | to death
a triumpher ——————————————→ a victim

Through this displacement, Faulkner again showed his sympathy for Henry, for the young generation of the old South who served as the sacrificial lambs for the guilt of the family, of their ancestors and of the society. In the old American South, the evils of incest, of fratricide interacted with the evils of the slavery system and racism. All these maladies caused the fall of the young generation and the collapse of the Southern society.

IV. Conclusion

In the using of Biblical images and plots as the archetypes of his own works, Faulkner has shown his great talent as a writer. According to H. L.Weatherby (1967), "Faulkner combines a more than common knowledge of traditional Christian images (and with those images traditional values) with a more than common ignorance of Christian doctrines and theology" (p.354). This remark, judging by all of our previous analysis, best summarizes Faulkner's method of

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[2] This remark is quoted from William Faulkner, 1973, *Go Down, Moses,* New York: Random House. Further reference is seen in the parenthesis.

using Biblical archetypes.

By using Biblical archetypes in his novels, "Faulkner made his imaginative narratives serve in providing a cognitive, unbroken connection of the present with the past and the future" (Roberts, 1964, p.60). Faulkner is just like a great magician who situates at the present but sees through the past and the future in the crystal ball. So by breaking the boundary of time and space, Faulkner's Yoknapatawpha County has become a parable of the Old South as well as a miniature of the whole world.

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Haihui Chen was born in Chenzhou, China in 1977. She received her master's degree in English Language and Literature from Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, China in 2003.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of English for International Business, Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China. Her research interests include British and American literature.

Students' Parents' Attitudes toward Chinese Heritage Language Maintenance

Yoseph Edmundus Budiyana

Faculty of Language and Arts, Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang, Indonesia

Abstract—The study aims to explore the Faculty of Letters' Chinese Students' parents' attitude toward heritage language maintenance and the ways they help their children maintain their Chinese heritage language. The participants of this research consist of 33 fathers and 35 mothers. The finding of this study suggests that students' parents' weak Chinese competencies hamper the communication in Chinese heritage language with their family members such as children, spouses, siblings, and parents for its maintenance. The findings from this study also indicate that the Chinese students' parents in the Faculty of Letters show positive attitudes toward their children's heritage language maintenance and development

Index Terms—language maintenance, heritage language, language shift

I. INTRODUCTION

This research is an attempt to study the maintenance of Chinese heritage language by the Chinese Indonesian students of the Faculty of Letters, Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang, in which there are a big number of Chinese Indonesians studying.

During the repressive New Order Regime, the government advocated the restrictions such as the bans on the use of Chinese language at schools and the celebration of Chinese New Year, and the nationalization of Chinese schools. However, during the era of President Abdurrachman Wahid, all the bans for forbidding the use of Mandarin and Chinese cultural traditions were lifted. In addition, President Megawati declared Chinese New Year as a national holiday. Now the Chinese Indonesians are able to learn Mandarin in public schools and enjoy Chinese news broadcasts and entertainment programs on televisions.

However, while this boom in Chinese culture is going on, so many young Chinese-Indonesians in this case those studying in the Faculty of Letters are slowly losing touch with their cultural heritage, particularly their ability in mastering their language heritage. When asked how much they know their heritage language, most of them could not speak Chinese. A similar phenomenon happens to Javanese children who cannot speak Javanese. Most young Javanese generation have lost their ability in speaking Javanese. Even they speak English better than Javanese (the case of the writer's children).

This condition raises such questions "Why are they slowly losing touch with their cultural heritage? How parents help their children maintain their heritage language?" In his research, the writer would like to explore the way the Faculty of Letters students' parents maintain their Chinese heritage language.

Parents play an important role in maintaining a language as it is from the parents that children learn their first words. Parents' decision to choose a language for family communication contributes to the maintenance of their heritage language. Once they shift their perspectives into the language choice for their family communication, there will be the consequences of the maintenance of their heritage language. The result of the interviews of ten randomly selected students shows that none of their parents speak Chinese. In spite of their inabilities in spoken Chinese, there is another question to raise "Do parents still consider it important for their children to learn their heritage language?

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES OF LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE

In recent decades, scholarly interest on patterns of language maintenance among immigrant groups has steadily grown (Jeon, 2008 & Teachout, 2005). The study of Thai language maintenance in New York City and the preservation of Thai identity was further explored by Teachout (2005). In her finding, she highlights the respondents' identity construction done through language. It is a dynamic process where people involve themselves in such linguistics events as reading books and magazines and listening to music.

Similarly, Jeon (2008) in his research shows that the second-generation Korean Americans experienced the lack of intense exposure to the native language, in this case, Korean language and resources in America which results in the reduced use of the language and leads to loss of their heritage language. This condition inhibits children in the proper use of their native language in the families as they live in a bilingual environment.

III. LITERARY REVIEW

In an effort to understand language maintenance, it is worth discussing the relationship between language contact,

maintenance and shift and the role of family in language maintenance.

A. Language Contact, Maintenance and Shift

Language maintenance has been an issue debated whenever languages come into contact. As people move to different areas, or come to interact more frequently with those from other language groups, speakers may gradually replace one language by another as their primary means of communication. As a result, some native languages may be more severely endangered than others. Therefore, strategies that promote the intergenerational transmission of languages are required and need community support (Deumert, 2011). He further points out that a language is maintained if speakers effectively pass it on to the next generation. Heritage language maintenance and loss over generation is greatly influenced by the family language choice and use.

In the case that there is no active language maintenance of the heritage language, shift to the dominant language is almost unavoidable due to the exposure to the dominant language in all major institutional domains such as schools, TV, radio, newspaper, and government administration, court, and work. At first, speakers of the minority language seem to consider it important to learn the dominant language to achieve social and economic success. However, without any conscious maintenance of the heritage language, they unconsciously abandon their heritage language and lose it as they do not feel any threat of learning a new language toward their ethnic language (Holmes, 2001). The transmission of the heritage language from one generation to another may be hampered as parents rarely use the heritage language when speaking with their children and children are reluctant to use the language when they communicate with their parents.

In such a situation, the language itself is endangered. This implies that some other language is being acquired in its place. In short, language shift is as a result of a language which is not well-maintained. A community who has spoken one language comes to speak another language. Language shift is as a result of language contact (Ostler, 2011).

Before we further discuss this issue, it is worth defining what is meant by language maintenance. Language maintenance is defined as the survival of a language in a situation where it might be expected to be endangered (Deumert, 2011). However, language maintenance is difficult to characterize as a result of the difficulty to define the kind of threat that a language is facing (Fishman, 1997).

B. Language Maintenance and Family

There are several factors which contribute to the maintenance of heritage language as a linguistic resource in constructing ethnic identities (Holmes, 2001 & Fought, 2011). A language can be maintained and preserved when it is considered as an important factor in maintaining a minority's identity. The decision for the Chinese descents to choose Chinese names, to celebrate their cultural events and to speak Chinese reflects a key element in the performance and recognition of ethnic identity. From the previously conducted studies on heritage language by Jeon (2008) & Teachout (2005), the family has been considered as a strong contributing factor of language maintenance.

In addition, Holmes (2001) illustrates the important roles of families in language maintenance in that families in minority groups live near each other and see each other. The Greek community in Wellington, for example, belongs to the same church, the Greek Orthodox Church, in which the religious service is held in Greek. In addition, the shops where they use Greek to each other were established to provide the food products imported from Greece. It can be observed easily that *Pecinan* (China town in Semarang) becomes a centre of business activities, in which people speak Chinese. The code-switching between the majority language (Indonesian) and Chinese reflects a way to signal ethnic identity.

Another factor that leads to the heritage language acquisition and maintenance in the children of immigrant parents is staying connected to the homelands, by which children may learn more about their roots. In Indonesia, a regular stream of people from big cities during *Idul Fitri* to visit their home towns (Mudik) will keep the need for using the heritage language alive. The prospect of regular trips back home provides a similar motivation to maintain fluency for many groups. Javanese migrants also see a trip to their hometowns as a high priority of themselves and their family members (Syofyan, 2015). The sense of connection to the homeland is clearly seen as a very strong incentive to maintain proficiency in the heritage language.

Another factor is related to, in some ethnic groups, the concept of an extended family in those grandparents and unmarried relatives who live in the same house as a nuclear family (Holmes, 2001). The family members living in the same place tend to communicate in the same language and lead to language maintenance (Kheirkhah & Cekaite, 2015).

When Chinese dialects are spoken by all family members, from grandparents to grandchildren, they are more likely to maintain the language. In this situation, there is a good reason for them to continue using their heritage language. Marriage within a minority group's members, such as the Chinese and the Greek, contribute to language maintenance (Holmes, 2001). Marriage to a dominant member of the group is another factor of language shift or maintenance the children experienced in the family. It is essential to highlight that groups who manage to ensure their language in such settings as schools and places of worships will increase the chance of language maintenance.

IV. Research Methodology

This study aimed to focus on a quantitative aspect of parents' attitudes towards heritage language maintenance. The instrument developed to collect the data in this study was closed questionnaire. The subjects participating in this study

are the parents of the Indonesian Chinese Students who studied in the Faculty of Letters, Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang. Initially, 102 questionnaires were distributed but only 68 questionnaires were returned

A. Participants

The participants of this research consist of 33 fathers and 35 mothers. It shows a balanced proportion of participants according to gender. From education point of view, the majority of the respondents are senior high school graduates, the others are graduates of the diploma program (25%), of undergraduate program (16,2%), and junior high school graduates (5.9%).

B. Instrument

The data collection instrument used in this study is an Indonesian questionnaire distributed to the parents of the Indonesian Chinese Students who studied in the Faculty of Letters, Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang, Indonesia.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

All the data were processed using the SPSS-17. Descriptive statistics were obtained to identify the Chinese Heritage Language Maintenance conducted by the Faculty of Letters' Chinese Students' parents and the ways they help their children maintain their Chinese heritage language. This section presents the results obtained from the statistical analyses.

A. Parents' Levels of Chinese Proficiency

Parents were asked to evaluate their proficiency levels based on a self-assessed scale of 1-5, with1 indicting not at all and 5 indicating excellent (native-like) proficiency. The majority of the participants considered themselves incompetent in Chinese language, in that they perceived that their writing is very bad and bad (73.2%), listening (69.1%), reading (82.4%), and writing (85.3%). Only small number of participants considered their Chinese proficiency good and very good in speaking (5.8%), listening (8.8%), reading (5.8%), and writing (5.9%).

B. Communication as a Means of Maintaining the Chinese Language

In their research, Park & Sarkar (2007) mentioned that a close family relationship is more likely to maintain Korean language. In order for children to communicate with their grandparents, they must learn the language. The frequency and the quality of the talk in Korean language among the family members are likely to contribute to heritage language maintenance. Wong Fillmore (1991) cited in Park and Sarkar (2007) emphasizes the role of the extended family members in the heritage maintenance in their families.

As a result of the students' parents' incompetency in Chinese language, they never and seldom communicate with their children (86.8%), spouse (86.8%), brothers or sisters (88.2), and parents (88.2). This condition is considered a barrier in maintaining their heritage language as the use of a language as a means of communication is the best way to maintain a language.

Efforts to maintain the heritage language and culture normally occur through intense communication among family members and friends, language instruction at school, and church activities. Park and Sarkar (2007) shows that the Korean church played a role in maintaining the Korean language in Montreal and agreed on occasions of special church celebrations and feasts that unite the Korean people to speak the language. It is through these occasions that the second-generation children are likely to gain the language.

Students' responses to religious activities showed clearly that a small number of the respondents (4.4%) asked their children to participate in religious activities in Chinese. The small percentage is closely connected with the fact that not all churches hold religious activities like English mass and service in Chinese.

Praise is closely connected with effort and achievement. Parents praise their children when they accomplish something challenging or new. In addition, parents promote the use of praise to improve children's motivation and school performance. The use of praise as a teacher's approval is considered as an effective tool to motivate children to work harder and to maximize its positive impact on student academic achievement.

The finding shows that only a small number (5.8%) of the respondents praised their children when they spoke Chinese. The majority of the parents (79.4%) under investigation never and seldom praise their children when they spoke Chinese. The small percentage of "praise" is closely connected with the fact that children never spoke Chinese because of their lack of ability to speak Chinese as shown in this research that even the majority of the parents cannot speak Chinese.

Speech and writing contests are designed to encourage language learners to enhance their understanding of the language and culture as well as to provide the motivation for furthering their language proficiency. By encouraging the children to join such Chinese speech and writing contests, parents expect their children to be able to maintain the language.

There is pessimism in encouraging children to join Chinese speech and writing contest to maintain their heritage language. For instance, only a very small number of parents encourage their children to join Chinese speech (1.5%) and writing contest (1.5%). It is possibly assumed that such contests are rarely done like English speech and writing contest.

In connection with a Chinese language course as a means of maintaining the language, only a small number of the

parents who find a Chinese course for their children and the majority of the parents always (44.1%) and usually (7.4%) find a course for their children to maintain the heritage language.

Item 14 asked the students' parents whether they sent their children abroad for a home stay program or a Chinese English course. The result showed that almost all of the respondents (94.1%) never and seldom sent their children abroad to join such a program as homestay in Chinese speaking countries.

Table 1 displays the percentages and frequencies of respondents' efforts to maintain the heritage language by sending their children to schools which have Chinese lessons. As can be drawn from the data, a promising number of the participants indicated their efforts to maintain their language. Drawn from the responses of 'Always' (17.6%) and 'Usually' (27.9%), it is almost certain that almost half of the respondents sent their children to school with Chinese lesson. They were doing their best to enhance their confidence of heritage language maintenance through formal Chinese lessons at school.

It is important for parents to ask the children to visit and celebrate the cultural events, such as *Pasar Semawis* (Semarang Fair held in Chinese New Year) to give them opportunities to recognize their own traditions better. The ultimate goal here is to enhance the children's awareness of the language and the culture in a meaningful and interesting way.

However, only small number of the parents (29.4%) usually and always ask their children to visit such festivals while the majority of the parents do not seem to see the benefits of visiting such cultural events.

C. Students' Parents' Attitudes toward Their Chinese Heritage Language

This section attempted to find out the respondents' attitudes toward their heritage language maintenance.

TABLE 1:
PARENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARD HERITAGE LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
I want my children to know the history of China	68	1	5	2.50	.855
I want my children to know the news of China	68	1	4	2.66	.704
I want my children to marry a Chinese	68	1	4	1.99	.855
I want my children to like Chinese food	68	1	4	2.18	.809
We celebrate Chinese holidays with my family	68	1	4	1.74	.785
I feel comfortable to communicate in Chinese language	68	1	5	3.10	.949
I want my children to speak Chinese	68	1	4	2.15	.815
It is important for me to deal with people who can speak Chinese	68	1	5	2.87	.913
I feel comfortable to communicate in Chinese language	68	1	4	2.62	.647
I like Chinese products	68	1	5	2.40	1.186
My children proficiency is important for my children's future careers	68	1	4	2.35	.910
I want to send my children to the Chinese speaking countries.	68	1	5	2.63	.991
Valid N (listwise)	68				

Table 1 gives an overall picture of reasonably strong support for respondents' attitude level toward their heritage language. The students' parents under investigation appeared to show positive attitudes toward the maintenance of their Chinese heritage language. This was best reflected in their responses to the statements with the average mean score 2.43.

The finding also displays the percentages and frequencies of the children's knowledge of the history of China in connection with the language heritage maintenance. As can be drawn from the data, more than half of the respondents (54,4%) indicated the connection they can feel between the children's knowledge of the history of China in connection with the language heritage maintenance. However, Table 1 shows that only a small number of the parents (35%) who really want their children to know the new of China. It can be seen from Table 1 that parents are more interested in the history of China than its news.

TABLE 2:
I WANT MY CHILDREN TO MARRY A CHINESE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	23	33.8	33.8	33.8
	Agree	25	36.8	36.8	70.6
	Neutral	18	26.5	26.5	97.1
	Disagree	2	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	68	100.0	100.0	

Parents' responses to intermarriage showed clearly that the majority of the respondents (70.6%) perceived parents' marrying their children with the ones within the same ethnicity considered the best way to maintain their heritage

language. Only 2.9% of the respondents indicated their disagreement to the belief that it is through marriage within a single ethnicity worth maintaining the heritage language.

A similar result shows that the majority of the respondents (63.2%) seemed to feel that they could maintain their identity by their interest in Chinese food. It is through maintaining their identity through Chinese food that they could maintain their heritage language.

TABLE 3:
WE CELEBRATE CHINESE HOLIDAYS WITH MY FAMILY

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	30	44.1	44.1	44.1
	Agree	28	41.2	41.2	85.3
	Neutral	8	11.8	11.8	97.1
	Disagree	2	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	68	100.0	100.0	

The fact that Chinese students must speak Indonesian as a medium of instruction means that the exposure to their heritage language is very limited. This condition will contribute to their loss of the heritage language by themselves neglecting it at home. Therefore, efforts must be made by parents for its maintenance. Frequent communication between parents and children in the heritage language at home is an effective way for its maintenance.

As for children's participation in the celebration of Chinese holidays at home, the majority of students valued their participations. For instance, almost all of the parents under study (85.2%) appeared to be fond of celebrating Chinese holidays with their family.

TABLE 4:
I FEEL COMFORTABLE TO COMMUNICATE IN CHINESE LANGUAGE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	4	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Agree	20	29.4	29.4	35.3
	Neutral	42	61.8	61.8	97.1
	Disagree	2	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	68	100.0	100.0	

Table 4 reflected students' parents' level of comfort toward the use of Chinese language for communication. There are more people who agreed and strongly agreed 35,3% than those who disagreed (2.9%).

Parents' responses to Chinese products showed clearly that a big number of the respondents (61.8%) indicated positive attitude toward Chinese products. It can be assumed that they are proud of their identity through their pride of their heritage country, China. Only 22,1 % of the respondents indicated their disagreement and 2.9% of parents who do not like Chinese products.

TABLE 5:
CHINESE PROFICIENCY IS IMPORTANT FOR MY CHILDREN'S FUTURE CAREERS

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Agree	18	26.5	26.5	26.2
	Agree	24	35.3	35.3	61.2
	Neutral	9	13.2	13.2	75.0
	Disagree	15	22.1	22.1	97.1
	Strongly Disagree	2	2.9	2.9	100.0
	Total	68	100.0	100.0	

Table 5 displays the percentages and frequencies of parents' beliefs that their children's Chinese proficiency is important for their future careers. As can be drawn from the data, more than half of the parents (55.9%) indicated the importance of maintaining their heritage language as it is closely connected with their children's future careers.

Another finding shows that less than half of the respondents (38.2%) wanted to send their children Chinese speaking countries to maintain their heritage language. It is assumed that a small number of parents who want to send their children abroad are closely connected with the fact that it is costly for them to support their children's education abroad. In fact, there are a small number of parents who disagreed (11.8%) and strongly disagreed (2.9%) with this idea.

VI. CONCLUSION

Due to the fact that only 68 student's parents of the Faculty of Letters participated in this study, the findings cannot be generalized to the Chinese students' parents in Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang.

The finding of this study suggests that students' parents' weak Chinese competencies hamper the communication in Chinese heritage language with their family members such as children, spouses, siblings, and parents for its maintenance. However, most of the parents still want to send their children to the schools which provide Chinese lessons for their children. No writing and speech contests in Chinese heritage language in Semarang, no religious mass and service in Chinese unlike English limit their exposure to their heritage language.

The findings from this study also indicate that the Chinese students' parents in the Faculty of Letters show positive attitudes toward their children's heritage language maintenance and development. It was best reflected in their responses to the statements with the average mean score of 2.34.

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Yoseph Edmundus Budiyana was born in Brebes, Indonesia on November 16, 1954. He is a lecturer of Faculty of Language and Arts, Soegijapranata Catholic University, Semarang, Indonesia. He studied in Sanata Dharma Teachers' College, Yogyakarta for his B.Ed in English education and obtained an MA TESOL from University of London Institute of Education in 1994. He is a doctorate student in English Language Education, Semarang State University. He attended a Sandwich-like Program at the College of Education and Human Ecology, Ohio State University, Columbus in 2013.

He presented his papers in Ohio TESOL Conference 2013, Columbus, USA, Indo-Focus, University of Pittsburgh USA 2013, TESOL Asia Clark, Philippines, 2014, TEFLIN 2014 Solo, Indonesia, CamTESOL 2016, Phnom Penh, Cambodia, MICOLLAC Conference, Penang Malaysia, August 2016, and ThaiTESOL January 2017.

Mr. Budiyana is a member of TESOL International Association, ThaiTESOL, ASIA TEFL, TEFLIN, and ADRI.

Study on the English Varieties of "One Belt, One Road" Countries*

Xiaohui Xu

Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China

Abstract—There are various studies about "one belt, one road" countries. This study is about the varieties of English in different countries. The hypotheses of characteristics analysis are proposed and tested. The tool used in this study is AntConc3.2.4 and log-likelihood ratio calculator. The target corpora are Hong Kong corpus, Singapore corpus, India corpus and Kenya corpus. The main characters discussed are in lexis, some of which are about grammars. Some cross-linguistics influences are discussed.

Index Terms—the inner circle, the outer circle, the expanding circle, English varieties

I. INTRODUCTION

According to the division standard of Kachru (1985), the whole world is divided into three circles: The Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding Circle.

The nations that use English as the mother tongue belongs to the inner circle, like British English, American English, Canadian English, Australia English, etc. Some nations that use English as second language belongs to the outer circles, such as Africa English, India English, etc. the others that use English as the foreign language belongs to the expanding circle, like Chinese English, Japanese English.

Nations belongs to the outer circle are somewhat influenced by the British culture and language because many of them used to be colonies of Britain before the Second World War.

The corpus-based study and corpus-driven study are used widely in the study of the English of American blacks is different from that of Africans. In this research, the corpus-based study is used. Actually, this kind of study is not widely used in the study of varieties in Chinese scholars' research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Gao Yihong, Xu Hongchen (2014) published a paper about the study of the attitude to English varieties. In this paper, volunteers are interviewed about their experience of serving as a volunteer. Before this, there is a test of their attitude toward the spoken English of athletes from four different countries. After the period of the games, volunteers are tested again. Their attitude toward the four different accent are somewhat changed. The study shows that the spoken English of different countries are not the same and after a period of adjustment, they got familiar with the different accent and spoken languages.

Sylviane Granger of Belgium Louvain University has collected the learners' linguistic data and built the learners' corpus of different countries from the outer circle and expanding circle respectively.

Gerald Nelson organized the ICE (International Corpus English) which include the data from more than twenty countries. The corpus includes written English and spoken English.

Pan Zhangxian (2002), Hu Xiaoli (2008) and Zou Hang (2015) concluded Chinese English Varieties.

But research based on corpus is rare while most of the researches are descriptive research.

III. HYPOTHESES

It is widely accepted that the features of English varieties may be different. This time, the features of language in the same circle may be discussed. The objects of the research are Singapore English, India English, and Kenya English. Chinese Hong Kong English also belongs to the outer circle. With its mother tongue being Chinese, it is chosen for the research. Most of the Singaporean came from China two or three generations before and they can also speak Chinese. So it is chosen. Kenya can represent Africa, while India represents Southeast Asia. The four objects all belongs to the outer circle.

The hypotheses are the followings:

1. Although they are in the same circle, the features of the languages are different.
2. The usage of personal pronoun and modal verb are different.

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3. The English varieties are somewhat influenced by their mother tongue and culture.

IV. PROCEDURE AND RESULTS

The ICE includes spoken English and written English. ICE was designed for facilitating comparative studies of regional and national varieties of English (Nelson, 2004). Each part makes up of one subcorpus that concludes data from one variety of English and consists of about one million words from 500 texts.

The size of the corpus of different country is different. The size of each corpus is shown in figure1.

FIGURE1

Hong Kong	Singapore	India	Kenya
14266702	8090041	12728875	4649071

The tool of the study is AntConc3.2.4. A series of researches are conducted. The first research is to check the frequency of certain words. The tool button to realize the function is concordance. After checking the numbers, bar chart is used to show the features of the frequency. Then another tool log-likelihood ratio calculator is used to analyze the characteristics of the varieties.

Firstly, scholars considered that personal pronoun are used a lot more than people whose mother tongue is English. So personal pronoun and its usage are listed in figure 2.

FIGURE2

	Hong Kong	Singapore	India	Kenya
I	32850	19460	63966	29014
you	24362	19428	12045	27770
he	6303	5946	5945	11056
she	3571	2632	2067	4343
they	8479	6246	5766	11155
total	18353	14824	13778	26554
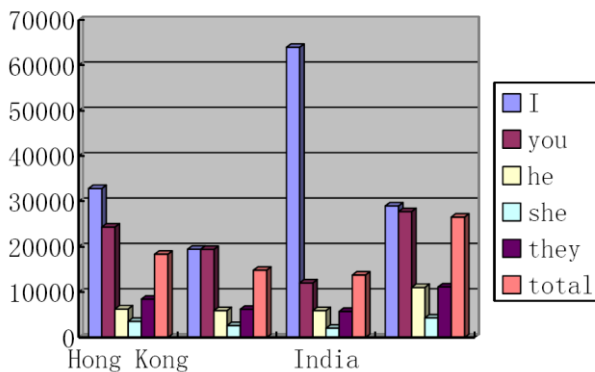
Figure3

The bar chart Figure 3 shows the obvious difference of the usage of personal pronouns. Indians usually use I while Kenyans usually use he, she or they. And the difference is very obvious.

The next step is to calculate accurately. Because the number of each corpus is different, the specific calculation is conducted by log-likelihood ratio calculator.

FIGURE4

	A		B	
Corpus Size 1	14266702	Corpus Size 2	8090041	
Word	**Freq. in Corpus 1**	**Freq. in Corpus 2**	**Log-likelihood**	**Sig.**
I	32850	19460	23.25	0.000 *** -
you	24362	19428	1234.99	0.000 *** -
he	6303	5946	780.45	0.000 *** -
she	3571	2632	102.52	0.000 *** -
they	8479	6246	242.33	0.000 *** -
total	18353	14824	1008.34	0.000 *** -

FIGURE5

	Corpus Size 1	A 14266702	Corpus Size 2	B 12728875		
Word	Freq. in Corpus 1	Freq. in Corpus 2	Log-likelihood	Sig.		
I	32850	63966	14043.80	0.000	***	-
you	24362	12045	2963.90	0.000	***	+
he	6303	5945	9.44	0.002	**	-
she	3571	2067	252.89	0.000	***	+
they	8479	5766	256.74	0.000	***	+
total	18353	13778	236.27	0.000	***	+

FIGURE6

	Corpus Size 1	A 14266702	Corpus Size 2	B 4649071		
Word	Freq. in Corpus 1	Freq. in Corpus 2	Log-likelihood	Sig.		
I	32850	29014	14440.51	0.000	***	-
you	24362	27770	19637.00	0.000	***	-
he	6303	11056	11839.64	0.000	***	-
she	3571	4343	3308.14	0.000	***	-
they	8479	11155	9238.93	0.000	***	-
total	18353	26554	24133.36	0.000	***	-

The three figures show the results of the comparison between Hong Kong and Singapore, India and Kenya respectively. The results show that most of the personal pronouns are used differently in different countries. Although they all belong to the outer circle, the varieties are different. Compared with Hong Kong English, the use of first personal pronouns in Singapore English is less. And there is a substantial difference. But the use of first personal pronouns in Hong Kong English is less than that in India English. In the comparison with Kenya, speakers in Hong Kong use more first personal pronouns, but less second and third personal pronouns. And there are substantial differences in the use of the third personal pronouns, the log-likelihood is up to 2587.45.

Then, the frequencies of other words are also listed and analyzed, including modal verbs and auxiliaries shown in figure7 and 8, privatives shown in figure 9 and 10, propositions and conjunctions shown in figure11 and 12, courteous and adverbs shown in figure13 and 14.

FIGURE7

	Hong Kong	Singapore	India	Kenya
must	877	1061	896	2653
should	2157	1458	1556	4429
have to	1697	1073	1010	2537
ought to	45	42	14	72
might	484	338	282	908
may	2116	1401	1405	3807
can	6085	4639	3282	10268
could	1062	1045	949	2997
will	5740	4501	3778	10619
would	3144	2395	1887	5993
shall	59	111	220	536

FIGURE 8
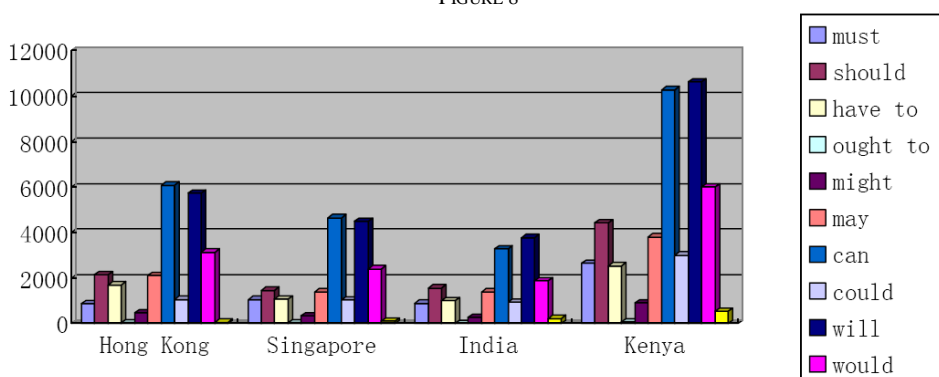
FIGURE9

	Hong Kong	Singapore	India	Kenya
do	10996	5761	2503	7592
do not	1108	712	384	1121
not	20296	12477	6291	17741
no	12200	7275	3879	8909
never	1530	903	378	1302
seldom	99	24	6	29
hardly	183	133	77	191

FIGURE10
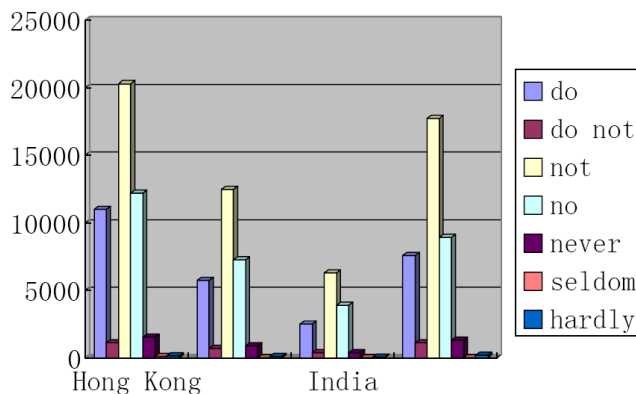
FIGURE11

	Hong Kong	Singapore	India	Kenya
to	94997	56832	26917	80530
from	13880	8797	4586	12174
of	92641	60574	33871	83434
and	90576	54813	28477	76167
but	19301	10414	4910	13509

FIGURE12
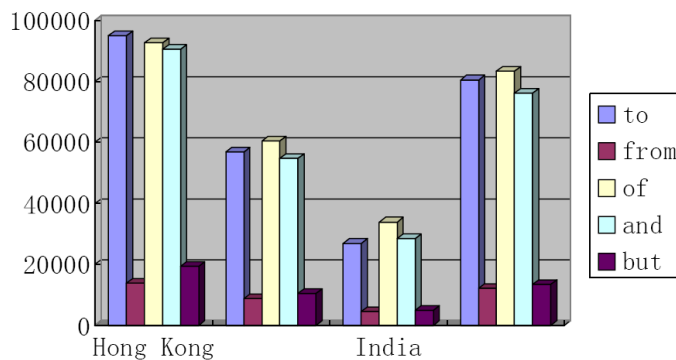
FIGURE13

	Hong Kong	Singapore	India	Kenya
very	10455	5977	2942	7439
much	3663	2188	1110	2826
like	11157	6205	2646	7695
please	1162	752	342	959
thank you	750	412	210	520
yeah	13297	3582	3510	4279

FIGURE14
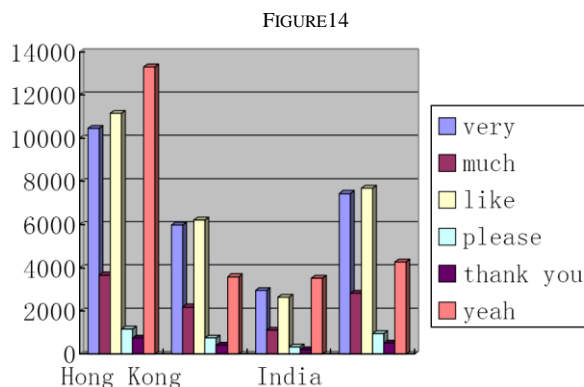
According to the analysis of the modal verbs, such as should, can, could, will, it is discovered that there are a lot more modal verbs used in Kenya English and the difference is obvious. Indians use less modal verbs than the other countries. The use of modal verbs in Singapore English is a little more than that in Hong Kong English.

It can be seen that Kenyans like to use can, will very much. Kenyans like to use modal verbs much more than people in other countries comparatively.

According to the results of figure10, it is concluded that people in Hong Kong usually use "do" while not use "do not". It shows that they have strong responsibility. Kenyans use like to use "do" while Indians do not like it. Kenyans use more "not" and "no" than people in other countries. "Never, hardly, seldom" are not usually used.

Result of figure 12 shows that Kenyans use more conjunctions and prepositions while Indians use the least. The situation in Hong Kong and Singapore are in the middle and the difference between them is not obvious. That may because about 70% of the Singaporeans are from China. So they are both influenced by Chinese.

Result of figure 14 shows that people in Hong Kong and Kenya like to say "yeah". Kenyans also like to say "please" and "thank you" while Indians use the least. Kenyans also like the other words "very, much, like".

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Discussion of Different Usage in Vocabularies

The results show that the hypotheses are all tested. The use of verbs, personal pronoun, privative and Courtesies are different. Every kind of English is influenced somewhat by there own language.

Because Hong Kong citizens and 70% of Singapore citizens speak Chinese as their mother tongue, so the difference between the two variations is comparatively small as we have supposed. This proves mother tongue transformation has great influence in English variation.

The style of Indian variation and Kenya variation are not so strict, some words are used a lot while the other words are used so less. This may related with their characters. Africans are not so strict and precise as Asians who sometimes practice emotionally. Indians use a lot of first personal pronoun, which reflect that they consider about themselves too much. Chinese people are very strict with their life and work.

There is no theoretical foundation about the reason of the differences of English varieties. In the process of the research, more principles were discovered. The variations happened in pronunciation, grammar, vocabularies, pragmatics, and different varieties were formed.

Discussion of Difference in Other Aspects

Some scholars consider that Chinese people have formed our own characteristics in the development of English. In Hong Kong English, dragon boat, dragon dance, dragon gate are used because they are influenced by Chinese culture.

Singapore English has formed for about 200 years. In this context of colonization, the British left behind a nice gift--a common language. In the last 20 years, English has become a major native language in Singapore. It is the only language that connects the three major racial groups. That is a tool of expressing national link in Singapore society. It has its own specific characters in grammar and lexicology.

For example:

-You are planning to go, is it?

-He came yesterday, is it?

-She has gone, is it?

-Help me, can?

-Help me, can or not?

The above examples show that Singapore English are somewhat influenced by Chinese. They use "is it" while not the corresponding verb to form the antonym. They use "can or not" to form antonym, showing that they are somewhat influenced by Chinese. In talking about the features of Singapore English, some examples are chosen to show.

For example:

makan--food

adapt—traditional law

kampong—village

amok—crazy

These verbs come from Malay. Some verbs as "dadah addict" come from Malay, which means "drug addict".

Another example: "Can you take spicy food?"

"Take" here means eat or drink. Local people sometimes use some non-standard English.

For example: He has study for two hours.

Or: You are teaching us today, is it?

The reason why there are features of Singapore English is that communication functions. Actually, Singaporean is proud of their special English.

The foreign trade between Britain and India originated from 17th century. During that period, many Indian youngsters, especially those from rich families, began to study English very hard. English soon became the second language at that time.

In 19th century, the English literature works has emerged in India. And meanwhile, India literature and culture has been spread to the whole world. India is a country with many languages and dialects. Until 1960s, there are still new languages being discovered. India is also a country with a lot of nationalities. As a foreign language, English can be accepted by many nationalities. Actually, many educated person can speak three languages: local accent, official language of that province and English.

India English also has its own characteristics of spoken accent. The varieties are influenced by the different local accent. For example, the special stress is widely accepted in South Asia.

In India English, some abstract nouns and collective nouns are used in plural. For example: fruits. They do not use two pieces of bread while using two bread. They also use only or itself to stress. They also misuse transitive verb and intransitive verb. There are still some differences in pragmatics.

Some educated people would like to use English than their local accent. So the specific characteristics of India English are relatively fixed. Although they are not the same with British English, they are accepted widely in India.

In Kenya English, there are also some different use of words and sentence structure.

For example: Sister Maingi was now louder than thunder.

In fact, the voice of Maingi was louder than thunder, not Maingi was now louder than thunder.

Another example: Many women neighbours, wondering what was happening to the beautiful daughter of Kigotho, kept asking her co-wife, daughter of Kuria, what was happening to Waceera.

In this sentence, the structure is so complicated. There are usually not so long sentences in Standard English.

Discussion of Difference in ENL, ESL and EFL

The different categorizations in the two disciplines highlight different aspects. In the new English perspective, the distinction of ENL, ESL, and EFL has a socio-historical base focusing on the historical role of English language in different societies.

In SLA the main point is that people whose language is studied are learners of the language with different environment of acquisition, that is, the exposure to the target language in daily life differs. From the SLA viewpoint, it does not matter whether someone who studies English as a non-native speaker in an English-spoken environment has lived there for several years or is living there permanently, whereas from the viewpoint of New English studies it is a significant difference, as people belong or do not belong to a certain speech community within the country.

In SLA the major point is that it is not first language but second language acquisition. This may be one reason why some studies on SLA do not openly distinguish between ESL and EFL or do not give much information on the target people whose English is being studied. The lack of recognition in SLA that New Englishes are different from learner English with regard to the goal of learning, the input and motivation is the main cause of the paradigm gap. In New English studies the differences between ESL and ENL are learner's interest, distinctions tend to be overrated. In SLA, in which the research for a common core of general acquisition processes is at the heart of the investigation, similarities tend to be overestimated.

There are distinctions between ESL and EFL. English in ESL settings is used in a range of scopes, including informal ones. Therefore, in contrast to EFL, a range of different styles is developed. The ESL speaker has a much larger exposure to English than the EFL speaker, who usually may be exposed to English through the media not possibly only uses English actively within the classroom. As a result, English learners in ESL settings are users of English in daily life in many different circumstances with a range of styles at command, whereas EFL learners, if they do not need English at the workplace, may lose their ability as soon as they leave school. ESL speakers do not want to acquire native-like competence in English in the end but pay attention to their own culture and identity. The speakers move away from external norms developing their own varieties. The language the ESL speaker used is largely a mixture of ESL and the native language rather than ENL, whereas the exposure to English in the EFL classroom usually is closer to standard ENL and the norm orientation is external. That is the difference between ESL and EFL. Some errors are fossilized, but in ESL it is systematic.

Similarities between ESL and EFL should not be underestimated. They are both non-native varieties of English. Especially in the early stages of acquisition, both EFL and ESL seem to take similar means of development and similar

stages of acquisition. They are general constraints in the process that hold for ESL and EFL. It is accurately these commonalities that make it not only possible but highly desirable to bring the learner perspective in New English learning into focus.

Discussion of Cross-Linguistic Influence

"New English varieties" is a collective noun for the varieties of English that are used in different countries as official languages or national languages.

Although the first language influence has been a key concept in SLA since 1950s and stimulated a lot of empirical studies, there is still no agreed definition for it. This is motivated by the fact that the definition of the terms is a debated subject in the multilingual environment in which New English varieties have emerged. Empirical studies have shown that cross-linguistic influence can show itself in direct borrowings, or the production of mixed structures. Direct borrowings of structures or words make the example of transfer.

There is an example from Singapore English: The man sell ice-kachang one gone home already.

As we can see that both the choice and the position of the relative pronoun in this utterance with first language influence from Chinese. The order of head and relative clause, by contrast, follows English rules in Chinese.

In this sentence, the relative clause has two relative pronouns, further demonstrating the extent of structural mixing of Chinese and English. The English relative pronoun who, emerging at the beginning of the relative clause and thus following English word order rules, is combined with the Chinese relative pronoun one in end-position of the relative clause.

It has been shown in research on cross-linguistic influence that it is impossible to predict all learning difficulties and results of cross-linguistic influence.

One reason for this is the high inter-individual variation, even among learners of the same native and second language. Many aspects such as the social context, the learner's age and gender, motive and the type of instruction combine in myriad ways that make the learning environment of individuals actually unique. Some factors have been identified that have a systematic influence on the frequency and type of cross-linguistic influence. The linguistic subsystem seems not to be one of them. Cross-linguistic influence happens on all linguistic levels including morphology, syntax, phonology, semantics and pragmatics. Factors constrain cross-linguistic influence are

--language similarity
-- universal rules
--proficiency in the second language

There is no systematic study being carried out to investigate the interrelation between particular types of cross-linguistic influence and language similarities.

Studies on cross-linguistic influence show that native language influence is related with linguistic universals. They describe the occurrence, absence or co-occurrence of linguistic structures in any given language. It can be divided into absolute and implicational universals.

Absolute universals are inherent in all languages of the world, whereas implicational universals involve two language properties in a conditional relationship.

Study shows that CLI seems to occur more frequently in language production and perception of beginners than in advanced language learners. Ellis (1985) presents several claims suggest that cross-linguistic influence mainly occurs as a strategy for successful communication when there are still insufficient second language resources and is limited to the early stages of language acquisition. First language influence decreases step by step over the course of language acquisition.

But no systematic studies have been carried out until now about the question of whether learners in the early stages show different patterns of cross-linguistic influence than advanced learners.

The role of the factors influencing cross-linguistic influence is very complex. It is shown in postcolonial countries where both French and English are spoken show more influence from French in their English.

Studies have been carried out in the four categories:

1. Comparisons of a structure in New English variety with the same structure in a standard variety of English.

2. Comparison of the same structure in various New English Varieties.

3. Comparison of the structure in a New English variety with the same structure in one or more of the indigenous languages spoken in the country.

4. Comparison of a structure in a New English variety and in learner's language.

Mukherjee & Gries (2009) had analyzed the occurrence of intransitive, monotransitive and ditransitive constructions with different verbs in ICE India, ICE Hong Kong, ICE Singapore and ICE GB. They found the similarities of "collostructional" patterns with British English decreased in New English varieties in the sequence of Hong Kong English – Indian English--Singapore English, with the latter showing the greatest divergence from British English. These differences are interpreted as a reflection of the progress of nativization in the respective varieties. These studies show the relevance of corpus-based explorations of structural properties of New English varieties.

The influence of speaker attitudes on the manifestation of innovations was also observed by many scholars. Some structures based on cross-linguistic influence form part of language productions of individual speakers who are learning English. Some of these structures are adopted by speakers by next generations, some of whom might require English as

a first language.

In conclusion, the fundamental difference between English as a second language and English as a foreign language mainly lies in differences in norm-orientation and attitudes, which in turn cause different kinds of cross-linguistic influence.

VI. FURTHER STUDY

But the research is still in the first stages. The samples are limited to several countries. So the further study should be focused on different countries and different types of samples. Australia, New Zealand and some other European countries will be concluded in the further study.

This research is confined to the study of vocabularies, and the further research can be focused on the pragmatics, syntax and semantics.

The focus of the paper is on the corpus-based description of ESL and EFL varieties. The descriptions are the basis for the discussion of the theoretical issues. The wide range of varieties is studied as well as the breadth of features which are described. We only have studied a little part of the scope of what is possible to achieve with the corpus-based approach to second –language varieties of English.

It is apparent that corpus-based approach also has its limitations. In the future, studies should combine corpus-based description with sociolinguistic data and psycholinguistic evidence. As far as psycholinguistic processes with the description of structural properties of the resulting varieties leaves a wide scope for further research.

Many scholars appeal that the varieties of language should be paid attention to and studied consistently. It is also a window to see the world and characters of different cultures.

In addition, the corpus-based study should be taken in several ways. The study related to different corpus should be carried out. This study is the application of corpus-based study as well as the study related to "one belt, one road" strategy. It is hoped the related study be carried out continuously.

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Xiaohui Xu was born in Zibo, China in 1977. She received her M.A. degree in Foreign Linguistics and Applied Linguistics from Ocean University of China in 2010.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include Applied Linguistics and Language Policy.

Chinese Culture Teaching For English Majors— A Case Study of Sun Tzu Culture[*]

Qianqian Wei

Foreign Languages Department, Binzhou University, Binzhou, China

Abstract—**It is universally admitted that English majors should learn about English culture and the teaching of Chinese culture has been neglected for a long time. The consequence is serious—as Chinese and English majors, most students cannot fluently express their own culture in English. Taking an essential part of Chinese culture—Sun Tzu culture as an example, the paper makes a research on the problem and suggests that joined efforts should be made in five aspects: the syllabus, the examination, the teaching, teachers and students.**

Index Terms—**Chinese culture teaching, Sun Tzu culture, English majors**

I. INTRODUCTION

With the advancement of economic globalization and China's policy of culture "going global", the worldwide impact and soft power of Chinese culture have been enhanced and the whole world wants to know more about China and Chinese culture. As an invaluable part of Chinese extraordinary culture, *The Art of War*, which was written by Sun Tzu in Spring and Autumn period of China, not only embodies profound military culture but also reflects Chinese traditional culture. Its external communication has over 1000-year history and it has been translated into more than 40 languages and the history of its English translation has been over 100 years. Until now, with over 200 books of its English translation both at home and abroad, its influence has touched every corner of the world.

As an international language, English is not only used as a tool to know about the world and acquire all kinds of information from overseas, but also used to introduce our extraordinary culture to the outside world. Since English majors know more about the English language and they have more opportunities to communicate with foreigners in their study and future work, they shoulder heavy responsibilities of promoting Chinese culture and improving cross-cultural communication between the east and the west. Therefore, their mastery of the English expressions of Chinese culture can influence the cross-cultural communication and the promoting of Chinese extraordinary culture. And since Binzhou City is the hometown of Sun Tzu and Binzhou University is the only comprehensive university in the city, the English majors in Binzhou University have another important obligation——introducing Binzhou City and Sun Tzu culture to the outside world.

However, the truth is due to the neglect of Chinese culture teaching, English majors cannot accurately express Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture in most cases. Although their knowledge about English countries and English culture increase day by day, there exists the phenomenon of "Aphasia of Chinese Culture", that is, due to the lack of knowledge about Chinese culture and its corresponding English expressions, students cannot express Chinese culture in English in the process of cross-cultural communication, which finally leads to the failure of communication.

Therefore, the paper tries to make suggestions to the Chinese culture teaching for English majors so as to enhance their knowledge about Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture, and to transmit Chinese extraordinary culture to every corner of the world in the future and achieve the cross-cultural communication between the east and the west.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Studies Abroad

Studies abroad on cultural teaching started early. In 1880, in the book *The Art of Teaching and Studying: Languages* François Gouin first pointed out the significance of culture in language teaching. In 1900, America first issued a proposal about cultural teaching, which first included cultural teaching in teaching objectives. Studies on cultural teaching in the 20th century present a trend of prosperity. Different countries and scholars not only discussed the significance of cultural teaching on the level of language-culture relationship but also crossed the border of subject and put forward interdisciplinary new ideas. In 1918, Britain issued the report *Modern Learning* emphasizing that cultural teaching should penetrate language teaching. In 1945, Charles Fries first did the theoretical explanation of the necessity of cultural teaching in foreign language teaching and the relationship between cultural teaching and language teaching.

In the 1950s, American Association of Foreign Language Education held a seminar about the relationship between language and culture, which represents the birth of cross-cultural communication studies. After it, in 1959, Edward T. Hall put forward the term "cross-cultural communication" in the book *The Silent Language*. In the 1960s, the research results of social culture were introduced into the practice of foreign language teaching. The masterpieces in this period are sociolinguist H. D. Hymes' *Language in Culture and Society* and *On Communicative Competence*. Hymes put forward the concept of "communicative competence" that extended the teaching objective of foreign language from "language competence" to "communicative competence", which then developed into "cross-cultural communication competence". The period from the 1970s to the 1980s is an important phase in studies of cultural teaching that turned more microcosmic and systematic and in this period communicative teaching method appeared. American scholars H. Nostrand and H. Seely insisted that the main objectives and specific objectives should be paid attention to foreign language teaching. In 1983, H. H. Stern put forward the quadruple mode of foreign language teaching and included social culture in foreign language teaching. After 1990, Britain, America and some other countries listed cultural teaching and the cultivation of communicative competence as the teaching objective of foreign language. For example, in 1995, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages added "cultural cultivation" as the fifth skill to the four skills of "listening", "speaking", "reading" and "writing" in "Foreign Language Teaching Standards".

B. Studies at Home

Studies on cultural teaching in China can be divided into four phases. First, the 1980s is the rising phase of studies on cultural teaching in China. In 1980, Xu Guozhang published the article *Culturally Loaded Words and English Language Teaching* in *Modern Foreign Language*, which represented China's foreign language teaching circle starting to study the relationship between language and culture and to include cultural teaching into foreign language teaching. Second, the period of the 1980s to the mid-1990s, during which scholars mainly focused on the problem of "teach or not to teach English culture". Deng Yanchang, Liu Runqing, Qi Yucun and Shu Dingfang all discussed the relationship between language and culture. Scholars like Hu Wenzhong, Wang Weihua, Ouyang Fasun held the opinion that English teaching should involve cultural teaching. Third, the period of the mid-1990s to the beginning of the 21th century during which the study focus were the content of cultural teaching and its teaching principles. At the same time, there were also studies on the methods of cultural teaching. In 2007, Miao Lixia published an article in *Foreign Languages in China* that summarized the studies on English cultural teaching in China in the previous 20 years. She divided the content of cultural teaching into two types: the single type and the compound type. The scholars of the single type, like Pu Xiaojun, Hu Wenzhong, Shu Dingfang and so on, thought that the content of cultural teaching should be the culture of target language and they emphasized the cultivation of students' communicative competence whereas scholars of the compound type, like Xu Guozhang, Cao Wen, Zhang Yina, etc. thought that the culture of target language and that of source language were of equal importance. The culture of the source language aroused more and more scholars' interest and studies on cultural teaching presented the trend of turning from the single type to the compound type. In 2000, *Teaching Syllabus for English Majors of Higher Education* made a detailed description of the curriculum of culture and its content, and specially required that English majors should know about Chinese culture and its social and economic development and the ability to introduce it to the outside world should be improved. Some scholars emphasized the significance of teaching Chinese culture too, such as Cong Cong (2000) who first paid attention to the problem of "Aphasia of Chinese Culture". After that, more and more scholars appealed for the introduction and strengthening of Chinese cultural education to English teaching, such as Zhang Lan (2003), Xiao Longfu, Xiao Di, Li Lan, Song Yiwen (2010), Guo Jia (2011), Chen Hua, Lu Shanshan (2013), Li Yue (2014), Tian Yuhong (2015), Yu Wansuo (2016). As for the study on teaching methods, they mainly focused on the teaching of cultural knowledge and the representatives are Shu Dingfang, Hu Wenzhong, Gao Yihong, Wang Yingpeng, etc. Fourth，the period of the beginning of the 21th century to the present, during which studies on cultural teaching expanded and more scholars began to study cultural teaching from the microcosmic perspective.

Based on the above statement, many research achievements both at home and abroad about cultural teaching have been gained. However, compared with the teaching of western culture, the teaching of Chinese culture is still neglected, let alone the indispensible part of Chinese culture, Sun Tzu culture. Considering this, the author will take the teaching of Sun Tzu culture as an example to try to cast light on the Chinese cultural teaching for English majors.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. The Research Purpose

The research purpose is to find out whether English majors can fluently express Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture in English and proper ways of improving their mastery of English expressions of Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture.

B. The Research Subject

The research subjects are the sophomores in Binzhou University of China who major in English and already grasp certain knowledge of English language. Since they are all Chinese native speakers and take English as their major, usually they have more chances to communicate with foreigners and introduce Chinese culture to them. And because

Binzhou City is the hometown of Sun Tzu, the students are heavily influenced by Sun Tzu culture and are more likely to introduce it to foreigners.

C.   The Research Method

This study adopts the test and questionnaire method. The test is used to evaluate the research subjects' mastery in English expression of Sun Tzu culture. And the questionnaire is used to investigate the research subjects' attitudes towards Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture, their mastery of the corresponding English expressions and the teaching of Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture for English majors in the university.

D.   The Research Content

The research is composed of two parts. The first part is to find out the problems in the English expression of Sun Tzu culture by English majors through the test. The second part is to find out the problems of the English major's mastery of English expression of Sun Tzu culture and the current situation of teaching Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture by way of the questionnaire. And subsequently the proper ways to improve the proficiency of English majors to express Sun Tzu culture will be put forward and also suggestions for teachers to teach Chinese culture in English class.

E.   The Research Procedure

There are mainly four steps as follows:
Step1: The author designs the scientific test and questionnaire.
Step2: The author distributes test papers and questionnaires at the right time and recovers the useful questionnaires.
Step3: The author analyzes the results of tests and questionnaires.
Step4: The author puts forward the advice for both English majors and teachers.

IV.   Results and Analysis

In December 23, 2016, the author distributed test papers and questionnaires to students, which are all written in Chinese, so the research subjects can totally understand them.

A.   Results and Analysis of Test

A total of 120 test papers was issued, and was all recovered. The recovery rate was 100%. A total of 120 questionnaires was issued, and 102 questionnaires were recovered. The recovery rate was 85%.

The test about Sun Tzu culture consists of three parts. The first part is the translation of 5 Chinese phrases taken from *The Art of War* into English and the translation of 5 English phrases into Chinese and the translation of Chinese sentences taken from *The Art of War* into English. The phrases and sentences cover five kinds of cultures: ecology, material culture, social culture, religious culture and linguistic culture. The last part is to write an English composition to introduce *The Art of War* in about 100 words.

1. Translate Chinese phrases into English

The first part is the translation of 5 Chinese phrases. The first is "阴阳", which is a term full of traditional Chinese culture and it exists in almost every aspect of Chinese culture, such as religion, philosophy, calendar, traditional Chinese medicine, calligraphy, divination, etc. It is used many times in *The Art of War* to refer to night and day, fine days and rain or sunny and shady geographic conditions according to different contexts. Among the 120 research subjects, 86.67% of them, that is, 104 students translated into "Yin and Yang", adopting the transliteration method. And due to carelessness or their own nonstandard Mandarin, 3.33% of them, that is, 4 students mistranslated it into "Ying and Yang". 6.67% of them, that is, 8 students took the free translation method, rendering it into "the two opposing principles in nature". 3.33% of them, that is, 4 students combined the two translation methods of transliteration and free translation together, putting it into "Yin and Yang, the two opposing principles in nature", which not only showed the cultural specificity of the term but also make it clear to target readers.

The second phrase is "甲胄矢弩", which includes four kinds of weapons or military equipment in ancient China. Among the 120 research subjects, 1.67% of them, that is, 2 students could correctly translate them. 23.33% of them, that is, 28 students could translate three of these four military terms and 45% of them, that is, 54 students could translate two of them and 3.33% of them, that is, 4 students could translate one of them and 26.67% of them, that is, 32 students could not put them into English or correct English. Maybe the research subjects lack the knowledge about weapons or military equipment of ancient China, so in the translation of military culture they did not do it very well.

The third phrase is "黄帝", who is a legendary ruler in ancient China. 55% of the research subjects, that is, 66 students translated it into "Yellow Emperor", which is the most widely used translation. And 10% of them, that is, 12 students translated it into "Huang Emperor", which is also correct. 10% of them, that is, 12 students adopted transliteration, putting it into "Huangdi" and 4 of them used the free translation method, putting it into "a legendary ruler". And 3.33% of them, that is, 4 students translated it into "Yellow Emperor, a legendary ruler", successfully transmitting Chinese historical culture to target readers. But there are still 16.67% of them, that is, 20 students just rendering it into "emperor", which is such an extensive concept that target readers will misunderstand it. And 1.67% of them, that is, 2 students even mistranslated it into "Yellow God" that may cause confusion among westerners.

The fourth phrase is "五行" that contains the five elements——metal, wood, water, fire and earth. Ancient Chinese believed that these five elements composed the physical universe and later it was used in traditional Chinese medicine, divination, etc. Except 1.67% of the 120 research subjects, that is, 2 students who did not know how to translate it, the other 98.33% of them, that is, 118 students translated it into "the five elements", but none of them explained the content of this Chinese culture-specific item "五行". Thus it did not completely transmit Chinese culture to target readers.

The fifth phrase is "秋毫" that is a metaphor referring to something very light. Among the 120 research subjects, 30% of them, that is, 36 students translated it into "autumn hair" and 23.33% of them, that is, 28 students translated it into "new/newly-grown down", both of which are literal translation. 31.67% of them, that is, 38 students mistranslated it due to the wrong understanding or choosing wrong words or misspelling.

2. Translate English phrases into Chinese

The second part is the translation of five English phrases. The first is "dispersive ground", which means one's own area in which soldiers can disperse easily when they fight with the enemy and it can be translated into "散地". 71.67% of them, that is, 86 students could correctly translate it. 15% of them, that is, 18 students mistranslated it due to their lack of the language skills or the knowledge about Sun Tzu culture. And 13.33% of them, that is, 16 students did not know how to translate it.

The second phrase is "heavy chariot" that can be translated into "革车", "重车"or "守车". None of the research subjects could specifically translate it into Chinese. But 53.33% of them, that is, 64 students translated it into "重型战车/车辆" whose meaning is correct. And 33.33% of them, that is, 40 students just translated it into "(大型)战车", whose meaning is much wider than "重车". And 6.67% of them, that is, 8 students mistranslated it due to their lack of English language skills or the knowledge about Sun Tzu culture. And 6.67% of them, that is, 8 students did not know how to translate it.

The third phrase is "five-man squad" that should be translated into "伍", which is composed of five soldiers and is the smallest unit in the army of ancient China. Only 5% of them, that is, 6 students could correctly translate it and 35% of them, that is, 42 students translated it into "五人小组/班/小队" whose meaning is right whereas the Chinese expression is not so accurate because of their lack of the knowledge about the army in ancient China. 43.33% of them, that is, 52 students mistranslated it and 16.67% of them, that is, 20 students did not know how to translate it.

The fourth phrase is "ghosts and spirits" that should be translated into "鬼神". The translation of this phrase is much better than the previous ones. 66.67% of them, that is, 80 students could correctly translate it and 33.33% of them, that is, 40 students could use similar expressions, like "鬼魂", "精灵", "魂魄", "鬼怪", etc.

The fifth phrase is "the ninefold heavens" that should be translated into "九天", which is a hyperbole used to refer to something extremely high. 15% of them, that is, 18 students could correctly translate it and 61.67% of them, that is, 64 students used the similar expression "九重天". And 20% of them, that is, 24 students mistranslated it and 3.33% of them, that is, 4 students did not know how to translate it.

3. Translate Chinese sentences into English

In this part, there are five sentences concerning five kinds of culture: ecology, material culture, social culture, religious culture and linguistic culture. The research subjects did not do very well in this part. Because of their lack of ancient Chinese, they could not completely understand the sentences. For example, they even translated "绝涧" into "vast Jian"; "天陷" into "day in"; "天罗" into "day gap"; "一钟" into "a clock"; "一石" into "a stone"; "司命" into "kitchen god"; "其徐如林" into "Xu Rulin"; "动如雷震" into "like Lei Zhen", etc., which are all wrong translations. This shows that the knowledge of the source language—ancient Chinese is the essential part in cross-cultural communication. If students want to successfully transmit Sun Tzu culture to the outside world, first they need to get familiar with ancient Chinese and the Chinese copy of *The Art of War*.

4. Introduce *The Art of War*

In this part, among the 120 research subjects, 35% of them, that is, 42 students could not introduce it in English and 5% of them, that is, 6 students could only write one or two sentences. And 60% of them, that is, 72 students could write the introduction in about 100 words. However, due to the lack of English language skills or the knowledge about Sun Tzu culture, there are some mistakes in their introduction, including misspelling, grammatical mistakes, vocabulary mistakes, and mistakes about the content. For example, some students made mistakes about the state of Sun Wu and some confused *The Art of War* and 36 military strategies.

Based on the results of the test, two factors——the lack of knowledge about Chinese culture and also the proficiency of English language hinder their performance in the test.

B.   Results and Analysis of Questionnaire

After the test, the author distributed the questionnaires to the research subjects who were asked to answer the questions according to their performances in the previous test. A total of 120 questionnaires was issued, and 102 questionnaires were recovered. The recovery rate was 85%.

The questionnaire is composed of four parts. The first part is about research subjects' attitudes and mastery of the English expression of Chinese culture and its teaching. The second part is about research subjects' attitudes and mastery of the English expression of Sun Tzu culture and its teaching.

1. Chinese culture and its teaching

Questions 1 to 7 are designed to learn about research subjects' attitudes towards Chinese culture and their mastery of the corresponding English expressions. Questions 8 to 18 are designed to know about research subjects' ways of learning the English expressions of Chinese culture and also its teaching.

Except the question 6,7,15,16,17,18, in this part all the other questions have five choices: strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, strongly disagree, which are respectively marked 5 points, 4 points, 3 points, 2 points, 1 point. Then the author typed the data into SPSS 19.0 and made the descriptive analysis with the software. And then the proportion of each option chosen and its mean value and standard deviation were calculated by the SPSS software. The results can be shown clearly in the following tables.

TABLE 1
ATTITUDE TOWARDS CHINESE CULTURE AND MASTERY OF ITS ENGLISH EXPRESSION

	strongly agree	agree	not sure	disagree	strongly disagree	mean value	standard deviation
1. You are greatly interested in Chinese culture.	35.29%	37.25%	21.57%	3.92%	1.96%	4.00	.959
2. You know Chinese culture very well.	7.84%	25.49%	45.1%	21.57%	0%	3.20	.872
3. You are willing to introduce Chinese culture to foreigners.	58.82%	33.33%	7.84%	0%	0%	4.51	.644
4. You think that besides learning English language it is necessary to learn about the English expressions of Chinese culture.	56.86%	41.18%	0%	1.96%	0%	4.53	.612
5. You can fluently introduce Chinese culture in English.	1.92%	11.76%	33.33%	41.18%	11.76%	2.57	.922

From table 1, it can be seen that most of the research subjects are interested in Chinese culture and are willing to introduce Chinese culture to foreigners and think that it is necessary to learn about the English expression of Chinese culture. Although they have the willing to learn about it, the truth is only 7.84% of them know Chinese culture very well and the number of students who can introduce Chinese culture in English very fluently is even smaller, 1.92%. Another point is that all the research subjects believe they know Chinese culture in various degrees but 11.76% of them strongly disagree that they can fluently introduce Chinese culture in English. From the comparison it can be seen that the main problem is they cannot master the English expression of Chinese culture. There are still and 21.57% of them who disagree that they know Chinese culture very well and 45.1% of them who are not sure about it. This also reveals another problem, that is, most of the English majors who are also Chinese native speakers actually know little about Chinese culture. It is a big problem that needs both teachers and students' attention. In the English teaching, for a long time, too much attention has been given to English culture and the Chinese culture has been neglected.

Question 6 and 7 are designed to know about the difficulties of research subjects in expressing Chinese culture in English. The research subjects can choose more than one option.

TABLE 2
FACTORS CAUSING DIFFICULTY IN EXPRESSING CHINESE CULTURE IN ENGLISH

	lacking cultural knowledge	lacking proficiency of English language	other
6. What factor(s) make(s) you feel difficult to express Chinese culture in English?	43.14%	52.94%	3.92%

From Table 2 it can be seen that the two factors: lacking cultural knowledge and lacking proficiency of English language both hinder their expression of Chinese culture in English. And the second factor is little bigger than the second one. This demonstrates that English majors not only need to acquire the knowledge about Chinese culture but also to improve their English language skills.

TABLE 3
THE CATEGORIES OF CHINESE CULTURE THAT ARE DIFFICULT IN EXPRESSING

	ecology	material culture	social culture	religious culture	linguistic culture
7. Which kind of Chinese culture makes you feel difficult when you express it in English?	54.9%	56.86%	58.82%	84.31%	58.82%

From Table 3 it can be seen that among the five categories of Chinese culture, religious culture is the most difficult for English majors because of their lack of the knowledge about Chinese religious culture and the number of the other categories are similar.

TABLE 4
THE TEACHING OF CHINESE CULTURE

	strongly agree	agree	not sure	disagree	strongly disagree	mean value	standard deviation
8. You often learn about the English expressions of Chinese culture when you study English.	7.84%	39.22%	23.53%	27.45%	1.96%	3.24	1.012
9. In your English class, your English teachers often teach the English expressions of Chinese culture.	3.92%	54.9%	11.76%	27.45%	1.96%	3.31	.990
10. The knowledge you get about English language is quite useful in introduction of Chinese culture to foreigners.	13.73%	41.18%	27.45%	13.73%	3.92%	3.47	1.027
11. You feel that it is necessary to open the Chinese culture course.	41.18%	49.02%	3.92%	1.96%	3.92%	4.22	.923
12. You are quite satisfied with the proportion of Chinese culture in English courses.	7.84%	54.9%	13.73%	21.57%	1.96%	3.45	.986
13. You are quite satisfied with the teaching of Chinese culture in English courses.	7.84%	56.86%	9.8%	23.53%	1.96%	3.45	1.006
14. You think that the English class should include Chinese culture.	52.94%	45.1%	0%	1.96%	0%	4.49	.612

From Table 4 it can be seen that the research subjects can learn about the English expression of Chinese culture and most of them can learn about it in English class which can help them in the introduction of Chinese culture to foreigners. The majority of them feel that it is necessary to open the Chinese culture course and Chinese culture should be included in English courses. And they are satisfied with the proportion of Chinese culture in English courses and its teaching.

TABLE 5
WAYS OF LEARNING CHINESE CULTURE

	teachers' teaching	television, movies or broadcasting	books, magazines or newspapers	the internet	lecture on different subjects	other
15. How do you learn the English expressions of Chinese culture?	72.55%	70.59%	62.75%	64.71%	5.88%	1.96%

From Table 5 it can be seen that the largest number of research subjects learn the English expressions of Chinese culture though teachers' teaching and the next is television, movies or broadcasting and the next ones are Internet, books, magazines or newspapers and lecture on different subjects according to the number of each option. This shows the significance of teaching in class and the guidance of students' self-study.

TABLE 6
WAYS TO DEAL WITH THE UNFAMILIAR CHINESE CULTURE

	guess according to the context	ask teachers	discuss with classmates	refer to relevant information	ignore it
16. What will you do when you come across unfamiliar Chinese culture?	64.71%	29.41%	41.18%	74.51%	13.73%

Table 6 are the ways of research subjects to deal with the unfamiliar Chinese culture. It is satisfying that 74.51% of them will refer to relevant information when they meet difficulties but there are still 64.71% of them will guess according to the context and 13.73% of them will just ignore it. This shows that besides teachers' teaching, the study habit is another important factor in English majors' leaning of Chinese culture.

TABLE 7
FACTORS INFLUENCING THE KNOWLEDGE ABOUT THE ENGLISH EXPRESSIONS OF CHINESE CULTURE

	heavy burden of study and having no time to know about it	being of little help to language study	not being tested in examinations	having no interest	teachers' paying little attention to it
17. Which factor(s) most influence you to know about the English expressions of Chinese culture?	72.55%	31.37%	52.94%	31.37%	13.73%

Table 7 are the factors influencing the knowledge about the English expressions of Chinese culture. 72.55% of research subjects think that they have a heavy burden of study and have no time to study other things. The second important factor is that Chinese culture is not included in examinations. And 31.37% of them are not interested in the English expressions of Chinese culture and 31.37% of them think that it is of little help to language study. Therefore, the examination system and English majors' attitudes towards Chinese culture should be improved.

TABLE 8
FAVORITE WAYS OF TEACHING CHINESE CULTURE

	teachers' lecture in class	group work	comparison between Chinese and English culture	lectures on different subjects after class	other
18. What is your favorite way of teaching Chinese culture?	64.71%	60.78%	72.55%	25.49%	5.88%

Table 8 shows English majors' favorite ways of teaching Chinese culture. They like the direct way of comparison between Chinese and English culture most and the following two ones are teachers' lecture in class and group work. Compared with the lectures after class, students prefer the lecture in class, which shows the significance of teaching in class and teachers should scientifically design the teaching content and teaching methods.

2. Sun Tzu culture and its teaching

Question 19-28 are designed to know about research subjects' attitudes towards Sun Tzu culture and their mastery of the corresponding English expressions. Question 29-32 are designed to learn about research subjects' ways of learning the English expressions of Sun Tzu culture and also the teaching.

Except the question 28, 29,30,32, in this part all the other questions have five choices: strongly agree, agree, not sure, disagree, strongly disagree, which are respectively marked 5 points, 4 points, 3 points, 2 points, 1 point. Then the author typed the data into SPSS 19.0 and made the descriptive analysis with the software. And then the proportion of each option and its mean value and standard deviation were calculated by the SPSS software. The results can be shown clearly in the following tables.

TABLE 9
KNOWLEDGE ABOUT SUN TZU CULTURE

	strongly agree	agree	not sure	disagree	strongly disagree	mean value	standard deviation
19. You are greatly interested in *The Art of War*.	5.88%	35.29%	27.45%	27.45%	3.92%	3.12	1.013
20. You feel that it is necessary to know about *The Art of War*.	15.69%	49.02%	13.73%	19.61%	1.96%	3.57	1.044
21. You know *The Art of War very well*.	0%	15.69%	29.41%	39.22%	15.69%	2.45	.945
22. You are willing to introduce *The Art of War* to foreigners.	29.41%	37.25%	23.53%	9.8%	0%	3.86	.960
23. You are greatly interested in the English expressions of Sun Tzu culture.	9.8%	35.29%	31.37%	17.65%	5.88%	3.25	1.055
24. You are quite familiar with the English version of *The Art of War*.	3.92%	7.84%	19.61%	37.26%	31.37%	2.16	1.084
25. As a Chinese and an English major of Binzhou University, you feel that it is necessary to know about the English expressions of Sun Tzu culture.	25.49%	50.98%	9.8%	9.8%	3.92%	3.84	1.046
26. As a Chinese and an English major of Binzhou University, you feel that you have responsibility to introduce Sun Tzu culture to the world and propagandize Binzhou City.	35.29%	47.06%	11.76%	3.92%	1.96%	4.10	.900
27. You can introduce *The Art of War* in English fluently.	7.84%	5.88%	19.61%	37.25%	29.41%	2.25	1.181

From Table 9 it can be seen that 41.17% of English majors are interested in Sun Tzu culture and 64.71% of them feel that it is necessary to know about *The Art of War* and 66.66% of them are willing to introduce Sun Tzu culture to foreigners. However, none of them know it very well and only 13.72% of them can introduce *The Art of War* in English fluently. 45.09% of them are interested in the English expressions of Sun Tzu culture, whereas only 11.76% of them are familiar with it. What is satisfying is that most of them feel that it is necessary to know about it and they have the responsibility to introduce Sun Tzu culture to the world as Chinese and English majors of Binzhou University.

TABLE 10
FACTORS CAUSING DIFFICULTY IN EXPRESSING SUN TZU CULTURE IN ENGLISH

	lacking cultural knowledge	lacking proficiency of English language	not knowing ancient Chinese language	other
28. What factor(s) make(s) you feel difficult to express Sun Tzu culture in English?	33.33%	31.37%	33.33%	1.96%

Table 10 shows the factors causing difficulty in expressing Sun Tzu culture in English. The numbers of three factors are similar. The lack of the knowledge about Sun Tzu culture and ancient Chinese language and lack of proficiency of English language result in their difficulty in expressing Sun Tzu culture in English

TABLE 11
WAYS OF LEARNING SUN TZU CULTURE

	teachers' teaching	television, movies or broadcasting	books, magazines or newspapers	the internet	lecture on different subjects	tourist resorts	other
29. How do you learn the English expressions of Sun Tzu culture?	64.71%	54.9%	74.47%	76.47%	27.45%	19.61%	3.92%

Table 11 reveals the ways of English majors' learning of Sun Tzu culture, in which the self-study through books, magazines, newspapers and internet are the most important two factors. Thus, besides teachers' teaching, the guidance of their self-study is equally significant.

TABLE 12
FACTORS INFLUENCING THE KNOWLEDGE OF THE ENGLISH EXPRESSION OF SUN TZU CULTURE

	heavy burden of study and having no time to know about it	being of little help to language study	being not directly tested in examinations	having no interest	having no courses about it in the university
30. What influences your knowledge of the English expressions of Sun Tzu culture?	70.59%	37.25%	60.78%	27.45%	27.45%

From Table 12 it can be seen that the biggest factor influencing students' knowledge of the English expressions of Sun Tzu culture is the heavy burden of study and the next biggest one is being not directly tested in examinations. And 37.25% of them think that it is of little help to language study and 27.45% of them are not interested in the English expressions of Sun Tzu culture. Therefore, the examination system and English majors' attitudes towards Sun Tzu culture should be improved.

TABLE 13
THE NECESSITY OF OPENING THE TRANSLATION COURSE ABOUT *THE ART OF WAR*

	strongly agree	agree	not sure	disagree	strongly disagree	mean value	standard deviation
31. You think that it is necessary to open the translation course about *The Art of War*.	23.53%	21.57%	25.49%	17.65%	11.76%	3.27	1.328

From Table 13 it can be seen that 45.1% of English majors agree that the translation course about *The Art of War* should be opened, which reveals that they realize the necessity of mastery of the translation of *The Art of War* and hope to learn it systematically in class.

TABLE 14
TEACHING OF SUN TZU CULTURE

	teachers' lecture in class	group work	comparison between Chinese and English culture	teachers give lectures on different subjects after class	other
32. What way(s) of teaching Sun Tzu culture do you like?	60.78%	43.14%	68.63%	17.65%	3.92%

Table 14 shows research subjects' most favorite way of teaching Sun Tzu culture is the direct way of comparison between Chinese and English culture most and the next one is teachers' lecture in class. And the following one is group work. Compared with the lectures after class, students prefer to acquire knowledge in class, which also reveals the importance of teaching in class. Table 14 may give implication for teachers in their teaching of Sun Tzu culture.

V. SUGGESTIONS

A. The Syllabus

In the present syllabus of Binzhou University for English majors, there is only one course about Chinese culture, which has only 32 class hours in the four years and students do not pay much attention to the course. Based on the above questionnaire, students mainly get the knowledge from teachers' teaching, so the course about Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture and its translation should be added in the syllabus and its class hours should also be increased.

B. The Examination

Based on the above questionnaire, many students do not pay much attention to Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture because they are not tested in the examinations. As a matter of fact, the translation of Chinese culture is already included in College English Test for non-English majors, while in Test for English Majors Chinese culture still does not get much attention. English majors have more chances to introduce Chinese culture to the outside world, so Chinese culture should be added in the examinations for English majors, not only the proficiency test but also the test of the courses they have, such as intensive reading, extensive reading, listening, speaking, translation, etc. And in Binzhou University, the only comprehensive university in the hometown of Sun Tzu, the specialty of Sun Tzu culture should be revealed and Sun Tzu culture can be included in the examinations as well.

C. The Teaching

Based on the above test and questionnaire, most of English majors cannot fluently express Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture and since much of their knowledge comes from class, teachers should consciously add Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture in the class. About the way of teaching, we can refer to the above questionnaire: comparison between Chinese and English culture, translation, group work, etc. This is what we should do in class. About the extracurricular teaching, we can organize various kinds of activities, such as lectures on different topics about culture (ecology, material culture, social culture, religious culture, linguistic culture), the debate about Sun Tzu culture, the contest about translation of Sun Tzu culture and social practice (visiting the tourist resorts about Sun Tzu culture, visiting inheritors of intangible cultural heritage to know more about Chinese culture, etc.).

D.   Teachers

In the universities, some teachers, especially young teachers themselves lack the knowledge about Chinese culture because of the education they received before. Therefore, in order to pass on adequate knowledge to students, teachers themselves should acquire enough knowledge about Chinese culture and as the teachers in Binzhou University, they should also know about Sun Tzu culture. Only in this way, students can acquire the knowledge form teachers and improve their mastery of Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture.

E.   Students

Based on the above questionnaire, there are still some students not interested in Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture. About this problem, we should try to arouse students' cultural consciousness. As Chinese and English majors, they shoulder the responsibility to introduce Chinese culture to the outside. At present, cultures of the world begin to integrate with each other. If we want to keep our glorious culture, we should be aware of our cultural identity and transmit it to the world. Therefore, in the translation we should always remember the responsibility and take proper translation methods. On the other hand, there are a large number of students who get the knowledge from television, movies, broadcasting, books, magazines, newspapers or the internet. However, many of them do not have a good study habit. Therefore, teachers should try to improve students' self-study ability and give the guidance to help them develop a good study habit.

VI.   CONCLUSION

China has 5000 years of history in which Chinese people created glorious culture. Sun Tzu culture is an indispensible part of it. As Chinese and English majors, students of Binzhou University shoulder the responsibility to introduce Chinese culture and Sun Tzu culture to the world. However, based on the above research, their mastery of the corresponding English expressions is not satisfactory. In order to improve the situation, efforts can be done in five aspects: the syllabus, the examination, the teaching, teachers and students. Only with joined efforts can students' ability to introduce Chinese culture and specifically Sun Tzu culture to the world be improved.

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Qianqian Wei was born in Jinan, China in 1982. She received her master's degree in English language and literature from Shandong University, China in 2007.

She is currently a lecturer in Foreign Languages Department, Binzhou University, Binzhou, China. Her research interests include translation and English teaching.

Ms. Wei won the third prize of Binzhou Social Science Outstanding Achievement Award.

Effect of Planning on Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Mastery of Writing Skill

Asgar Mahmoudi

Department of English Language, Ardabil Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ardabil, Iran

Abstract—**Accomplishing mastery in writing is difficult for EFL learners and needs employing special teaching strategies. Planning is one of the strategies that has been of interest to EFL researchers since a long time ago because it is believed that it affects learners' quality of writing. Planning can be looked at from three perspectives: its timing (before or during writing), its scope (micro or macro), and the number of people involved in it (individual or collaborative). This study focused on the third perspective and sought to explore if both individual and collaborative planning can improve EFL learners' writing quality. The study also investigated if these two types of planning impact on the components of writing (*content, organization, vocabulary, language use*) differentially. Utilizing a quasi-experimental design, two homogenized groups of 26 students all having the same L1 received an eight-session treatment. The Paired-samples T-tests run on the pretest and posttest scores of the participants indicated significant improvement in their writing performance. The Multivariate Analysis of Variance, comparing the four components of the writings, revealed that all four components were affected significantly with the content being affected more positively. Findings of the study highlight the importance of planning before writing tasks.**

Index Terms—**writing skill, collaborative planning, individual planning, writing components**

I. INTRODUCTION

Up to the end of 1960s, writing was considered to be secondary to speech and a reinforcing tool for learning vocabulary and grammar. Actually, it was dealt with as a vehicle for practicing language (Silva, 1990). Nevertheless, due to scientific advances, writing gradually became synonymous with composing, and the process of composition began to gain importance. Also, theoretical models emerged that aimed at providing teachers with guidelines about how to teach this skill. The presented models generally involved three basic systems: *Formulation*, *Execution* and *Monitoring*. According to Kellog's (1996) model, for example, each basic system has two processes. Formulation involves planning and translation; execution involves programming and executing; and monitoring involves reading and editing. As a result of such models, learners could be active and able to generate thoughts and ideas.

By the emergence of new trends in language learning, writing witnessed a great shift from the strictly product-focused concerns of correctness in grammar, usage, and mechanics to more process-focused concerns. As a process, writing is a meaningful activity for thinking and problem-solving and involves organizing and expressing thoughts, generating ideas, brainstorming, revising, and editing.

Since writing is a very complex cognitive activity, writers need to be in control of a host of variables all at the same time (Bell & Burnaby, 1984). This involves synthesizing or integrating information at the discourse level, in addition to the sentence level. It seems that writing is so intricate and difficult that even many native speakers of English never truly master it (Celce Murcia & McIntosh, 1979).

Consequently, the majority of learners consider writing as boring and are quite reluctant to produce written texts. In Iran, this skill should receive even more attention in EFL classrooms because it is a key element of giving and receiving information. Learners' linguistics ability is also usually measured by their written outputs. Accordingly, attention to anything that facilitates and improves EFL learners' writing processes, including planning time, seems essential.

Ellis (2005) states that planning influences the linguistic form. In order to attend to form and meaning equally, Willis (1991) suggests the pre-, mid- and post-task activities within task-based approaches to instruction. These kinds of tasks provide opportunities for achieving instructionally specified goals. In other words, to attain the desired pedagogic outcomes, some tasks may be more useful than others.

Planning is one of the task choices that can affect the quality of written assignments. As stated, there are three general types of planning: planning before or during writing, macro and micro planning, and planning individually or collaboratively. The last type of planning is the focus of this article. Unlike individual planning, collaborative planning supports group-based methods in instructional settings. Based on studies in the field, although positive effects have been found for individual planning, it is collaborative planning that consistently improves both educational and emotional status of learners (Johnson & Johnson, 1992).

Regardless of the type of writing, students need to introduce one main idea and come up with some chief points to support that idea. In addition, students need to develop the text through using reasons, examples, details, etc. Furthermore, learners need to offer information in an organized manner and to connect ideas through using appropriate

linking words or grammatical and lexical elements to help the reader understand the flow of ideas. All the elements should be integrated in order to create an acceptable and cohesive written text.

The above paragraph states the tenets of the approach that views text as an analyzable whole and is the basis of the scoring method suggested by Jacobs et al. (1981) called ESL Composition Profile. In this scoring procedure, writing components are summarized as content, organization, discourse, syntax, vocabulary, and punctuation. Analytic scoring measures learners' performance on each component and helps the writer find his/her knowledge gap properly.

Two research questions were investigated in this study:

1. Does planning have any effect on EFL learners' writing ability?

2. Which component of writing (content, organization, vocabulary, language use) is affected most by planning time?

The two null hypothesis below were driven from the above research questions:

H_{01}. Planning does not have any effect on EFL learners' writing ability.

H_{02}. Planning time does not affect writing components (content, organization, vocabulary, language use) differentially.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Pre-task planning enables learners to encounter the outline of the task they are going to perform so that they can go about the complete task with added facility and sophistication. It gives learners the chance to practice performing the task before the main performance. Within a task, planning can be manipulated based on the available time. This involves rapid planning (Ochs, 1979). In the context of speaking, Yuan and Ellis (2003) detected two new types of planning in the literature: macro-planning and micro-planning. These strategic planning types provide learners with access to more information and increase the complexity of their speech.

Planning engages students in implicit processes of acquisition. It is believed that providing learners with greater planning opportunities has beneficial effects on their language development through pushing them to extend what they are capable of doing with language (Foster & Skehan, 1999).

Recently there have been suggestions in the literature to incorporate collaboration, too, in second language acquisition studies. It is hypothesized that collaboration may lead to deeper reflection on form–meaning relationship as different viewpoints can cross-fertilize each other.

According to Foster and Skehan (1999), and as proponents of teacher-led planning say, in group-based collaborative planning the amount of time needed for agreeing on the way of doing the task may reduce, but performance may be negatively affected and be of little efficiency. Teacher control might be an efficient instrument for directing learners' focus on relevant items of the task.

Strategies which follow planning typically involve focused and unfocused instructions to students to plan their performance during the task. Foster and Skehan (1996) measured the influence of planning on doing different tasks. They reported greater complexity and fluency in language for planning without guidance in comparison to no-planning condition. But, they also reported superior effect for guided planning condition compared with the unguided planning condition, and marginally better fluency. They hypothesized that when planning is not guided, learners use preparation time to rehearse language; in contrast, the guided planners intensify the complexity of the task and sometimes the accuracy gets less attention (Foster & Skehan, 1996).

Considering the theoretical perspective behind collaborative learning, the theory dates back to the social constructivist view of Vygotsky (1978) stating that children learn by being scaffolded or mediated by more competent adults or peers. Scaffolding makes children be able to cope with tasks that they could never do on their own. Webb and Farivar (1994) point out that some children are often more cognizant of things that other children have problem understanding; These children can help the less cognizant ones to concentrate on the features that are relevant to the problem and can explain it to them in a readily accessible way. Children's interaction with each other also provides them with thinking, reasoning and problem-solving models provided by the more competent learners. These skills in turn foster the social construction of new understandings, knowledge and skills (King, 1999, as cited in Gillies & Ashman, 2003). Similar results were found in the study done by Foster and Ohta (2005) who demonstrated that language development is not limited to the interactive processes but also strategies such as negotiation of meaning, co-construction, other-correction, and continuers.

In group- or pair-work, children are more disposed to use L2 for teacher-initiated functions such as suggesting, questioning and providing feedback. Thus, collaborative work in any form may increase the quantity and quality of L2 practice that learners get involved in. In other words, assigning learners to work in groups provides more opportunities for practicing L2 (Ohta, 2001).

Kowal and Swain (1994) but are against pairing of students with different ability levels. They believe that such pairing, especially when the difference is large, may result in the less proficient learner being overwhelmed by the more proficient one. In other words, unequal proficiency pairing may be to the disadvantage of the less proficient learner. Along the same lines, Storch (2013) questions the usefulness of pairing students of unequal proficiency unless they work collaboratively. In a previous study, Storch (2005) had investigated collaborative writing in a classroom-based setting. Students were given a choice to write in pairs or individually. A comparison of the texts produced by pairs and

individual learners revealed that paired learners produced shorter but qualitatively more complex and accurate texts. According to the interviews from this study, most students were positive about the experience.

In 1981, Johnson and colleagues examined benefits of the cooperative learning in comparison to individual learning. They reviewed 122 studies to examine effects of the co-operative, competitive, and individualistic learning types on achievement. The results showed that, in comparison to interpersonal competition and individual work, cooperation stimulates higher achievement and productivity. The results, likewise, did not change across subject areas, age groups, and cognitive demands of the tasks.

Many scholars including Madsen (1983) and McCafferty (1992) assert that there are many elements to be considered in writing. These factors include form, content, vocabulary, grammatical accuracy, penmanship, speed, mechanics, relevance, elaboration, originality, dictation, lay out, coherence, cohesion, unity, organization, and logic. In this regard, Madsen (1983) enumerates a number of different components and skills to be tested in writing. For Stern (1992), vocabulary, structure, accuracy, and speed of script writing, spelling, punctuation, content, and organization of material are all elements of writing. Meanwhile, McCafferty (1992) suggests grammar, coherence, relevance, and structure of the argument as the essential attributes of a written task. Jacobs et al. (1981), proposed five components for writing. In this regard, based on ESL Composition Profile (1981), writing is viewed as a communicative skill with five components namely content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics.

It looks that, preparing an opportunity to focus on the main elements of written texts makes students pay attention to grammatical and lexical structures and try to include the main components in any kind of writing. Therefore, planning time to organize an essay first, as a distinctive step in the writing process, is an important part. Planning provides an opportunity to review writing elements and take the efficient linguistic knowledge. Directing students at the earlier stage helps them attend to specific points at the later stage.

Scott (1995, p. 139) argues that "teaching foreign language writing is essential at all levels of language study" if students are to succeed in managing the time and focusing on content, organization, language use, vocabulary, and mechanics as the main components.

In general, there are four major methods of scoring in writing assessment. These methods as studied by Bailey (1984) are:

1) Holistic scoring
2) Analytic method
3) Primary trait scoring
4) Frequency count method

Brown (2001) defined holistic scoring as "an approach in which the teachers use a single general scale to give a single rating for each student's language production" (p. 61). But holistic scoring of a written text has the disadvantage that it provides situations that students will not be aware of their knowledge gap. In contrast, in analytic scoring each component of the writing is scored according to a descriptor designed for that purpose. In primary trait scoring, each text is scored based on one trait that is considered to be primary, such as persuading. Frequency count is but based on determining word frequency. Taking all these scales into account it seems that, the analysis of each feature in a text can help students to be more aware of their lacks in writing. Therefore, the analytic rubric of Jacobs et al. (1981) was used in the rating stage of the present study which examined the writing performance of Persian speakers learning English language. According to this scale, each paper was rated on the writing components including *content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics* out of 100 (Content 30 points, Organization 20 points, Syntax 25 points, Vocabulary 20 points, Mechanics 5 points).

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 52 male and female Iranian university students. 26 of the participants were male and 26 female. The first language of all of the participants was Persian and their ages ranged from 20 to 25. Before taking part in the study, all of the participants had studied English for several years in different language schools and had completed at least two English conversation books.

Instruments

A simplified version of a proficiency test—taken from Top Notch/Summit Placement Test A (Saslow & Asher, 2006)—consisting of listening, reading, vocabulary, and grammar sections was prepared. The test included listening, reading, vocabulary, and grammar sections. For the listening section the participants had to listen to two audio texts and answer a few multiple-choice questions that followed them. The reading section consisted of one passage followed by true or false questions. And finally, the vocabulary and grammar sections measured the participants' general knowledge of these elements.

The test had already been given to a similar group of students and its reliability was established though running a Chronbach Alpha test. Every attempt was made to select items that were exactly directed at measuring the students' general English proficiency. Therefore, the test could also be considered to be valid. Other materials used included some writing topics for pretest and posttest and treatment sessions which were taken from the book '*How to Prepare for the TOEFL Essay*' Edited by *Abbas Zahedi* (2002).

Data Collection Procedure

Out of 190 randomly chosen students who took the placement test, 52 intermediate students were included in the study. These students were randomly divided into two groups each with 26 members of both genders. After dividing the participants into two mixed groups, the groups were further subdivided into two male and female groups each. The participants were divided into male and female groups because four groups were needed to carry out the research, but according to regulations of the Ministry of Education in Iran, male and female students cannot be put in the same class in language institutes. Therefore, there were four groups, two male groups and two female groups each with 13 students. Participants in all of the four groups then received the pretest for writing. They were required to write a 100- to 150-word text about one of the two topics given to them. When the pretest scores were collected, a One-way ANOVA was run on them to see if the groups were homogeneous. The groups were not significantly different from each other in terms of their writing ability and result of the Levene's Equality of Error Variance test, which is performed as part of ANOVA, revealed that there was no significant difference across the four groups (P=.071>.05, df=3, 48, F=2.490) in terms of the scores dispersion.

After these preliminary stages, eight treatment sessions were held in each group. In each gender category, students in one group worked individually and in the other collaboratively, that is, they were paired up. In the collaborative groups, the students chose their own partners and had the opportunity of collaborative planning throughout the treatment sessions and during the posttest. However, after planning, each learner wrote individually about the topic he or she had selected.

Treatment Sessions and Scoring Procedure

During the treatment sessions, the participants were first given some information about the components of ESL composition. These components included *content, organization, vocabulary,* and *language use*. Then, a topic was given to them and they were asked to plan (one male and one female groups individually, and the other two groups in pairs) and produce a 100- to 150-word text about it. The teacher, afterwards, provided the learners with analytic feedback about each of the writing components. Each written text was assessed on each of these multiple dimensions by some qualitative criteria from *Excellent* to *Very Poor*. In this way, the learners had the chance of knowing about their strengths and weaknesses.

In addition to actual writing during the first four treatment sessions, the learners were also taught about the structure of topic sentence, supporting sentences, paragraph unity, different kinds of paragraphs (description, cause & effect, argumentation, and comparison & contrast) and the required expressions for each of these paragraph types.

During the two following sessions the students were taught on how to appropriately use mechanics including indentation, capitalization, comma, semicolon, etc. Finally, in the last two sessions, the learners were provided with some useful grammatical as well as word formation information and appropriate formulaic expressions.

Since assessing written texts in terms of quantitative results needs precision, scoring the participants' written productions in this study was done on the basis of Jacobs et al.'s (1981) scoring profile. According to this assessment profile, each text is scored out of 100. This analytic scoring measures learners' written performance on the five components of *content, organization, vocabulary, language use,* and *mechanics*. The maximum score assigned to each component based on Jacobs et al.'s descriptor is as the following: Content 30 points, Organization 20 points, Language use 25 points, Vocabulary use 20 points, and finally Mechanics 5 points.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

To investigate effects of the treatments, some statistical analyses were performed. First of all, normality of scores in the pretest was checked through running a 1-sample K-S test. The following table shows the results of this test for all four groups.

TABLE 1
TESTS OF NORMALITY OF SCORES' DISTRIBUTIONS AT PRETEST

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test				
	male individual pretest	male collaborative pretest	female individuals pretest	female collaborative pretest
N	13	13	13	13
Test Statistic	.135	.118	.133	.215
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.200[c,d]	.200[c,d]	.200[c,d]	.102[c]

a. Test distribution is Normal.

Then, a One-way ANOVA accompanied by a Levene's homogeneity test was run. The purposes of running these tests were to first ascertain that the mean scores of the groups were not substantially different from each other and second to make sure that the groups' variances were almost equal at the beginning of the study.

pretest scores	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	961.135	3	320.378	2.490	.071
Within Groups	6175.846	48	128.663		
Total	7136.981	51			

The ANOVA test conducted on the pretest scores showed no significant difference among the groups' pretest scores at $P=.07>.05$ level. The accompanying Levene's test of equality of error variances or the homogeneity test also revealed that the groups of the study were comparable with each other, since the *Sig* value calculated, as represented in Table 3, was larger than .05.

TABLE 3
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

Levene's Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.554	3	48	.648

One of the main objectives of this study was to see if planning had any effect on the participating EFL learners' writing ability. To test the related hypothesis, the participants' posttest scores were also entered into the statistical program and Paired-samples T-tests were run. The purpose of running these tests was to compare the groups' pretest and posttest means. Results of the tests are given in Table 4 below. The *Sig.* values in Table 4 show significant differences between the pretest and posttest scores of the all four groups at $P<0.001$ level. In other words, the participants made significant gains from the pretests to the posttests as a result of treatments. To understand about the strength of the differences between the pretest and posttest results, it was also necessary to calculate the effect sizes. The formula for the effect size calculation for paired-samples T-tests is $t^2/t^2 + (N-1)$. The calculated effect sizes for the groups in this study using information from Table 4 are given below the same Table. As can be seen, the strengths of the differences in individual planning situations both for male and female students are slightly higher than the strengths of the differences in collaborative groups but in both conditions the differences are very strong according to Cohen's (1988) criteria for interpreting effect sizes.

TABLE 4
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TESTS SHOWING GROUPS' PROGRESS FROM PRETEST TO POSTTEST

		Paired Differences						Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% (CI)				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Lower	Upper	t	df	
Pair 1	male individual pretest - male individual posttest	-17.61538	6.62745	-21.62031	-13.61046	-9.583	12	.000
Pair 2	male collaborative pretest - male collaborative posttest	-19.15385	10.05689	-25.23116	-13.07653	-6.867	12	.000
Pair 3	female individuals pretest - female individual posttest	-19.30769	8.49887	-24.44351	-14.17188	-8.191	12	.000
Pair 4	female collaborative pretest - female collaborative posttest	-15.15385	7.50385	-19.68837	-10.61932	-7.281	12	.000

Effect size for male individual planning group: 91.78/91.78 + (14) = .87
Effect size for male collaborative planning group: 47.61/47.61+ (14) = .77
Effect size for female individual planning group: 67.24/67.24 + (14) = .83
Effect size for female collaborative planning group: 53/53 + (14) = .79

Another purpose of this study was to see which component of writing was affected by planning type or whether they were affected differentially. It should be noted that during the treatment sessions some detailed data were collected from the participants in terms of their performance on different components of writing. These components included content, organization, vocabulary, and language use. To see which component of writing was affected by planning time, we had to run a One-way MANOVA. However, MANOVA has some assumptions that should be satisfied before running the test. The first of these assumptions is multivariate normality which is examined by calculating Mahallonobis distance. The result of this test is given in Table 5. For four dependent variables, the maximum Mahal distance calculated should not exceed 18.47. But, our maximum Mahal value is slightly larger than 26 which means we have had outliers among our participants. In such cases, Pallant (2013) suggests examining Cook's distance to see if it exceeds 2 or even more stringently 1. Cook's distance gives us an estimate of the effect of outliers on the normality of the multivariate distribution. Fortunately, the maximum value for this test in our table is equal to .778 which is smaller than one. This finding puts us on a safe ground to continue with our analysis.

TABLE 5
TESTS OF MULTIVARIATE NORMALITY

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mahal. Distance	.366	26.070	3.923	4.937	52
Cook's Distance	.005	.778	.033	.107	52

a. Dependent Variable: individual and collaborative

Another assumption of MANOVA is homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. The Box's test tells us whether we have violated this assumption or not. The *Sig* value in this table should be larger than .001. The *Sig* value we have calculated, as shown in table 6, indicates that we have not violated this assumption.

TABLE 6
BOX'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF COVARIANCE MATRICES

Box's M	22.555
F	2.060
df1	10
df2	11952.191
Sig.	.024

The last assumption of MANOVA that should be examined, in addition to the common assumptions of general linear models, is the homogeneity of error variances. This assumption is tested by Levene's test. The *Sig* value calculated for each level of the dependent variable should exceed .05 for this assumption to be met. This was the case in this study as shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7
HOMOGENEITY TESTS OF DEPENDENT VARIABLES (LEVENE'S TEST)

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
content	.164	1	50	.687
organization	1.546	1	50	.219
vocabulary	3.416	1	50	.070
language use	.451	1	50	.505

Tables 8 and 9, that is, Multivariate Tests and Tests of Between-Subjects Effects show the results of a One-way MANOVA which was used to investigate the second hypothesis.

TABLE 8
DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GROUPS ON A LINEAR COMBINATION OF DEPENDENT VARIABLES (MULTIVARIATE TESTS)

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Planning Type	Pillai's Trace	.254	4.008[b]	4.000	47.000	.007
	Wilks' Lambda	.746	4.008[b]	4.000	47.000	.007
	Hotelling's Trace	.341	4.008[b]	4.000	47.000	.007
	Roy's Largest Root	.341	4.008[b]	4.000	47.000	.007

TABLE 9
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Planning Type	content	99.692	1	99.692	15.359	.000	.235
	organization	6.942	1	6.942	6.958	.011	.122
	vocabulary	3.769	1	3.769	9.280	.004	.157
	language use	23.558	1	23.558	9.311	.004	.157

According to the results in Table 8, there has indeed been an effect for planning. But, it is clear only from Table 9 that content has been affected the most followed by language use, vocabulary, and organization. These comparisons can be made by looking at *F, Sig, and Partial Eta Squared* values in the relevant columns in Table 6. The results, therefore, force us to reject the second null hypothesis of the study which hypothesized no difference in the effect of planning type on writing components.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to find out if planning had any effect on EFL learners' writing ability, as well as to see which component of writing (content, organization, vocabulary, language use) was affected most by the planning type. Results of the analysis revealed significant differences between pretest and posttest scores which meant planning had a positive effect on EFL learners' writing performance. This suggested that if learners are given planning time before writing, whether individually or collaboratively, they will produce more accurate and more appropriate texts. These results are in accordance with the previous studies that reported benefits for planning before writing (e.g., Foster & Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Ojima, 2006; Storch, 2005). Findings of this study but contradicted some of the previous studies (e.g.,

Elola & Oskoz, 2010, Nixon, 2007; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009) which reported more effect for collaborative planning in comparison with individual planning. In general, findings of this study revealed that through planning EFL learners are able to produce more organized texts with better content, grammatical accuracy, vocabulary, and organization regardless of what type of planning they are involved in.

Concerning second hypothesis of the study, it is said that learners largely focus on meaning rather than form when they are given planning time before writing (e.g., Crookes, 1989; Gilabert, 2005; Ortega, 1999; Wigglesworth, 1997). Even though the grammatical accuracy of the students in this study was improved, the most highly affected aspect of their writing was content which is in a way in conformity with the findings of these studies. In brief, in the present study, all planners improved a lot in going through the writing tasks. More specifically, they tended to focus on meaning and planed the content of their writings more than any other component. Because of the lack of control groups, no comparison was made between planners and non-planners. However, from the very strong effect sizes, it can be speculated that planners would perform better than non-planners. This, of course, needs empirical proof.

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Asgar Mahmoudi is an assistant professor of ELT at Islamic Azad University, Ardabil Branch, Iran. He teaches different courses for PhD and MA students at this university. His areas of Interest are research methodology, studies in second language acquisition, applied linguistics, and curriculum development.

Research on the Student-centered Learning in Mass Media Reading course[*]

Xue Zheng

Foreign Language School of Southwestern Petroleum University, Chengdu, China

Abstract—**With China's impressive development in all fields, the need for all-round talents is becoming increasingly eminent. The society and our country demand that university students should not only be an expert in their own specialization, but also they be able to communicate cross cultures. Mass Media Reading course, as an integral part of the university English courses, is designed to serve that purpose. Through this course, students are supposed to broaden their minds and push forward the frontiers of knowledge by learning the culturally-loaded information embedded in the foreign news. They are also expected to sharpen their minds by exchanges of ideas and by comparing different perspectives. They are to hone their skills in English reading, speaking and translation through this course. The current course design is not successful in fulfilling all the purposes, and previous classroom performance shows the students are reluctant to receive new information and know the outside world through newspaper reading which they think is beyond their reach. However, studies and papers analyzing this issue are lacking. Therefore, research on how to improve students' enthusiasm and motivation in this course should be conducted. This paper tries to shed some light on the modes of student-centered learning that arouse students' interest in and enthusiasm for this course. Hopefully, this will be helpful to the teachers and students learning this course.**

Index Terms—**Mass Media Reading course, student-centered learning, modes of teaching**

I. INTRODUCTION

This research is conducted based on the case of Mass Media Reading course at Southwestern Petroleum University, which is open for students who have passed the College English Test Band Four. College English Syllabus (For Trial Implementation) requires that the reading comprehension for non-English majors should be that they can read and understand some newspapers and magazines of common fields in English-speaking countries, with a reading speed of 80 word per minute. (chen zhongli, 2013). However, the fact fails the requirement. Problems about learning and teaching in this course remain to be solved.

A. Introduction to the Current Mass Media Reading Class

The Mass Media Reading course, being one of the most important English courses in the university, covers 32 classroom hours in one semester, with a large number of registration each year. Students have high expectations of this course and yet most of them regard it overwhelming to learn. The contrast of their expectation and their academic performance of this course at the end has led to a decline in the registration number. Changes and measures are to be made to encourage more students to learn and enjoy this course.

1. The purpose of Mass Media Reading course

Today, this era of information is asking China to get further integrated into the global community, and that people should learn to analyze problems, and make the best use of their opportunities by getting a whole picture of this world. In this sense, it is important and necessary that the students should learn English well and understand how the world changes and develops via newspapers, broadcasting, television, and the internet in a timely fashion.

The course is designed to promote the students' cultural awareness, enhance their pragmatic English skills, especially in reading and writing which may, to some extent, help them pass the exams such as CET6, postgraduate entrance exam, TOEFL, IELTS and the like.

2. The current teaching mode of this course

The current teaching mode is teacher-centered, in which the teacher's lecture takes up most of the time in the classroom, with the students trying very hard to comprehend the teacher's words. A book is used to provide "news" of the past, and the teacher, as they do in some other English courses, talk about the background information, the glossary, the structure, the difficult sentences and translation in the text. At intervals, questions are asked and reluctantly answered, with little passion and enthusiasm shown. Students barely open the textbook outside the classroom.

3. The problems existing

The current teaching mode puts the teacher in a predicament in which great efforts and time are committed to the preparations before and in the class on one hand, in the hope that students find it informative, enlightening as well as

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intriguing; on the other hand, nevertheless, the students, who already passed the CET4 always complain that this course is intimidating and at the end of this semester, the efficacy of this course is deeply doubted. They can only remember some words and sentences, maybe sometimes a few names of certain people. But that is all.

The problems derive from many aspects: first, only 32 classroom hours are allocated to this course for only one semester, which makes it impossible to cover enough useful information that are needed to form a basic frame of western culture, besides, many of the passages in the book are hardly discussed; second, the choice of words, the involved sentences in the passages only damp down the students' passion for study, not to mention their self motivation; third, since the teacher controls the class, does most of the lecturing, asking and answering most of the questions, it is only logical that the students take in the knowledge passively, which greatly reduces the effectiveness of their learning. (Ross, D. D., Bondy, E., Gallingane, C., & Hambacher, E. 2008, accessed 16/10/2016 from http://search.proquest.com/docview/210394221?accountid=15017)They do not have their own opinion on certain news or events, they are used to waiting for the answer instead of getting their brains in gear. Worse still, some will skip the abstruse part of the passage; last but not least, a clear mechanism of mass media reading can not be formulated so that the students find their performance unsatisfactory.

As a major English course in universities, Mass Media Reading has enjoyed very little attention, especially ways of how to highlight students' initiative in this learning process and researches on modifications of teaching mode in this course are barely studied. This research, based on the course in SWPU, tries to shed some light on any improvements that can be made in the classroom management, student participation, and shapes of lecture.

B.   Introduction to Student-centered Learning Theory

The study on how students learn began long time ago, yet most of the studies center on the role of the teachers in the classroom. The middle of the 19th century witnessed the preliminary development of student-centered learning in the United States. However, China lags behind the western countries in exploring students' role in the learning process, and researches on the significance of the students' active participation, requirements of the class, their problem-solving abilities, and their creativity in the process of learning. And recently more attention has been diverted to this aspect of study.

Rogers wrote that "the only learning which significantly influences behavior [and education] is self discovered". Student-centered learning, also known as learner-centered education, broadly encompasses methods of teaching that shift the focus of instruction from the teacher to the student. In original usage, student-centered learning aims to develop learner autonomy and independence by putting responsibility for the learning path in the hands of students. Student-centered instruction focuses on skills and practices that enable lifelong learning and independent problem-solving. Student-centered learning theory and practice are based on the constructivist learning theory that emphasizes the learner's critical role in constructing meaning from new information and prior experience. (accessed 17/11/2016 from https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Student-centred_learning)

Teachers, instead of being a pure lecturer, should provide guidance to the students and be an organizer, cooperator and mentor in the course, and the right to make decisions about how much they want to learn, when they want to learn and how they want to learn the course should rest with the students. Teachers should always be available when the students have any problems that might need help and instruction form the teachers. (Liu, Xianjun, 2012)

II.   MODIFICATIONS AND EXPERIMENTS CARRIED OUT FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF LEARNING THE COURSE

In order to improve the effectiveness of learning in the Mass Media Reading course, experiments are carried out to find better methods of teaching and learning.

A.   Arrangements for Experiments

It takes one whole semester to complete the experiments. Students registered for this course are randomly divided into two classes, each with 40 students, without considering their exact CET4 scores, as long as they have all passed it. Arrangements for the classes differ in the teaching mode, and the details are as follows:

For class one, the traditional teacher-centered teaching method is used. The course is carried out with a chosen book, and the teachers select six passages to learn in the class. The students are asked to familiarize themselves with the new vocabulary before class and teachers will check if they have done what they are told to do. Passages require previewing before class and difficult sentences are to be underlined. During the classes, the teachers will teach the students the usage of new words and translate some involved sentences with them. Questions are asked to see if the students have understood the passage, and some designed topics for discussion are given to the students after the lesson is analyzed. Students' academic performance is graded according to their final scores of their final paper, with extra credits rewarded for their active participation in answering questions.

For class two, the teaching mode is student-focused. This does not mean that the whole process is handed over to the hands of the students, rather, they do control the learning pace and topics they would like to discus, and certain in-class activities are planned in a way that intrigue most of the students. The teachers will monitor the activities carried out by the students, help them solve problems that are out of their reach and of course help them evaluate their learning.

The second class is divided into about six or seven students, and learning activities are carried out both inside the

classroom and by the groups of students after class. The most significant feature of this class is that no selected book is used for the course, since the "news" in the book can not actually be called news if they are chosen to be printed in a textbook. It is one of the big challenges for this class, for the students might be totally at loss about what to learn and read for this course and about how they will be evaluated at the end of the semester. Therefore, specially designed activities and modifications of teaching methods carried out in various forms try to solve the problem. For each lesson, one selected group of students will be asked to be responsible for a special task, everyone in this group must contribute. In the end of the semester the students performance will be decided by their classroom performance and a final paper. The paper is not to test the students' understanding of certain words but it will be test on their reading ability and their perspective towards and comment on certain news.

Finally a questionnaire will be conducted among the two classes to see their opinions about the teaching methods and their satisfaction of the course, and most importantly to enhance our ways of teaching in the future.

B. Requirements for the School, Teacher and Students

Innovation in the teaching methods demand support from the university, the teachers and the students. To carry out the mentioned experiments will ask the school to provide favorable environment for the course. Firstly, the teachers should be allowed to choose a textbook or not depending on their need, and for this course, books can be chosen to satisfy other requirements of the course such as extra reading material, certain information about the cultural, religious and political background of western countries, but not just a textbook. Secondly, the university can send the teachers to other universities that offer the same course to study and learn some new teaching methods, and invite some experts to give the teachers a lecture about the teaching mode; thirdly, different forms of classroom activities should be allowed as long as they are conducive to the effectiveness of learning of the course.

"Culturally speaking, the Asian (including Chinese) perspective on authority contributes to the thought that teachers are born authorities, who shoulder the responsibility of cultivating and attending to the students; while teachers in western countries are deemed to be accountable for academic duty only...the student-centered learning requires that the students not only learn and make decisions independently, but also put forward ideas distinct from the teachers'. It is natural that many students fail to adjust to this mode mentally and intellectually." (Wubo, 2003, p. 100-102 My translation)

Therefore for the teachers in this course, there are also certain requirements: firstly, the teachers should be familiar with the knowledge about western political, religious and cultural aspects, and they are capable of working out a clear structure of such areas and able to articulate such knowledge to the students; secondly, the teachers should have a sense of cultural awareness to understand certain news and help students form a neutral understanding of some news that might be biased towards some countries or some people; thirdly, the teachers should be information-conscious, able to locate useful information and master technology know-how to make the best use of multimedia resources; fourthly, teachers are required to know the writing style of paper so that they can help the students write and read paper and learn how to improve their reading skills; last but not least, since the teachers act as the guide and instructor in the classroom, they must know how to manage time control and discipline of students both in and out of classroom.

According to Su Dingfang and Zhuang Zhixiang, "the decisive role in the learning process rests in the hands of the learners themselves, any successful education should take full consideration of the learner's individuality. She added that this learner centered point, if stressed too much, amounts to the weakening or even neglect of teachers' role...learning should be conducted under the guidance of the teachers." (Qu Wenjie, 2004, p.78-79 my translation)

The teachers for this course should not only specialize in their academic fields but also it is imperative that they also learn some foreign language teaching theory and other related areas such as psychology and linguistics to better understand students' individuality and their learning, and spot any difficulty and problem they are confronted with, thus providing guidance and instruction accordingly.

As for students, the most important part of the teaching equation here, they also should be prepared. Mass Media Reading course is regarded as more difficult by many students than the other college English courses, and one thing that is accountable for that is the language, the diction and figure of speech used in those news which add to the difficulties the students may encounter. Their understanding of the western world is blurred and fragmented memories they can barely recall, then if they want to learn this course well, it is advised that they make extra efforts to overcome the obstacles. Firstly, they should continue to improve their English skills all the time, so that enlarged vocabulary will reduce their trouble to some extent; secondly, they should spend more time reading news and understanding how the western world functions in economics, military, politics and the like; thirdly, they are asked to find the news that they are interested in and learn how to make comments and analyze the news; fourthly, they are required to learn to work as individuals and as group members, learn to contribute to the collective work.

C. Modifications of the Mode of Teaching---Student-centered Learning

In the second class, changes are made to the traditional class, and a whole new system of teaching is adopted to stimulate the students in thinking and participating in the activities, and be the master of their own study.

1. Ways of motivating students

The previous classes reveal that students are intimidated by the unfathomable sentences they are confronted with in the passages and there is barely enough time for them to digest one passage before they rush into the next one, that the

news which are supposed to be intriguing and inspiring end up being the ones puzzling the students and damping down their enthusiasm for learning. Actually, ways to motivate students in this course can be learned from other English courses.

Firstly, The topic, or news selected for this student-centered mass media reading class *"should be geared to what the students need. For non-English majors in some comprehensive universities they are more sensitive to the language which is more pragmatic and comprehensible, and to interesting topics. Narratives should be increased in proportion of all the passages chosen. And the title itself should be engaging so as to stimulate their curiosity."* (Wubo, 2003, p.100-102 My translation) therefore, instead of some professional and science-intensive news, some entertaining and light topics should be included in the class. The students are also encouraged to choose the topic they like to discuss in the classroom.

Secondly, instead of just talking or reading some dry words, multimedia can be utilized to make the classroom more lively and exhilarating. Short movie clips and pictures can be shown in class to present the students with the on-the-spot effect and some background information, so that they may feel more involved in the news.

Thirdly, encouragement from the teachers and recognition from the class members also play an important role in the students' sense of belonging in the classroom. Besides, extra credits can be offered to students who make the most contribution to the group work.

Fourthly, students are encouraged to ask any questions about the news in the classroom and they should be free to covey and express their opinion on the issue at hand. Ideas are to be shared and discussed in the classroom instead of being criticized and judged. Their creativity and different perspectives should be respected and the teachers should be there to provide more insightful questions for the students to further their thinking.

Also, the current credit system of many universities for the students' academic performance is arranged in such way as forty percent of their academic score will be decided by their classroom activities and assignments, the other sixty percent goes to their final paper. In the student-centered class, *"their classroom performance should account for a larger share of the total score to stimulate more interest in and positive attitude towards the course...and when the students' performance and progress are acknowledged by the peers and teachers and that they can actually see the gap between the themselves and the top students are narrowing, their confidence is also enhanced."* (Ni Xiao, 2014, p.147-148 My translation)

2.   Applications of student-centered learning theory to classroom teaching

Based on the feature of this course and the current situation in our university, several experimental in-class and extracurricular activities are designed to explore better modes of teaching and learning of this course.

a.   In-class lectures

As has been mentioned, Mass media reading course covers a wide range of topics stretching from historical features, and political issues to environmental problems. It is quite impossible for the students to comprehend and grasp the essence and significance of the news if they have no clue of how the western world organizes itself politically, religiously; and if they have only a vague idea of the concept of news. Therefore, before the other assignments and activities are handed out to the students, the teachers should manage to get the necessary knowledge through to the students.

On one hand, lectures on the concept of news, the features of news stories should be firstly given to the students. They are to gain an overview of the western media, and the major American and British newspapers and magazines and leading news agencies are introduced to the students, so that they have enough resources of information to learn this lesson; secondly, the features of journalistic English, the characteristics of the headlinese and forms of discourse adopted in news report are explained to students in forms of several examples. For example, in order to show the originality of news, teachers may present the students with some newly coined words like pandahugger, cool beans, Obamacize, boomerang kids and so on to arouse students' interest. Students should understand the inverted pyramid form and pyramid form of news stories; other features and reviews are also part of the preliminary lectures. Thirdly, the structure of news and the different types of news lead are a must to the students. Through this lecture, students can understand the basic elements of news.

On the other hand, lectures about the political systems of America and Britain should be talked about. America's checks and balances, the major parties, namely the republican and the democratic parties and their different ideologies are essential to the course and can not be missed out. The British monarchy, the two Houses, the three big parties of the UK: conservative party, labor party and the liberal democrats and their respective ideologies must also be included in the lectures.

Last but not the least, the world's major religions such as Buddhism, Islam and Christianity and their origins, basic teachings and beliefs of different religions and also the famous religious holidays are, too, central to the study of the course. Those lectures held mostly by the teachers pave the way for student-centered learning in this course.

b.   Mock news press

Once the students have gained an overview of the news and some essential background information, classroom activities can be arranged in various ways. In the mock news press mode, topic is chosen before hand by the teacher and the students, and one group of students are assigned with this task for which they must spend a large abundance of time preparing. At the beginning of the news press, a short video will be shown to present the story or background

information about the news to the students; besides, printed materials or other readings in electronic form are given to the other classmates before class to know and think about the news, so that they may be able to ask some well-informed questions during class. The video clip and reading materials can be assembled and handled by either the teacher or the selected group of students or with combined efforts. The students will firstly introduce the purpose of the news press and announce its begin, or the teachers may give an outline of the issue, and then ask the different groups of students to act as the interested parties in the news. Ideas and opinions and discussions are carried out under the teacher's guidance. The students are free to express their views on the news from the perspective of the concerned people. In this way, the students become the masters of the classroom, and their understanding of the news event is deepened through all these discussions. For example, if the topic is about the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change, then one group of students are to search information on this topic and hand the useful information about its origin, growth, organization and so on to the teacher and the other students beforehand. As a result, the students come to the class well-informed and with their genuine insights. The teacher may also present related information at class, and the students are asked to represent delegates from different countries to issue their opinion on the matter at the mock convention. There are disputes, exchanges of ideas, and suggestions for improvement of our environment. Throughout the process, students are quite active in stating their views, and their understanding of the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change is also greatly enhanced. Discussion even continues after the bell rings.

    c.   News sharing groups

Students in Class Two are divided into several groups, and they are required to collect news information after class. For a certain week, all the groups are to participate in a news sharing get-together. The topics of the news of each group are collected by the individual groups and they are responsible to conduct a research on the topic and find out the related information of the news. Then during the meeting, twenty minutes will be assigned to each group to introduce the news; if the news is quite information-loaded, there will be handouts given to the other groups to be more well-informed of the news. Discussion is of course entailed for they may have different opinions about the same news or they may disagree with the other group's ideas. Teachers will oversee that the whole process be carried out effectively; they will be there to control the time, to unravel some puzzles and stimulate the students' thinking by asking further questions.

The students are allowed to use multimedia to present their news, such as the PowerPoint, some recordings, and video clips they are able to land. They are supposed to to make their news interesting and digestible, and after the sharing, each group's performance will be graded by the teacher and also by the peer groups.

    d.   Flipping classroom

Flipped classroom is an instructional strategy and a type of blended learning that reverses the traditional learning environment by delivering instructional content, often online, outside of the classroom. It moves activities, including those that may have traditionally been considered homework, into the classroom. In a flipped classroom, students watch online lectures, collaborate in online discussions, or carry out research at home and engage in concepts in the classroom with the guidance of a mentor. (accessed 06/12/2016 from: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flipped_classroom)

This type of learning can also be adopted in the Mass Media Reading course. The teacher will first of all prepare all the necessary information before hand in the forms of on-line texts and videos, and the important and difficult language points will be underlined or highlighted for the students to study. Questions about the news are designed by the teacher to which the students should find out the answers themselves. All the materials are given to students at least one week before class. In the classroom, the students become the teacher, so they should analyze the news and all the language points and crucial information in the printed material carefully so that they can be able to elucidate the information to the rest of the class. In the "flipping classroom" week, the podium is given to the assigned group, and it rests with this group to decide how they will present the essential information, what will be covered in their lecture, how much information will be appropriate for this session. Extra credits will be given to the students who voluntarily ask questions during the class, and if the "teacher" handles the question ably and skillfully, their performance will add to their final score. Since the students' activities take up about two thirds of the classroom time in this type of learning, the rest of the class will be left for the teacher to point out and correct some misleading points and help students dig further into the news.

    e.   On-line learning

As it is, this course requires in-class activities as well as out-of-the-classroom efforts, and mere classroom teaching can not be adequate. For the nature of this course, abundant information needs to be dealt with, so on-line learning can well make up for the inadequacy of classroom time.

For a specific news, the teachers should provide some useful websites for the students to learn more about the news and other related information. Some universities have also opened online courses which can be tapped into by our students. Online learning platforms such as Edex, Udacity, iLeaning, TED and other MOOC platforms are to be introduced to students. They can find more useful information and gain more insights from different perspectives through these channels than when they are just confined to the books. The specific information should be located by the teacher and then the students are learning on the teacher's instruction online, which will greatly reduce the students' time browsing through the enormous web pages trying to find the relevant information. The students should later report to the teacher about what they have learned from the online information in written form.

f.   Other patterns

In addition to the mentioned modes above, there are other learning patterns that can motivate the students and make learning more of an active thing. For example, Jeffrey Froyd and Nancy Simpson (2010) mention that many different faculty members have developed and used approaches to teaching that fit the criteria for student-centered learning, such as peer instruction, peer led team learning and small group learning. (accessed 08/11/2016 from http://ccliconference.org/files/2010/03/Froyd_Stu-CenteredLearning.pdf)foreign faculties from different countries can be invited to talk about a specific news from his or her perspective, and students get to look at a piece of news from diverse cultural backgrounds. They can also do role-playing to act like the characters in the news, and put themselves in the shoes of the men who have made the headlines. Also, they can be journalists and carry out some field interviews with some authorities from the government about a particular matter. More patterns are to be discovered by further study。

III.   CONCLUSION

Those experimental modes of teaching bring lots of benefits to the students: first, these lessons promote reading skills, the students have to read extensively to carry out the in-class discussion; second, some of the patterns can trigger the thinking process; as a result, the things they thought about and discussed have been embedded in their mind; third, they can enhance their speaking skills. Since most of the activities are carried out by the students, they are arranged or forced to practice speaking, and because the contents of learning are mostly decided by them, most students are active in voicing their ideas; lastly, general knowledge about western mass media is gained so when the students look at a piece of news, they will know how to analyze the news and what is implied in the news, thus fulfilling the purpose of this course.

These student-centered learning methods focuses on how to help students learn to study, to more actively become a participant in the classroom, to discover ways of thinking , and know how to get access to useful information.

A.   Study of the Experiments

Based on the performance and final exam scores of the students, the students of the first class, which adopts the traditional method of teacher-centered learning, at the end of the semester complain that for all the efforts they put in the course, they still can not get a satisfactory score, and all they think they get from this course are some difficult words and sentences which they surely will forget later on. They also report that the substantial amount of background information the teachers have told them become very blurred and yet they do not have the interest or patience to pick up again or further explore. If there are follow-up lessons for this course, most of them would not pursue.

Quite the opposite, the case in the second class is the other way around. According to their final scores and feedback, they complain that time assigned to this course is too limited, and that they quite enjoy the time in the classroom, where they feel like masters of their own study. The different modes of learning are never seen before, and they benefit a lot from the classroom activities. The words and sentences in the news are not printed materials for them to master, they are alive in their head. Most of the students admit that they can clearly recall every piece of news that is covered in this semester. And if they are to be asked again to talk about the news or other news, they have little trouble finding the useful information online and analysis of the news will not seem so overwhelming as before. They actually hope there will be some follow-up lessons of this course because they find it quite interesting and conducive to their future studies.

The results of the two classes form a sharp contrast, which sheds some light on the future development of this course. In the second student-centered class, students are greatly motivated and become active learners in the course. They are more willing to ask questions and conduct research to get the answers; most of them are good team players, they help each other work out difficult problems and teachers are not only their mentor but also their friends, which in turn, greatly stimulates their desire to learn more. They have shown unprecedented enthusiasm in this course in that exchanges of ideas not only happen in the classroom, but also outside it, and full class attendance greatly proves the point. Many of the students say they will continue this passion of study in their future learning.

B.   Suggestions on Further Enhancement

Despite all the improvements achieved, further enhancement is still needed to overcome the unsolved problems in this course. In this semester, time is found lacking for more information to be covered, thirty-two classroom hours are quite inadequate for the students to gain more knowledge about western mass media. Therefore, rearrangement for the total classroom hours for this course is suggested; next, since most of the topics are decided by the students and sometimes together with the teacher, they tend to be easy and only be the ones that the students deem interesting. There are cases when the teacher choose the topics that may be of less interest to the students but which are of great value, there appear less motivation and enthusiasm among the students. They tend to skip the difficult topics such as technology news and natural sciences. It is advised that students be provided with more related materials maybe in Chinese version to acquaint themselves with necessary knowledge to read the English news, also, some speeches delivered by significant people in this field can also be offered to the students. For example, stories of the Nobel Prize winners can be told or printed out to students, or some videos about science award ceremonies can also be given to students to arouse their curiosity to explore. What's more, we could *"Build up on-line platforms for the teachers to access how the students have previewed and reviewed the lesson, the students can communicate with the teacher after*

class and reflect on one's academic performance." (Liman, 2012, p.32-36 My translation)

Mass Media Reading course requires an abundance of work done both by the teachers and the students, the mentioned modes of learning just provide some suggestions, further studies on the student-centered teaching modes still need to be conducted.

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Xue Zheng was born in Neijiang, China in 1986. She received her master's degree in linguistics from University of International Business and Economics, China in 2012.

She is currently an English teacher (assistant teacher) in the School of Foreign Languages, Southwestern Petroleum University, Chengdu, China. Her research interests include teaching methods and theories and interpreting.

Zheng Xue is a member of the CATTI.

On the Relationship between Creative Problem Solving Skill and EFL Reading Comprehension Ability

Maghsoud Danesh

Department of English Language Teaching and Literature, Ahar Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ahar, Iran

Nava Nourdad

University of Tabriz, Tabriz, Iran

Abstract—The present study investigated the relationship between Creative Problem Solving (CPS) skill of Iranian secondary school students and their reading comprehension ability. The sample of participants included 70 second grade students randomly selected among secondary school students. The Torrance Test of Creative Thinking was used to measure CPS. Also, a valid and reliable teacher-made reading comprehension test was applied to asses reading comprehension ability of the participants. The results indicated that there was a positively significant correlation between reading comprehension ability and CPS skill. Among the sub-components of CPS, elaboration and originality revealed positively significant correlation with reading comprehension. Furthermore, the findings suggested a dire need of accommodating creativity and CPS techniques and activities in EFL materials, text book. Teaching creativity is highly recommended as a prerequisite for every kind of learning including foreign language learning.

Index Terms—creative problem solving, creativity, reading comprehension, foreign language learning, classroom instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Creativity, as one of the most important human characteristics, is apparently an essential factor in development of human life condition. Despite the fact that the theoretical base of creativity still remains to be challenged, it is generally accepted that creativity can result in new, fruitful, meaningful, appropriate, and valuable outcomes; it can be an individual cooperative process; which can be influenced by various personal and environmental factors (e.g., Craft, 2000; Hennessey & Amabile, 2010; Le Métais, 2003; Plucker, Beghetto, & Dow, 2004; Sharp & Le Métais, 2000; Wang 2011). The need for effective thinkers who can locate and process knowledge is growingly considered as a primary goal of education (Rajendran, 2002). Creative problem solving (CPS) is regarded as an indispensable skill in general education both for children and adults since it can develop creativity of the learners and enhance the effectiveness of the education (Treffinger, 2003). As Piaget (2002) and Vygotsky (1986) mention, thinking skills are closely related to language development, thus it is highly possible that creative thinking has certain connection with reading and writing abilities.

A close association between the skills necessary for reading and writing was indicated over the years of research (Sturgell, 2008). Reading and writing seem to foster the traits which have the same characteristics and can increase creativity and help learners generate creative ideas and projects, for example Wang (2007) reported a positive correlation between creative ability of elaboration and writing scores but not math scores.

Ever developing world in twenty-first century necessitates skills for education and workplace that are no longer simply rooted on the rote learning of extensive content, but, the learners are required to become proficient in fundamental process skills such as: how to think, how to learn, and how to deal with new situations and problems in a perpetually changing world (Jacobs, 2010). Duffy and Cunningham (1996) believe that in problem solving process, students take more responsibility; become more independent and self-regulatory individuals.

In spite of the fact that many of the researchers have emphasized the role of creative problem solving, only a few studies have been carried out in the field of education up to now; and the effectiveness of CPS on the improvement of the foreign language learners' reading comprehension has been totally ignored.

Thus, this study aimed to investigate the relationship between CPS skill of the Iranian secondary school students (equal to elementary level EFL learners) in public schools and their reading ability in English.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Creativity brought about development in every aspect of human life, especially in educational domain. CPS process is regarded as the process of directing thought into generating diversified ideas best adaptable to the situation (Ellamil,

Dobson, Beeman, Christoff, 2012). A large number of studies have been conducted on the role of CPS in education and educational success, highlighting its essential value in solving complex individual, social, and global problems (Funke & Frensch, 2007; Greiff, Fischer, Wustenberg, Sonnleitner, Brunner, & Martin, 2013; Plucker, Beghetto, & Dow, 2004; Wüstenberg, Greiff, & Funke, 2012).

Webster's Dictionary deifnes CPS as "a question raised for inquiry, consideration, or solution". The word problem is referred to as any situation in which you have the chance to make a difference, to make things better; and problem solving is the process of converting an actual present state into a favorable future state and to increase the quality of life. Raven (2000) suggests that "problem solving involves initiating, usually on the basis of hunches or feelings, experimental interactions with the environment to clarify the nature of a problem and potential solutions, so that the problem-solver "can learn more about the nature of the problem and the effectiveness of their strategies" and "modify their behavior and launch a further round of experimental interactions with the environment" (p.54). Different – though somehow similar – definitions for CPS have been presented by the scholars the most prominent of which include: "a process while overcoming the difficulties in achieving the goal" (Bigham, 1985, p.10), "an effort to accomplish goal" (Schunk, 2004, p.203), "using knowledge to accomplish goals", "coping with problems" (Heppner and Peterson, 1982), "cognitive and behavioral process" (D'zurilla & Goldfried, 1971).

CPS model was introduced for the first time by Osborn's (1963) three-step model. It was later converted into a five - step model and finally a sixth-step model including: fact-finding, problem-finding, idea-finding, solution-finding, acceptance-finding, and mess finding (Treffinger & Isakson, 2005). Growing number of studies in the field of CPS paved the ground for the application of its models in education by redefining its value, reevaluating its structure, inducing a necessity for acquiring proficiency in meta-cognitive skills, and the process of profiling CPS (Treffinger, 1995).

The learners face a lot of challenges in the world of education which must tackle creatively in order to develop productive education. Robinson (2001) suggests that, creativity especially elaboration ability has a positive relationship with attitudes toward reading/writing and the time spent for thses skills. According to Houtz (2003), creativity or creative thinking skills can be improved. In addition, other researches strongly support the idea that good teacher and schools can improve students' overall CPS skills and the skills needed for creative thinking and that CPS can be taught and improved upon through practice (Isaksen & De Schryver, 2000). Gregory, et al., (2013) proposed simple, yet effective activities and pedagogical techniques that combine teaching of creative thinking with the teaching of subject matter content, without losing instructional time. Also, in a recent study on the relationship between extensive practice in reading/writing and creative performance, Amber (2011) concluded that creativity scores, especially scores of elaboration, are significantly correlated with attitudes toward reading/writing, and the amount of time spent on reading/writing.

In line with the reviewed literature and in order to fill its gap, the present study intended to investigate the relationship between Iranian secondary school students' CPS skills and their proficiency in reading comprehension in English as a foreign language to see whether CPS as an essential characteristic of language learners should be emphasized in a field of foreign language learning and teaching to foster improved results. So, considering the problem raised and according to the purpose of the research, this study seeks the answer to the following research question:

▶ Is there any relationship between Iranian secondary school students' CPS score and their reading comprehension ability?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study included 70 Iranian male second grade secondary school students in the study year 2014-2015. Because of the new modifications in Iranian educational system, reading comprehension is less emphasized in the first grade and the focus is more on oral communication. Since the new system is being applied for the last two years, there is not a third grade with the modifications in secondary school yet. The native language of the participants was Azeri. All of the participants were at the same age range, about 13-14 years old, so the age and mother tongue were not considered as intervening variables. Students were randomly selected from among eight schools in three cities, and two classes from each school.

B. Data Gathering Instruments

1. Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking

E. Paul Torrance as a pioneering scholar in creativity studies is famous for developing the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (TTCT) used to assess individuals' capacity for creativity (Torrance, 2003, p. B13). TTCT has two versions, the TTCT-Verbal and the TTCT-Figural. The TTCT-Verbal consists of two parallel forms, of A and B, each of which includes five activities as ask-and-guess, product improvement, unusual uses, unusual questions, and just suppose. Each task includes a picture to which respondents respond in writing or completing the picture (Torrance, 1966, 1974). The TTCT-Figural also has two parallel forms of A and B, both of which consist of three activities of picture construction, picture completion, and repeated figures of lines or circles.

In Activity I, the subjects draw a picture using a rabbit looking at an egg provided on the page as a stimulus. The stimulus must be an integral part of the picture construction. Activity II is presented as two incomplete lines out of which participants must make a picture by adding additional shapes and lines. Activity III presents ten diamond shapes on a page and the subjects are asked to try to create a picture with all, in a way all together they represent a story or an idea (Torrance, 1966, 1974, 1990, 1998; Torrance & Ball, 1984). For the last activity participants are presented with the subject to imagine the situation presented in second activity and write their answers in mother tongue.

In application of the test, Torrance (1966) emphasized to create a game-like, thinking, or problem-solving atmosphere, not a stressful threatening situation of testing. Thus in this test, examinees were encouraged to "have fun" and experience a psychological climate as comfortable and stimulating as possible (Torrance & Ball, 1984). Administration of the test takes 30 minutes and while minimum levels of drawing are acceptable test-takers have to manage their time (Chase, 1985). The TTCT-Figural appears has proved the required reliability and validity (Treffinger, 1995; Cooper, 1991) for the purposes of the test. TTCT follows the general purpose of research and experimentation along with specific applications for instructional planning and determining possible strengths of the test-takers.

According to the TTCT-Figural Manual of 1998, the reliability estimates of the creative index from Kuder–Richardson 21 using 99th percentile scores as the estimates of the number of items ranged between .89 and .94. The validity of TTCT has been proved through past studies (Cropley, 1971; Hébert, Cramond, Neumeister, Millar, Silvian, 2002; Torrance, Tan, & Allman, 1970; Witt, 1971) which increased the TTCT's credibility as a predictor of creative productivity. However, to verify the reliability of the instrument in Iran's EFL context in the present study alpha analysis was run and the results appeared to be 0.89.

2. Reading Comprehension Test

In order to measure the reading comprehension ability of the learners, a teacher-made reading comprehension test, with Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.84, was used. The reading comprehension test was devised based on the material the learners had studied in the course book and was adjusted to their level of proficiency in EFL. The reading comprehension test contained four passages along with multiple choice and true/false questions, the format with which the participants are quite familiar from their textbook tasks. To reduce any cheating opportunity for test takers, three various forms of the same test was developed with modified order of choices and true false sentences. The face and construct validity of the test was approved by another expert. For scoring the test, each correctly answered test item was considered as one point and no penalty was considered for wrongly answered items.

C. Data Gathering Procedures

The participants were asked to take a reading comprehension test and Torrence's test of creative problem solving test. The tests were administered by assistances of the school consecutives in the early hours of school days at aforementioned sites. The tests were administered in 30 minutes. Before TTCT test, the teacher helped students with the instructions for each items. In order to prevent students' exhaustion, the two tests were administered on two distinctive days. To reduce any order effect of the instruments, counterbalancing was used. That is for almost half of the participants reading comprehension test was given first and then the Torrance test, and for the second half the opposite way round.

IV. DISCUSSION & ANALYSIS

The mean score and standard deviation for the reading comprehension and CPS tests were measured. Tables 1 and 2 present descriptive statistics of the reading comprehension and creative problem solving test, respectively.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Reading	70	10	26	17.41	4.22

As Table 1 shows, the minimum score for reading is 10 and the maximum score is 26. Since the reading score was out of 26, the mean score of 17.41 reveals an average score.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CREATIVE PROBLEM SOLVING SKILL

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Creative problem solving	70	23.00	125.00	57.63	16.50
Fluidity	70	6.00	14.00	13.00	1.73
Flexibility	70	4.00	89.00	8.70	10.19
Originality	70	5.00	32.00	16.43	6.36
Elaboration	70	6.00	37.00	19.50	7.80

As Table 2 shows, the mean score for CPS was 57.63 with the standard deviation of 16.50. The mean score of fluidity was is 13 with the standard deviation of 1.73. The flexibility mean score of the students was 8.70 with the standard deviation of 10.19. The mean score of originality of ideas for the students was 16.43 with the standard deviation of 6.36. The mean score for the last subcomponent of CPS, elaboration of the ideas presented, was 19.50 with the standard deviation of 7.80.

The relationship between CPS skill and reading ability was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results are presented in Table 3. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity.

TABLE 3:
CORRELATION BETWEEN READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY AND CPS SKILL

	Creative problem solving	Sig. (2-tailed)	N
Reading	.48[**]	.000	70

As shown in Table 3, there was a positively significant correlation between the two variables (r=0.48, n=70, p<0.0.5). Furthermore, the correlation between subcomponents of CPS and reading comprehension scores was investigated the results of which are presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4:
CORRELATION BETWEEN READING COMPREHENSION ABILITY AND SUBCOMPONENTS OF CPS SKILL

	Fluidity	Flexibility	Originality	Elaboration
Reading	.12	.13	.38[**]	.51[**]

Among the subcomponents of CPS, only originality (r=0.38, n=70, p≤0.05) and elaboration (r=0.51, n=70, p≤0.05) had positively significant correlation with reading comprehension. The other two subcomponents, namely fluidity (r=0.12, n=70) and flexibility (r=0.13, n=70) of the ideas, didn't reveal any significant correlation with reading ability.

To put it in a nutshell, this study was conducted to find out whether there is any relationship between creative problem solving ability of the Iranian secondary school students and their reading comprehension skill. The analysis of the results indicated that CPS of the students has significantly positive correlation with the reading comprehension abilities of the participants.

It is evident from the results that students who are more creative in facing new challenging situations are more likely to comprehend the texts better. This finding is in line with some previous studies. From other perspectives, researchers have indicated reading and writing are correlated with thinking (Moffett & Wagner, 1983; Pearson & Tierney, 1984; Stanford & Roark, 1974; Staton, 1984), and that instruction on reading and writing instruction improves critical thinking (Chapple & Curtis, 2000; Davidson, 1994). In other words, some studies have revealed that reading and writing can stimulate the creativity of the learners by providing resources for creativity (McVey, 2008; Sturgell, 2008). More similar results were obtained by a large body of research indicating that learning activities in the classrooms like reading and writing activities can contribute to creative development (Branowsky & Botel, 1974; Messman, 1991; Otto, 1991; Sak, 2004).

Among the sub-components of CPS, the scores of elaboration and originality were positively correlated with the score of reading comprehension which is in line with the results obtained by Wang (2007) who found out that extensive practice in reading and writing is related to high creative performance. His study revealed a correlation between creativity and attitude toward reading and writing.

Reading is a process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language FORMS, via medium of print (Urquhart & Weir 1998). Comprehension is the result of extraction and integration of various information from text and combining it with previous knowledge (Koda, 2005). Reading comprehension has a relationship with some cognitive and metacognitive strategies, likes (a) activating background knowledge (Dole, Valencia, Greer, & Wardrop, 1991), (b) summarizing text (Armbruster, Anderson, & Ostertag, 1987), and (c) generating questions to capture the main idea of the passage (Rosenshine, Meister, & Chapman, 1996). Cognitive learning theory proposes that all learning follows a general path from cognitive learning to associative learning, to automatic learning (Anderson, 2000).

As it was mentioned, creative thinking, like processes involved in reading comprehension, occurs through some processes that involve cognitive and meta-cognitive processes. Thus, reading comprehension is a kind of decoding process of the problem. The results of this study revealed that students who enjoy high CPS skills, have a high levels of skills in reading comprehension. And also students with low CPS skills, have less skill in reading comprehension. Hence, it is evident that like other techniques and strategies such as increasing the lexicon schemata, mastery over the structure of language, overcoming the problem of unknown vocabularies, inference, and many other strategies, applying CPS techniques and strategies in teaching of reading skills as well as other language skills can be an effective way in improving the learners' reading skills. So far the language teachers have scarcely applied this psychological approach towards teaching of reading comprehension skills, but the findings of this study can encourage language teachers to get more familiar with CPS techniques and strategies and make use of them in their language classes specially for improving reading comprehension skills.

Among the subcomponents of CPS, elaboration and originality had a positively significant correlation with reading comprehension scores of the students. Originality of the idea is the number of statistically infrequent ideas; it presents the ability to provide uncommon or unique responses and elaboration is the number of added ideas; it demonstrates the ability to develop and elaborate on ideas. But two other subcomponents of CPS are revealed to have no significant relationship with reading comprehension. Because fluidity and flexibility just indicate the ability of the learners in providing answers, logical, true or not, they don't seem to help learners come up with better understanding of the passage. In reading comprehension students need to be aware of the goal they might adapt while reading and teachers need to be more sensitive to clarifying goals explicitly. Students also need to find out the main idea, supporting ideas and details. Thus, in reading comprehension readers directly or indirectly face original main ideas with some elaborated details which must be comprehended while reading. Thus, considering the organization of the ideas in a passage and focusing on originality and elaboration teachers can improve both CPS skills and effective ways of dealing with new passages.

Findings of this study can shed light on the issue of improving the quality of foreign language education in Iranian public schools by directing attentions towards considering CPS as an essential characteristic of learners which should be emphasized in foreign language learning and teaching. The results can also help curriculum developers to revise the teaching materials and incorporate more CPS techniques and activities in school text books.

Reading is one of the essential skills which help language learners develop their competence in foreign or second language. As an input device, reading is inevitable in every educational setting. The findings of this study can reveal the necessities in devotion of much more attention to the way through which reading comprehension is taught in foreign language classes.

The implications of the current study include:

1) Integrating creativity activities in the text books and classroom activities may foster creativity of the learners. Thus it may boost their achievements in their studies.

2) Creativity techniques can be practiced in the classroom, which can also be an important factor improving studying skills of learners.

3) In the case of teaching and learning English as a foreign language, integrating creativity techniques and activities in EFL text books and classrooms can encourage learners to think and prepare solutions in English which involves them more in learning experience and makes them more autonomous.

V. CONCLUSION

This study was conducted to find out if there is any relationship between creative problem solving ability of the Iranian secondary school students and their reading comprehension skill. The analysis of the results indicated that CPS of the students has significantly positive correlation with the reading comprehension abilities of the participants. Among the sub-components of CPS, the scores of elaboration and originality were positively correlated with the score of reading comprehension. Flexibility and fluidity in creative thoughts, however, didn't have a significant correlation with reading comprehension scores.

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Maghsoud Danesh was born in the city of Ahar in Iran in 1985. He received his B.A. degree in English Language Teaching from Islamic Azad University of Tabriz branch in 2009. He is an MA candidate in Islamic Azad University of Ahar branch. His main areas of interest are syllabus design, course book evaluation, assessment and teaching.

Nava Nourdad is an assistant professor at University of Tabriz where she has been teaching undergraduate and graduate courses. Her research interests include language testing and assessment, syllabus design and course book evaluation, ESP, reading and writing.

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