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Representation of Literary Texts in English for Ethiopian Textbooks and Their Practice in the Classroom: Grade 9 and 10 in Focus

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Abstract—This study aimed to assess the representation of literary texts and their actual practice at Grades 9 and 10 in general secondary schools in Ethiopia. The study employed descriptive research design involving both qualitative and quantitative methods. Participants were selected purposively. Textbook analysis, classroom observation and focus group discussion were data sources. The textbook and classroom observation data were analyzed using descriptive statistics. Whereas, the focus group discussion data were analyzed qualitatively using thematic analysis. Findings showed that poems took the lion's share in the literary texts. However, short stories, novel extracts, moral stories, fables and true stories were scarcely found in the textbooks. Besides, the findings revealed that language skills and language areas incorporated in the literary texts focused more on developing reading and speaking skills. Moreover, the findings obtained from focus group discussion and classroom observation showed that teachers were not regularly practising literary texts due to teachers' lack of pedagogical skills, students' lack of interest to learn literary texts and the difficulty nature of the literary texts.

Index Terms—literary texts, literary text representation, literary genres, language teaching through literature, literary text practice

I. INTRODUCTION

Using literature for teaching language skills is quite common in foreign language learning and teaching nowadays (Khatib, 2012). It is to mean that literature is used as a springboard for exciting discussions or writing in language teaching. Integrating literature in language teaching by which students can learn the macro and micro skills of language are more effective because literary texts have cultural, higher order thinking, and motivational benefits (Mart, 2016). In addition, Maley (2001) affirms that literature extends linguistic knowledge by giving evidence of extensive and subtle vocabulary usage, complex and exact syntax. Literature in EFL classroom is aimed at developing the potential of students in a holistic, balanced and integrated manner encompassing the intellectual, spiritual, emotional and physical aspects in order to create a balanced and harmonious human being with high social standards. Likewise, language and literature go hand in hand and complement to each other. No literature can live without language and vice versa Lazar (1993).

The Ethiopian Ministry of Education, perceived the importance of using literary texts in English language teaching and decided to include the texts in the curriculum as a component of the subject to complement the existing resources for English language teaching and learning. This indicates the need to revise and improve the former English language textbooks because literature is the media of teaching and learning authentic language. In line with it, Collie and Slater (1990) assert that short stories, novel extracts, poems, moral stories, true stories and biographical accounts should be incorporated.

The recent historical positions regarding the use of literature in English language teaching and the inclusion of literary texts foster the development of reading, writing, speaking, listening, and critical thinking skills. It is found that literary texts provide wide scope to explore multi-dimensional use of the language if literary texts are well represented in textbooks of English. To attain this, due considerations should be given for selecting literary texts for language teaching. In line with this, McRae (1997:49) notes, "Careful text selection is fundamental to the successful use of any kind of representational materials". Hence, the selection of literary texts should fulfill certain criteria. Lazar (1993) also mentions about some criteria to select literary texts. From the sources mentioned above, combined criteria are formulated to select literary texts as listed below. That is to say, while selecting literary texts, one should consider,

- The student's cultural background,
- The student's linguistic proficiency,
- The student's literacy background,
- The student's age and level of understanding,

- Interesting texts, and
- Availability and suitability of the text.

Generally, this study was intended to investigate the representation of literary texts and teachers' practice of using literary texts in EFL classroom.

II. THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT

In Ethiopia, literary texts were not considered as a useful tool in the EFL classrooms previously. However, currently, the use of literature in English language teaching, and the inclusion of literary texts for fostering the development of reading, writing, speaking, listening, grammar, vocabulary and critical thinking skills are getting good attention. As a result, literary texts are now part of the Ethiopian English language syllabus.

Saying above, there are reasons why the researchers intended to emphasize on studying the representation and practice of literary texts in English for Ethiopian textbooks of Grades 9 and 10. To begin with, the researchers had been teaching at secondary schools being English language teacher, and closely observed teachers' challenges in practising in EFL classes. Secondly, students were noticed disregarding some contents of the textbook in the actual teaching learning process. Thirdly, students were found not being good at speaking, writing and reading comprehension tasks of the textbook and this may partly be related to the representation and practice of literary texts in EFL classrooms. These problems look as if those literary texts were not adequately represented and practiced by teachers of English language.

Different local studies indicated the significance and importance of literary materials in EFL classrooms. For instance, Haileul (2012) and Yeniale (2014) conducted an experimental study and found out that literary materials had great contribution to fostering students' interest of learning and developing their linguistic and communicative competences. Similarly, the case studies conducted by Murat (2005) and Ahmad (2014) on the use of literary materials revealed employing such texts fostered language learning. Both of them recommend that literature serves as a popular content for teaching English as foreign language. In addition, Gedefaw and Yihene (2018) studied about panoramic evaluation of literary texts in preparatory students' English Text Books. Their finding indicated that most of the literary texts were beyond the language competence of the students and the teachers. However, these studies did not explore the representation and practices of literary texts in the newly introduced English for Ethiopian textbooks of Grades 9 and 10. Thus, the present study tried to assess the representation and practices of literary texts in English for Ethiopian textbooks of Grades 9 and 10.

Research Questions

The study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. What types of literary genres are mostly represented in Grades 9 and 10 English textbooks?
2. What language skills and language areas are incorporated through literary texts of the textbooks?
3. How are literary texts practised in EFL classrooms?
4. What are the factors obstructing the implementation of literary texts in EFL classes?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The main objective of this study was to assess the representation of literary texts in English for Ethiopia students' textbooks (grade 9 and 10) which are currently used and their actual practice. Hence, the study used descriptive case research design that involved both qualitative and quantitative methodological approach.

B. Participants of Study

Participants of the study were secondary and preparatory English language teachers from Debre Work Secondary School, Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia. In the academic 2019/20, there were 16 English teachers in the school. From the 16 teachers, four of them were selected purposively for the Focus Group Discussion (FGDs) and classroom observation. Grade 9 and 10 English textbooks and the syllabus were also sources of data. From the textbooks, the literary texts were the main target of the study.

C. Data Gathering Instruments

Data were collected using three instruments. The major instrument used in the study was textbook analysis. Therefore, all the literary genres including short stories, novel extracts, poem, traditional story (fable), and moral story of the textbooks were analysed. The second tool was classroom observation intended to assess how literary texts were taught and to examine the challenges teachers face in their teaching of literary texts. To do this, the researchers prepared an observation checklist having 12 items. Each teacher was observed three times using checklist starting from October to December 2019. Totally 12 observations were made. The third instrument used to verify the data gathered through content analysis and classroom observation was FGD. For this purpose, semi-structured guided items were designed to elicit about all aspects of practising literary texts.

D. Data analysis Techniques

The literary texts in the textbooks were sorted first based on the forms of literary genres. Then, their representation in

the selected textbook was determined using percentage. The classroom observation data intended to see the practice of literary texts were analysed with percentage. Finally, FGDs data were held to see about challenges hindering practice of literary texts were analyzed using thematic analysis.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Textbook

Analysis of literary texts found on grade nine English textbook

First, English for Ethiopian grade 9 textbook contains 12 chapters. Under these 12 chapters, there are six sections or content areas including, listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary. Thus, here under, types of literary texts and the skills they promote was analyzed as follows:

TABLE I
LITERARY TEXTS AND LANGUAGE SKILLS INCORPORATED IN GRADE 9 ENGLISH TEXTBOOK

No	Title	Genre type	Page	Nature of tasks given based on the textbooks
1	The karate lesson	Short story	49	Reading, writing, discussion and vocabulary
2	Song of the pottery	Poem	54	Reading and writing
3	Moral story	Moral story	63	Writing
4	Isatou died	Poem	84	Reading and comprehension
5	A proud old man	Poem	125	Reading, acting and Writing
6	Yaa, the Adowa dancer	Poem	164	Reading and comprehension
7	Haiti Survivor	Poem	190	Reading and Comprehension
8	How Lion and Warthog became enemies	Traditional story(fable)	202	Reading, discussion, answer in written form and grammar
9	Law of the jungle	Poem	205	Reading, acting and comprehension
10	Song of a school boy	Poem	221	Reading and writing
	Total	10		

As it can be seen on Table I, four literary genres were incorporated in the textbook. Short stories, poems, moral stories and traditional stories were included in the textbook. Besides, the language skills especially (reading, writing, vocabulary, speaking) were seen on the activities of literary texts. The finding revealed that though there were various literary genres for language teaching, there were only four literary genres. The analysis showed that poems were repeatedly found in different units. Moreover, the tasks of the literary texts were limited to reading, writing, vocabulary and speaking ignoring listening and grammar. Besides, language skills were not integratively presented in the activities of literary texts.

Next, the representation of literary texts was analyzed as follows

TABLE II
TOTAL NUMBER OF LITERARY TEXTS FOUND ON GRADE 9:

No.	Literary genre	Grade 9	
		No.	%
1	Short stories	1	10%
2	Poems	7	70%
3	Novel extracts	-	-
4	Moral stories	1	10%
5	Fable	1	10%
6	Autobiography account	-	-
7	True stories	-	-
8	Play	-	-
9	Fair stories	-	-
	Total	10	100%

Table 2 depicted that the textbook incorporated ten literary genres. Among these, majority of the literary texts 7(70%) were found to be poems. Short stories, moral stories, and fable covered 1 (10%) each. However, novel extracts, autobiographic account, and true story were totally excluded. This indicates that poems occupied the largest proportion though they are usually written in a form deviated from the norms of speaking or even writing. Besides, the distribution of the literary texts within the textbook was unbalanced to meet the interest, need and style of different learners.

Here under, the frequency of language skills found on literary texts was determined.

TABLE III
LANGUAGE SKILLS INCORPORATED THROUGH LITERARY TEXTS OF GRADE 9TH

.No.	The frequency of skills the literary text promote		
	Language skills	No.	%
1.	Listening	-	-
2.	Speaking	1	5.5%
3.	Reading	9	50%
4.	Writing	6	33.5%
5.	Integratively the four skills	-	-
6.	Vocabulary	1	5.5%
7.	Grammar	1	5.5%
	Total	18	100

Table 3 indicated that the majority of the literary texts 9(50%) focused on promoting reading skills. This portrays that literary texts paid due consideration for developing reading skill. Moreover, six (33.5%) of literary texts emphasized to develop writing skills. Whereas, speaking, vocabulary and grammar each were less represented in the textbook. Nonetheless, listening and integrating of the language skills were not seen on the activities of literary texts.

Analysis of literary texts found in grade 10 English textbook

Like that of Grade 9 textbook, Grade 10 textbook contained different literary texts. First, the distribution of literary texts was analysed as follows.

TABLE IV
LITERARY TEXTS AND LANGUAGE SKILLS INCORPORATED IN GRADE 10 ENGLISH TEXTBOOK

No	Title of literary texts	Genre	Page	Nature of tasks given based on the textbooks
1	Benand the Devil	fair story	35	Listening, speaking,
2.	Long Walkto Freedom	Autobiography	39	Reading, speaking, vocabulary
3.	The Fulani creation story	Poem	43	Reading
4	Thefriendshipcake	Moral story	44	Reading ,speaking
5	Halimagoestomarket	Novel	40	Reading, speaking
6	TheSnake-manandtheGirl	Play	47	Reading, speaking
7	ThePromisedLand	Novel	51	Grammar
8	Thestoryofanorphan	True story	57	Listening, speaking
9	TheAfricanChild	Novel	64	Reading, vocabulary
10	Makeda'sstory	Moral story	69	Reading, speaking
11	Themankilled	Poem	72	Reading, writing, speaking
12	NigerianMarketPlace	Poem	92	Reading
13	Whokilled Danny?	Short story	102	Reading ,speaking
14	Asuddenstorm	Poem	137	Reading, speaking, grammar
15	Shipwrecked!	Short story	164	Reading, vocabulary, writing
16	KetaInGhana'sVoltaRegion	Poem	168	Reading, speaking, vocabulary
17	Theclevercrow	Moral story	205	Writing, grammar
18	Destiny	Poem	206	Reading, speaking
19	Witness	Poem	219	Speaking
20	Beloved	Poem	219	Speaking
21	Facedownwards	Poem	220	Speaking
	Total	21		

Table 4 above depicted the various kinds of literary genres, which were included and represented in the textbook. There were twenty-one literary texts in the textbook. They were poems, extracts of novel, moral stories, short stories, biographical account, play, true story and a fair story. There was better inclusion of different literary texts in Grade 10 textbook when compared with Grade 9 English textbook though there was unfair treatment of literary genres in the textbook. Some literary genres were overstated while others were understated in the textbook. In addition, all language skills were incorporated in tasks of literary texts though they were not integrated. In general, this analysis revealed that different literary genres and language skills were well represented in Grade 10 English textbook.

The summary of these literary genres was presented as follows to determine their proportionality in the textbook.

TABLE V
SUMMARY OF LITERARY GENRES FOUND IN GRADE 10 ENGLISH

No.	Literary genre	Grade 10	
		No.	%
1	Short stories	2	9%
2	Poems	9	43%
3	Novel extracts	3	15%
4	Moral stories	3	15%
5	Fable	-	-
6	Autobiography	1	4.5%
7	True stories	1	4.5%
8	Play	1	4.5%
9	Fair story	1	4.5%
	Total	21	100%

As indicated in the Table 5, the textbook consisted of 9 literary genres and 21 literary texts. Among the 21 literary texts, 9 (43%) of them were poems. This shows that poems were highly represented. In addition, 3 (15%) were found to be novel extracts and moral stories i.e., they constituted the second rank next to poems. However, fair story, autobiography, true story and play were underestimated. Therefore, this analysis demonstrated that there was unfair representation of literary texts.

Next, the distribution of language skills found on literary texts was examined below.

TABLE VI
LANGUAGE SKILLS INCORPORATED THROUGH LITERARY TEXTS OF GRAD 10 TEXTBOOK

No.	The frequency of skills the literary text promote		
	Language skills	No.	%
1.	Listening	2	4.5%
2.	Speaking	15	36.5%
3.	Reading	15	36.5%
4.	Writing	3	7%
5.	Integratively the four skills	-	-
6.	Vocabulary	3	7%
7.	Grammar	3	7%
	Total	41	100%

As stated in table6, the language skills the literary texts treated were analyzed. Accordingly, speaking and reading received 15 (36.5%) each share in the literary text. It revealed that 73% of the tasks found under literary texts were focusing on developing speaking and reading skills. The rest of the share, 27 % of the tasks, was intended to promote listening, writing, vocabulary and grammar. On the contrary, none of the literary texts attempted to integrate the four major language skills despite the fact that language classroom skills need to be integrated and practiced. Thus, the finding of this analysis revealed that literary texts found on grade 10 English textbook mainly focused on treating speaking and reading skills.

Comparison between literary texts found in Grades 9 and 10 was made as follows.

TABLE VII
COMPARISON OF LITERARY GENRES FOUND IN GRADE 9 AND 10

No.	Literary genre	Grade 9		Grade 10		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1	Short stories	1	10%	2	9%	3	10%
2	Poems	7	70%	9	43%	16	52%
3	Novel extracts	-	-	3	15%	3	10%
4	Moral stories	1	10%	3	15%	4	13%
5	Fable	1	10%	-	-	1	3%
6	Autobiography	-	-	1	4.5%	1	3%
7	True story	-	-	1	4.5%	1	3%
8	Play	-	-	1	4.5%	1	3%
9	Fair story	-	-	1	4.5%	1	3%
	Total	10	100%	21	100%	31	100

Table7 illustrated that there were 31 literary texts in both Grades 9 and 10 textbooks. This analysis revealed that literary texts of Grade 10 were well represented. On the contrary, very limited numbers of literary texts were found on Grade 9 textbook. In addition, poems took the highest representation in both grades 70 % and 52 %, respectively. On the other hand, the rest of the literary genres were under represented even some of them were ignored to be included in the textbooks of both grade levels.

The comparison was also made among the literary texts intended in promoting skills in the textbooks.

TABLE VIII
COMPARISON OF THE TOTAL SKILLS LITERARY TEXTS PROMOTE

No.	The frequency of the skills the literary texts promotes	Grade 9		Grade 10		Total	
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
		1.	Listening	-	-	2	4.5%
2.	Speaking	1	5.5%	15	36.5%	16	27
3.	Reading	9	50%	15	36.5%	24	41
4	Writing	6	33.5%	3	7%	9	15
5	Integratively the 4 skills	-	-	-	-	-	-
6.	Vocabulary	1	5.5%	3	7%	4	7
7	Grammar	1	5.5%	3	7%	4	7
	Total	18	100	41	100%	59	100%

As Table 8 revealed, 18 different language skill activities were incorporated in Grade 9 textbook. Whereas, in Grade10 textbook, 59 language skill activities were included. This reveals that, in grade 10 textbook, there was better treatment of language skills using literary texts; however, in Grade 9 textbook activities developed from literary texts were scarce. Reading and writing had better representation in grade 9 textbook but in Grade 10 textbook, speaking and reading took the highest proportion. Nonetheless, there rest skills were less treated or abandoned. Therefore, this analysis revealed that reading and speaking skills activities were predominately represented in the textbooks of both Grades 9 and 10 in general.

B. Analysis of Classroom Observation

In this part of the analysis, the teachers practice of literary texts and difficulties they faced were analyzed. Four English language teachers were observed three times each using checklists.

TABLE IX
CLASSROOM OBSERVATION ACTIVITIES

No.	Items/activities	Response in	Observations		
			Observed	Somewhat observed	Not observed
	Developing and providing activities on literary texts				
1	Creating supportive classroom activities developing pre, while and post activities for literary texts	No. %	- -	1 33.3%	2 66.7%
2	providing more creative, encrypt, challenging literary texts that require personal exploration supported with prior knowledge	No. %	- -	- -	3 100%
	Motivation related activities				
3	Stimulating students' creative and literary imagination and developing their appreciation of literature	No. %	1 33.3%	- -	2 66.7%
4	Encouraging students to actively participate in the process of understanding the literary texts when they teach language skills.	No. %	- -	1 33.3%	2 66.7%
5	Helping the learners develop their level of competence with respect to their receptive and productive skills via literary texts	No. %	- -	1 33.3%	2 66.7%
6	Making the learner familiar with different literary texts incorporated in the text	No. %	- -	1 33.3%	2 66.7%
	Language skills integration and practice related activities				
7	Using literary materials to teach language skills frequently.	No. %	- -	1 33.3%	2 66.7%
8	Practicing different approaches of teaching literary texts (information-based approach ,personal-response approach language-based approach paraphrastic approach etc.)	No. %	- -	1 33.3%	2 66.7%
9	Employing active learning methods like storytelling, discussions, presentations, debates, cooperative learning etc. when they teach literary texts.	No. %	- -	- -	3 100%
10	Giving the chance for students to read, understand, interpret and appreciate literary texts in EFL classroom.	No. %	- -	1 33.3%	2 66.7%
11	Consolidating the four language skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening using literary texts	No. %	- -	- -	3 100%

1. Developing and providing activities for literary texts

To practice literary texts in the classroom, the role of the teacher has its own impact on teaching learning process. Table 9 above indicated that 66.7% of teachers did not create supportive classroom activities developing pre, while and post activities for literary texts. Only, 33.3% of the observation revealed that teachers somewhat showed limited efforts for practising pre, while and post activities for teaching literary texts. In addition, 100% of the analysis indicated that teachers did not provide more creative, encrypt, and challenging literary texts that require personal exploration supported with prior knowledge. More to the point, providing background information (culture, history, politics, and author) related to literary texts was not seen in the actual teaching learning process. Hence, the analysis indicated that teachers were not efficient in providing activities and developing critical thinking ability of the learners.

2. Motivation related activities

As the analysis in Table 8 revealed, in 66.7 % of their practice, teachers failed to stimulate students' creative and literary imagination and developing their appreciation of literature. Besides, in 66.7 % of the teachers practice, the analysis revealed that they were not observed helping the learners develop their level of competence with respect to their receptive and productive skills via literary texts. Generally, this analysis showed that teachers lacked to motivate their students to be keen at reading literary texts.

3. Language skills integration and practice related activities

Table 8 illustrated that 66.7% of the observation showed that teachers were not practising literary texts regularly. That is, teachers were not giving chance for students to read, understand, interpret and appreciate literary texts in EFL classroom. Furthermore, 100% of the observation revealed that teachers were not employing active learning methods like storytelling, discussions, presentations, debates and cooperative learning while teaching literary texts. In addition, 66.7% the observation indicated that teachers were not practising the approach used for teaching literary texts. The observation showed that none of teachers were integrating skills. Moreover, teachers were not combining the productive and receptive skills in teaching literary texts. Largely, this analysis indicated that practising and integrating language skills was not practised in the teaching of literary texts.

Generally, this analysis showed that most of teachers failed to employ pre, while and post activities while teaching literary texts, and they failed to regularly practise literary genres found in the textbook. Besides, teachers failed to motivate students to practise literary texts to develop their creativity and literary imagination. With regard to consolidating the four language skills, none of teachers attempted to consolidate language skills.

C. Focus Group Discussion

In the discussion, first teachers' practice of teaching literary texts was examined. In this regard, almost all of them reported that they only practised some aspects of literary genres like short stories and novel extracts. For instance, Teacher (T₁) in this regard replied that, "I sometimes teach literary texts which are easier to understand such as short stories and novel extracts. Most of the time I prefer to jump." Similarly, T₃ replied that, "in short, I rarely teach literary texts found in the textbook that have reading comprehension and vocabulary."

Besides, the rest teachers all in one replied that they did not have any awareness and knowhow about approaches of teaching literary texts instead they taught their students in a classic and traditional manner. From these responses, it could be possible to say that, teachers did not teach the literary text in a way they were included in the textbooks. They used to select easier texts to teach reading comprehension and vocabulary.

Second, the challenges teachers faced to teach literary texts was examined. One of the factors that most respondents reflected was related to the difficult language used in the literary texts. T₁ in this regard mentioned as, "I do not concentrate on teaching literary texts because the language used in literary texts is difficult to understand. The words used especially in the poems are difficult. So, I jump them." This teacher adds, "Even most students are not interested to learn literary texts due to complex structure of literary texts." This implies that both teachers and students found the literary texts difficult to understand. Due to the difficulty nature of the texts, as this respondent pointed out students' learning interest was affected negatively. The rest of the respondents agreed with this idea as T₃ reflected, "I always get literary texts confusing because of the difficulty nature of words."

The other challenge all the respondents noted was their lack of training in using literary texts for teaching the language. For instance, T₃ "... mostly I ignored teaching literary texts because I am not well- trained to use literature for language teaching so that I was also not interested in teaching literary texts." As this respondent reflected that due to the lack of training about using literary texts in teaching the language, he used to ignore literary texts in his teaching. This teacher- related challenge could seriously affect teachers' practice in the implementation of literary texts.

Therefore, FGDs revealed that teachers were not satisfactorily practising literary texts. They were ignoring most of the literary genres in their teaching. They sometimes taught short stories and extracts of novels to teach reading comprehension and vocabulary. However, teachers used to disregard the other literary forms due to the difficulty nature of the literary texts for them and the skill deficiency they had on how to use literary texts in teaching language.

V. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

In the discussion, the research questions were addressed through triangulating the results obtained from the different data analyses.

The first research question enquired to examine the most represented literary genres on the textbooks. The finding obtained from textbook analysis indicated that poems were dominantly found in the textbooks. However, other genres were scarcely represented. This finding disagrees with what Akyel and Yalçın (1990) mention including wide scope of literature containing different literary genres such as novel, short story, poetry and drama that appeal to students' tastes and needs is determinant.

The second research question was asking on identifying the major language skills promoted by literary texts. The analysis obtained from textbook analysis presented that reading and speaking were emphasized in the textbooks. Besides, writing took the third rank next to speaking. However, the remaining language skills were not given due attention in literary texts. However, as opposed to this, Babae & Yahya (2014) claim that literature is of great

significance in teaching speaking, listening, reading and writing skills. That is to say, the literary texts should be used to develop all language skills integratively instead of focusing on few skills.

The third research question was intended to explore teachers' practices of using literary texts in EFL classroom. Accordingly, the data obtained from the classroom observation and FGDs indicated that teachers were not practising literary texts. As the results indicated, teachers were ignoring most of the literary genres from their teaching. As it was put following this, different reasons were attributed.

The fourth research question was identifying factors hindering the practices of literary texts. Teachers were not practising literary texts. The different challenges teachers faced as FGDs and classroom observation data analysis results revealed were mainly difficulty nature of the literary texts, students' lack of interest to learn literary texts and teachers' lack of pedagogical skill on how to use literature to teach language. The finding goes in line with Collie and Slater (1987).

VI. CONCLUSION

Considering the research questions and the findings obtained, the following conclusions were drawn.

The literary texts were not proportionally represented in the textbooks. Textbooks mainly included poems disregarding other genres. With regard to the skills addressed in the literary texts, speaking and reading skills were dominantly treated underestimating other skills. Though some literary texts were found in the textbooks, there were limitations among the teachers in practising them in the classroom due to the difficulty nature of the literary texts for teachers and teachers' lack pedagogical skills to teach these texts. Therefore, both the representation and the practise of the literary texts in the secondary schools tended to be unsuccessful. As a result, language teaching in the secondary schools appeared to miss the benefits of literary texts for language teaching.

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mention some journals,

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2. *Indus Foundation for Research and Social Welfare*, 9(11), 41-50, November 2019;
3. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 10 (22), 23-40, August 2019.
4. *Theories and Practice in Language Studies*.10 (4), 372-378.
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Proverb as a Tool of Persuasion in Political Discourse (on the Material of Georgian and French languages)

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Abstract—Our study deals with the use of proverbs as a tool of persuasion in political discourse. Within this study we have studied and analyzed the texts of Georgian and French political articles, speeches and proverbs used therein. The analysis revealed that the proverbs found and used by us in the French discourses were not only of French origin. Also, most of the proverbs found in the French discourses were used as titles of the articles. As for the Georgian proverbs, they consisted mainly of popular proverbs well known to the Georgian public. Georgia proverbs have rarely been cited as an article title. According to the general conclusion, the use of proverbs as a tool of persuasion in the political discourse by the politicians of both countries is quite relevant. It is effective when it is persuasive and at the same time causes an emotional reaction. Quoting the proverbs, the politicians base their thinking on positions. The proverb is one of the key argumentative techniques.

Index Terms—proverb, translation, culture, argumentation

I. INTRODUCTION

The article is concerned with a proverb, as a tool of persuasion in Georgian and French political discourse. In the beginning, we'll review the conception of a proverb and try to pick out a working definition acceptable for us from several existing ones.

We will analyze and identify the impact of the different socio-cultural environments through comparative study. Apart from this, we will try to identify the use of proverbs determined by the aforementioned impact as a tool of persuasion in political discourse.

As a basis, we will use the material from both printed and electronic Georgian and French publications, where there are published interviews of politicians, as well as politicians' and political scientists' assessments of current political, economic, social and cultural events in the country. The basis also includes political speeches.

The novelty of our study is the fact that the use of the argumentative technique of proverb hasn't been studied yet with the use of comparative methodology according to Georgian and French materials, especially with the materials of political discourse.

Proverb is a quite complex and multifaceted phenomenon. Perhaps that was the reason that virtually no verbal form has been a subject of so many studies as a proverb is. In particular, it is studied in the fields of folklore, linguistics, sociology, ethnography, pedagogy, psychology and psychiatry.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

It should be noted that our study issue, i.e. topic of proverb, has been the subject of interest since the middle of the XIX century, but its permanent scientific study began in the second half of the XX century. The discipline which recognizes proverb as a main object of the study emerged exactly this period of time. This is paremiology. Paremiology is interested in collecting, analyzing and sorting of proverbs, wise expressions said by people that were orally propagated. Paremiology combines all proverb related things, everything that concerns the study of proverbs.

The most important work in paremiology belongs to Archie Taylor, the American linguist, "The proverb", published in 1931 and even today it is considered as an introduction to paremiology. Important works in paremiology were also written by Matti Kuusi, "Towards an international type-system of Proverbs" (1972). Kuusi is also a founder and publisher of the first international scientific journal, "Proverbium". Wolfgang Mieder is also considered to be the founder of paremiology. His works published in various years are still in the center of attention of paremiologists as one of the basic theoretical materials, "Proverbs are never out of season: popular wisdom in the modern Age, published in 1983. Contemporary works in paremiology "Proverbes et formes proverbiales: valeur évidentielle et argumentative" (1994), "La parole proverbiale" belong to Jean-Claude Anscombre. There are also "Sur le sens des proverbes" (2000)

by Georges Kleiber and “Sens figé: idiomes et proverbes” by Irène Tamba, Wolfgang Mieder’s “A handbook” (2004), “Behold the proverbs of a people: proverbial wisdom in culture, literature, and politics” (2014).

In spite of the time limitations of study and the abundance of scientific papers there is no uniform definition of the proverb. After discussing various definitions of proverbs in the abovementioned papers, we have developed the following definition of the proverb: a proverb is a result of collective awareness, a verbal form existing in all languages and, unlike all other large or small verbal forms, it has an indigenous, specific content, structure and perception. Proverb draws a picture of regular events of the universe figuratively. In some proverbs an icon is sharply metaphorical, it is less metaphorical in other ones. A sentence is the lower level of the proverbial structure. Proverb determines knowledge accumulated by humans in the process of assimilation and differentiation of the world and in the same way “revives” it in a particular communication context.

Despite the simple and refined form understandable for everybody at first sight, proverb is paroemias with rather complicated specifics. It is a universal phenomenon having been practiced been fixed apparently for centuries in a solid verbal form in every language and it always responds to the demands of awareness with its function.

Proverb is a formula modeled like a concept in the mentality of nation, which is informative in the context of differential psychology of nations. The proverb gives us an idea of the peculiarities of national point of view of people speaking this language. This approach enables the identification of different ethnic cultures.

Virtually paremiology recognizes unambiguously that the semantic structure of proverb consists of thematic-logical combinations (although the approaches differ from each other (Krikman, 1998; Barley, 1972).

At the end of the 20th century V. Mieder, an author of the famous book “Proverb are never out of Season” (1983), gave a positive assessment of paremiology from retrospective study positions. According to him, paremiologists have made an important contribution to the study of proverbs, providing a solid foundation which the future paremiology can continue to build on.

Whereas our basis consists of proverbs used in political discourses, we need to review political discourse briefly. The most important work on political discourse belongs to Patrick Charaudeau's “Political discourse, masks of power. This work is an excellent example of interdisciplinary study on political discourse. According to Charaudeau (2005), communication situation is very important for political discourse, because “it is the communication situation giving a political character to the discourse and not the content of the discourse” (p. 30). There are other significant works in this field, such as Ruth Amossy's “Political discourse”, Baylon's “Sociolinguistics”. According to Ruth Amossy, “political discourse is any kind of discourse involving a discussion about the social arrangement.”(p.247) Baylon argues that discourse is political when it is uttered by a politician for political purposes.(p.93)

III. METHOD

The study methodology of our article will be interdisciplinary and comparative. This will be a linguistic study covering sociocultural, linguocultural, ethnological and pure cultural aspects.

Accordingly, we are studying this issue quite differently - we discuss proverbs created by nations using the French language, having French culture and traditions, on the one hand, and, on the other hand, we discuss proverbs created by nations using Georgian language, having Georgian culture and traditions. We will analyze two completely different socio cultural environments determining the politician's choice to use a particular proverb as a tool of persuasion.

IV. RESULTS

We'll begin the study of the basis by illustrating the use of common argumentative techniques (using specific examples from both Georgian and French press) being used by politicians of both countries to make their discourses effective and successful. However, proverbs are used with different intensity in Georgian and French discourses as one of the supporting argumentative techniques for persuading listeners/readers. Also from the socio-cultural point of view, in their discourses the politicians of the two countries have used the types and themes corresponding to the socio-cultural, historical-cultural, ethno-cultural background of each country, and thus are easily understandable by the majority of audience.

Let's discuss specific examples and identify similarities among them. We have analyzed articles both in printed and electronic media, as well as video recordings of TV shows. We have identified that the proverbs which were obtained from political discourse (we have found, discussed and analyzed 41 French discourses and 54 Georgian discourses, some of which are given in the article), basically had been used in France by oppositionist politicians for strengthening their ideas.

For example: All talk and no action! (Grand diseux, petit faiseux. fr.).

Promising a lot, giving a little.

ბევრის დამპირებელი, ცოტას გამცემი.

Everything with words, nothings with deed.

სიტყვით ყველაფერი, საქმით არაფერი.

The abovementioned proverb was used by Laurent Fabius, the former Prime Minister of France, during the talk about President Nicolas Sarkozy on “France 5”, in the TV show “Ripostes” on September 25, 2008. The former Prime

Minister expressed dissatisfaction toward the President's numerous unfulfilled promises, adding that he was from Normandy and used Norman aforementioned proverb as one of the strong arguments for supporting his views.

The proverb is a solid argument as it is the result of collective awareness. It does not have a single author whom the society trusts or not. In most cases, the proverb expresses the public truth that is shared by a large part of society.

This proves once again that proverb has a great reliability and credibility in the reader, on the other hand, the usage of proverbs by politicians causes an effective and emotional response. The origin of this proverb is Norman. That's why it is correctly chosen to be used by the Norman politician. This proverb is seen as a key tool of persuasion and one of the basic argumentative techniques in political discourse.

Proverbs in Georgian discourses are often used not only by oppositionists but also by senior officials of the government, which indicates that proverbs play a major role in shaping the voters' opinions and at the same time increase their credibility with politicians. While assessing the possible amendments to the Labor Code the Speaker of Parliament, Archil Talakvadze used the proverb known as "Measure thrice and cut once". He used this proverb after expressing the position of the Speaker of the Parliament and the ruling party that important laws should be adopted after the impact assessment and communication with the relevant sectors. In this case, the use of proverbs as an argumentative technique to influence the audience is also effective. The author of the article has mentioned the proverb in the title of the article, which also confirms the high credibility of the proverb in Georgian society.

In Georgian discourses, oppositionist politicians don't use proverbs rarely as one of the effective tool of persuasion. For the instance, we can mention the discourse of Kakha Kukava, an oppositionist deputy who talked about the possible participation of his party Free Georgia in the elections in the broadcast of "Moambe" of Georgian First Channel. Oppositionist deputy expresses his supposition that if a sufficient number of people take part in the elections the ruling party Georgian Dream and the former ruling party National Movement will have no chance of winning. According to this his no so famous party is likely to win. His opinion is supported by old Georgian proverb, "Nothing ventured, nothing gained". This proverb was Kukava's response to the broadcaster's question about his program minimum in the elections because he received only 1.25% of votes in the local self-government elections.

It is also very interesting to discuss the proverbs used in the assessment of political events. Interpressnews interviewed Professor of International Law, academician Levan Aleksidze, about the problems of investigating the August war of 2008. In assessing these events Aleksidze notes that it is unacceptable to accuse former President of Georgia Mikheil Saakashvili of having European friends support and seek nepotism in this fact. These people are the ones who are helping Georgia get closer to Europe and ruining the relationship with them will do nothing for the country. Levan Aleksidze uses a famous Georgian proverb that sounds as follows, "You should not spit in the well from which you have to drink water" (Let every man speak well of the bridge that carries him over). Aleksidze says that politics needs more prudence and calls on this proverb to strengthen his opinion and get much more reliability and credibility as a general truth shared by people.

Georgian Discourses:

It is very interesting quite long-running discourse of the former Georgian President Mikheil Saakashvili during his speech in parliament during his presidency. He emphasized the unity of the party noting that his opponents had not broken the unity of him and his party National Movement, and were trying to apply pressure on party members at that time. He used the proverb "Power is in the unity" to create more reliability and credibility, which means that they can't break us (article published by the Information Analytical Agency on December 23, 2012). The author of the article has published the proverb as a title of the article.

On November 17, 2016, Dimitri Kumsishvili, the First Deputy Prime Minister of Georgia and the Minister of Economy and Sustainable Development, responded with a proverb to a question posed by a journalist about governmental changes. Journalists were interested in the new convocation of the parliament and possible governmental changes. Kumsishvili said the Georgian proverb "Easter and tomorrow" and then added that it would be exactly the next day and it would be better to wait for it. Using this proverb, Dimitri Kumsishvili satisfied the interest of a large part of the society about the governmental changes by using the proverb, which was originated from the society itself. This tool of persuasion is so credible that it reflects not only Dimitri Kumsishvili's personal opinion but it is shared and accepted by the large part of the society.

There are also very important discourses of Georgian politicians. Bidzina Ivanishvili the former Prime Minister of Georgia, uses a proverb while assessing the situation occurred after Tbilisi Zoo tragedy of June 13, 2015, caused by the flood. "Some grief is beneficial" – says the former Prime Minister about the situation occurred. According to him, he never liked the location of the former zoo. After the disaster it was necessary to move the zoo to another place. Bidzina Ivanishvili used this proverb to strengthen his opinions and cause an emotional influence.

We also found another discourse of Bidzina Ivanishvili, in which he used this proverb "Some grief is beneficial" once again. This is the discourse dated from November 27, 2019 in which the ex PM Bidzina Ivanishvili assesses current events. In the broadcast of TV Imedi he underlines that despite of the fact that all promises given have not been fulfilled the development of the country must be continued. We do not always have a choice between good and better, bad and worse. We have managed to mobilize, I have been very active and have not disband the team. The breakdown of the majority would be tragic for this country. Imagine, we have kept a stable majority, and I love the saying that

“Some grief is beneficial”. Of course it was bad as it happened, but we have to make versatile conclusions from this and carry on the stable development of the country.

This proverb is quite popular in Georgian society and its meaning is well known to the great part of the society. This is exactly what is taken into account by current or former politicians, including Bidzina Ivanishvili, while using proverbs to strengthen their opinions. In such way they make their discourses more credible and persuasive. They also create high emotional background.

On September 28, 2012, David Bakradze, the Number First of the list of the party National Movement, the Speaker of the Parliament of Georgia, addressed the supporters of the ruling party:

“All Georgia, all generations are gathered. I remind the proverb ‘Unity is strength’. Yes, we are strong. This unity awaits to be tested. We have to make a choice in 3 days, the way where Georgia will go...”

While producing the most important discourse, which was uttered in the final part of the pre-election period, David Bakradze used the phrase “Unity is strength”. The abovementioned proverb causes quite emotional background in the Georgian society. This proverb underlines the fact that everything can be achieved by the unity and the enemies, both internal and external ones, cannot damage us. The fact that David Bakradze’s discourse and thoughts are strengthened by this proverb is not accidental. The politician understands the importance of winning over the masses, winning their hearts and getting their support in the decisive stage, pre-election period and in order to manage this he builds up an emotional discourse and uses the proverb to provide more sensitivity and persuasion.

Mamuka Katsitadze, one of the leaders of the New Rights Party, called shameful the speech of Sozar Subari having been telecasted in the Caucasia TV on May 11 (2011). According to Katsitadze: “Sozar Subari’s limited ability to analyze does not allow him to make any other conclusions and he thinks that when two politicians meet they must necessarily talk about money”.

“Irakli Alasania was a high-ranking diplomat; he used to meet Lavrov (Sergey Lavrov, Russia’s foreign minister) and other world class politicians. He still meets politicians. Sozar Subari failed to strengthen his arguments regarding Alasania’s pro-Russianism. I will simply say that I remembered one proverb: “Argue on one side of the river and stay tuned on the other side”. The politicians who criticize Irakli Alasania are like this”.

The proverb used by Mamuka Katsitadze, “Argue on one side of the river and stay tuned on the other side” had been chosen correctly according to the current political situation. Against the background of strongly criticizing members of the opposing ruling party by Mamuka Katsitadze’s New Rights Party, they got retaliatory criticism from the ruling party accusing its supporter Irakli Alasania of being pro-Russian. Mamuka Katsitadze adapted this proverb to the current situation very well and chose the right one to support his point of view.

Proverbs used in French discourses:

La victoire a cent pères, mais la défaite est orpheline - Victory has a hundred fathers, defeat is an orphan.

The journalist reviews the current political processes in the country in the article published in the magazine “Revue des deux mondes” (May 12, 2017). They include the resignation of President François Hollande that is regarded as a serious psychological challenge for him. The concession of power derives some problems for almost all officials, and François Hollande is not an exception in this case. The journalist uses the proverb “Victory has a hundred fathers, defeat is an orphan”. The journalist tries to strengthen the idea that after his resignation, François Hollande would be less acceptable in different circles than he was during the time of his presidency.

In the interview with “Focus” (September 15, 1997) Jacques Chirac, a former President of France, talks about political and social issues. Summing up the quite long-lasting interview, Jacques Chirac cites the proverb to strengthen his conclusion. Though the French president has used not a French proverb but a Chinese one and he has even emphasized on it.

Comme dit le proverbe chinois: “ce n’est pas la richesse qui manque dans le monde, c’est le partage.” “It is not the wealth that is lacking in the world, it is the sharing”. Jacques Chirac responded to the global financial crisis and somehow made a conclusion about it.

In political discourses it is quite relevant to use the authority of competent, well-known public figures. However, naming one and the same authority in front of the one audience may strengthen the argument, while in front of the other audience it may, on the contrary, interfere with the audience’s opinion of the argumentator. That’s why politicians, and in this case Jacques Chirac, the President of France of that time uses proverbs as a more credible argument. Because, as we have already mentioned, the proverb has high reliability in society and reflects the widespread truth.

In the telecast of 21 March, 1997 Jacques Chirac, then President of France, talks about the reasons having caused the dissolution of National Assembly and repeated parliamentary election. The President underlines the fact that the power belongs to people and precisely they must express their position through voting. Jacques Chirac emphasizes the unity by which can be achieved everything. He also mentions Europe. Even though there are confrontations in Europe as well, mostly it has been associated with peace during the past half century - the president admits. In today’s fast-changing world, Europe will bring new opportunities and secure future for us (France), because Europe is the union and “Unity is strength”.

In this case, French President Jacques Chirac used the proverb “Unity is strength” (L’union fait la force) to achieve the highest quality of thought adequacy and understanding. This is a well-known way of calling on the authority. In the

final part of his speech, the President added the proverb as an authoritarian argument to strengthen his statements and opinions.

François Fillon, the former Prime Minister of France, criticizes the current President François Hollande in the discourse of January 14, 2014 published in French magazine “20 minutes”. François Fillon complains about rising taxes and changing the limit for retirement age to 62. He claims that he believes in the words of the French President, but the reality is quite troubling. François Fillon uses the proverb originated from Japan “You can’t clear away the fog with the fan” (on ne chasse pas le brouillard avec un éventail). In this case the proverb is also used as a way of strengthening the argument, comparing between the way out of the difficult processes occurring in France and clearing away the fog with the fan. François Fillon even finds it impossible to get out of this situation. With the help of this proverb, he tries to reinforce the opinions expressed by him in the same discourse.

First of all, usage of proverbs by oppositionist or current politicians is a characteristic feature of political discourses of both languages:

1. As one of the argumentative techniques
2. As one of the best tool of persuasion
3. To build strong emotional discourse
4. To illustrate a better future of the country
5. To show the attitude towards the opposition or the future

The analysis has revealed the following differences:

1. The proverbs used in Georgian discourses have rarely been used as the title of the article.
2. Almost all the proverbs found in the French articles were used as titles.
3. The proverbs in Georgian discourses mainly consisted of proverbs that were popular in Georgian society.
4. The proverbs in French discourses had purely French origin, as well as a foreign one.

V. CONCLUSION

As a general conclusion, we can say that the use of proverbs as an effective tool of persuasion in political discourse is effective when it is persuasive and at the same time causes an emotional response. The meaning of the proverb is much clearer in the language of persuasion. It can be said that proverb is one of the main tools of persuasion in the political language. From a political point of view, the credibility of the speaker/narrator is important. Whether or not the speaker is going to believe it is probably a whole socio-psychological complex chain.

It is quite relevant to use proverbs known to the society. Politicians use them to strengthen their opinions and positions. Proverbs are one of the key argumentative techniques of political discourses for persuading the audience.

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Steps of Designing a Personal Questions Bank in a Pedagogical Way

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Abstract—Teaching is one of the most important professions that affect different aspects of life. Despite the difference between teaching and testing process, they have a huge interdependent and integrated relation. Teasing information out of them is a complicated process when they are separated. The educational objectives can't be achieved without the integration between teaching and testing. This paper addresses steps of designing a questions bank that may help teachers come out with perfect tests that evaluate different levels of Bloom's Taxonomy cognitive domain, backwash the whole process of the course learning, and reflect intended learning outcomes (ILOs). This paper helps teachers design their questions bank while they are teaching and illustrates steps of feeding it with different types of questions using the cognitive domain of Bloom's Taxonomy, table of specification (TOS) and level of difficulties in a pedagogical way.

Index Terms—Questions bank, pedagogical, intended learning outcomes (ILOs), table of specification (TOS)

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching process can't be developed without testing. Testing helps educators to carry on teaching and to evaluate their success of achieving a course objective, so their integration is a must. Popham (2003) points out that teaching and testing are related to each other: when teachers teach instructionally, students perform better, and critical connection between one's teaching and one's testing, substantial increase in instructional effectiveness, depends on understanding this connection properly. Brown (1994) pointed that despite the difference between testing and teaching, they are connected to each other in an interwoven way that they cannot be separated. Popham (2003) defines an educational test as a formal way to determine students' status of knowledge skills and attitudes. Teachers teach their students a whole course, then test them to find out if they have reached their goal or not. These goals or intended learning outcomes (ILOs) should be assigned before teaching. Writing test questions is not a matter of writing questions that have answers inside the book; teachers should design their tests in a scientific process that tests students' achievement of ILOs, i.e. test questions must be aligned with ILOs.

Test results help teachers evaluate students' digestion of the course, so a test must be designed adequately. To make a questions bank for an English course, teachers should know the following:

- 1- Bloom Taxonomy (cognitive domain)
- 2- Types of questions
- 3- Table of specification

II. BLOOM TAXONOMY

Bloom B, S(1965) in his handbook *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, displayed his "Bloom's taxonomy" which he created in order to promote higher forms of thinking in education. He divides the cognitive domain to six levels of educational objectives:

- 1- Knowledge
- 2- Comprehension
- 3- Application
- 4- Analysis
- 5- Synthesis
- 6- Evaluation

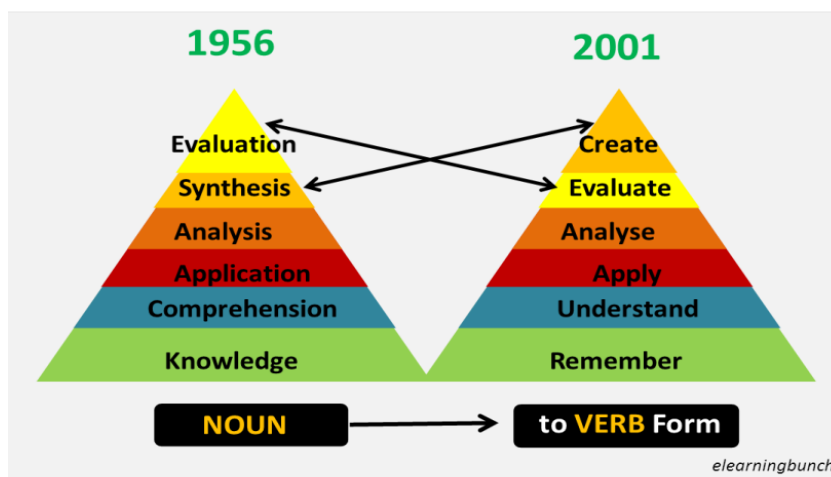
Figure .1 bellow illustrates the old version of Bloom's cognitive domain.



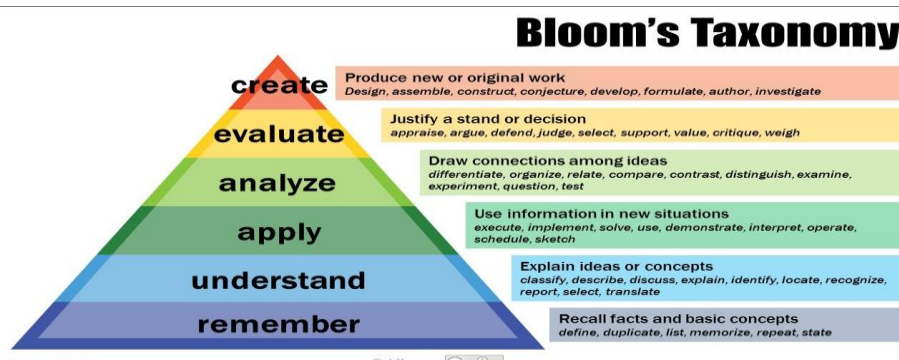
Source: <http://cehdclass.gmu.edu/ndabbagh/Resources/IDKB/bloomstax.htm>
 Figure. I: Old Version of Bloom' Cognitive Domain

Later in the mid-nineties, Lorin Anderson, a former student of Bloom, and David Krathwohl developed Bloom's Taxonomy (see Figures. II& III for illustration) and made some changes as follows:

- 1- Changing names from noun to verb forms.
- 2- Rearranging the highest level as in figure. II below.
- 3- Creating a knowledge matrix process and levels see figure. III below.



Source: <https://elearningbunch.wordpress.com/2013/02/20/revised-bloom-taxonomy/>
 Figure. II: Revised Bloom's Taxonomy



Source: <https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/blooms-taxonomy/>
 Figure. III: New version of Bloom's Taxonomy

Teachers should consider what level of thinking in Bloom's Taxonomy they intend to achieve as a first step when they start planning their lessons. As a sequence they consider these levels which they have planned when they construct their tests' questions. It is very important to use the right stem verbs that test the ILOs. Table. I below illustrates lists of stem verbs that teachers can use to determine ILOs and write their test questions according to these levels.

TABLE I:
STEM VERBS OF THE BLOOM'S TAXONOMY LEVEL

Bloom's Level	Stem Verbs (keywords)	Example Learning Objective
Create	design, formulate, build, invent, create, compose, generate, derive, modify, develop	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to design an original homework problem dealing with the principle of conservation of energy.
Evaluate	choose, support, relate, determine, defend, judge, grade, compare, contrast, argue, justify, support, convince, select, evaluate.	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to determine whether using conservation of energy or conservation of momentum would be more appropriate for solving a dynamics problem.
Analyze	classify, break down, categorize, analyze, diagram, illustrate, criticize, simplify, associate.	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to differentiate between potential and kinetic energy.
Apply	calculate, predict, apply, solve, illustrate, use, demonstrate, determine, model, perform, present.	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to calculate the kinetic energy of a projectile
Understand	describe, explain, paraphrase, restate, give original examples of, summarize, contrast, interpret, discuss.	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to describe Newton's three laws of motion to in her/his own word.
Remember	list, recite, outline, define, name, match, quote, recall, identify, label, recognize	By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to recite Newton's three laws of motion.

Source: <https://tips.uark.edu/using-blooms-taxonomy/>

Using Bloom's Taxonomy in planning and constructing test questions helps to meet the quality matter standards of course teaching and achieve the course objectives (i.e. which are broad and cannot be measured without achieving lesson objectives, which are specific).

III. TYPES OF TEST-QUESTIONS

Before illustrating types of test questions, teachers should differentiate between types of tests. Some of these types are:

- A proficiency test, which measures the overall ability in a language the candidate possesses in general, such as in speaking and listening course.
- An achievement test, which tests students' knowledge of a content that has been taught on a certain course.
- A diagnostic test, which specifies strength and weakness that a learner may have in a specific area of a course or skill.
- A prognostic test, which draws a prediction of students' future performance in course.

Each of the above tests uses different types of questions: objective or subjective questions. Both type of these questions has pros and cons, which teachers should realize before writing their tests questions.

Test questions can be divided to two main types:

A. Objective Questions

Objective questions can be summarized in four types:

- i. Multiple choice questions (MCQs)
- ii. True/False questions
- iii. Matching table
- iv. Fill in the blank

B. Subjective Questions

Subjective questions can be summarized in two types:

- i. Short answers questions
- ii. Essay questions:
 - a- Guided writing questions
 - b- Open writing questions
 - c- Performance questions

The course and lesson objectives must be considered when writing test questions. Teachers should choose the best format that suits these objectives and ensures that students achieve ILOs.

IV. TABLE OF SPECIFICATION

Table of specification or blueprint (TOS) is a two-way chart that helps teachers map a test onto their instructional objectives for a given segment of the course study. TOS identify which topics to be covered by a certain test, and it also gives a clear picture of the number of items and points associated to these items in a test of a certain topics. TOS benefits students and teachers, and can be used to help educators to:

- 1- Provide a link between teaching and testing.
- 2- Put instructional objectives of any part of course into a map for a test- questions.
- 3- Make test construction process clear.

- 4- Achieve the validity of teacher-made testing.
- 5- Identify all area of content to be covered in the class before the test.
- 6- Identify which level of the cognitive domain of Blooms Taxonomy the questions of the test test .

Steps of using TOS

Al-Bashier, et al. (2009) state the steps of using TOS, as follow:

- Specify the educational objectives of the content which will be tested.
- Specify the items in the content to be assessed.
- Specify the percentages of the content division based on the following equation.

$$\frac{\text{Hours of each unit}}{\text{Total hours of the course}} \times 100$$

- Specify the level of the cognitive domain to be assessed according to the teaching specification. E.g. 25% remembering, 30% understanding, 20% applying, 20% creating.
- Specify the number of questions for the test e.g. 20 questions, 40 questions, etc.
- Specify the number of items in each question.

To use the equation $\frac{\text{Hours of each unit}}{\text{Total hours of the course}} \times 100$ to find the percentage of content division based on a course specification

Table. II below illustrates analysis for a course specification of Applied Linguistics, as an example for content analysis as a first step for constructing test questions. It illustrates how to use the equation $\frac{\text{Hours of each unit}}{\text{Total hours of the course}} \times 100$, to find the percentage of content division based on a course specification

TABLE. II:
CONTENT ANALYSIS FOR A COURSE SPECIFICATION, APPLIED LINGUISTICS 2

Content analysis according to course specification, Applied Linguistics 2	ENG-3 (423)		
List of Topics	No. of Weeks	Contact hours	Percentages of the hours to the content to construct the test question
The Grammar-Translation Method	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
The Direct Method	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
The Audio-Lingual Method	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
The Silent Way	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Desuggestopedia	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Community Language Learning	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Total Physical Response	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Communicative Language Teaching	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Task-based Teaching	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Learning Strategy Training,			
Cooperative Learning ,Multiple Intelligences	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Types of tests, characteristics of a good test	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Evaluating Listening	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Evaluating Reading	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Evaluating Writing	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Evaluating Grammar	1	3	$\frac{3}{45} \times 100 = 6.66\%$
Final Term Examination	15	Total = 45 hours	

After determining the ratio of the content division (which shows the ratio of each part of the content questions to the total of the test-questions (6.6% of the tests question of each topic if they are all covered), then teachers go on to the next step to decide the number of questions for each level of cognitive domain to assess covering each part of the course according to the division results. See Table. III

TABLE. III:

EXAMPLE OF USING TOS TO CREATE QUESTIONS REFLECTING THE CONTENT AND LEARNING LEVEL ACCORDING TO COURSE OBJECTIVES

Content	Percentage in the test	Remembering	Understanding	Applying	Evaluating	Creating	Total questions
The Grammar- Translation Method	20%	3	2	2	3		$\frac{20}{100} \times 50 = 10$ q
The Direct Method	20%		3	2	2	3	$\frac{20}{100} \times 50 = 10$ q
The Audio-Lingual Method	20%	5	5				$\frac{20}{100} \times 50 = 10$ q
The Silent Way	20%	2	3	2	3		$\frac{20}{100} \times 50 = 10$ q
Desuggestopedia	20%	5			5		$\frac{20}{100} \times 50 = 10$ q
Total questions of the test	100						50

Table. III illustrates how the number of questions is divided on the course content according to the period of time determined in the course specification for each unit, and how TOS helps educators decide which levels of learning domains to test. Taking “connecting idea unit” as an example, 10 questions out of 50 questions will be on this area , these 10 questions will be designed to test certain level of leaning domain according to this unit objectives , such as : remembering 3 questions, applying 2 questions, evaluating 2 questions , and creating 3 questions , to have 10 questions in total that test the Grammar-Translation Method part. If we take the Audio-Lingual Method unit, there should be 10 questions, 5 questions test remembering, 5 questions test evaluating, and so on for the rest of the units using same equations on all units. After testing the students, teachers should find out the levels of difficulty of the test questions to decide whether to reuse test questions or develop them in the future. Specifying levels of difficulty helps teachers to map-picture about planned skills students have not achieved. Moreover, it helps teachers evaluate themselves and, finally, it helps teachers build the foundation needed to create a personal questions bank.

The levels of difficulty of any test-questions can be determined by testing a small sample of students, then marks obtained in this test for each question are analyzed using equation to put questions in categories.

V. HOW TO EVALUATE LEVELS OF DIFFICULTY OF TEST QUESTIONS?

After analyzing students’ results, teachers can use the following equation to find the percentage that reflects the levels of difficulty.

$$\text{Indictor of level of difficulty} = \frac{\text{no. of correct answers}}{\text{total no.of students}} \times 100$$

Table. IV below illustrates percentage agreement of questions’ levels of difficulty.

TABLE. IV:
PERCENTAGE AGREEMENTS OF QUESTIONS’ LEVELS OF DIFFICULTY

Difficult	Ideal	Easy
Less than 50%	50%	More than 50%

Taking the ratio from the table above as a classifier map, if the total number of students sat for this test = 50, and only 10 students answer question no.1. Difficulty level of this question can be calculated using the equation mentioned above as follow:

$$\text{Difficulty level of the question} = \frac{10}{50} \times 100 = 20\%$$

According to the ratio result indicator, this question is classified as a difficult question.

Table. V below illustrates questions’ levels of difficulty according to the ratio after analyzing each question answer - results of the test , using the equation $\frac{\text{no.of correct answers}}{\text{total no.of students}} \times 100$

TABLE. V
QUESTIONS’ LEVELS OF DIFFICULTY ACCORDING TO PERCENTAGES

Question No.	Indicator of level of difficulty	Meaning
1	25%	Difficult
2	70%	Easy
3	60%	Easy
4	90%	Very easy
5	50%	Ideal
6	5%	Very difficult

Determining questions’ level of difficulty helps teachers reuse their ready questions in future tests if they succeed to store these questions in a proper questions bank.

After classifying the questions according to Bloom taxonomy, objectives and level of difficulty, it will be easy to prepare question bank by creating folders according to unit, with several folders inside each unit. If we take ‘Applied Linguistics-2’ course for example, we create a main folder named “Applied Linguistics”. Inside this main folder, we create sub-folders according to the course units “number of units”, and in each unit we create another six sub-folders, each of which should be for one level of the cognitive domain. Then, inside each level of the cognitive domain, we insert two folders, one for the objective questions and one for the subjective questions. Inside the objective questions folder, we create four folders: multiple choice questions (MCQs), matching questions, true/false questions and fill-in-the-blank questions. Inside the subjective questions folder, we insert three folders, one for short answer questions, the second for essay-type questions, and the third for performance test/oral questions. Inside the essay questions folder, we insert two folders, one for guided writing questions and the second for open writing questions.

Making question banks is a matter of organizing folders according to a scientific process using Bloom Taxonomy Cognitive Domain. Then, test questions are written using TOS, which makes testing easier for the teacher to feed the questions bank and later take out questions to make their tests according to the unit objectives, type of questions and learning level of the cognitive domain. All these aspects boast the quality of teachers’ questions bank in terms of validity and reliability and help to fulfill the desired learning outcomes of the course.

Going on with using the questions bank, teachers later can start making folders for levels of difficulty after calculating test results. After result analysis, question results can be classified according to the statistical process equation (which has been explained in Table (5) and Table IV.

Questions can be moved from folder to folder inside the questions bank levels of difficulty folders, which are the only folders that cannot be fed until teachers analyze tests results. Designing a personal questions bank is not an easy task. It is hard and hectic at the beginning, but its results are fruitful and satisfying for teachers in the end. For a sample of questions bank design, Figure IV below illustrates a sample of a course folder “Applied Linguistics 2”, showing how to start a questions bank, and how to arrange files/folders inside a main course questions bank folder.

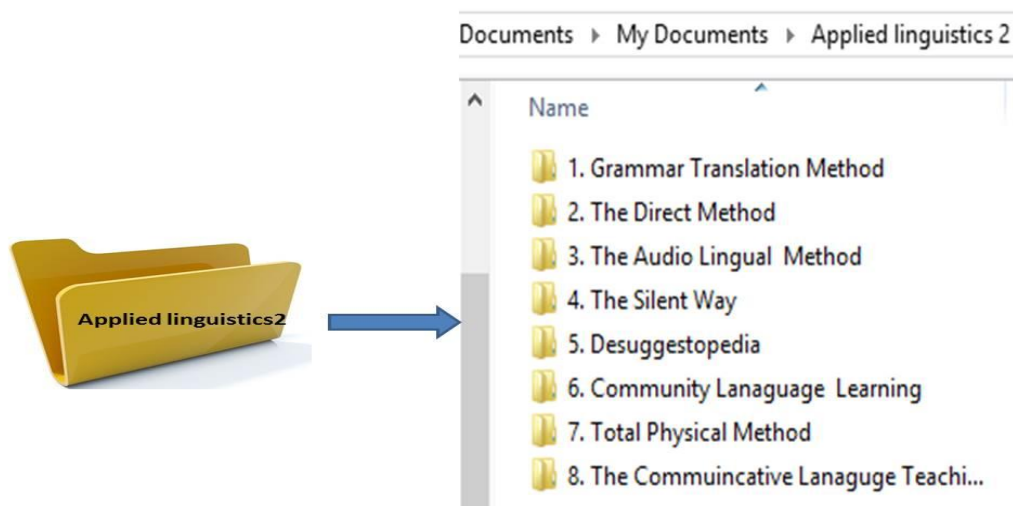


Figure IV: Example of folders inside a questions bank (How to organize files inside a main course questions bank folder)

Figure V below illustrates folder division according to Bloom’s Taxonomy. For each chapter, there are several folders, each of which for questions that covers one level of Bloom’s Taxonomy. Each folder is fed by questions that examine that specific level of Bloom’s Taxonomy of that course chapter.

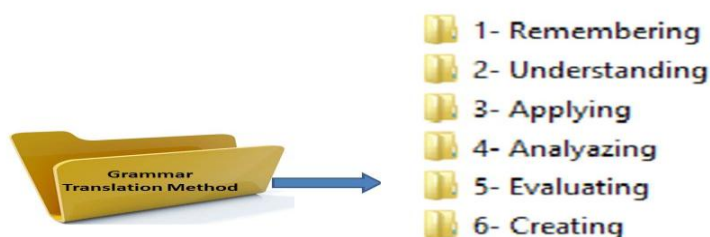


Figure V: Examples of folders inside a course chapter, illustrating folder division according to Bloom’s Taxonomy

For each level of Bloom’s Taxonomy, there are two types of questions, objective questions and subjective questions. A folder is created for each type of questions, whether objective or subjective. For each type of questions, several

folders are opened, such as true/false questions, Multiple-choice questions, matching questions, and fill-in-the-blanks questions. These folders are fed by questions from the specific chapter. Later, after students take the test, the teacher calculates the levels of difficulty, and moves questions inside folders accordingly. In each type of questions, there are levels of difficulty. This is a continuous process done after each test result analysis: questions are moved between folders according to the levels of difficulty. See Figure. VI below for illustration.

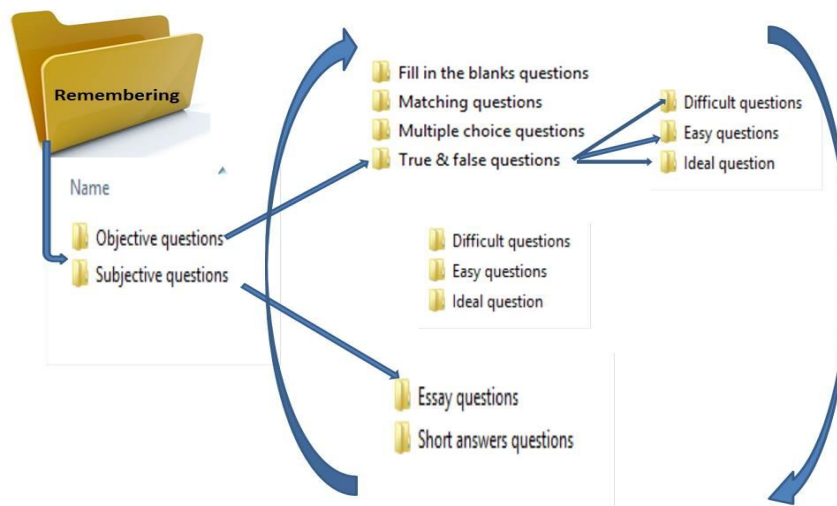


Figure VI: Illustration of folders inside a level of cognitive domain, showing folders of different types of question types

VI. USING QUESTIONS BANK IN E-LEARNING

No one can deny that e-learning has become a dominant method used in education. Exams and tests are used for assessment whether the program is taught online or in traditional class. Questions bank helps educators in designing tests and exams in both situations. Moreover, it can help to minimize cheating between students if the test is electronic. Designing an online course is not an easy task but having a personal questions bank can help to make this task easier. Knowing how to make questions bank, and how to sort question inside it helps educators who teach online to make their test in a convenient and easy way.

Modern institutions use a specific programs or systems for online learning such as Blackboard. Taking Blackboard as an example, Blackboard has a pool for questions for each course, we can sort out questions according to Figure VI in our computer. Then we can feed the course pool with the questions divided in folders according to Bloom Taxonomy (level, types and difficulty). If we succeed to feed the pool with the questions divided in a right way, then it will be easy to construct an online exam that is valid and reliable. Add to that the time we spend in preparing a test every time. Educators can make random block of questions for a certain course test, after choosing the desired type of questions that are divided in folders inside that course pool. We can specify the number of questions, type of question and level of difficulty, and the system will choose the questions randomly from the folders in the pool with the desired criteria. Beside that there is a great advantage that each student will have different questions, and if they have multiple attempts, they will have different questions each time.

If we compare this method of testing, which depends completely on questions bank in pools, with regular tests made in need in at a certain time with a fixed number of questions, we will find many advantages and flexibility.

Using questions bank will help to decrease cheating and will reflect a real picture of the learning process, it will give a picture: a. whether the course has achieved its learning outcomes and objectives or not. b. whether the test was valid and reliable or not. All this can be clear from students' achieved mark in a certain test.

Knowing the right steps for making a questions bank will help educators to overcome difficulties that may face them in different circumstances, and will help them make use of technological development, more over to that, they can make use of the advantages provided in online systems or programs.

VII. CONCLUSION

Question banks constitute a very useful and handy tool for teachers to assess their students, achieve pre-determined ILOs, and ensure consistent and continuous improvement of their teaching methods and techniques. More particularly, designing questions bank helps teachers to:

- 1- Have tests that are not biased and cover all parts of the course.
- 2- Decrease stress associated with test preparation.
- 3- Develop tests that suit their students' personalities with various features, such as easy and difficult.

- 4- Decrease risk of unexpected circumstances that may happen to teachers in test time, such as getting sick or having any accidental issues: test questions can be selected easily with less efforts.
- 5- Share questions with colleagues who are teaching the same course.
- 6- Have alternative tests when there is a leaking accident.
- 7- Develop their test questions every year according to results analysis.
- 8- Make use of the advantages that are provided in E-learning programs and systems.

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Dynamic Features of Students' Scaffolding Interaction in English Writing Class

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Abstract—Peer scaffolding as an important index of active student-student interaction has already aroused researchers' interests. In addition, the application of Dynamic System Theory in language study provided researchers with a new perspective. The author conducted an eight-week research in a foreign language university in China. 56 non-English major sophomores from two classes participated in this study. The results indicated that students' interaction in small group discussion was a dynamic system and it had all the dynamic system features such as unpredictable, sensitive to initial conditions, open, complexity, etc. With the results of this investigation, the current study concludes with some suggestions for future group discussion design.

Index Terms—small group discussion, peer scaffolding, Dynamic System Theory

I. INTRODUCTION

With the deepening of the second language study, classroom interaction gradually becomes a hot topic. Current second language classroom communication focuses gradually change from “teacher scaffolding” to “peer scaffolding”. With further development of “scaffolding” research, more and more empirical studies suggest that “scaffolding” among students also has positive effect on students' second language development, which is called “collective scaffolding” or “peer scaffolding” by Donato (1994). In recent decades, researchers have found that teachers' role has transferred from the sender of English knowledge to the organizer of classroom activities. Teachers notice the benefits of student-student interaction in second language learning class. Many teachers assign students to work on a task in pairs or small groups. Group discussion is a common classroom activity, where most of teachers usually divide students into several groups randomly. However, a number of researchers such as Storch (2002), noticed that just to divided students into several groups or pairs will not necessarily create conditions conducive to learning. Therefore, the way to assign students into different discussion groups in second language classroom could be an interesting topic.

In terms of the application of peer scaffolding in second language class, most of the researches are concerned about the influence of peer scaffolding on students' oral English development. As for the studies of peer scaffolding concerning English writing classroom activities, current researches usually focus on students' peer feedback on each other's writing. The benefits of peer scaffolding in group discussion or pair works are usually neglected in English writing classroom communication studies. However, peer scaffolding, an important dimension of classroom interaction, always be mentioned in researches such as peer feedback in second language writing class (Ge & Zhou, 2013). Then, what are the dynamic features of students' scaffolding interaction in small group discussion in English writing class? To answer this question, the author adopted Dynamic System Theory research methods to help investigate the dynamic features of students' interaction system. Different from traditional studies concerning peer scaffolding in writing class which mainly focused on peer feedback and students' writing output, this study tries to discover the dynamic changing process of peer scaffolding by analyzing the recording of group discussion and students' feedback.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Dynamic System Theory

Starting in 1960s, Dynamic System Theory (DST) is a theory of change (Lowie, 2012). Larsen-Freeman (1997) is the first one who introduced DST into applied linguists, which laid a theoretical framework of DST. According to Larsen-Freeman (1997), dynamic system has these features: dynamic, complex, nonlinear, chaotic, unpredictable, sensitive to initial conditions, open, self-organizing, feedback sensitive and adaptive.

(1) Dynamic, Complex, Nonlinear

The behavior of complex systems emerges from the interactions of its components, rather than built in to any one component. De Bot, Wander, and Marjolijn (2007) argued that language development is not a linear process, but a

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somewhat intricate, complex and unpredictable process. Complex factors that influence language development interact to make language development unpredictable and nonlinear.

(2) Chaotic, Unpredictable, Sensitive to Initial Conditions

Larsen-Freeman used Chaos to describe the period of complete randomness that complex nonlinear systems enter into irregularly and unpredictably. A major reason for the unpredictable development of complex system is their sensitive dependence on initial conditions (Larsen-Freeman, 1997), which could be called the butterfly effect. In addition, the system might present significant differences even if the initial conditions were similar (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

(3) Open, Self-organizing, Feedback Sensitive, Adaptive

Dynamic systems are open to new matter, they increase in order and complexity by absorbing energy from the environment (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). At the same time, dynamic system is self-organizing and feedback sensitive, or we can say complex system are adaptive. Dynamic systems do not simply respond passively to events. They are capable of learning and actively try to turn whatever happens to their advantage (Larsen-Freeman, 1997).

In general, Dynamic System Theory emphasized the interconnected factors in the system have mutual relations with each other. Besides, they are influenced by internal and external environment. These factors interact in a multiple environment leads to the feature of complete interconnectedness in a system (De Bot et al., 2007).

B. *Scaffolding and Peer Scaffolding*

Scaffolding Theory was initially used by Jerome Bruner, who used this term to describe the children-tutor interaction. With the development of Scaffolding Theory, scaffolding was gradually associated with Vygotsky's notion of zone of proximal development (ZPD). ZPD is the area between the novice's current development level determined by independent problem solving and level of development that novice could achieve through expert's guidance (Vygotsky, 1978). The guidance in ZPD is called scaffolding. With the help of scaffolding, novice will be able to finish the task that he or she may not be able to do without assistance (Sabet, Tahriri, & Pasand, 2013). Actually, the term scaffolding has been interpreted and operationalized in various ways since its emergence (Nguyen, 2013). Researchers found that scaffolding is not just a unidirectional support between expert and novice, but can occur between novices. During this process, both learners act as expert and support each other mutually and concurrently through dialogic interaction (Hanjani, 2019).

Peer scaffolding, also called "reciprocal scaffolding" by Holton and Clark (2006), was first used by Donato (1994) in his research on peer interaction. This term refers to that students working in pair or group help each other to get one common task or problem solved. Sociocultural Theory serves as the foundation for peer scaffolding and collaboration including collaborative writing, collaborative revision and peer review (Hanjani & Li, 2014), which encourage researchers to do more empirical research to explore the way to improve the effectiveness of classroom interactions. In addition, researchers also found that scaffolding between peers are mutual, which means that lower level learners also provide a scaffolded assistance for higher level learners (Kowal & Swain, 1997).

C. *Functions of Peer Scaffolding in Small Group Interaction*

Scaffolding occurs during classroom interaction. Small group interaction is a common pattern of real classroom interaction, and it is a complex dynamic process (Xu & Kou, 2017). Gradually, researchers found that scaffolding occurring in students' interaction has positive effect on students' second language development. Currently, the functions of peer scaffolding have been specified. Xu (2016) put forward seven functions of peer scaffolding by analyzing Chinese students' interaction dialogue in small groups discussion in English class. She found that there are seven functions: increasing participation, providing words and expressions, providing opinions, correcting wrong usages, explaining to simplify tasks, task maintenance, and frustration control. Besides, students sometimes provide wrong scaffolding to each other due to their limited language proficiency, which may have a negative impact on the other group members.

In general, current studies neglect the dynamic features of student interaction in small groups. Inadequate researches in this field have resulted in difficulties for teachers to guide effective small group interaction in English class. This thesis tried to investigate the features of scaffolding interaction in small group discussion from the perspective of Dynamic System Theory. This thesis adopted interview and questionnaire to find out the dynamic features of peer scaffolding. By doing this, this thesis tried to give suggestions about organizing effective small group discussion in English writing class.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. *Research Questions*

1. What are the dynamic features of students' interaction in small group discussion?
2. What are the implications for future small group discussion design?

B. *Participants*

The participants were fifty-six sophomores from different classes of Beijing International Studies University.

Twenty-eight students were from Class A majoring in Finance, and twenty-eight students were from Class B majoring in International Trade. The Advanced English Writing Course of the two classes was taught by the same teacher. In terms of the average writing proficiency and willingness to communicate in English of the two classes, there was no significant difference between the two. The two classes were used to do controlled experiment. To investigate the dynamic changing process of students' interaction and their English writing proficiency, the author chose 8 focal students from the two classes. Detailed data are presented in the research procedure part.

C. Research Methods

1. Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were used in this research, one is the Willingness to Communicate in English Questionnaire, which was used before this experiment to learn about students' willingness to communicate. The other is the Satisfaction Towards Peer Scaffolding, which was used after this experiment.

Questionnaire on Willingness to Communicate in English used in this experiment was based on the Willingness to Communicate Scale designed by MacIntyre et al. (2001) and was made some minor revisions by the author according to the realities of second language class in China. To be user-friendly, this questionnaire was written in Chinese. This questionnaire consists of four dimensions, which are speaking English, reading English, writing English and comprehension in English class. There are 24 items in this questionnaire. The questionnaire asked these participants to rate on a 5-point scale.

TABLE 1
RELIABILITY STATISTICS ON WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN ENGLISH QUESTIONNAIRE

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.941	24

To make sure this questionnaire is reliable enough, the author firstly pre-tested this questionnaire. The reliability of this revised questionnaire was examined by using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Table 1 shows that the questionnaire is reliable enough ($\alpha=0.941$). Validity analysis of this questionnaire was conducted via factor analysis on SPSS 22.0 which is particularly useful in identifying how many dimensions underline a set of items. The results of rotated component matrix on the Willingness to Communicate in English Questionnaire indicated that this questionnaire could measure students' willingness to communicate by four dimensions: writing, speaking, comprehension and reading. Therefore, this willingness to communicate questionnaire can be used to measure students' willingness to communicate.

The Satisfaction Towards Peer Scaffolding Questionnaire was designed by the author. To be user-friendly, this questionnaire was also written in Chinese. This satisfaction questionnaire consists of four dimensions, which are attitudes towards the benefits of group discussion, attitudes towards group discussion activities during experiment, attitudes towards group members and experience of peer scaffolding during group discussion. Each dimension has 5 items. There are 20 items in total. The questionnaire asked the participants to rate on a 5-point scale. This questionnaire was completed by students in Class A and Class B. 56 valid questionnaires were collected. The results of these two questionnaires were analyzed by SPSS 22.0.

2. Recordings of Small Group Discussion

The discussion topics were related to the specific writing skills. In every discussion, students were asked to discuss for at least three minutes. One of the four students in each group was in charge of recording group discussion with his cell phone. After each class, the author collected recordings of each group and transcribed them. This experiment lasted for 8 weeks and 112 discussion recordings were collected. To describe the dynamic changing process of group interaction, 16 group discussion recording fragments of group A and group B were the main focuses of this research.

3. Interview

Qualitative data were collected from the complementary interview with open-ended questions. These questions can be divided into four categories: comment on small group discussion during experiment, comment on peer's contribution, self-evaluation and measures adopted when facing troubles during discussion. The collected answers were analyzed to find out the reasons and participants' thoughts towards small group discussion.

D. Research Procedures

Before this experiment, a writing test was assigned to these participants. Students were asked to write a at least 100 words writing to describe a person. As Table 2 shows, the results of Independent-samples T test showed that there was no significant difference in the students' English writing score of the two classes ($t=0.265$ $df=54$, $p> 0.05$). Then, these two classes were used to do control experiment.

TABLE 2
WRITING SCORE OF CLASS A AND CLASS B

	Class A (n=28)		Class B (n=28)	
	M	SD	M	SD
Writing Score	92.607	2.0063	92.464	2.0273

According to the results of these students' answer to Willingness to Communicate in English Questionnaire, each student's willingness to communicate was quantified into a specific score. Their score was analyzed by SPSS 22.0. The results of Independent-samples T test showed that there was no significant difference between the two classes ($t=0.098$ $df=54$, $p>0.05$).

TABLE 3
WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE (WTC) SCORE OF CLASS A AND CLASS B

	Class A (n=28)		Class B (n=28)	
	M	SD	M	SD
WTC Score	90.107	14.5178	89.714	15.5346

The best group size is 3 or 4 students, for large group size makes group members just to make up the number (Hai, 2014). To make each group has the same number of students, the author did this experiment with the group size of 4. Class A was grouped by teacher according to students' answer to the Questionnaire on Willingness to Communicate in English. For each item in this questionnaire, the rate that students chose stands for the score. The total score is the sum of each item point. By analyzing the results, the author grouped those students' score into three levels: High (between 120 and 98), Medium (between 97 and 83), Low (lower than 83). According to Storch (2002), expert/novice and collaborative patterns could promote more meaningful interactions in classroom interactions. Therefore, the author adopted high-low, medium-medium group patterns according to students' score of willingness to communicate. Students in Class B were asked to join up on their own willingness. To focus on the dynamic changing process of group interaction, the author chose one group from Class A and named it Group A. Correspondingly, chose Group B from Class B.

The experimental time was eight weeks. The two classes had the same teaching procedures and content. Participants in this experiment were taught by the same experienced English teacher. To make small group discussion in the two writing classes more effective, the teacher did small group interaction strategy training before this experiment. The strategy training contents were based on the research results of Xu (2016), in which she put forward seven functions of peer scaffolding in English learning class. Every week, the teacher organized small group discussion in English writing class according to her teaching plan. The leader in each group recorded the discussion with their cell phone and sent the recording to the author after class. After the experiment, the author sent Satisfaction Towards Peer Scaffolding Questionnaire to these participants. To learn more about students' feedback, the author interviewed eight students from the two focal groups.

E. Recording Analysis

Conversations of the two focal groups were transcribed and analyzed by the author. The author took the following steps to do conversation analysis: firstly, identifying all the scaffolding episodes. In this step, "turn" was used as the standard unit. Two raters analyzed recording fragments of Group A and Group B individually and marked turns that contain peer scaffolding. They checked their results with each other to ensure the reliability of the marking process. Disagreement was solved by discussion. Then the author counted these 8 focal participants' contribution to peer scaffolding. Secondly, the author read these scaffolding episodes carefully and classified these peer scaffolding turns into different categories in reference to Xu (2016)'s finding of peer scaffolding functions. These functions are: increasing participation, providing words and expressions, providing opinions, correcting wrong usages' explaining to simplify tasks, task maintenance, and frustration control. Here is an example:

Example 1:

1 A: *In my opinion, I think the first sentence is a good topic, because the second sentence is too specific. It is too general. If we chose the first sentence, we can give many examples of people and color of clothing and we can... 叙述怎么说?*

2 B: *We can narrate.*

3 A: *Er...we can narrate (laughter) the different people and different colors of clothing. I feel how foolish I am to forgot that word.*

In the above Example 1, A forgot how to say "叙述" in English, she asked B for help. B told her "narrate". With the help of B, A could finish her sentence. Thus, B offered A scaffold. Therefore, this is a scaffold of providing words. To guarantee the reliability of the classification, another rater also did the same classified work. Disagreements were solved by discussion. At last, the author counted the amount of each kind of peer scaffolding. The contribution of eight students to peer scaffolding was also counted.

IV. RESULTS

A. The Number of Peer Scaffolding

Based on the explanation of Xu (2016)'s research concerning seven functions of peer scaffolding, the author categorized peer scaffolding in group discussion into seven categories. Here are the results.

(1) Results of Group A

TABLE 4
PEER SCAFFOLDING IN GROUP A

	Increasing participation	Providing words and expressions	Providing opinions	Correcting wrong usages	Explaining to simplify tasks	Task Maintenance	Frustration Control	Total
Student 1	5	6	4	1	2	3	1	22
Student 2	1	1	5	2	2	4	1	16
Student 3	0	4	2	0	4	2	0	12
Student 4	0	0	3	0	3	0	0	6
Total	6	11	14	3	11	9	2	56

An overview of peer scaffolding in Group A is presented in Table 4. There were 56 peer scaffolds and 7 types of peer scaffolding in the recording of Group A. Student 1 provided the most scaffolds among the four students. She provided 22 scaffolds to her peers. Student 2 provided 16 scaffolds to her peers. Student 3 provided 12 scaffolds to his peers. Student 4 provided the least scaffolding. He provided 6 scaffolds to his peers. In terms of their contribution to scaffolding during experiment, Student 1 contributed the most, followed by Student 2. Student 3 and Student 4 contributed less than Student 1 and Student 2.

(2) Results of Group B

TABLE 5
PEER SCAFFOLDING IN GROUP B

	Increasing participation	Providing words and expressions	Providing opinions	Correcting wrong usages	Explaining to simplify tasks	Task Maintenance	Total
Student 5	11	6	11	5	3	3	39
Student 6	0	2	7	1	3	1	14
Student 7	1	1	11	3	7	1	24
Student 8	0	3	8	1	4	0	16
Total	12	12	37	10	17	5	93

Table 5 shows the detail data of peer scaffolding in Group B. There were 93 peer scaffolds in the discussion of Group B. Six types of peer scaffolding were found. Student 5 provided the most scaffolds during discussion. She provided 39 scaffolds to her peers. Student 6 provided the least scaffolds. She provided 14 scaffolds to her peers. Student 7 provided 24 scaffolds to her peers. Student 8 provided 16 scaffolds to her peers. In terms of their contribution to scaffolding during experiment, Student 5 contributed the most among the four students, followed by Student 7. Student 6 and Student 8 contributed less than Student 1 and Student 2.

B. Dynamic Changing Process of Peer Scaffolding

To learn about the dynamic changing process of peer scaffolding in small group discussion, the author adopted a DST research method that is plotting a graph of trendline. Here are the results.

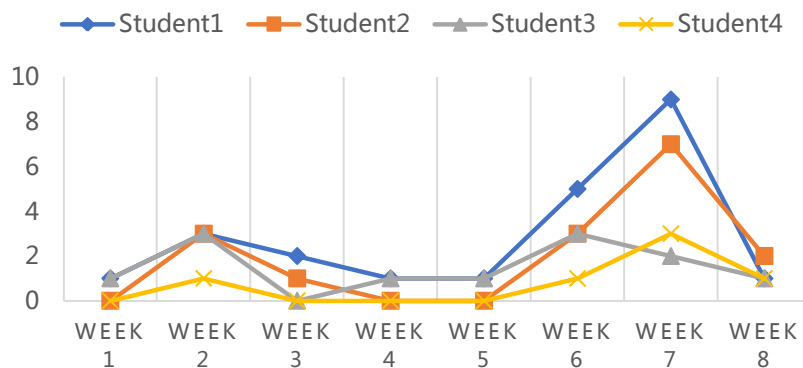


Figure 1 Changing Process of Each Student's Contribution to Scaffolding (Group A)

(1) Results of Group A

It is clear that the number of scaffolding each student provided were changing with time (see Figure 1). Generally, the changing trend of each student's contribution in each week was nearly the same, except for week 7. In week 7, the

trajectory of three students showed a rising trend, while Student 3's contribution to scaffolding showed a downward trend. In the first five weeks, the number variance of scaffolding in the whole group was small. After week 5, the trajectory showed an increasing trend and reached the top in week 7. However, all the four students' contribution trendline fell down after week 7, especially Student 1 whose trajectory showed a sharp downtrend.

(2) Results of Group B

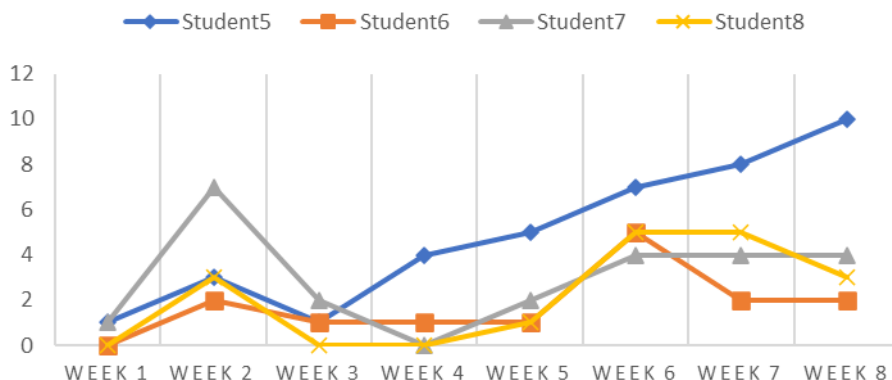


Figure 2 Changing Process of Each Student's Contribution to Scaffolding (Group B)

According to Figure 2, it was clear that the number of scaffolding each student provided was changing with time. The four trajectories had the same feature in the first three week, which showed a trend of rising up at first and then falling down. After week 4, they showed different developmental path. Generally, each of the four students' contribution to scaffolding trajectory was different from others. In addition, the terminal point of each student's trajectory was higher than the initial point.

C. Results of the Questionnaire of Students' Satisfaction to Peer Scaffolding

TABLE 6
STUDENTS' SATISFACTION TOWARDS PEER SCAFFOLDING

	Benefits of Group Discussion (n=28)		Comments on Peers (n=28)		Comments on Group Discussion (n=28)		Scaffolding Involvement (n=28)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Class A	4.107	0.609	4.236	0.550	4.329	0.478	3.814	0.830
Class B	4.086	0.679	4.314	0.540	4.371	0.498	4.079	0.621

As it is shown in Table 6, the overall feedback of 58 students was good for almost all the mean of four dimensions was higher than 4.0. However, the feedback on the dimension of scaffolding involvement from students in Class A was lower than other three dimensions (MD=3.814), which indicates students in Class A thought that they were not highly involved in peer scaffolding. According to the standard deviation of scaffolding involvement, there was a big disagreement among students in Class A. Compared with the results of scaffolding involvement dimension of Class A, Students' feedback in Class B was higher (MD=4.079), and the difference among students was smaller.

D. Results of Interview

Eight students from Group A and Group B were interviewed. According to students' self-evaluation and their comments on their peers, the author got the basic information of each student's performance during discussion (see Table 7).

TABLE 7
BASIC INFORMATION OF THE EIGHT STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE

	English Level	Role	Performance During Discussion
Student 1	High	Leader (Passive)	Seldom did improve participation work.
Student 2	Medium	Active Participant	Always explained the tasks.
Student 3	Medium	Ice breaker	The most active one; disinterest in others' opinions.
Student 4	Low	Passive Participant	Cautious; introversive; self-abased.
Student 5	High	Leader (Active)	Always lead the discussion.
Student 6	Low	Passive Participant	Talk less; self-abased.
Student 7	Medium	Active Participant	Always provided opinions.
Student 8	Medium	Participant	Self-abased, but gradually participated actively.

As for Group A, Student 1 was at the highest level of English among the four students, but she was not the most active speaker. Student 2 always provided ideas and explained tasks to her peers, but she was not satisfied with her

English level. Student 3 was the most talkative person in this group, he always acted as an ice breaker. However, he was not interested in others' views. Student 4 was viewed as the one who contributed least to group discussion among Group A. He was a man of few words and was cautious about expressing his idea for he thought he was not good at speaking English. However, he began to be more talkative when the discussion was processed in Chinese. In regard to students' performance in Group B, student 5 was a qualified leader in this group. The other three students actively participated in discussion. At first, Student 6 was passive. With the encouragement of her peers, she gradually began to actively exchange her ideas with others.

V. DISCUSSION

Question 1: What are the dynamic features of students' interaction in small group interaction?

After analyzing the results, the author got the following findings:

(1) Students' interaction in small group discussion had dynamic, complex, and nonlinear features.

According to the features of students' contribution to peer scaffolding, the number and type of scaffolding in each week were different, which showed a nonlinear and dynamic development trend. The dynamic changing process indicated that students' interaction was changing with time. As Hai (2014) pointed out that students' interaction system was influenced by students' internal and external factors. Based on the results of recordings and interview, the author found the following factors that may influence students' interaction in this experiment: students' English proficiency, students' willingness to communicate in English, grouping patterns, and discussion topics.

Students' English proficiency greatly influenced students' interaction. Valadi, Rezaee, and Baharvand (2015) found that individual's second language proficiency in general is a powerful modifying variable to their interaction in the case of second language use. Even students with higher English proficiency still admitted that they had trouble in expressing their ideas in English during discussion and their limited English level influenced their willingness to correcting others' mistakes. Student 4 whose English proficiency was relatively low admitted that it is hard for him to follow his peers' nonstandard English. Therefore, he seldom provided scaffolding for others. When students do not understand their classmates' strong foreign accent, they might not tend to interact further with them (Kayi-Aydar, 2013). Students with the highest English proficiency among their peers, such as student 1 and Student 5, contributed the most to peer scaffolding in group discussion. In addition, there were two wrong scaffolds in Group B, which was in accordance with Xu (2016)'s findings that students inevitably provide wrong scaffolding to their peers due to their limited English proficiency.

Students' willingness to communicate in English also influenced students' interaction. When communicating in a second language, it is of great importance to identify individual's reaction to conversation (Valadi et al., 2015). Some students held a negative attitude towards group discussion in English. The discussion recording suggested that both Group A and Group B were turn-taking interaction pattern in the first week. Most of them just expressed their idea in English one by one without real communication. Gradually, they began to communicate in both English and Chinese. Then, more and more peer scaffolds occurred. Another example was student 4's performance. Student 4 was the one whose willingness to communicate in English was lowest in his group. The discussion recording also indicated that he was the most passive one among the whole group. As for Student 1 and Student 5, the two students had the highest willingness to communicate in English in their groups. The recording results also revealed that they contributed the most to peer scaffolding in their groups. Similarly, Hai (2014), Zarrinabadi and Tanbakooei (2016) found that willingness to communicate is a predictor of students' participation in classroom communication. According to Hai (2014), although students' willingness to communicate is an important predictor of students' interaction, it can only predict 15% outcome. There should be other factors that influence students' interaction (Hai, 2014).

The grouping patterns were considered another factor that influenced students' interaction. Although some researchers suggested that students were not anxious in group interaction (Lightbown & Spada, 2010), three students in Group A admitted that they felt anxious or embarrassed during discussion. According to the results of the interview, students in Group A were just classmates. Students in Group B were roommates and they got along well with each other. In terms of the scaffolding of correcting wrong usage, Group B produced 10 scaffolds, while Group A only produced 3 scaffolds. In regard to scaffolding types, Group A had all the 7 types of scaffolding mentioned in Xu (2016)'s findings. However, there was no frustration control scaffolding in the discussion of Group B. In terms of the total number of scaffolds each group provided, Group B produced 93 scaffolds in total, while Group A produced 56 scaffolds in total. These results indicated that the interaction in Group B was more active than Group A. In addition, compared with students' feedback to the scaffolding involvement of Class A, Students in Class B were more involved. These results were in accordance with Xu and Cao (2012)'s finding that the pattern of fixed grouping on students' own willingness is more conducive, and it contributes to improve language output in the oral interaction.

Discussion topics also influenced students' interaction. Interesting and familiar topics facilitate students' interaction (Hai, 2014). The teacher in this experiment provided students different topics concerning different writing skills every week. The figure of the changing process of each student's contribution to peer scaffolding of Group A showed that students behaved more actively than before in week 6 and week 7. Some students in Group A said in the interview that sometimes the topic was too boring to talk for a long time. However, all the students in Group A as well as students in Group B mentioned that they were interested in the discussion topic in week 6 and week 7, when the discussion topic

was “the hazards of our school”. Student 4, an introverted student, contributed 3 scaffolds in week 7 which reached the maximum of his contribution during the eight weeks. This proved that even introverted learners talk a lot with an interesting topic (Hai, 2014). Besides, learners tended to feel insecure about conversing on a topic about which they are not familiar with (Kang, 2005).

These factors above had mutual relations with each other, which greatly support that students’ interaction was a dynamic system. Grouping patterns (the group size and familiarity with interlocutors), familiarity with topics under discussion (Cao & Philp, 2006) and students’ second language proficiency (Mohammadzadeh & Jafarigohar, 2012) influenced students’ willingness to communicate in second language. Thus, students’ situational willingness to communicate could dynamically emerge and fluctuate moment-to-moment (Kang, 2005). As it is mentioned before, students’ willingness to communicate influence the occurrence of peer scaffolding. Researcher also proved that the scaffolding provided by peers contributed positively to learner’s second language development (Huong, 2007).

(2) Students’ interaction in small group discussion had chaotic, unpredictable features and it is sensitive to initial conditions.

According to the figures of the two groups’ contribution to peer scaffolding, the initial state of these two group’s contributions to scaffolding was similar, however, the developmental paths of students’ contribution to scaffolding of the two groups were obviously different. In terms of each student, the trajectory trends of four students in Group A were nearly the same. However, the trajectory trends of four students in Group B were totally different. The results showed that students in Group B were more actively involved in group discussion. Their cooperation was more stable than students in Group A, for there was no sharp drop in their contribution trajectories. The two groups had the similar initial state, but different endings. This finding also in accordance with the argument of Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) that the dynamic system might present significant differences even if the initial conditions were similar.

In addition, although the group interaction pattern of Group A and Group B were similar at the very beginning, the two groups had different development path. According to Xu and Kou (2017), there are four types of group patterns in English classroom interaction: collaborative, turn-taking, dominant/passive and expert/novice. According to the recording of Group A, the group pattern of Group A changed with time. At first, it belonged to turn-taking pattern. Students took turns to express their ideas. Then it turned to be dominant/ passive pattern, in which Student 4 hardly provided any scaffolding to his peers and accepted his peers’ ideas passively. Gradually, with the development of discussion, all the four students actively provided scaffolding for their peers from week 6 which showed a collaborative pattern. As for Group B, the initial group pattern was turn-taking in week 1, then it turned to be collaborative and lasted until the end. These phenomena were also the evidence of students’ dynamic interaction.

(3) Students’ interaction system had open, self-organizing, feedback sensitive and adaptive features.

Students’ interaction system was open, for it always influenced by various factors. Students didn’t only respond passively to these influencing factors. They tried to turn to their advantage. On the one hand, they tried to make themselves get involved in the discussion. For example, influenced by relatively low English proficiency, Student 4 wrote down what he was going to say before he expressed his opinions. Apart from that, he gradually turned to speak Chinese to make himself be involved in the discussion. Besides, Student 6 mentioned that her English level was lower than her peers, thus she chose to provide supplement information for her peers. Apart from that, students in Group A discussed in English in week 1 and all of them realized that it was not real discussion. Gradually, they began to speak Chinese to supply and simplify their opinions. They had begun to discuss in Chinese all the time since week 6, which may be one of the reasons why their interaction turned to be more active than before. However, students in Group B always discussed in two languages. When they came across difficulties in expressing their ideas during discussion, they turned to speak Chinese. Therefore, their effort made their discussion more productive.

On the other hand, although influenced by internal and external factors, such as discussion topics or students’ own willingness to communicate, group members also tried to help their passive peers become more involved in the discussion. Li (2014) also found that some students acted as facilitator when they provide scaffolding for others. Student 5 noticed that Student 6 was self-abased, thus she took the advantage that they are good friends and directly asked Student 6 to express her idea without worrying about the “face”. So, she frequently asked Student 6’s opinion so as to help her become more involved in the discussion. With the encouragement of her peer, Student 6 gradually became brave enough to express her ideas. About 90% increasing participation scaffolds were offered by Student 5, which indicated that she did a lot to facilitate group discussion. As for Group A, the results of recording revealed that students in Group A more like to talk something unrelated to the tasks in Chinese, but some of the members offer task maintenance scaffolding to help to return to given discussion topics. Group members’ self-organization facilitates group discussion and other students’ self-organization (Li, 2014). These phenomena were in line with the feedback sensitive and adaptive features of dynamic system.

Question 2: What are the implications for future small group discussion design?

The findings from the present study indicated some important information of small group discussion activity in college English writing class. Here are some implications for the pedagogical purpose.

Firstly, group discussion could provide students with more opportunities to use target language and exchange ideas with each other. Many second language studies revealed that learner-centered discourse provided students with opportunities for negotiation, which is essential for second language learning and development (Antón, 1999).

According to students' feedback, students thought highly of the benefits of peer scaffolding. One student said that group discussion enabled her to exchange opinions with her peers in English without being worried about her low English proficiency level. All the eight students agreed that group discussion provided them with more writing arguments. Thus, group discussion is a good activity in English writing classroom.

Secondly, students are more involved in group discussion when they are asked to join up on their own willingness. The results indicated that students feel more relaxed and more actively express their ideas when they discuss with their good friends. Besides, during the discussion, they will correct their friend's mistakes without hesitation. However, for students who were not so familiar with each other, they care more about other students' face. Thus, even they don't understand their peers' words, they usually don't ask for clarify for they don't want to embarrass each other, which may lead the discussion to be a mere formality.

Thirdly, teacher's intervention and feedback during students' discussion are necessary. To learn about the real state of students' discussion, teacher in this experiment didn't offer any intervention. All the students interviewed in this study mentioned that they were unwilling to seek help from their teachers, for talking with teachers makes them anxious. Thus, they just discussed the given topic to figure out what the meaning of the given topic, which is time-consuming. Besides, lacking of teacher's guidance enabled dominant students in a group to take more powerful positions in the discourse and lead to no room for others to contribute (Kayi-Aydar, 2013). Therefore, teacher's intervention and leading-in when necessary are really helpful.

Last but not least, sufficient small group interaction strategy training is necessary. According to Xu (2011), interaction strategy training improves students' overall participation and interactive participation. Although the teacher did a simple small group interaction strategy training before the experiment, there were some non-interactive participation during students' interaction. Obviously, the strategy training was not sufficient enough. Sufficient small group interaction strategy training could help to improve student's use of interaction strategies during group works. Besides, the increased use of interaction strategies does good to students' overall participation and interactive participation (Xu & Kou, 2011). Thus, more interaction strategy training should be involved in group work design.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study mainly focused on the dynamic features of students' interaction in small group discussion. The results indicated that students' interaction in small group discussion had all the dynamic system features. The developing trajectory of each student's contribution to scaffolding was dynamic and nonlinear. The interaction system was sensitive to initial state. Besides, the interaction system was open, adaptive, self-organizing and feedback sensitive, for it was easily influenced by other factors, such as students' English proficiency, students' willingness to communicate in English, grouping patterns, and discussion topics. Lastly, this study concluded with some implications for future small group discussion design, such as teacher's intervention and small group interaction strategy training.

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Second Language Acquisition of English Unaccusative Verbs: A Theoretical Critique and Prospects for Future Studies

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Abstract—Unaccusative verbs are a focus of second language acquisition research. Taking the second language acquisition of English unaccusative verbs as an example, this study first reviews the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis and the Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis, which are exclusively concerned with the acquisition of unaccusative verbs. Then it examines the Entrenchment Hypothesis and the Interface Hypothesis, which address language acquisition in general, but shed light on the second language acquisition of English unaccusative verbs. This study maintains that these five hypotheses help to provide a panoramic view of second language acquisition of English unaccusative verbs. But it also points out that these hypotheses need to be further tested. It advises future studies to take a usage-based theoretical approach. It also calls for more attention to the possible between-verb variations, the possible influence of L1 transfer and the online processing of English unaccusative verbs

Index Terms—second language acquisition, unaccusative verbs, theoretical critique, future prospects

I. INTRODUCTION

Verbs are an essential category of languages. Verbs that can be directly followed by nouns without the use of prepositions are called transitive verbs (e.g., *destroy*, *touch*), while those that cannot take noun objects are termed as intransitive verbs (e.g., *happen*, *walk*). This distinction, however, has proved to be inadequate in that the seemingly identical intransitive verbs are actually heterogeneous.

The Unaccusative Hypothesis (Burzio 1986; Perlmutter 1978) posits that intransitives, despite their surface similarity, can be further divided into unaccusatives and unergatives. The surface subject of an unaccusative verb (e.g., *the subject window in the sentence The window broke*) does not have a volition will and therefore cannot act as the instigator of the verb action. It is actually the recipient of the verb action and therefore the object at the underlying structure. Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995) suggest that the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives is determined by semantic factors and represented at the syntactic levels. At the semantic level, the only Noun Phrase (hence shortened as NP) of an unaccusative verb is the theme, while that of an unergative verb is the agent. At the syntactical level, the only NP of an unaccusative verb is the object at the deep structure, whereas that of an unergative verb is the subject at the deep structure.

The distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives has proved to be universal as it is found in English, Chinese, Korean, French, German, Italian, Spanish and many other languages. In English, some unaccusatives can be used as transitives without undergoing any morphological changes, while others cannot. They are called alternating unaccusatives and non-alternating unaccusatives respectively. A detailed classification of English intransitives is shown in Figure 1.

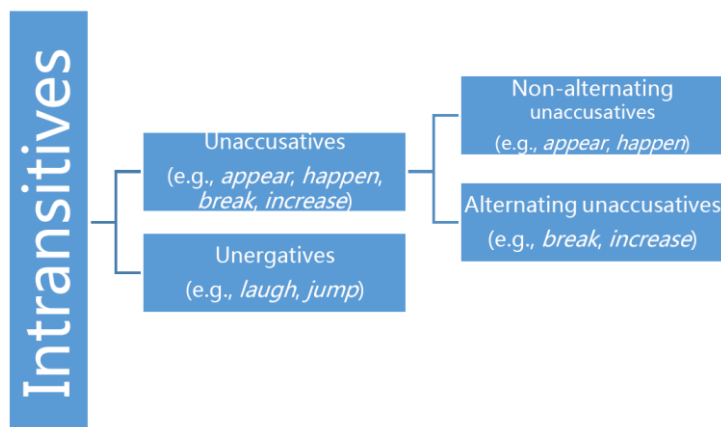


Figure 1. Classification of English intransitives

The unique semantic and syntactic properties of English unaccusatives have posed a great difficulty to L2 learners, who tend to make overpassivization errors with unaccusatives, but not with unergatives. That is, L2 learners are apt to produce and accept ungrammatical and contextually inappropriate passive unaccusatives (e.g., ^{*}*A letter was arrived* or ^{*}*People's living standard has been improved*).

The unique semantic and syntactic properties of English unaccusatives have also attracted the attention of L2 researchers, who have investigated various issues associated with L2 acquisition of English unaccusatives. These issues include the initial mental representation English unaccusatives, the developmental pattern of English unaccusatives and possible constraints on the L2 acquisition of English unaccusatives. Theories relevant to the acquisition of English unaccusatives, L1 and L2 alike, include the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis (Sorace, 1995), the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis (Oshita, 1997, 2001), the Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis (Pinker, 1989), the Entrenchment Hypothesis (Braine and Brooks, 1995) and the Interface Hypothesis (Sorace and Filiaci, 2006). This study is going to make a theoretical critique of these hypotheses and suggest prospects of future studies of second language acquisition of English unaccusatives.

II. A THEORETICAL CRITIQUE

A. The Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis

The Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, which is proposed Sorace (1995), posits that unaccusatives do not form a homogeneous group, but fall into semantically definable subgroups. It is based on the linguistic fact that unaccusatives do not appear to be the same in that some verbs display consistent unaccusative behaviors in various languages and in various contexts while other verbs do not. In her study of Italian unaccusatives, Sorace identifies three pairs of semantic determinants: dynamic/static, telic/atelic, and concrete/abstract. According to these criteria, monadic verbs denoting a change of location (e.g., *come*, *go*) are judged to be the core unaccusatives, whereas change of state verbs with a transitive counterpart (e.g., *increase*, *melt*) and manner of motion verbs with the addition of a directional phrase (e.g., *run to the railway station*) are considered to be the most peripheral unaccusatives. Change-of-condition verbs (e.g., *appear*, *disappear*) and existence-of-condition verbs like (e.g., *exist*, *last*) fall in between the core and peripheral unaccusatives. Thus, these verbs form a hierarchy, as shown in Table 1.1.

TABLE 1.
THE UNACCUSATIVE HIERARCHY BASED ON SORACE (1995)

Unaccusative subgroups	Unaccusative verbs	Unaccusative hierarchy
Change of location	go	core ↑
Change of condition	disappear	
Continuation of a condition	last	↓ peripheral
Existence of a condition	exist	
Change of condition with a transitive counterpart	increase	
Manner of motion with a directional phrase	run to the railway station	

Sorace goes on to suggest that the acquisition of unaccusatives is dependent on their locations on the unaccusative hierarchy. Verbs that are placed higher on the hierarchy will be acquired earlier than those that stay at lower levels. As Table 1.1 shows, unaccusatives without transitive counterparts are placed higher on the hierarchy than those with transitive counterparts. Therefore, the former are predicted to be acquired before the latter.

B. The Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis

The Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, which is initiated by Oshita (1997, 2001), suggests that L2 acquisition of unaccusatives undergoes a three-stage process, as shown Figure 2, 3 and 4.

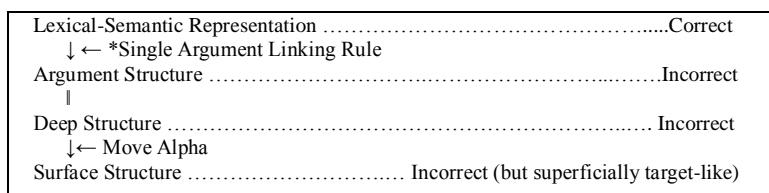


Figure 2. The First Stage of the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis (Oshita, 1997)

At the first stage, L2 learners do not make the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives, possibly because of the prototypical Subject-Verb sentence pattern in the input. They are unable to detect the difference that the subject of the unaccusative verb has no volition and thus is not the agent, while that of the unergative verb is. At this stage, unaccusatives are lexically misunderstood as unergatives and as a result misrepresented as unergatives at the syntactic levels.

¹ Note: The symbol * stands for an error.

Lexical-Semantic Representation	Correct
↓ ← Correct Linking Rule	
Argument Structure	Correct
↓	
Deep Structure	Correct
↓ ← *expletive transfer, *intrusive “be + Ven,” and/or avoidance	
Surface Structure	Incorrect

Figure 3. The Second Stage of the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis (Oshita, 1997)

At the second stage, some learners perceive the subtle differences among the seemingly identical intransitive verbs and rebuild their mental grammars accordingly. Now they realize that the surface subjects do not always play the role of the external arguments or the actual agents. Some are in fact the internal arguments or the actual objects. This correct lexical analysis prompts them to establish the correct deep structure representation, at which the internal argument is placed in the object position. However, when they attempt to transfer the internal argument of the unaccusative verb from the deep structure object position to the surface structure subject position, they tend to explicitly mark this NP movement with the salient passive morpho-syntax be + Ven. As a result, the deep structure representation is correct, but the surface structure representation is wrong.

Lexical-Semantic Representation	Correct
↓ ← Correct Linking Rule	
Argument Structure	Correct
↓	
Deep Structure	Correct
↓ ← Move Alpha	
Surface Structure	Correct

Figure 4. The Third Stage of the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis (Oshita, 1997)

At the third stage, these learners make further progress and are competent in both correct lexical analysis and correct syntactic representations. Not only are they clear that the sole NP of the unaccusative verb is its internal argument, which should be projected onto the object position at the deep structure representation, but also prevent themselves from explicitly marking the NP movement with the salient passive morphosyntax be + Ven. In a nutshell, they are now target-like in the use of unaccusatives.

It’s worth noting that the crux of the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis is the state of the low-level learners’ mental grammar about English intransitive verbs. These learners are assumed to misanalyze unaccusatives as unergatives. As a result, they don’t make errors with unaccusatives and appear to be correct on the surface. In contrast, the intermediate learners are more likely to err with unaccusatives, making themselves look inferior to the low-level learners and plunging themselves to the bottom of the U-shaped developmental path. The Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis is important because it attempts to bring several unaccusative-related interlanguage phenomena together. Its importance also lies in the fact that it is the first hypothesis to address the developmental path of L2 acquisition of English unaccusative verbs.

C. The Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis

The Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis, which is put forward by Pinker (1989), postulates that the causative alternation is governed by a broad-range lexical rule. This rule licenses a verb which describes an event involving a thing to be included as an effect of an agent acting on that thing.

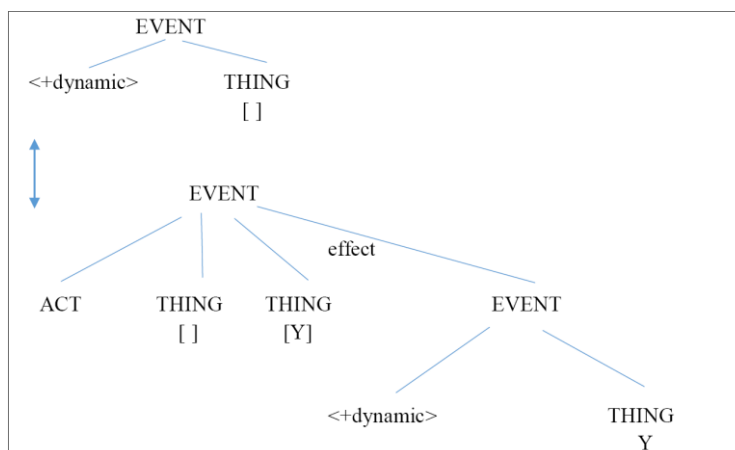


Figure 5. The Diagrammatical Representation of the Broad-range Rule for the Causative Alternation (Pinker, 1989)

The top part of Figure 5 represents a non-causative event (e.g., *the window breaking*), while the node <+dynamic> stands for the event itself (e.g., *breaking*) and the node THING symbolizes the entity involved in that event (e.g., *the*

window). The bottom part of Figure 5 represents the causative event (e.g., *a big stone breaking the window*). The first EVENT is composed of an agentive THING [X] (e.g., *a big stone*) that ACTS upon the THING [Y] (e.g., *the window*), resulting in the second EVENT illustrated by the *window* (THING Y) *breaking* (<+dynamic>). Pinker indicates that the broad-range rule encompasses information that the predicate of the effect event can be either GO or ACT, but cannot be the non-dynamic BE or HAVE. Innate linking rules will spell out the syntactic structure of a given semantic structure.

Learners acquire the broad-range lexical rules in two steps. First, learners acquire lexicosemantic structures of causative verbs. Second, they notice that some verbs are used not only as causative verbs, but also as intransitive verbs. However, the broad-range rules will lead them to overgeneralize the causative use of verbs. The non-existence of the overgeneralization errors, which constitutes the indirect negative evidence, prompts learners to form narrow-range rules, which will refrain them from applying the broad-range rules to causative verbs that cannot alternate. Pinker proposes the following narrow-range rules for the causative alternation, as shown in Figure 6.

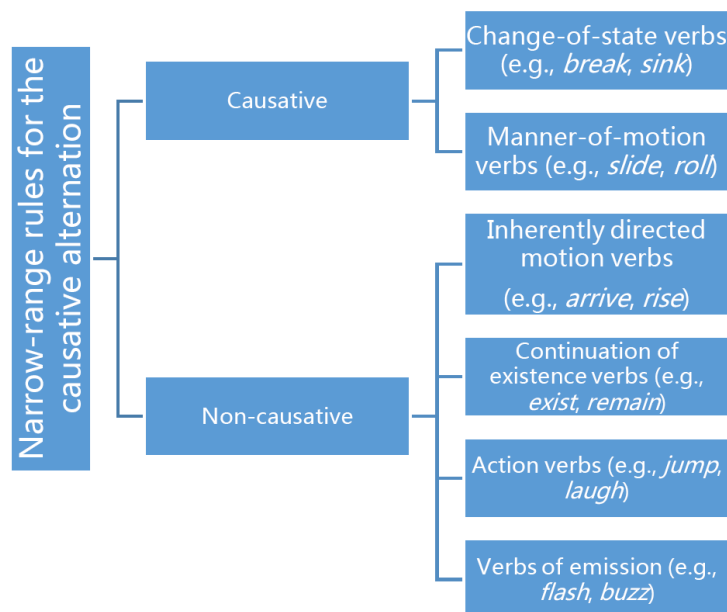


Figure 6. Narrow-range Rules for the Causative Alternation (Pinker, 1989)

According to Pinker (1989), the overgeneralization errors learners make are either one-shot creations of the broad-range rules or are induced by incorrect semantic representations of particular verbs, which lead them to be wrongly categorized into a causative verb class. The second type of errors will disappear as a natural consequence of the fine-tuning of the verbs' semantic representations.

D. The Entrenchment Hypothesis

The Entrenchment Hypothesis, which is proposed by Braine and Brooks (1995), suggests that if a verb (e.g., *happen*) is repeatedly presented in a certain structure (e.g., *an accident happened*), it will impress the learners that this verb cannot be used in other structures and thus prevent the learners from associating this verb with other structures (e.g., *an accident was happened*). In other words, the higher the frequency at which a structure is presented for a particular verb, the less likely it will be used in other structures. To summarize, the Entrenchment Hypothesis highlights the important role of type frequency in learners' choice of verb argument structure. That is, verb types that learners encounter more frequently are acquired faster than the less frequent ones.

E. The Interface Hypothesis

Interface in linguistic studies refers to the connections or spaces where mappings happen. According to Ramchand and Reiss (2007), there are two understandings of interface. One is the link between language and non-linguistic cognitive domains such as psychology and neuroscience. The other is the connection between various linguistic modules, which include syntax-phonology, syntax-semantics, syntax-pragmatics, syntax-discourse, and so on. The first one is broad, while the second is narrow. It is often the narrow understanding that is followed by linguists.

The Interface Hypothesis is proposed by Sorace and Filiaci (2006). It suggests that language structures, which constitute an interface between syntax and other linguistic domains, are less likely to be fully acquired than structures that do not form an interface issue. For example, adult L2 learners are capable of fully acquiring target language properties that are purely internal components of the computational system of syntax, but are incapable of fully acquiring a syntactic-discourse language phenomenon. However, Tsimpli and Sorace (2006) find that interface issues do not pose the same difficulty to L2 learners. For example, the syntax-semantics interface, which involves formal properties of the language system alone, is easier to acquire than the syntax-discourse interface, which not only involves

a processing of linguistic properties, but also a consideration of contextual appropriateness. Tsimpli and Sorace argue that the syntax-semantics interface represents a lower level of language acquisition while the syntax-discourse interface a higher level. Such a distinction is later called by Sorace and Serratrice (2009) the distinction between the internal interface, which includes syntax-phonology, syntax-morphology and syntax-semantics, and the external interface, which involves syntax-pragmatics and syntax-discourse. Sorace and Serratrice suggest that language structures at the external interface may be unattainable to adult L2 learners. Now the Interface Hypothesis, which has been reformulated to accommodate the recent research findings, states that adult L2 learners may succeed in acquiring purely syntactic properties that lie at the internal interfaces, but may not be fully successful in acquiring external interface issues. The variability in the end state grammar of adult L2 learners is termed as optionality. Sorace and Filiaci (2006) suggest that the optionality at the interface may be due to adult L2 learners' insufficient processing strategies to utilize syntactic and pragmatic knowledge.

III. PROSPECTS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

A. *Continuing to Test the Validity of the Existing Hypotheses*

L2 acquisition of unaccusative verbs has received a lot of research attention. Three hypotheses have been specifically proposed to account for it. That is, the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis and the Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis are exclusively associated with L2 acquisition of unaccusative verbs. The other two hypotheses, namely the Entrenchment Hypothesis and the Interface Hypothesis, are not uniquely applicable to unaccusative verbs in that they have a larger focus and address L2 acquisition in general. All these five hypotheses should of course be subject to more empirical tests in the future in that no consensus has been reached yet. The Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, in particular, should be examined more extensively in that it has aroused much more controversy than others. The controversy over it stems from its' tendency to limit L2 acquisition of unaccusative verbs to the semantic-syntax interface only. That is, it is not compatible with other contributing factors such as subject animacy and pragmatic concerns. It is questionable whether L2 acquisition of unaccusative verbs proceeds in a fashion as neat as the description of the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis. Therefore, more studies should be carried out in the future to test the validity of the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis.

B. *Situating More Studies in the Usage-based Model of Language Learning*

Of the five hypotheses associated with L2 acquisition of unaccusative verbs, four of them are rule-based. These four hypotheses are the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, the Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis and the Interface Hypothesis. The Entrenchment Hypothesis is only the usage-based approach. It is therefore apparent that there is an imbalance in the theoretical perspectives adopted to view L2 acquisition of unaccusative verbs. In fact, the purely formalist view has proved to be inadequate. A case in point is the overpassivization error of unaccusatives, which is the most noticeable and most researched unaccusative-related phenomenon. The formalist account, as suggested by the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, views this error as L2 learners' overgeneralization of the *be* + *Ven* morphology of the English passive structure to overtly mark the movement of the sole argument of an unaccusative verb from the deep structure object position to the surface structure subject position. However, recent studies have revealed the effect of cognitive factors such as the presence of a conceptualizable agent in discourse on L2 learners' overpassivization errors (Ju, 2000). That is, L2 learners are likely to passivize English unaccusative verbs when there is a conceptualizable agent in the given discourse. In addition to the conceptualizable agent interpreted from the given discourse, input frequency also plays a part in the overpassivization error. Lee et al (2008) find that L2 learners are less likely to passivize unaccusative verbs with higher frequencies than those with lower frequencies. And L2 learners are less likely to passivize non-alternating unaccusative verbs than alternating ones. This suggests that L2 learners' exposure to English unaccusative verbs can affect their knowledge of the appropriate use of these verbs, thus supporting the usage-based model of language learning. However, studies of this type are not as many as those approached from the generative perspective and therefore deserve more attention in the future studies.

C. *Contrasting L2 Learners of Different L1s*

There has been a heated debate on the potential influence of L1 on the L2 acquisition of English unaccusative verbs. Given the fact that L2 learners from various L1 backgrounds are all likely to make the overpassivization errors, many researchers argue that there is no L1 transfer effect in this interlanguage phenomenon (Balcom 1997; Ju 2000; Oshita 2000; Zobl 1989). Other researchers, however, find that the morphological properties of the L2 learners' L1 affect their acquisition of the English causative alternation (Moore 1993; Kondo 2005; Chung 2016). Finding clear L1 morphological effects, Montrul (2000) argues that UG and L1 knowledge are not likely to affect all the linguistic domains in the same way at a given point of development. She concludes that L1 transfer is modular or selective in that it affects morphology but not argument structure. Gao (2009), however, finds that L1 transfer does not proceed in a modular fashion despite the fact that the influence of L1 morphology is detected in certain conditions. He suggests that the modular view of L1 transfer is not empirically plausible and that a particular learner behavior results from both semantic and morpho-syntactic influence of L1. To solve this dispute, it is necessary to investigate and compare the acquisition of English unaccusative verbs by L2 learners of different L1s.

D. Making More Fine-grained Analysis of Verb Results

Traditionally, English unaccusative verbs are studied on a group basis. That is, unaccusative verbs are divided into non-alternating and alternating groups, which are further divided into more subgroups according to the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis (Deguchi and Oshita 2004; Hirakawa 2000; Hwang 1999; Ju 2000; Oshita 1997; Yip 1995). However, Sikorska (2002) cautions that group results may be misleading because they conceal learner variations and word variations. She calls for the analysis of individual verbs, which can help to decide whether L2 learners will, as the UG theory would predict, treat verbs of the same class alike. Ju (2000) finds that there are significant differences in the susceptibility of English alternating unaccusative verbs to the overpassivization error by Chinese learners. But no such differences are found among the non-alternating unaccusative verbs. Jo (2018), however, finds that there are significant individual verb differences in Korean learners' tendency to passivize the English non-alternating unaccusative verbs. Mo (2016) finds that there are significant between-verb variations in Chinese learners' acquisition of English causative alternation. His case studies show that Chinese learners mainly acquire the transitive use of *break* and the unaccusative use of *sink*. Therefore, there are wide variations in L2 learners' performance on English unaccusative verbs that belong to the same class. Such variations have not been thoroughly investigated. They deserve more attention in the future studies.

E. Conducting More Online Processing Studies

There has arisen a trend to study the online processing of English unaccusative verbs (Purdy 2010; Zhang and Qiao 2013; Zhao and Ge 2017; Zhu and Wang 2017). Various psychological methods have been used, which include self-paced reading studies, eye-tracking studies, cross-modal priming studies, ERP studies, and so on. These studies have the potential to unveil the mental representation and development associated with English unaccusative verbs. They represent an important direction for future studies.

IV. CONCLUSION

Second language acquisition of English unaccusative verbs is a topic of heated discussion in the field of applied linguistics. So far five hypotheses have been proposed. These hypotheses are the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, the Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis, the Entrenchment Hypothesis and the Interface Hypothesis. This study takes a close look at these hypotheses and arrives at the following findings. First, the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, the Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis and the Entrenchment Hypothesis apply to both L1 and L2, while the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis and the Interface Hypothesis are aimed at L2 only. Second, the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis and the Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis are uniquely concerned with unaccusative verbs, while the Entrenchment Hypothesis and the Interface Hypothesis address more types of verbs. Of course, all of them are not limited to English unaccusative verbs only. Third, the Unaccusative Hierarchy Hypothesis, the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis, the Semantic Verb Class Hypothesis and the Interface Hypothesis are all rule-based by nature, while the Entrenchment Hypothesis is the only one that takes a usage-based view of language acquisition. Fourth, the Unaccusative Trap Hypothesis is the most controversial one, while the other four have received extensive empirical support. Fifth, these hypotheses, which have helped to provide a panoramic view of second language acquisition of unaccusative verbs, need to be further tested by future studies.

This study suggests that the future studies of second language acquisition of unaccusative verbs should pay more attention to the usage-based approach to language acquisition. It also calls for more attention to the possible between-verb variations, the possible role of L1 transfer and the online processing of unaccusative verbs.

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The Study of the Effects of Yunnan Yuxi Dialect on Received Pronunciation

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Abstract—In *A Brief Analysis of Yuxi Dialect*, Fu Chang makes a detailed explanation on dialects' features and the value of its study. In *The General Received Pronunciation of British English* by Fengtong Chang, the author dealt with reasons why London English became standard English, and also elaborated on consonants and vowels in British English. Up to today no one has ever made a contrast between the two languages and further diminished the interference from dialect in English pronunciation learning of the Yuxi students. This paper is designed to make a contrast between the two languages: Yuxi dialect in Zhoucheng and Received Pronunciation; as well as the differences between their consonants and vowels respectively can be achieved to rectify the pronunciations' deviation in English learning. It is intended to improve English teaching quality of Yuxi dialect speakers and enhance the pronunciation standardization of English there.

Index Terms—Yuxi dialect, RP, vowels and consonants, differences, rectifications

I. INTRODUCTION

There are a variety of dialects in the world. Dialects influence language how learners approach a target language. This rule applies to students in Yuxi, too. But so far no one has ever made a contrast between the two languages and further diminished the interference from English dialect's pronunciation learning in any data.

As a Yuxi local, the writer, having an experience of learning English there for years, finds that the local dialect has a negative impact on his pronunciation of English. However, there is no such solution to this problem until now. Therefore, this paper, having based itself on *A Brief Analysis of Yuxi Dialect* by Fu Chang, analyzes consonants and vowels in the Yuxi dialect. Then it cites the reasons given in *The General Received Pronunciation of British English* by Fengtong Chang on why British English was chosen as the standard English.

Next, it analyzes consonants and vowels in British English and then makes a comparison between consonants and vowels in the two languages.

Finally, it states the difference between the two languages in terms of consonant and vowel and accordingly reaches a conclusion: consonants in the Yuxi dialect will have negative impacts on the pronunciation of English words if they sound similar to the equivalent English consonants.

II. AN INTRODUCTION OF YUNNAN YUXI DIALECT

Yuxi dialect stands out among the other dialects of Yunnan. It is mainly spoken in Zhoucheng of Yuxi, including Yuxi plain and Yanhe plain and villages in the semi-hills surrounding the city, wherein the Han Chinese live. Among all the villages, only Daying Street in the north of the city is inhabited by the Hui ethnic group. Hui dialect has its own phonetic system, i.e., they speak with no gutturophony but velar. Furthermore, the phonetic system, which is similar to that of the Kunming dialect, does not belong to Yuxi dialect. In terms of vocabulary and sound system, the dialect of Yanhe is sharply different from that of Zhoucheng, whereas the phonetic system of the former is the same as that of the latter, which uses initial consonant of back guttural, hence the former can be classified into the Yuxi dialect.

Fu Chang, a Chinese linguist, conducted a survey on Yuxi dialect. Once he heard some people talking and coughing when they were bargaining. He noticed that he could not understand what they were talking about. So, he made an effort to listen to them and finally figured out that they were speaking with a local dialect called Ximuhongyin (Ximu, an old initial consonant: hongyin, kaikouhu.) Ximuhongyin features initial consonants whose pronunciations are similar to coughing, which is a rare phenomenon. *Dialects in Yunnan* by Luo Changpei names four representative regions: Kunming, Dali, Yuxi, Qiaojia. All of these reasons prove that Yuxi dialect is in a special position in the field of language studying. Out of the concern of unity, this paper bases the analysis and discussion of the Yuxi dialect on the dialect spoken in the Zhoucheng area.

This peculiarity can find its full expression in that the glottal stops [ʔ][ʔ^h] and the guttural fricative [h] correspond to the lingual plosive [k][k^h] and the lingual fricative [x] in standard Chinese. This phenomenon is so rare that it once aroused the interest of many experts both at home and abroad.

The characteristics of the Yuxi dialect lie in that, besides the three guttural initials [ʔ][ʔ^h][h], it also has another two initial consonants of voiced dental fricatives: [v][z]. Chinese characters in the Yuxi dialect like “闻文吻问微望万尾” are uttered with [v] as their initial consonant. However, initial consonant [z] is only heard in such Chinese characters in

Yuxi dialect “宇游” that have their own syllables and dialect corresponds to syllables of zero-consonant in mandarin, such as “因莹颖婴纓盈英影映櫻莺应匀韵允殷隐印”, etc.. As for simple or compound vowels of Chinese syllable, Qichihu (齐齿呼) compound vowels appear in Yuxi dialect but this is not true with Cuokouhu (撮口呼) because all Chinese characters with Cuokouhu combine into their relative Qichihu. Similar to the Kunming dialect, [i] and [ɛn] rise and [iŋ] and [əŋ] fall. Additionally, the striking characteristic of the Yuxi dialect is that [uən], [uang], [uan] are uttered as the same [uãŋ], and Chinese characters like “温汪弯光关” are uttered identically. The rhyme Chinese characters(韵字) consist of the majority of those with vowels of ə, uo, o and part of those with [ao], [ei], [ai], which is of much distinction. In respect of the combination law of the initial consonants and the simple or compound vowels, the vowel [in] can collaborate with the four consonants [tʂ], [tʂʰ], [s], [z], but not with [tɕ], [tɕʰ], which is a far cry from standard Chinese or Kunming dialect.

Over the past forty years, due to the rapid development of politics, economy, culture and education, the dialect in Yuxi city has changed drastically. There, locals under the age of thirty have begun to speak a new Yuxi dialect that is much more similar to the Kunming dialect. The prominent feature of the new the Yuxi dialect is gutturophony. That is to say, the initial consonant has been replaced by velar, and the vowel [ə] has diverged from [o], and [in] has begun to detach themselves from [tʂ], [tʂʰ], [s], and collaborated with [tɕ] and [z]. Moreover, the initial consonants are disappearing gradually. The outstanding characteristics of the traditional the Yuxi dialect have almost faded away, indicating that it is becoming more similar to standard Chinese. However, the old Yuxu dialect spoken by indigenous people in Zhoucheng and its surrounding countryside has maintained its own features.

III. THE CONSONANTS AND VOWELS OF THE YUXI DIALECT

A. The Consonants of the Yuxi Dialect (the Initial Consonants of Chinese Syllables)

In Yuxi dialect, there are 24 (include: zero-consonant(零声母)) consonants displayed in the following table:

TABLE 1
(FU CHANG, 1991(4), P.33.)

p	布北	p'	怕盘	m	门麻
f	飞冯	v	文万		
t	道夺	t'	太同	n	南怒
l	兰路				
ʔ	贵街	ʔ'	开葵	h	化鞋
tɕ	节家	tɕ'	区恰	ɕ	小休
tʂ	招主	tʂ'	昌虫	ʂ	声书
ʒ	日然				
tʂ	资金	tʂ'	雌清	s	私心
z	营云	∅	安衣		

Attention to the following rules:

First, pronunciations of such consonants as [p] [pʰ] [m] [f] [t] [tʰ] [n] [l] [tɕ] [tɕʰ] [ɕ] [tʂ] [tʂʰ] [s] are the same as that of Mandarin.

Second, the retro-flex degree of the four consonants [tʂ] [tʂʰ] [ʂ] [z] is not as high as Mandarin, to the degree of palatal alveolar [ʃ] [ʃʰ] [ʒ] [z].

Third, the two consonants [v] and [z] are not included in Mandarin; [v] is a labial-dental fricative, [z] is a tip-tongue fricative.

Fourth, present pronunciation of the guttural fricative [h] is close to that of the lingual fricative [x], but in light of the integrity of the Yuxi phonetic system and its tradition, the former is still marked as ^h.

B. The Vowels of the Yuxi Dialect (the Simple and Compound Vowels)

There are 31 vowels in the Yuxi dialect:

TABLE 2
(FU CHANG, 1991(4), p.34.)

ɿ	资磁	ɿ	知吃	ʌ	打巴
o	波多鹅薄北黑拍			ə	他呢
ɚ	儿尔	ʌe	艾矮	eɪ	杯佩
ɑɔ	乃高	ɔu	欧沟		
i	衣鱼	ia	家呀	io	药学
io	雀鹊	iɛ	耶月	iu	育局
iaɔ	腰交	iəu	油修		
u	乌木	ua	瓜花	uae	歪怪
ueɪ	威灰				
ān	安干	āŋ	昂党	ēn	根生
oŋ	东崩翁	iēn	烟元	iāŋ	羊讲
īn	因英云	ioŋ	永容	uān	弯温汪

Attention to the following rules:

First, lips should be extended wider than of the two mono-vowels [u] and [o] be wider than that of them in standard Chinese.

Second, the retro-flex degree of the mono-vowel [ɚ] is not as high as that of its correspondent in standard Chinese.

Third, only a few Chinese characters have the mono-vowel [ə], such as “他,呢”, while many Chinese characters contain mono-vowel [o], such as ɿ, uo, o and some characters of ao, ei in Chinese vowels.

Fourth, there are no Cuokouhu vowels in Yuxi dialect; most Cuokouhu vowels in Chinese have merged into Qichihu vowels and only a few Cuokouhu vowels have merged into Hekouhu vowels.

Fifth, the openness of the vowel [ʌe] is bigger than that of its correspondent in Mandarin.

Sixth, nasal tail vowels are peculiar to Yuxi dialect, they include main vowels [oŋ] [ioŋ].

IV. AN INTRODUCTION OF RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION AND VOWELS AND CONSONANTS OF RP

A. *The Reasons of RP as the Standard English*

British English (BrE.) mainly refers to the laws of English by the English people living on the British Isles. It is the official language of the UK and the Commonwealth. British English symbolizes the nobility and elegance of the English and with its clear pronunciation; it is very popular among many English learners. However, not all the British embrace British English. In some parts of the UK, especially Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland, people there advocate the coexistence of diverse dialects, sharing the idea that to require all the people to speak the same language amounts to a kind of unreasonable insult. On the part of the people in England, the evolution of dialects is an extremely serious problem.

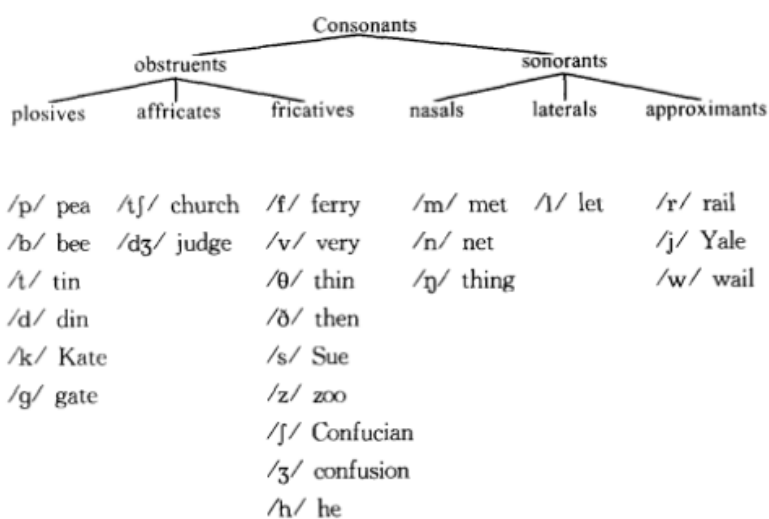
In history, the powerful British Empire dominated world culture. The most influential British English (RP, Received Pronunciation) usually refers to the non-dialect English spoken by the educated living in the main college cities of England, such as Oxford University and Cambridge University. Moreover, this kind of English is also used in boarding schools and on television and radio broadcast and is labeled as “English accent”. That being said, many countries are still reluctant to acknowledge this type of English, the US, for instance.

Currently British English is still the official language of many Commonwealth countries, such as: Australia, South Africa and India. This is also true of the European Union. In China, British English is spoken in Britain’s former colony, Hong Kong. The broadcasters of the BBC employ British English in the London area as well, while many English learners in China practice listening with the BBC. Therefore, this paper takes Received Pronunciation as the Standard English.

B. *The Consonants and Vowels in RP*

1. **The Consonants in RP**

There are 24 distinctive phonemes in the English consonant system in RP. According to the manner of articulation, they can be classified as follows:



(Fengtong Chang, 2004, p.107.)

English consonant can also be classified according to the place of the articulation as follows:

- 1) 3 bilabials: [p] [b] [m] as in *pet, bet, met*
- 2) 2 labio-dentals: [f] [v] as in *fan, van*
- 3) 2 dentals: [θ] [ð] as in *breath, breathe*
- 4) 6 alveolars: [t] [d] [s] [z] [n] [l] as in *teen, dean, seal, zeal, no, low.*
- 5) 1 post-alveolar: [r] as in *red*
- 6) 4 palate-alveolars: [tʃ] [dʒ] [ʃ] [ʒ] as in *cheep, jeep, mention, measure.*
- 7) 1 palatal: [j] as in *you.*
- 8) 4 velars: [g] [k] [ŋ] [w] as in *kill, gill, sing, wing*
- 9) 1 glottal: [h] as in *here*

In addition, English sounds can also be classified according to the feature of voicing as follows:

- 1) Always voiceless [p] [t] [k] [tʃ]
[f] [θ] [s] [ʃ] [h]
 - 2) Usually voiced [b] [d] [g] [dʒ]
[v] [ð] [z] [ʒ]
[m] [n] [ŋ]
[l] [r] [j] [w]
 - 3) Always voiced vowels and diphthongs
- } All are referred to loosely as "voiced sounds"
- (Fengtong Chang, 2004, p.107)

2. The Vowels in RP

These sounds may be classified according to the following principles:

a. Monophthongs (relatively pure vowels): in producing these vowels the position and shape of the tongue and the shape of the lips stay more or less unchanged.

- 1) The part of the tongue raised
 - (1) 4 front: [i:] [ɪ] [e] [æ] as in *beat, bit, bet, bat*
 - (2) 3 central: [ʌ] [ɜ:] [ə] as in *luck, lurk, alert*
 - (3) 5 back: [ɑ:] [ɒ] [ɔ:] [ʊ] [u:] as in *fast, fog, fork, foot, food*
- 2) The shape of the lip
 - (1) 4 rounded: [ɒ] [ɔ:] [ʊ] [u:] as in *fog, fort, foot, food*
 - (2) 8 unrounded: [i:] [ɪ] [e] [æ] [ʌ] [ɑ:] [ɜ:] [ə] as in *piece, pig, peg, pad, pub, park, purse, purpose*
- 3) The openness of the mouth:
 - (1) close : [i:] [ɪ] [ʊ] [u:]
 - (2) semi close: [e] [o]
 - (3) semi open: [ʌ] [ɛ:]
 - (4) open: [æ] [ɑ] [ɒ] [ɑ:]
- 4) length:
 - (1) tense (long vowels): [ɪ] [ʊ] [e] [ə] [æ] [ʌ] [ɒ]
 - (2) lax (short vowels): [ɪ:] [ɑ:] [ɜ:] [u:] [ɔ:]

b. Diphthongs: in their production there is a glide within one syllable from one vowel position to another and the first element is longer, stronger and more sonorant than the second.

1) 5 closing diphthongs

(1) gliding to [ɪ]: [eɪ] [aɪ] [ɔɪ] as in *bay, buy, boy*

(2) gliding to [ʊ]: [əʊ] [aʊ] as in *bode, bowed*

2) 3 centering diphthongs gliding to [ə]: [ɪə] [eə] [ʊə] as in *peer, pear, poor*
(Fengtong Chang, 2004: 61)

V. A COMPARISON BETWEEN THE YUXI DIALECT AND RP

A. *The Differences Between Consonants of the Yuxi Dialect and That of RP*

After comparing table 1 with table 2, the writer finds that there are 24 consonants in the alphabet of RP and 24 consonants in the Yuxi dialect. These two languages are different in the number of their consonants. Meanwhile, Yuxi dialect contains [ʔ][ʔ^h] that are not to be found in British English whereas British English contains [θ] [ð] [j] that are also not to be found in the Yuxi dialect. Zero consonant in the two languages, however, is not to be dealt with.

Yuxi dialect has twenty-four consonants, including zero-consonant(零声母) (which this essay will not cope with), while British English has twenty-four consonants. Since zero-consonant(零声母) will not be used in the comparison of the two tongues, British English therefore has two more consonants than the Yuxi dialect.

The description of Yuxi dialect consonants:

TABLE 3

manner position	plosive		Glottal stop		fricative		Nasal sound	Lateral sound	Zero-consonant
	Unaspirated sound	Aspirated sound	Unaspirated sound	Aspirated sound	voiceless sound	Voiced sound			
bilabial	p	p ^h					m		∅
dentilabial					f	v			
supradental			ts	ts ^h	s	ʒ			
blade-alveolar	t	t ^h					n	L	
blade-palatal			tʃ	tʃ ^h	ʃ	ʒ			
dental			tc	tc ^h	ç				
glottal	ʔ	ʔ ^h			h				

(Fu Chang, 1991(4), p. 33.)

The description of RP consonants:

TABLE 4

		Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops	VL	p			t		k	
	VD	b			d		g	
Fricatives	VL		f	θ	s	ʃ		h
	VD		v	ð	z	ʒ		
Affricates	VL				(tʃ)	tʃ		
	VD				(tʃ)	tʃ		
Nasals	VD	m			n		ŋ	
Liquids	VD				l, r			
Glides	VD	w				j		

(Weidong Tai, 013. P.17.)

B. *The Effects of the Differences of Consonants Between Yuxi Dialect and RP*

Yuxi dialect, compared with RP, has unique guttural fricatives. However, the Yuxi dialect lacks [k] and [k^h] in British English. This occasion is very likely to affect pronunciations of [k] and [k^h]. Therefore, when pronouncing letters k and g, learners need to make a special effort to alleviate the adverse effects guttural fricatives of the Yuxi dialect has on their pronunciations, for instance: *glass*[gla:s] in English tends to be pronounced as [ʔla:s] by students speaking the Yuxi

dialect; *color*[k^hlə(r)] could be pronounced as [ʔ^hlə(r)], etc..

In addition, nasal consonants [m] [ŋ], due to their tongue position, also have negative impacts on the pronunciation of British English. Nasal vowels and Complex nose ends, under the influence of the Yuxi dialect, will be pronounced as [n]. For example: students speaking the Yuxi dialect may pronounce *swim* [swim] and *swimming* [swimiŋ] as [swin] and [swimin].

Some phonetic symbols like [θ][ð] are absent in the dialect, but there are similar sounds: [s][z]. Students, therefore, tend to pronounce [θ][ð] as [s][z]. Pronouncing [θ][ð] requires tongue-biting, whereas students of Yuxi dialect usually do not and this causes non-standard pronunciations. For example *thank* (correct pronunciation: [θæŋk^h]) for example, it is mispronounced as [sæŋk^h]; *the*[ðə] (with [ð]) is mispronounced as [zə].

Finally, as the Yuxi dialect contains [tə^h] [tʰ] [tʰ] whose equivalents cannot be found in British English, students speaking this dialect are unlikely to mispronounce these consonants. Therefore this paper will not address.

C. *The Differences Between Vowels of Yuxi Dialect and That of RP*

There is little difference between the Yuxi dialect and RP. This paper mainly focuses on the comparison of the vowels that are absent in the two languages. Nevertheless, some vowels are similar in terms of pronunciation, such as: nasal vowels and complex nose ends. The differences of cavity and resonant structure between the people of Europe, the U.S and the East also have an influence on the listeners. It can be found through comparison that a slight difference of pronunciation position does occur in vowels of Yuxi dialect, that is, the vowels of the Yuxi dialect are in the near front, while that of English are in the near back of the tongue. In addition, this pronunciation closely relates to the involvement of expiration and resonance.

Vowels in the Yuxi dialect are mainly monophthongs, compound vowels, nasal vowels and compound nasal vowels, while vowels in RP consist of monophthongs and diphthongs.

The description of vowels of the Yuxi Dialect:

TABLE 5

structure lips shape	Vowels and Compound vowel finals										Nasal vowels and Complex nose end finals			
KaiKouHu	ɿ	ʅ	ʌ	o	ə	ɤ	æ	ei	ɑɔ	əu	An	ən	Aŋ	oŋ
QiChiHu	i	io	iA	io	iɛ	iu			iaɔ	iəu	iɛn	in	iAŋ	ioŋ
HeKouHu	u		uA				uae	uei			uan			

(Fu Chang, 1991(4), p.34.)

The descriptions of vowels of RP:

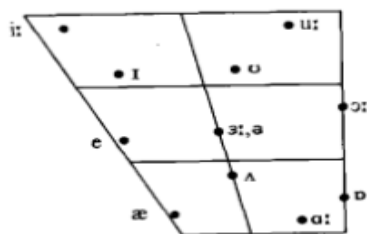


Fig. 2.1 General RP pure vowels

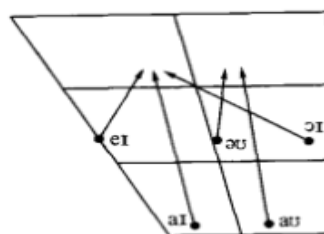


Fig. 2.2 General RP closing diphthongs

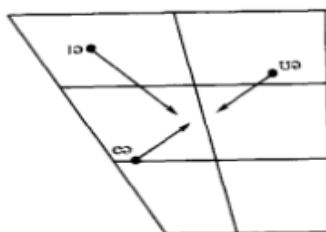


Fig. 2.3 General RP centring diphthongs (Fengtong Chang, 2004, p.57.)

Diphthongs:

5 closing diphthongs

- (1) gliding to [ɪ]: [eɪ] [aɪ] [ɔɪ]
- (2) gliding to [ʊ]: [əʊ] [aʊ]

3 centering diphthongs gliding to [ə]: [ɪə] [eə] [ʊə]

In the Yuxi dialect the vowels do not differentiate in length; the nasalized vowels aside, learners study English vowels

following the rules of pronunciation of English vowel.

So this will not influence English vowel pronunciation. Therefore, vowels are beyond the description in this paper.

VI. RECTIFICATIONS OF MISPRONUNCIATIONS INFLUENCED BY DIALECT

A. *Ways of Rectifying English Consonants' Mispronunciations Influenced by Dialect*

According to the differences between consonants of the Yuxi dialect and that of British English, learners can contrast their pronouncing systems so that one can correct the mispronunciations. [ʔ^h], [ʔ], [m], [n], [ŋ] and [θ], [ð] would interfere with the pronunciation of British English. 4.3 has shown the concrete inferences.

Correct [ʔ^h], [ʔ]. When learners pronounce [k^h][k], which are blasting consonants in the back tongue soft palate, learners should bulge at the back of the tongue near the soft palate, holding breath, and then immediately divide, letting airflow come out of the mouth to form plosive. [k^h] is a voiceless consonant without vocal cords vibration; while [k] is a voiced consonant with vocal cords vibrate.

When learners pronounce nasal consonants, they need to pay attention to the following points: First, letter m is a Double Lip Nasal Consonant. When learners pronounce it, they should close our lips to allow airflow to come out from the nasal cavity. Second, letter n is Apico-alveolar nasal consonant. When learners pronounce it, their tongues should rise up against the gums to allow airflow to come out from the nasal cavity. Third, sound ng is a back tongue soft-palate nasal consonant. When learners pronounce it, they should block their oral cavity to allow vocal cords to vibrate so that air flow can come out from the nasal cavity.

In addition, because some consonants in the Yuxi dialect are similar to that of British English, such as [p^h] [p] [t^h] [t] [f] [v], when pronouncing them, learners need to be particularly careful to avoid the slightest errors.

Below are detailed explanations of pronunciations of some representative consonants.

[p] is a lips blasting consonant. When learners pronounce it, they should close their lips to hold breath, and then open them to let air rush out of the mouth to form plosive.

[t^h] is the pronunciation of letter t; while [t] is the pronunciation of letter d. When learners pronounce it, the tips of tongue should reach the upper alveolar ridges. Next they should hold their breath and then separate their lips immediately to let airflow come out of the mouth to form a plosive. [t^h] is a voiceless consonant; while [t], a voiced consonant.

[w] is the pronunciation of letter w called back-tongue soft palate semivowel. When learners pronounce it, they should lift the back of their tongues, close their lips and pout forward, then immediately slide their lips back to two sides to produce a short pronunciation with vocal cord vibration.

[j] is the pronunciation of Chinese letter y in the initial of the word called front tongue hard palate semivowel. When learners pronounce it, the front of the tongue should be lifted to the hard palate as far as possible with a higher position, with lips stretched into flat shape. This semivowel in Chinese pronunciation is actually a voiced consonant with vocal cord vibration.

[l] is the pronunciation of letter l called tongue-side and gum-edged consonants. When pronounced, the tongue tip should close to the gum tightly with the tongue lifted up to the hard palate, letting airflow come out from the mouth beside the tongue; When learners pronounce this note as an end syllable, the tongue tip lifted against the upper gum, the front tongue rose, back tongue sank, forming a concave shape. It is a voiced consonant with vocal cord vibration.

[f] is the pronunciation of letter f and ph while [v], the pronunciation of letter v called Affricative consonant. When learners pronounce, the lower lip touched the upper teeth slightly with airflow passed through teeth, forming a fricative. [f] is a voiceless consonant without vocal cords vibration; while [v] is a voiced consonant with vocal cord vibration.

[θ] and [ð] are the pronunciation of letter th called Tongue-tooth fricative. When learners pronounce, the tip of the tongue touched the upper back of gum, letting airflow come out between the teeth and the tongue to form rubs. [θ] is a voiceless consonant without vocal cords vibration; while [ð], a voiced consonant with vocal cord vibration.

[s] and [z] are the pronunciation of letter s and z, the pronunciation of letter z at the same time called Tongue-tooth fricative. When learners pronounce them, the tongue side should close near the gum, with airflow coming out between the tongue side and the gum, forming a fricative. [s] is a voiceless consonant without vocal cords vibration; while [z] is a voiced consonant with vocal cord vibration.

[ʃ] is the pronunciation of letter sh while [ʒ], the pronunciation of letter s. They are called back tongue-gum fricatives. When learners pronounce, the tongue side closed near the back of the gum, the tongue lifted near the upper jam, with rounded and slightly exerted lips to form fricative with airflow gets through. [ʃ] is a voiceless consonant without vocal cords vibration; While [ʒ], a voiced consonant with vocal cord vibration.

[h] is the pronunciation of letter h that is called glottis fricative. When learners pronounce, the airflow comes out of the mouth with a slight friction with the glottis while the mouth shape changed in accordance with the subsequent vowel. [h] is a voiceless consonant without vocal cords vibrations.

[ʒ] is the pronunciation of letter r called back tongue-gum fricatives. When learners pronounce, the tip of the tongue curled close to the upper gum on the back, the shape of tongue rounded in slightly, and lips exerted slightly to make airflow form slight friction when getting through the tip of the tongue and the gum. It is a voiced consonant with vocal cord vibration.

[tʃ] is the pronunciation of letter ch while [dʒ], the pronunciation of letter dge called Tongue end-gum affricates.

When learners pronounce, the tongue body lifted with the tongue end touched the gum on the back forming a hinder, with which broken through by the airflow. After the airflow come out, the slit between tongue and the gum remained to form affricative when airflow getting through. [tʃ] is a voiceless consonant without vocal cords vibration; while [dʒ] is a voiced consonant with vocal cord vibration.

[tʃ] and [dʒ] are traditional pronunciation symbols in IPA. However, they are included neither in American nor British pronunciation new textbooks. Affricates [tʃ] [dʒ] are the pronunciation of the letter combination letter ts and ds respectively called Tongue end-gum affricates. When learners pronounce, the Tongue end stuck on the upper gum first to plug the airflow, then fell down slightly to send airflow out of the mouth. [tʃ] is a voiceless consonant, while [dʒ] a voiced consonant.

The two consonants in dialect [tʰ] [tʰ] [tʃ] have no counterparts or similar consonants in British English, so there are no effects on the application of those consonants. Therefore, it is not required to do corrections.

B. *The Rectification of Vowels Affecting English Pronunciation*

Through the comparison of the position and height of the tongue, the shape of the lips, the openness of the mouth and the length of the vowels based on the vowels' pronunciations, differences between the two languages can be achieved. In Yuxi dialect the vowels do not differentiate in length; the nasalized vowels rectified aside, learners study English vowels following the rules of English vowel' pronunciation. Nasalized vowels are influenced by [n], hence pronunciation deviations can be solved by the rectification methods offered in 6.1.

VII. CONCLUSION

Assisted by the brief analysis of the Yuxi dialect by Fu Chang and the writer's experience of learning English, this paper briefly analyzes consonants and vowels in the Yuxi dialect. When reading *The General Received Pronunciation of British English* by Fengtong Chang, the writer found that Chang gives a full explanation on the reasons why British English was chosen as Standard English and offers a detailed analysis of consonants and vowels in British English and their pronunciations. Next, this paper contrasts the Yuxi dialect and British English and forms this conclusion: consonants in Yuxi dialect are highly similar to that in British English, for instance: [ʔ^h], [ʔ] and [k^h], [k], [θ], [ð] and [s], [z], [n] and [m], [ŋ]. As to the vowel, due to their different vocal organs, Chinese and utter vowels differ.

Based on the findings of people who studied this topic before, this paper proposes the first method to deal with the mispronunciations of English words. First, this essay introduces the characteristics of the Yuxi dialect, including vowels and consonants. Then the writer explains the reasons of Received Pronunciation as the Standard English in respect of vowels and consonants.

This essay puts emphasis on the comparison of consonants and vowels between the Yuxi dialect and Received Pronunciation. Then the differences generalized from the comparison are employed to develop the rectifications for mispronunciations in English learning, which is intended to improve English teaching quality in the Yuxi.

Because the writer only has a short learning of phonetics, the analysis that appears in this paper is limited in both depth and width. The writer sincerely hopes that future professors who study this topic should be generous in offering him advice of revision.

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The Effect of Oral Metalinguistic Corrective Feedback on Learners' Knowledge of Pronoun among Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—A great number of language learners claims that they are unable to produce the foreign language accurately without any grammatical errors at the end of their language course. In this study, the impact of oral metalinguistic corrective feedback, among various types of corrective feedback, on learners' pronoun accuracy was considered. The participants were 74 EFL learners (46 females, 28 males) studying English at Safir English language institutes in Tehran. In order to homogenize the learners, Key English Test (KET) test was given to them. 60 learners were selected for the study and 14 learners were removed. Participants were randomly divided into two groups. One group received metalinguistic feedback and the other group received explicit correction feedback. Grammatical judgment test was used as a pretest and posttest. Eight reading passages from "Select Readings" were another instrument that was used for training through jigsaw task in this study. Then t-test was run to check the significance of the mean difference between pretest and post-test of groups. The results show the priority of experimental group (which received oral metalinguistic feedback) on control group (which received explicit feedback).

Index Terms—direct corrective feedback, metalinguistic corrective feedback, knowledge of pronunciation

I. INTRODUCTION

Direct corrective feedback (DCF) and metalinguistic explanation (ME) organize two techniques of performing written and oral error correction. DCF gives the correct forms to students without giving feedback to learners. Conversely, metalinguistic explanation (ME) is a process which the students can use self-correction to correct their errors. However, metalinguistic CF will simplify learning when learners have implicit knowledge of a grammatical feature. According to Chandler (2003), metalinguistic CF gives learners an opportunity how to correct the form directly which they could not do that through explicit feedback. This will be very important for the learners have limited L2 proficiency and hard to enhance their oral abilities of the learners.

According to Ferris and Roberts (2001) and Chandler (2003), metalinguistic CF was more effective for learners to improve their errors. Thus, they had access to the corrections when revising, so they only needed to consider the corrections. Some evidences in the learning process have occurred when they used CF on grammatical accuracy in new writing. According to Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, and Takashima (2008), direct CF can enhance accuracy by themselves. Farrokhi and Sattarpour (2012) also took into account that direct corrective feedback has significant benefits in accuracy in the use of English articles for the learners who are not professional in writing. Truscott and Hsu (2008) stated that metalinguistic CF didn't improve accuracy in new writing. Moreover, direct CF has impact not only on revision but also on improving accuracy in grammar accuracy its effect is for a long-term time. This could help the learners' implicit L2 knowledge to have an opportunity for revision. Also, it focuses on one grammatical feature which can give an awareness to students the rule about how to develop explicit knowledge. This will occur if some types of errors are corrected. In previous researches, ME provided a metalinguistic description of some errors (as in Bitchener & Knoch, 2010b). In both cases, it is needed to correct the errors in individual learners' work. No previous study has taken into account the oral metalinguistic on the knowledge of grammar accuracy in pronunciation. The ME can be seen as a form of direct consciousness-raising. Therefore, this study has types of consciousness-raising related to learners' comprehending of the target structure.

II. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The most studies have examined the impact of corrective feedback or metalinguistic feedback based of improvement in accuracy. They did not consider the learners' reply to the feedback they received while retelling. We discuss that if we examine oral error feedback helps learning pronoun knowledge, we need to understand how learners respond to the feedback. Due to the metalinguistic, we have to know if learners pay attention to the corrections and to comprehend the rule and whether they can use it by self-correcting the errors they have done. What are required are methods to investigate how learners have replied to the correction and its usage. There are some studies of learners' real

involvement with oral correction and there isn't any oral feedback to investigate learners' knowledge of pronoun. Thus, it is important to consider this study through oral metalinguistic feedback.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Recently, different kinds of corrective feedback have been suggested and many studies have been performed on these kinds of corrective feedback. The positive effect of corrective feedback on learning language has been illustrated but few studies have been performed on the impact of corrective feedback on the assessment of learners' knowledge of pronoun accuracy to be learned and learners have to be mastered in its accuracy. Some language learners think that they can't produce the foreign language accurately without any grammatical errors. In this study, the impact of metalinguistic corrective feedback on grammatical accuracy among foreign language learners was taken into account. In most Iranian EFL contexts, language learners are not skillful enough in English, specifically in producing grammatical sentences. Therefore, teachers are as a scaffold to assist learners to meet the requirement of oral problems by providing useful feedback on their learners' knowledge of grammar accuracy. Traditionally, in Iranian English Foreign Language (EFL) context, one of the best techniques is to give direct metalinguistic feedback to exercise on error treatment in speaking classes. Some of the previous studies have considered the impact of EF in improving students' speaking but there were few studies investigating the role of oral metalinguistic feedback on pronoun knowledge of learners, particularly through utilizing and providing metalinguistic clues on EFL learners' knowledge of pronoun. The current study emphasized only on the acquisition of the pronouns and how to improve second language (L2) learners' grammar accuracy, and tries to find proper teaching techniques in the acquisition of L2 pronouns.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The researcher is attempt to response the following questions based on the findings:

- 1) Does explicit correction feedback have a significant effect on EFL students' grammar in pronoun?
- 2) Does metalinguistic feedback have a significant effect on EFL students' grammar in pronoun?
- 3) Does exposure to metalinguistic feedback in EFL learners lead to more enhancement in their knowledge of pronoun or explicit correction feedback?

V. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A factor affecting language accuracy is corrective feedback that is given to students. As Lalande (1982) for indirect feedback and Bitchener and Knoch (2009) and Kubota (2013) for direct corrective feedback stated, this area of research is developing quickly. A research carried out about metalinguistic feedback is related to producing writing explicitly or implicitly. Explicit type of meta-linguistic feedback in writing refers to errors which can either be oral or written (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009).

According to Kubota (1994), the result of his study supports the role of explicit meta-linguistic feedback in teaching grammatical rules. According to Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam (2006), implicit and explicit forms of feedback also displayed useful impacts of meta-linguistic feedback on language acquisition. Other studies carried out by Bitchener, Young and Cameron (2005), and Sheen (2007) about different types of direct corrective feedback on second language writing. The findings of Sheen's study (2007) displayed enhancement for both treatment groups as an experimental group in the immediate post-tests, however, the direct meta-linguistic group did better in the delayed post-test. Moreover, Bitchener (2008) pointed out the effects of metalinguistic feedback on enhancing of the English article (the/a). The findings were about both oral and written meta-linguistic feedback in combination with direct error correction and those who received direct feedback performed better than the students in control group.

According to Petchprasert (2012), there are four types of oral feedback: (1) it supports students in acquiring of learning vocabulary and structures in context; (2) it provides information for both teachers and students for assessment; (3) it gives motivation to students to improve their performance, and (4) it can assist the students toward self-reliance in order to understand their own errors and guess how to correct them. When the corrective feedback occurs in foreign language classes, it helps students to learn more.

As Ebadi, Mohd Saad & Abedalaziz (2014) stated, acquiring grammatical features in L2 is not easy for all the traits. Some traits are difficult to attain and cannot be observed by simple exposure to the language. Thus, the effect of teaching language learning in different forms of intervention should be examined. Moreover, the other study carried out by Bowles (2011) pointed out the weak interface position in cognitive psychology comprehend the impacts of implicit and explicit corrective feedback on acquisition of different grammatical features in ESL learners.

VI. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants were 74 EFL learners (46 females, 28 males) studying English at Safir English language institutes in Tehran. All the participants were in intermediate level. They were all aged between 18 to 25. In order to homogenize the learners, KET test was given to them. 60 learners were selected for the study and 14 learners were removed. The

learners who were one standard deviation above the mean and one below the mean were selected for the intended study. There are two groups of subjects. Each one has 30 participants which one group received metalinguistic feedback and another received explicit correction feedback in their reply to test. There are both male and female students in this study. Grammatical judgment test was run as a pretest. Then, they received similar teaching and similar syllabus. At last, learners in both control group and experimental group received the posttest.

B. Instruments

Two instruments were used in this study, namely, KET, grammatical judgment test as a pretest and posttest. The KET (Key English Test) was administered to examine whether the participants are in the same level of language proficiency. In addition, according to Ellis (1991, p.181), grammatical judgment test was run among 10 EFL learners and then it was distributed among all participants.

C. Procedures

Firstly, 60 students from Safir institute were given grammatical judgment test which contains tense and pronoun. The testees, then, were divided in two 30-member groups on the basis of their obtained scores. Then, one of the groups was randomly chosen as experimental group to receive the treatment (Abdollahzadeh, 2016, p. 188).

Second, Jigsaw task was carried out for 30 participants in experimental and 30 in control group in six equal teams. Each team contains five persons to retell the reading passage based on jigsaw task. Two of learners completed the pieces of story. Paragraphs in the story were divided among the groups in order to retell them. Then, teacher corrected the participants' errors in the experimental group after carrying out the retelling the passage (metalinguistic feedback). Teacher only corrected the errors related to pronoun. In each session, they have taught one passage and after performing the task, teachers gave feedback to control group explicitly and experimental group received metalinguistic feedback (Richards, 2001 as cited in Nunan, 2003). The data was assessed through t-test.

D. Design

The design of the current study is Quasi-experimental design. In this study, a pre-test and post-test design were run and its emphasis is on metalinguistic feedback as an independent variable and grammatical accuracy as a dependent variable.

VII. FINDINGS

Researcher analyzed the mean and standard deviation of both groups to check both groups were homogeneous before the treatment. Their mean scores of experimental and control groups in pretest were analyzed through t-test. Post-test was administered for both control and experimental groups to investigate differences finishing sessions. After gathering the data, t-test was run to check the significance of the mean difference between pretest and post-test of groups.

VIII. RESULTS

Data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics contains the means, standard deviations, and frequency. T-test was carried out to investigate the mean differences of two groups of scores.

A. Test of Variable Homogeneity

Levene test represented the significant level of meaningfulness is 0.234 which show the variance of two groups are equal. In fact, 60 participants were selected as homogenous. To evaluate the homogeneity of regression coefficients (slope), a Levene test was used and as it has been shown in the Table 1, p-value is 0.234 that is higher than the significance level of 0.05. As a result, it can be concluded that data follow homogeneity of covariate regression coefficients (slope).

TABLE 1
TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES

Levene statistic	Df 1	Df 2	Sig.
9.232	2	58	0.234

B. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of Normality

In order to examine the normality of the groups, test of Kolmogorov-Smirnov has been used in Table 2 in the following:

TABLE 2
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

N		Data
		60
Normal parameters	Mean	15.20
	Std. Deviation	3.145
Test statistic		.215
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.07

Test statistic is 0.215 and meaningful level is 0.07 which represents the distribution of scores is normal.

IX. INVESTIGATION OF THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research question sought to investigate whether oral metalinguistic feedback has any significant effect on knowledge of pronoun. Table 3, 4 summarizes the descriptive statistics for the learners' performance of experimental and control groups in pretest and posttest stage. Next, inferential statistics through t-test was run to examine the mean differences of two groups at pretest.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS' GRAMMAR TEST JUDGMENT SCORE IN PRE AND POST-TEST

Exp	N	Mean	Std.deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Pre	60	14.47	2.949	11	20
Post	60	15.93	3.262	11	20

Regarding Table 3, mean score and standard deviation of experimental group in pre-test is 14.47 and 2.949, respectively. The minimum score of grammatical judgment test in pre-test of experimental group is 11 and the maximum score is 20. In addition, mean score and standard deviation of post-test in experimental group is 15.93 and 3.262, respectively. The minimum score of grammatical judgment test in post-test of experimental group is 11. It should be taken into consideration that the learners in post-test of experimental group had greater mean score than pre-test of experimental group. It shows that treatment of metalinguistic feedback has the impact on the improving learners' knowledge of pronoun.

A. Descriptive Statistics of Grammar Test Judgment Scores of Control Group in Pre-test and Post-test

The obtained descriptive statistics of learners has been displayed in Table 4.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CONTROL GROUPS' GRAMMATICAL JUDGMENT TEST IN PRE AND POST-TEST

Control	N	Mean	Std.deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Pre	60	17.47	1.846	14	20
Post	60	17.68	1.764	13	20

Regarding Table 4, mean score and standard deviation of control group in pre-test is 17.47 and 1.764, respectively. The minimum score of grammatical judgment test in pre-test of control group is 14 and the maximum score is 20. In addition, mean score and standard deviation of post-test in control group is 17.68 and 1.764, respectively. The maximum and minimum score in post-test of control group is 13 and 20, respectively. It should be taken into consideration that the learners in post-test of control group had nearly the same mean score as pre-test of control group.

In order to investigate the first research question, a paired t-test was carried out to examine the effect of explicit correction feedback as a control group to check the knowledge of their pronoun. Tables 5 and 6 show the result of pretest and posttest in control group.

In order to know whether there is a significance difference between control and experimental group, a paired t-test was run in the following:

TABLE 5
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF CONTROL GROUP'S PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST GRAMMATICAL JUDGMENT TEST SCORES

Control group	N	Mean	Std. deviation	T	Df	Sig
Pre	60	15.39	1.653	-3.216	14	0.006
Post	60	15.75	3.432			

Due to Table 5, t-test has been -3.216 and the significant level was 0.006 which displayed that there were no meaningful and significant difference among learners' knowledge of pronoun scores through grammatical judgment test at control group in pretest and posttest.

In the second research question, a paired t-test was done on the pretest and posttest of the metalinguistic feedback group. Tables 6 show the results in the following.

B. Comparisons of Experimental Group's Pre-test and Post-test Grammatical Judgment Test Mean Scores

Mean scores of learners' knowledge of pronoun in pre-test and post-test of experimental group is 14.47 and 15.93, respectively. Their mean comparisons of two groups have been run through independent t-test and have been shown in table 6.

TABLE 6
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS' KNOWLEDGE OF PRONOUN SCORES THROUGH GRAMMATICAL JUDGMENT TEST IN PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Exp test reading	N	Mean	Std. deviation	T	Df	Sig
Pre	60	14.46	2.984	-1.324	14	0.20
Post	60	15.93	3.261			

Based on Table 6, t-test is -1.324 and the significant level is 0.2 which displayed that there were meaningful and significant difference among knowledge of pronoun scores of experimental group learners in pre-test and post-test and shows the effectiveness of metalinguistic feedback.

To answer the third research question, an independent samples t-test was performed to compare the mean scores of posttest in both groups.

C. Comparison between Learners' Scores in Experimental and Control Groups

Mean scores of learners' pronoun accuracy through grammar judgment test in experimental group and control group are 19.00 and 15.93, respectively. The comparison of mean scores in two groups has been represented in table 7.

TABLE 7
PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

test reading	N	Mean	Std. deviation	T	Df	Sig
Exp	60	18.23	3.145	-4.625	58	0.08
Ctrl	60	15.20	1.736			

As Table 7 shows, t-test has been -4.625 and the significance level was 0.08 which represented there is a significant and meaningful difference between experimental and control groups' grammatical judgment test scores of learners in pre-test and post-test. The finding displayed that online learning has effect on oral metalinguistic feedback of the learners in experimental group.

X. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

Based on the results of this study, oral corrective feedback can reinforce the accuracy of EFL learners' pronoun. Also it can be concluded that receiving corrective feedback is effective way for Iranian English learners to comprehend their errors. In addition, the result showed metalinguistic corrective feedback has an effect on the learners' performance. This study tried to attain a better understanding of the role of oral corrective feedback in foreign language accuracy (pronoun). As a whole, results of the current study support teacher corrective feedback which was matched with the study of some researchers such as Bitchener (2008), Chandler (2003), and Ellis (2008), Ferris (1999). Furthermore, feedback strategies can be beneficial for learners. Moreover, the findings are on the contrary with the claim of Truscott who debated about the impact of corrective feedback. Truscott (1999) described that corrective feedback doesn't have any impact on improving student accuracy. In addition, Hsu and Truscott (2008) pointed out that decrease of error during revision is not a learning process and also treatment groups cannot improve students' ability through corrective feedback. The findings of this study elaborates that learners learned effectively from teacher corrective feedback by utilizing correct form of some previous errors each session. Thus, EFL learners decreased their grammatical errors. The findings of this study can illustrate empirical document about reducing of errors in learners' pronoun accuracy during the treatment period.

Regarding the first research question, metalinguistic feedback was influential on pronoun improvement of the Iranian EFL students. These results are congruent with the other research, carried out by Bitchener (2008), Ellis (2008), Lyster (2007), and Sheen (2007) and demonstrated that all students received oral metalinguistic feedback carried out better than control groups.

Due to the third research question, exposure to metalinguistic feedback in EFL learners lead to more explicit correction feedback because the learners can increase their knowledge of the language by this technique (Schmidt, 1993). It gives students information about their errors so that they can think critically about the structures of sentences. In addition, metalinguistic feedback usually contains information about preposition, verb, and relative pronoun for a speech episode. Schmidt's (2001) identified the significance role of students' attention to their linguistic knowledge and metalinguistic feedback and recognized the gap between their interlanguage and the target forms (errors).

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A Study on the Feedback of College English Dynamic Classified Teaching Effect

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Abstract—This paper makes a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods in the form of a questionnaire and interview to collect the students' feedback, which can be used for future designs of college students' cultivation. The results show that: first, in CET-4, the English proficiency of students in Category A is significantly better than that in Category B. Second, Category A has a more positive attitude towards classification criteria, curriculum, teaching materials and dynamic setting, while Category B shows more negative attitudes. With regard to the purpose, necessity and effect of classified teaching, Category A and Category B have basically the same attitude, and most of them choose to be partially affirmed, indicating that the classified teaching model is positive on the whole, but it has its own shortcomings and needs to be improved. Third, classroom teaching should combine students' individual differences with common differences to strengthen the cultivation of students' comprehensive application ability.

Index Terms—college English, dynamic classified teaching model, feedback research

I. INTRODUCTION

As early as in 2016, Professor Wang Shouren (2016) made a key interpretation of the forthcoming College English Teaching Guide. His article not only expounds the development process and basic principles of the guide, but also explains and interprets college English curriculum value, teaching objectives, curriculum system, teaching evaluation, teaching methods and means, teacher development and other related issues for promoting college English teaching reform and improving the quality of college English teaching.

In September 2017, the Ministry of Education published the College English Teaching Guide (hereinafter referred to as the "Teaching Guide"). The Teaching Guide clearly points out that the goal of college English teaching can be divided into three levels: basic, medium and advanced, according to the current situation of basic education, higher education and social development in our country. There is no doubt that the arrangement of grading objectives provides colleges and universities enough space for the flexibility and openness of curriculum setting, and is conducive to the implementation of college English teaching reform to meet the individual needs of colleges, departments and students. In fact, before this, many colleges and universities have successively formulated and implemented the college English classified Teaching Model (Grade-teaching Mode) in line with their own school-running orientation, college types and talent-training goals. At present, according to the search terms of CNKI, there are three main terms for college English classified teaching: graded teaching, classified teaching and hierarchical teaching. In order to unify the title and avoid unnecessary name confusion, this paper will uniformly use the name "classified teaching". In China, the classified teaching mode of college English has been implemented for more than ten years. Throughout its research history, it mainly focuses on the theoretical basis, reflection on the pros and cons, exploration of new modes and so on, but there is not much feedback research on the model itself. This paper makes a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods in the form of a questionnaire and interview to collect the students' feedback, which can be used for future designs of college students' cultivation.

II. THEORETICAL BASIS

Dynamic Classified Teaching

a) Connotation

Exactly speaking, the word "dynamic" in dynamic classification teaching should come from the Dynamic Systems Theory (DST). The main point of this theory is that the main performance of dynamic systems changes with time. Since then, in the 1970s, Larsen-Freeman initiated the study of DST in the field of applied linguistics. "She argues that language development is a dynamic and complex process, which lays a theoretical foundation for the study of DST in the field of applied linguistics" (cited from Ma Ruijuan, 2013). So what is classified teaching? The so-called classified teaching refers to a form of teaching organization which is divided into different categories based on learners' English proficiency level and subject achievement. Classified teaching is a systematic project, which involves all aspects of personnel training. Microscopically speaking, the essence of dynamic classified teaching is dynamic management on the basis of classified teaching, which has the characteristics of the combination of classification and dynamic.

b) Previous Theoretical Research

In the theoretical exploration of classified teaching, the theory mostly expounded by domestic scholars (Li Jiongying & Dai Xiuzhen 2001; Wang Haijie 2004; Deng Sufen 2009, etc.) is The Language Input Hypothesis Theory (1982) put forward by the American applied linguist Krashen, who defined the learners' current state of language knowledge as i and the next stage of their language development as $i+1$. In other words, only when learners acquire understandable language input can they acquire the language. It can be seen that understandable language input is the key to language acquisition, and the greatest significance of classified teaching is to let students accept as much understandable knowledge as possible. Secondly, some scholars (such as Wang Dingquan 2008; Lu Zhe 2010, etc.) use Constructivism Theory as the theoretical basis of classified teaching. Constructivist Learning Theory emphasizes learners' initiative and construction in the process of learning, distinguishes primary learning from high-level learning, and criticizes that the teaching strategies of primary learning are unreasonably extended to higher-class learning in traditional teaching. It also puts forward cooperative learning, situation teaching and so on. The third one is the Humanistic Theory and the "learner-centered" theory. Schunk proposes that teaching is "a process in which teachers help students develop from a novice level to a master level" (Ke Yingen 2016). The theory of "humanism" emphasizes human responsibility, individual phenomenon and human growth, which is consistent with the goal of classified teaching.

c) Empirical Research

It is undeniable that classified teaching is a systematic project, which means that teachers should do a good job in every practical stage in the process of classified teaching. In the aspect of curriculum design of classified teaching, Liu Changjiang (2008) elaborates on the design, management and teaching process of dynamic appointment course, an English audio-visual course in Nanjing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics. Through the feedback questionnaire survey, the study found that: the satisfaction with dynamic appointment classes and face-to-face teaching in class are 70.21%, which shows that most students are positive about this teaching model. In terms of classification standards, in order to overcome the disadvantages of the classified teaching model based on the results of the college entrance examination or the classified examination after entrance examination, Liu Yamin et al. (2009) put forward a plan to solve this problem: to construct a teaching model of "learning by skill", that is, according to the scores of listening and reading skills, students are divided into three categories: primary, medium, advanced. The author assumes that Liu Yamin's teaching model of "learning by skill" is reasonable, because the goal of college English teaching is to strengthen the cultivation of college students' English comprehensive application ability, which is in accordance with the College English Syllabus, especially the cultivation of listening and speaking ability. In fact, many students are lack of listening and speaking ability, and there is a phenomenon of uneven development of listening, speaking, reading and writing in China. The teaching mode of "learning by skill" has solved this problem to a certain extent. Of course, we believe that its disadvantages are also very obvious, for example, the formulation of teaching plans and training programs may become more tedious, classified classes are only temporary, students lack a sense of belonging, sense of honor and disgrace, and so on. As explained by Liu Zehua et al. (2015): Classified teaching ignores students' emotional factors and is not conducive to students' cooperative learning. Therefore, he calls on College English Teaching Administrators to use empirical research to reflect the actual effects of classified teaching models. It is a pity that there are not many existing research results on the feedback of classified teaching effect. In terms of feedback on the effect of classified teaching, Jia Rongxiang et al. (2008) conducted a survey on English learning among non-English majors in Category B of Beijing Institute of Architecture and Engineering in the form of questionnaires and individual interviews. We believe that only the investigation and analysis of the students in Category B is not comprehensive and objective to evaluate the effect of classified teaching. It is no exaggeration to say that the objective and accurate evaluation and analysis of the teaching effect of classification is related to the dynamic changes of every student's English learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Cultivation Plan and Curriculum Setting

Dynamic classified teaching model has been implemented for the freshmen in Huaiyin Institute of Technology since 2016. The freshmen were comprehensively classified into two categories according to their English scores in the Gaokao (College Entrance Examinations) and classified examination scores (except English majors, fine arts majors and separated enrollment students). Category A is a high-level group of learners and category B is a general-level group of learners. Under the guidance of the syllabus, different teaching objectives, contents, methods and different evaluation systems have been designed and used (as shown in Table 1).

TABLE 1:
CULTIVATION PLAN OF COLLEGE ENGLISH

	1 st semester 3 compulsory credits	2 nd semester: 3 compulsory credits	3 rd semester 2 compulsory credits + 2 optional credits	4 th semester 2 selective credits
Category A	College English Book 1	College English Book 2	College English III (Integrated) is required in Category A and Category B	Business English; Academic English reading; Advanced English Reading (Postgraduate entrance examination) (one of the three)
Category B	College English Book 1	College English Book 2	College English III (English audio-visual listening and speaking); An overview of English-speaking countries; A Survey of Chinese Culture (English edition) (one of the three)	College English IV (Integrated); Intercultural communication; Advanced English Reading (one of the three)

According to the cultivation plan, we also made correspondent curriculum (as shown in Table 2). In the first two semesters, both Category A and Category B are encouraged to focus on the basic skills development. In other words, the aim is to lay a good foundation for them to pass CET-4 and CET-6 smoothly. The third and fourth semesters are carried out in the way of the combination of comprehensive courses and follow-up courses, whose purpose is to pave the way for their further learning, at the same time, to well expand the horizons of learners and pay attention to personalized interests and hobbies. Among them, 8 credits are compulsory and 4 credits are elective.

TABLE 2
CURRICULUM SETTING OF FOUR SEMESTERS

Category	Teaching objectives	Teaching content	Teaching method	Assessment system
Category A	Cultivate innovative talents; prepare for further study.	Strengthen comprehensive ability training; increase difficulty and depth.	Heuristic teaching; encourage personalized learning methods.	Formative assessment-classroom activity records, after-class self-study records, interviews, etc. Final assessment-final exams, four or six proficiency tests.
Category B	Train applied talents; prepare for professional study and future employment.	Tamp the basic knowledge, give priority to reading and writing, and appropriately strengthen the training of listening and speaking.	Task-based teaching; encourage mutual learning and group learning.	Formative assessment-classroom activity records, after-class self-study records, interviews, etc. Final assessment-final exam, CET-4 or CET-6.

In order to promote the healthy development of students' personality and avoid the shortcomings of classified teaching itself. For example, students in Category A tend to breed pride, and students in category B with poor ability will have a sense of inferiority. At the end of each semester, teachers make a dynamic classification according to the results of learners' comprehensive evaluation in this semester. Learners in Category A may be relegated to Category B because of poor comprehensive evaluation results. In the same way, Learners in Category B will also be promoted to Category A because of their excellent performance in this semester.

B. Research Participants

The survey was conducted in March 2019. The participants were freshmen from Category A and Category B of 2018 computer engineering majors and Chemical Engineering majors of Huaiyin Institute of Technology. Huaiyin Institute of Technology also recruits students outside Jiangsu Province, so this survey also pays special attention to the feedback of students outside the province. For the college entrance examination English scores of students outside the province, this study has also carried out the corresponding conversion. Through statistical analysis, we know that the English scores of Category A in the College entrance examination are significantly better than those of Category B. the average score of Category A and B is 84.3 and 78.2 respectively (as shown in Table 3). Therefore, we can think that the purpose of classified teaching through the English scores of the college entrance examination in Huaiyin Institute of Technology is clear, that is, to implement the differentiated classified teaching model.

TABLE 3
BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS

Category	Gender	Inside Jiangsu		Outside Jiangsu	subtotal	total
		Inside Jiangsu	Outside Jiangsu			
Category A	Male	61	1	62	107	
	Female	38	7	45		
Category B	Male	63	15	78	115	
	Female	29	8	37		

From the distribution of students outside the province, we can see that there are only 8 non-provincial students in Category A, accounting for 7.5% of the total number of Class A, which is a relatively small number, while Category B has 23 students from outside Jiangsu province, accounting for 20%, which is a relatively high proportion.

C. Research Methods

This study is carried out in the form of a questionnaire, and the survey results are analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. A total of 241 questionnaires were sent out, including 107 valid questionnaires and 9 invalid questionnaires in Class A class, 115 valid questionnaires and 10 invalid questionnaires in Class B class. The questionnaire consists of 15 multiple choice questions (each with three options) and one subjective question. Through the comparative analysis of the questionnaire results of Class A and Class B, the reasons behind them are analyzed. For the college entrance examination English scores and CET-4 test results and other data statistics, we use the statistical software SPSS16.0 for statistical analysis.

D. Research Questions

- Is there a significant difference in CET-4 scores between Class A and Class B? If there is a significant difference, what is the reason?
- Is there any significant difference in the answers to the questionnaire between Class A and Class B, and what are their feedback? What is the reason for the difference?
- What are the results of the interviews with the two types of classes? What are their suggestions or opinions on dynamic classification teaching?

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In terms of CET-4 scores, from the descriptive statistical results, the average score of Class A is 484.3, mainly due to the fact that 88 students' scores are between 425 and 599, accounting for 82.2%, and the scores are relatively concentrated. At the same time, the proportion of students with scores below 425 is very small, only 16.8%. On the contrary, the average score of class B is only 406, which is lower than the passing line of 425. The main reason is that more than half of the students have a score below 425, accounting for a relatively high score of 64.3%, while only 41 students have a score higher than 425 (including 425), accounting for only 35.6%. (as shown in Table 4)

TABLE 4
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICAL RESULTS OF CATEGORY A AND B

Category	average	St. Deviation	St. error	<425	425-499	500-599	≥600
Category A 107	484.3	50.837	4.915	18/16.8%	47/43.9%	41/38.3%	1/0.9%
Category B 115	406.06	63.340	5.906	74/64.3%	34/29.6%	7/6%	0/0

In terms of the independent sample t-test, it requires that the two groups of population variances must be equal. Therefore, first of all, we need to look at the test of homogeneity of variance (that is, Levene test). The statistical results show that the significance probability of Levene test is low, that is, Sig.=.226, is greater than 0.05, indicating that there is a significant difference in the variance of English scores in the college entrance examination between the two groups, so it is necessary to use the corrected t-test, that is, to check the data of the line "Equal variances assumed" as the result of the t-test. It can be seen that the significant level of the t value of the two groups in the college entrance examination English score is 0.000, far less than 0.05, and the 95% confidence interval of the mean difference does not include 0, indicating that there is a significant difference between class A and class B (as shown in Table 5). Based on this, it can be concluded that the English proficiency of Class A students is significantly better than that of Class B students.

TABLE 5
THE RESULT OF THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST

t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
					Lower	Upper	
Equal variances assumed	10.10	220	.000	78.238	7.744	62.976	93.500
Equal variances not assumed	10.18	215	.000	78.238	7.684	63.093	93.383

To explore the reasons, there are the following aspects: first, there is a great disparity in the English foundation of students when they enter school, and class A is obviously better than class B. Second, after enrollment, the majority of male students in science and engineering colleges or universities may slacken their requirements on English learning, coupled with the fact that English is a "short-leg" subject, resulting in learning weariness. Third, the students who are assigned to Class B have a feeling of "inferior" psychologically. At the same time, the English foundation of the

students around them is not very good, and the English learning atmosphere in the class is not strong. Undoubtedly, disadvantages of classified teaching mode are very obvious too. In order to learn more about their response to this teaching mode, a specially designed questionnaire and interview question have been adopted and used for them.

TABLE 6
COMPARISON OF THE RESULTS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE BETWEEN CATEGORY A AND B

Questions I	Totally agree (A/B)	Totally disagree (A/B)	I don't know / it doesn't matter (A/B)
3. Do you think the current English classification criteria (according to the results of the college entrance examination and the classified examination) are reasonable?	67/38	18/40	22/37
5. Do you think classified teaching has any influence on students' learning enthusiasm?	58/31	28/49	21/35
7. Does classified teaching management play a role in arousing students' enthusiasm for learning and encouraging fair competition?	59/46	17/33	31/36
8. Is the classified class of college English attractive?	50/23	31/60	26/32
9. Are you satisfied with the curriculum setting in classified teaching?	62/39	15/29	30/47
11. Do you think the difficulty of the teaching materials currently used is appropriate?	78/71	12/15	17/29
12. Does the textbook reflect students' learning needs and interests?	36/36	33/43	38/36
13. Classified teaching adopts rolling teaching management, that is, "those who can go up, those who cannot go down". What do you think?	64/48	18/40	25/27
14. What is the impact of classified teaching on your psychology?	68/16	12/40	27/49
15. Does classified teaching bring you some psychological pressure?	54/47	43/46	10/22
Questions II	Totally agree (A/B)	Partly agree (A/B)	Totally disagree (A/B)
1. Do you understand the purpose of classified college English teaching?	8/12	76/72	23/31
2. Do you think it is necessary to teach college English by classification?	10/11	81/79	16/25
4. Are you adapted to the current classified teaching of college English?	15/9	83/83	9/23
6. Do you think the current classified teaching is helpful to improve your English learning performance?	24/10	70/86	13/19
Questions III	听说能力 (A/B)	综合能力 (A/B)	英语过类考试能力 (A/B)
10. What aspects of classroom teaching should be strengthened in classified teaching?	32/22	47/49	28/44

In question I part, most of the students in Category A responded positively to the classified teaching mode and its effects. They believe, the classification standard is reasonable; Dynamic classification is conducive to arousing students' enthusiasm for learning; the curriculum setting is reasonable, and the difficulty of teaching materials is moderate. On the other hand, the answers of the students in Category B show more negative or indifferent attitude, which reflects that the students in Category B are tired of learning, and they are resistant to English learning and English courses. In addition, on the answers to questions 12 and 15, Category A and Category B have the same attitude. That is, the choice of teaching materials should fully meet the learning needs and interests of learners; the psychological pressure brought by dynamic classified teaching to the two categories is the same.

For the negative response of the students in Category B, there may be many reasons that can explain it well: First, as a freshman, he/she has not yet adapted to the new teaching model and learning environment, and their learning goal or orientation is not clear. The abilities of self-monitoring, autonomous learning and cooperative learning are weaker than those of Category A; second, classified classes are completely different from natural classes, which have obvious shortcomings, such as lack of sense of belonging and emotional support. What's more, classroom tasks can not be extended to extracurricular, and cooperative learning is hindered, because of the estranged relationship each other; third, long-term English learning has not made great progress, which made students from Category B feel discouraged and disappointed. Consequently, English learning becomes passive and passive. It is not difficult to see that the shortcomings of classified teaching are obvious, that is, ignoring the emotional factors of Category B students, making them think that they are treated differently and feel discriminated against in English learning. These factors dampen their enthusiasm for learning English to a great extent and have a backwash effect on their long-term English learning.

In the question II part, the opinions of Category A and Category B are basically the same, and most of the students partially affirmed the purpose, necessity and effect of classified teaching mode, which shows that many students have little knowledge of the real purpose and process of classified teaching, and they are also vague about their two-year college English planning. At the same time, classified teaching mode itself also needs to be improved, such as the optimization of training programs, the rationality of evaluation and assessment and so on. Taking the teaching goal in the training program as an example, Category A is to be trained innovative talents and be prepared for further study. So the question comes: Are students who are good at English innovative talents and reserve forces for further study? Do students who are not good at English have to be trained into applied talents? It is a bit far-fetched to judge the future of students by their English proficiency. In other words, students in Category B may also become innovative talents in their own professional fields, while students in Category A may also give up further studies and choose employment to become applied talents.

For the questions in the III category, 47 and 49 students in Category A and Category B respectively think that classroom teaching should pay attention to the cultivation of students' comprehensive ability, and half of them emphasize listening and speaking ability and the ability of passing English exams. This shows that students from both Category A and Category B have the same needs for the cultivation of comprehensive English application ability. Some students have weak abilities on listening and speaking, but they have strong ability to pass the examination, which is commonly known as "Dumb English"; Some students are good at oral English and have no problems in daily dialogue, but their grammar foundation is weak and their vocabulary is insufficient, which finally leads to their failure in English exams and a sense of frustration. (as shown in Table 6)

TABLE 7
SOME FEEDBACK OF CATEGORY A AND B

Category A	Student 1A: Some texts are boring and uninteresting, and some teachers pay less attention on teaching methods, so gradually I lost my interest!
	Student 2A: We are from different classes and majors, so we don't know each other, which is bad for us to participate in the group discussion and role-playing in class actively.
	Student 3A: I have passed CET-4, and the teacher's class is not related to CET-4 or CET-6, so I am not interested.
Category B	Student 1B: Our teacher teaches very well, but my foundation is too weak, plus the text is too long, too many new words, which make me hard to have a deeper understanding.
	Student 2B: I have no choice but to give up because of my poor foundation.
	Student 3B: There are too many students in the class, and the teaching effect is not very good, for example, many students play with mobile phones in class, so I am also affected.

From the above interview excerpts (as shown in Table 7), we can find some problems in classified teaching: For example, whether the follow-up courses can be moved forward for those freshmen who pass CET-4 in the first semester, who must own a sense of pride and complacency. The follow-up courses will stimulate their interest in learning. In addition, the large class size is also one of the actual problems. The current classified class size is basically between over 50 and 60 students, some even more, coupled with some teachers' lack of classroom control ability, which is bound to affect the teaching effect; finally, it is also reflected in the lack of cooperative learning ability of learners. College English learning, which emphasizes autonomous learning, self-monitoring and teamwork, is completely different from junior and senior high school learning. Due to the continuous deepening of college English teaching reform in recent years, many colleges and universities have reduced the class hours of college English, which means that the number of English course of each semester is correspondingly reduced. It goes without saying, students should be put more emphasis on autonomous learning and cooperative learning after class, because limited classroom learning is far from enough.

V. CONCLUSION

Through the feedback of the questionnaire, we can see that its advantages and disadvantages are clear. As far as English learning is concerned, dynamic classification teaching fully takes into account the teaching concept of "teaching students in accordance with their aptitude" and arouses students' learning enthusiasm to a certain extent. At the same time, we should see its shortcomings. Many colleges and universities have biases in their understanding of "teaching requirements". They blindly think that this is the basis of classified teaching, but in fact, judging from the results of the survey, the needs of students vary from person to person, but one thing is clear: How to meet the individual learner's needs on language learning is one of the most important issues that we educators and schools must think about.

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On Teachers and Students' Interaction*

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Abstract—The object of this paper is the interaction between teachers and students in classroom. Starting with the concept of interaction, the final goal is that teachers and students can participate widely in teaching activities and students can acquire knowledge and improve their personality under happy condition. Besides, the interaction action is analysed in three aspects of language interaction, emotion interaction and learning motivation. And then quite a little ways are offered to help to develop a duplex interactive model. At last, the paper will introduce a new way of interaction. That is to say that we can join the classroom and Internet to achieve a better effect of interaction.

Index Terms—interaction, language interaction, emotion interaction, learning motivation, web-based instruction teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

When the view of quality education is gradually filtering into people's minds, the classroom undoubtedly draws people's attention as the basis of carrying out such an education and improving education reform. However, oriented by examination, in classroom existed the unidirectional spread form of knowledge, students were blinded by it so that their language and emotion are lied in gloomy and passive statement, and the classroom atmosphere isn't active and even shows apathy. Such a means of education goes against the quality tenet seriously. And most obviously, it violates the education tendency to emphasizes the humans as the basis and students as the subject. Compared with this way, the duplex interaction model of teachers and students caters for the developing current of education in Chain. In particular, the rapid development and popularisation of the Internet pours infinite energy into the interaction teaching.

A. *The Meaning of Interaction*

Going after high score in the examination education, students could study by the single spread form, in other words, they accepted the given knowledge in definite time and lost their active right in schoolroom. An opposite form is the duplex interactive mode, which means the mutual action and influence between persons and persons, persons and groups, groups and groups through language exchange, emotion interchange or other interchange ways. The interaction of teachers and students is meant that teachers are viewed as the main organizers in the course of teaching, they and students who are considered as the host corporate harmoniously by means of language exchange and feeling exchange so as to come out the common development of teaching and learning in schoolroom. This method requires that all learners must give and take, and thus generate a duplex interchange form affectively. As a result, each individual can naturally achieve his or her desirable goals of improving psychological and physical quality.

B. *The Essence of Interaction*

Teachers' duty is to tell students learning ways, spread knowledge and solve difficult problems in the course of teaching. The point was the traditional view as to teachers and to teaching in China. This idea attaches important to the authority of teachers and the unchangeable teaching direction from teachers to students in the procedure of spreading knowledge, and also shows the decisive status of teachers in ancient times. This view handed down from generation to generation. But with the times changing, the education view also transforms to certain degree. New view about the relationship between teachers and students is concerning the equality, democracy of teachers and students, and emphasising teachers as organizers merely in classroom. New talent view is focusing on People oriented but not the basis traditionally of spreading knowledge and accepting it. New learning view advises that students should study actively but not to accept passively. If to carry out the above views in classroom successfully, the interactive way must be the best-suited way to achieve the aim. As a teacher, he must own the sense of equality, lay aside the authority and really keep equality relationship with students, and thus he successfully views himself as an organizer and let the students become the host of the total course. As a student, in light of the new requirement of creative capacity from social developing, he must be able to discover issues, think about them himself and determine actively and then independently copy whit them. Besides he possesses definite capability and quality of resolving problems, and can control himself and good at cooperating with others.

In a word, the teachers should esteem their particular personality of students and guarantee the personality developing freely in interactive condition. In addition, they foster their spirits of self-support, self-respect and

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self-determination and help them to get along with others and keep harmony with society. As a result of the common endeavour of teachers and students' interaction, teachers and students both win the feeling of satisfactory, and raise experience and ability.

C. *The Ways of Interaction*

According to various standards, interaction can be sorted out different classifications in practical course. Here, we separately discuss two different ways of classification.

1. Considering the teacher's action, interaction is divided into three kinds of interaction between teacher and each student, teacher and class, and teacher and group of students.

a. The interaction of teacher and every student. It means that teacher interchanges with every student in schoolroom. According to the research, the interaction occupies 54.4% of the whole interaction in primary school.

b. The interaction of teacher and the total class. That is to say, the teacher's behaviour is point to the whole class. This means is equal to 54.4% of the total time of teachers and students' interaction.

c. The interaction of teacher and groups of students is that the teachers' behaviour points to certain team of students. The interactive method is applied hardly.

2. Due to the crucial interactive individual, effective interaction way is fallen into teacher-students interaction, student- student interaction and group-group interaction.

a. Teachers and students interaction. Interactive teaching viewpoint considers, in classroom teacher-student interaction practically is such an exchange and communication, which they understand each other in terms of their own experience. In view of carrying out that teaching pattern, discipline is generated and teaching organization and means are the effects of the pattern. Meanwhile, how to arrange detail content and structure of teaching is taken the consequence into account.

b. Students and students' interaction. It means that each individual interacts with each other. It may be assorted into two kinds of cooperation and competition. Cooperation enables the individual gain more dignity, more capacity of society interchange and better mentality accommodation capacity; based on competition, students may promote together, learn the merits each other, and overcome our shortcomings by studying from others strong points.

c. Groups and groups' interaction. From the literal meaning of these words, we understand it –one group and another group work together in classroom. Research indicates when the contemporary groups learning together may help to eliminate much indeterminacy.

Among these kinds interactions, teacher-student interaction takes a primitive and decisive effect on interactive action, and a good teachers and students interaction may propel forward the student-student and group-group interaction.

II. INTERACTIVE PROBLEMS IN SCHOOLROOM

During concrete teaching, teacher-students' interaction represents the overt language interaction and implicit feeling interaction, and other factors which influence directly on the two interactive forms, for instance, learning motivation. It consists of evoking motivation and maintaining it.

A. *Language Interaction*

The teachers and students' teaching activity mainly takes language as medium to hand over with each other a function.

Interaction action between teachers and students is a kind of mutual effect. Teaching always takes place in the particular circumstance. Linguistic performance is the most primitive teaching form in classroom, and occupies about 80% of the total teaching activity. During the teaching course, language as the most important element is applied to spread knowledge and strengthen interaction exchange as a means, in other words, the goal of using language is to provide more opportunities for students to exchange. This partner stands out the position of students oriented, and encourages them to participate in teaching activity. It also enhances each other's interchange and mostly fosters their learning initiative and interest. Besides, the important point to use language is to create a good atmosphere for teachers and students interaction. Therefore, teachers ought to stress the skills of applying language, and try hard to unify the euphonic, tone, speed, expression etc. To generate a good atmosphere will be in favour with comprehension, students would acquire more knowledge in such enjoyable condition. Because a good atmosphere will enable students easier and thus they are willing to interchange with teachers or with each other.

B. *Emotion Interaction*

Traditional dignity of teachers enables the classroom atmosphere nervous very much. In modern times, teachers and students almost meet every day for several times, but they are short of virtual exchange really. They talk about the overwhelming majority of issues all that relevant to learning and how to learn. A number of facts show that the interchange of teachers and students is merely confined to spread and acceptance of knowledge but lacks feeling interaction which pays a great role in teaching and learning and creating a harmonic atmosphere in classroom.

Once Karl Jaspers noted, the course of education first is the course of growing up of students, and then is a part of the course of acquiring knowledge scientifically. In the way of teaching, emotion takes great effect on teaching and

learning from various aspects. Because teachers stand for authority, they can influence profoundly students on developing viewpoints by interchanging, estimating and controlling. Their language form, expression, body language and line contact of vision all enable students attain a host of relational information which includes the assessment from teachers and their value in teachers' eyes, and teachers' attitude. Those students can feel teachers' positive assessment and attitude in learning performance and potential, they often develop positive learning attitude, and nurse a fever of anticipation to earn better marks and do their best to achieve their prospective aims. In contrast, those students feel passive estimate and attitude of teachers; they don't hope to attain good marks. What's more, these passive assessment, passive attitude and passive exchange given by teachers will lead to passive or misery which may persist in their minds for a long time, and even influence on developing right view of live and value. From this point, the teachers can't ignore their subtle emotion and expression.

Main classification of emotion in classroom. Emotion interaction isn't visible like language exchange, so it's necessary to analyze the main emotion. Spielberg and Starr thought that curiosity and worry are the two most important emotions in schoolroom. Curiosity is defined as a kind of searching tendency of physiology arousal level or cognition conflict aroused by novelty matters, that is to say the individual yearns for discovery. They worry about learning result because they don't have distinct aims at achieving desirable degree. When students think they can't competent learning tasks, meanwhile they understand the performance requests them to finish the tasks, the worry appears naturally. The worry often accompanies with the emotions of anxiety and horror. The relationship of worry and learning efficiency can be shown by n-curve graph. That is to say, the moderate degree worry will contribute to improving learning efficiency; lower worry may prevent individual from disencumbering some distances so that they obtain slow and non-precise results about relevant examination in the course of learning; the higher degree worry makes the range of their attention more sorrow, weaken the transferring capacity of attention and finally don't find out main rules when they learn and accept knowledge.

C. *To Stir up and Maintain Learning Motivation*

As a factor irrelevant with intelligence, learning motivation doesn't determine directly the individual learning performance. But in fact, it has a great influence on studying interest, studying attitude, and endeavor degree and task maintenance of students. For this reason, it indirectly affects studying consequence of students. It is not difficult to understand whether the learning motivation being efficiently stirred up or not will directly impact upon their learning effects and also influence the results of the language interaction and emotion interaction between teachers and students in classroom.

Achievement goal theory insists, the different persons will develop different cognitions about accomplishment, and the difference would result in diverse achievement goal orientations, which may fall into mastery goal orientation and performance goal orientation. The former aims at learning and mastering knowledge primarily, whereas the latter is meant to pursuing good performance and marks.

Arming at mastery goal orientation, the students attach importance to develop new capability, and they believe that the most efficient way of achieving success is to do their almost in the course of studying. As a result, they can earn the sense of satisfactory by comparing with themselves. And most obvious, they always maintain active attitude to deal with any problems in learning, and love those tasks filled with challenges; besides, they apply deep-seated manufacture tragedy efficiently and regulate their learning method on time. Facing with difficulty and failure, they always maintain positive emotion and continue to plunge into the new learning tasks and strive for the next aim. This continuous learning motivation is a bracing and adaptive method to make sure success at last. In contrast, arming at performance goal orientation, those students focus on earning a high mark and fame which is viewed as a symbol to demonstrate their abilities. Therefore, they can obtain their desirable sense of satisfactory and performance. They tend to consider the endeavor and capability as opposite two sides. In other words, they think—the more you try, the less your ability is. In addition, they apt to make use of superficial learn tragedy. For instance, they get into habit of bearing in mind in the course of studying. When encountering frustration during learning, they will generate these emotions such as losing heart, feeling shame and depressing. And to make matters worse, they judge themselves in error and easily give up effort, when they are defeated. That kind of learning motivation embodies their helpless and unsuited features.

Based on their dissimilar learning goal orientations, teachers are in duty bound to create a favorite atmosphere for mastery goal orientation in classroom. The features of the atmosphere are to concentrate on mastering novel skills and knowledge and developing their ability from disparate aspects. At largely, learning motivation can be evoked and maintain in the following aspects.

1. In the respect of assigning tasks and giving right. The design plan of activities and tasks assigned by teachers should abide by three principles of variety, novelty and participation. Besides, the plan of designing ought to meet almost students' curiosities, challenges and self-controlling. The novelty and varied tasks don't easily stir up their interest and decrease the opportunities of comparing with others in society, but also lower the possibility of taking tasks performance simply as a kind capability symbol. Another advantage helps students to concentrate on completing tasks and mastering technique. What's more, the real, detail and short-time aim may increase their self-confidence to accomplish tasks triumphantly and increase their willingness to try hard for finishing them. When they witness themselves close to their desirable goals, the sense of self-competence will appear.

If given more opportunities and rights to chose actively and take part in determination in classroom, students will go

into habit of self-decision that enhances their internal motivation and be apt to develop the mastery goal orientation. The investigation indicates that self-orientation atmosphere is favor of fostering competence feeling of students. Since the right of self-decision can enable students profit a lot from learning, teachers ought to give students more rights to determinate and chose in classroom. And they should conduct students to take part in learning activities so as to increase their learning initiative and responsibility.

2. In the field of affirmation and assessment. Affirmation is the positive estimate to the individual and takes affirmative influence on the developing of psychology and mentality of students. From the point of view, teachers should praise their students according to concrete matters. If necessary, teachers might commend them with certain intention. If not, the external commend may influence and even decrease their learning initiative. Based on the individual progress and enhancement, teachers gift the positive affirmative to students' performance. Their assessment would contribute to increasing the sense of pride and satisfactory of students. Once they know their proud feeling and satisfactory feeling originate from the result by comparing with themselves rather than with others, they will focus on boosting new capacity, mastering new learning tasks and generating mastery goal orientation. If the commend can be given to students in private, the effect will be better. In other words, teachers use proper ways to praise as possible as they could. The estimate content shouldn't only be limited to the marks, but should take other factors into account. If more opportunities can be created to enable students find out mistakes and go after a higher assessment, then they may realize that to make mistakes is a part of learning and doesn't mean failure or bad capability. At last, they understand what they really try to do is to concentrate on accomplish tasks, mastering knowledge and raise capability.

3. Learning teams. A number of investigations indicate that, during the three goal structures of competition, cooperation and individualization, competition emotion easily stirs up the conception of capacity variance and results in performance goal orientation. The goal of cooperation and individualization contributes to fostering mastery goal orientation. Under cooperation conditions, society comparison and assessment both base upon the representation of the whole group so that the subtle difference among each individual isn't distinct very much. Except for bumping up the studying interest and self-confidence of those students who earn a bad performance, team learning is able to deepen their comprehension to knowledge and then master it during the course of playing a part of students. Since the team learning allows students to control the whole course of learning, their competence feeling will increase during the course.

Obeying by the above aspects, students' learning motivation can be stirred up reasonably and maintain all the time in classroom. The most important point is to achieve the aim of making sure the classroom activity and help students really join in the teaching. All this promotes the interaction of teachers and students into a new level.

III. INTERACTION STRATEGIES

In schoolroom, teachers are required to change the traditional interpersonal relationship between teachers and students. The tendency of change is from authority and obedience into the democracy and harmonic friendship. In deal and friendly atmosphere filled with feeling, teachers impart knowledge efficiently and guarantee to carry reality, confidence and comprehension to effect by being on their shoes. If they want to help students to internalize learning motivation, they may conduct students to realize rightly the learning attitude and the learning performance. To adhere on the conception of interaction all the time in teaching classroom, the following strategies should be taken measure.

A. *Language Interchange Strategy*

In classroom of going on duplex spread, teachers clearly control the whole class though the form of substantive enactment and the exchange during groups is very little. On the condition, teachers play the role as lecturers, and students of course play the role of listeners and accept the given information passively. If teachers want to develop a proper statement of teachers and students' interaction, the teachers must encourage students to express their viewpoints boldly and make sure their Conversation flow freely. In addition, language interchange shouldn't only be confined to take place between teachers and students, but also between teachers and students groups, different groups of students and even each student. Only when the language interchange may go well, then it is possible that the good relationship of teachers and students could be developed. In other words, the language interchange is the premise of developing a good interaction of teachers and students.

B. *Reasonable Expectation Strategy*

The strategy can compel students to generate the self-efficacy feeling. Then they can participate in the classroom learning, and try their best to generate an adapted circumstance of learning. Being a teacher, he ought to possess optimistic attitude to students and encourage them timely by the direct or indirect ways. Some researches studied by Good and Brophy in 1994 have shown that, the teachers who keep hopeful attitude to students will present more supportive information in classroom, for instance, more contact of line of sight, and to keep smiling and friendly expression. By the contrast, those teachers lacking in positive attitude will express less encouraging information irrelevant with language when they spread knowledge to students. And they usually criticize and condemn students. In campus, teachers' assessment and attitude of praise, criticizing, friendship and so on is a mirror to provide the students' self-assessment and self-experience with basis rule. Because the development and diversification of the students'

opinion reflects the assessment and attitude given by the authority to a certain degree. Their dignity could be maintained by means of the affirmative estimate of the authority.

C. *Emotion Regulation Strategy*

The teachers are considered as the promoters who are abundant in knowledge, emotion and patience, and also as assistant of cognition. In the process of classroom teaching, teachers should flexibly adopt measures to induce and regulate the emotion of students. Meanwhile, they ought to do their best to create a kind of harmonic and friendly atmosphere of teaching psychology. And the atmosphere guarantees students to take easy and feel “mentality safety” in classroom. In the course of searching and resolving difficult issues, students may produce the proper worry and interest, which will help them to generate positive cognition, lure new knowledge and bring forth new ideas. Teachers can assess them in virtue of means of checking to encourage students. Students can profit from their assessment and attain the sense of success, satisfactory and pride that may contribute them to experience the bitter and the sweet of studying.

Another important point is that teachers can stand on their position and angle to think about matters and observe their inward world. Such a teaching method is bestowed with affection and humanism. On such conditions, the every link of teaching is going to proceed on cordiality, open and freedom atmosphere. Students may express their thoughts safely and freely, and they can share common responsibility with teachers when the learning motivation is stirred up.

D. *To Improve Assessment Strategy*

The former way of estimating from teachers is a singular judgement standard which takes a point to replace other merits of students. And the evaluation criterion focuses on their marks mainly. Nowadays teachers should change the outdate evaluation way into developing a multiplex way. We name the way as appreciation assessment that embodies the education humanism. Every one is a particular, they all exert their potentiality on learning as long as there is proper circumstance; all people are equal, they can act a part in their position only if teachers treat them equally.

Appreciation assessment means giving up the former critical and negative judgment way and fining out others' merits and praising them modestly. The method will offer them more opportunities of experiencing joy, increasing self-confidence and self-pride, and encouraging them to show themselves. Meanwhile, it will set a good example for students so that they can view others' merits as a new point to improve, to develop and to acquire. They profit so much from the novelty evaluation way in maintaining dignity and interest. Its deeply influence will contribute to establish good relationship of teachers and students and develop efficient interaction of teachers and students. However, the appreciation estimate is given by others. In the assessment of education, on the one hand, the estimate from others is very important, and on the other hand, it is crucial considerably to encourage the students to develop self-assessment. Only when the way of estimate is changed completely, the classroom atmosphere is improved radically, and the real interaction can generate at last.

IV. THE NEW INTERACTION WAY OF WEB-BASED INSTRUCTION

When the internet industry develop quickly, various new techniques based on the internet pop up naturally. Their appearances are changing people's life style, and at the same it also changes traditional teaching style of the face-to-face between teachers and students. The new teaching way will benefit teachers and students a lot from various respects, and it might bring them new challenges.

A. *The Essence of Web-based Interactive Teaching*

1. The Web-based interactive teaching is a kind online learning way according to the techniques of medium and network. The web-based instruction circumstance distinguishes from the traditional and face-to-face teaching, that is to say the teachers and students aren't affirmative in the interactive classroom of based Web. The network techniques provide the teachers and the students with various communication mechanizes and ways for exchange and interaction. Gilberte Moore, the distance-teaching expert pointed out in 1998: the new features of web-based instruction enable us to apply the learning theory of interaction and proper learning tragedy to strengthen students' study. Therefore, under the computer -based teaching circumstance, it's necessary that we understand the interactive features, and design appropriate plans. And then the learners and media, teachers and learner can interchange and study each other by applying the Internet.

2. In Internet teaching circumstance, the interaction teaching may fall into two classifications: teaching interaction activity and social interaction activity. The teaching interaction activity means to apply the hypermedia link skill of the computer to organize information. And the learners may utilize the explorer to obtain useful information from the recourses of non-linear organization and also can distribute their information or resources on the web page to share with others. This is the reason that people can catch more information and exchange ideas with each other. These interactive activities mainly include how to obtain teaching resources, to link content, to download information and to distribute message. This kind of interactive activity offers the learner dynastic control ability of information, and the opportunities to control learning circumstances. The non-linear information organization forms can accommodate the learners to take the information into practical usage, at anytime. The web system allows the individual to seek for information according to their ways.

The social interaction activity means to the interchange between people and people. In the network environment, sociality interaction is try hard to exchange with other computers by means of various media such as e-mail, language mailbox, list system, chatting room, call-board, online meeting and others, using these exchanges activities, the learners and teaching, the learners and learners can be online to carry on lifting to ask, answer, argue and consult, and then they can carry out cooperation and exchanges and others availably. These advantages can't be obtained from the classroom teaching and are drawing growing people's attention.

B. The Features of Web-based Interaction

The interactive activities in network are a dynastic course, and exist in the whole learning course of the learners. If the learners want to go in for the learning in the Internet they must carry out mutual interchange and information communication. The main characters in network circumstance present the following aspects.

1. The interactive activities are initiative. The web interaction is to take the learners as a central really. Whether the learners want to take part in the web-based instruction or not? And how do they carry out the learning activity in the course of exchange? They can make decision completely according to their demand and, they are really the subject of learning and control the interactive activities themselves availably. Based on its character, students must master the basis operate of the Internet and have clear goal about the information to be searched.

2. The interactive forms are flexible and various. In traditional teaching environment, the interchange form is sole and finite, whereas the web offers the learners various kinds of interactive ways and interchange means. Since the learners can choose a different step method, such as the BBS, e-mail, message book, etc. they can also make use of a chatting room, electronics whiteboard, on-line meeting, and etc. synchronous way to carry on interactive exchange with each other.

3. The network interaction is full of independence and expansibility. The interactive channels copy with the various the information respectively and independently, and don't disturb with each other. In classroom teaching environment, the students must ask questions in order and they acquire limited information about the questions. But in web circumstance, the students can ask questions and express ideas at the same time by different channels and then they can gain a great deal of related information that they need to understand.

Here, we only discuss the above features of the Internet. In fact, a number of characters or merits may be found out and be used to help us. Of course, everything has two sides; the online teaching has its sides also. The interactive activities in Internet are complex for any user. If the learners don't make good use of it, maybe it will mislead the learners and result in overloading information and feeling of frustration. So we should apply correctly it to serve for my learning.

C. The Staff's Role in the Interaction Teaching of Web-based

Staff development is essential to ensure that staff have the necessary skills and expertise to become effective online tutors. The staff development must offer opportunities for self-reflection. It is essential to develop staff as reflective practitioners to enable them to challenge their own beliefs, attitudes and practices, and to personalize their experiences and set them in context. Many online tutors have to deal with a vast range of new information and experiences beyond their immediate role of online tutor. So they master the skill of handing information. Because of the other side of the Internet, the teachers should try their best to conduct the students to use the Internet with correct means and ways, and also provide them precise and useful information in the course of interaction teaching in classroom. On the other hand, they must help students learn to understand the interaction way of web so that students can acquire good results in the learning. In a word, the teacher plays a role as an assistant, conductor and supervisor.

V. CONCLUSION

However, whether we chose to use the interaction teaching of face-to-face or the interaction way of web-based, our goal is to enable students to learn more initiatively and effectively. Only we can change the traditional teaching aimed at higher examination result, and bring the interaction teaching into full play. This paper has explored these advantages of the two different ways, and it also explains how to apply them and what should we play attention. All that will give us some enlightenment to go in for this interaction teaching.

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Studies on the Backward Transfer of Interlanguage Syntactic Structure—Taking *Temporal Adverbial Clause* as an Example

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Abstract—The research focuses on the language transfer in L2 and L1 environment. The paper explores the language backward transfer from L2 (English) to L1 (Chinese) for mainland Chinese students in Australia as well as in China. With long time scholars concentrated on the forward transfer from L1 to L2 and profited a lot. However, there is some evidence reflected that backward transfer from L2 to L1 may take place in L2 and L1 environment, even in some academic occasion, L1 syntactic rules are losing. In this study, participants are mainland Chinese undergraduates from University of Newcastle and Hei Longjiang Bayi Agricultural University to complete translation and writing tasks. The aim of the paper is to investigate whether the backward transfer occurs in sentence translation and discourse level and the relationship between the backward transfer and L2 proficiency. The expected results are that backward transfer can happen both in L2 and L1 environment and the higher L2 proficiency can decrease backward transfer. In view of this, the research can reflect the complexity of language backward transfer and the relationship with L2 proficiency.

Index Terms—language transfer, backward transfer, contrastive research, L2 proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

The influence of mother tongue on second language is a core area in the study of second language acquisition. Odlin (1989) claimed that one of the major issues in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is the role of language learners' first language (L1) in the acquisition of a second language (L2), which SLA literature has shown extensive research on. Ulrich Weinreich (1953) talked about interference as "those instances of deviation from the norms of either language which occur in the speech of bilinguals as a result of their familiarity with more than one language" (p.14), which was later, called "language transfer. Odlin (1989) offered his "working definition" of transfer as is the influence resulting from the similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired" (p.17). In addition, Odlin (1989) concluded that transfer occurs both in informal and formal contexts. The evidence for transfer comes not only from second language investigations in school settings but also from naturalistic studies of individuals who have acquired what they know of a second language without any schooling (p.152). He also claimed that most of the language transfer research discussed in the background of acquisition of European languages, especially English. He encouraged more studies can be focused on target languages with very different typological properties. Jacquelyn Schachter (1992) argued that transfer is not a process at all, and is in fact a misnamed phenomenon—an unnecessary carryover from the heyday of behaviorism. They also argued that the process of transfer is more appropriately viewed as evidence of a constraint on the learner's hypothesis testing process. In other words, the notion of transfer as a process is replaced by the notion of transfer as a constraint imposed by previous knowledge on a more general process, that of inferencing. Odlin (1989) indicated that previous knowledge is expanded as the basis from which one infers the domain from which the correct hypothesis will be taken to account for new data. And the previous knowledge includes L1 knowledge and also the learner's conceptualization of the target language. What is discussed above is the definition and development of language transfer. Next the classification of language transfer is shown. In terms of classification of transfer, from the effectiveness perspective, language transfer can be divided into positive transfer which means the native-target languages are identical or similar and negative transfer which means the native-target languages are different. From the direction perspective, language transfer can be divided into forward transfer and backward transfer. The former one is that the known languages transfer to target one, the latter is the opposite direction. During the following 50 years, great researches have been done on Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Application from view of forward transfer. Yet few people seemed to notice that Weinreich's and Odlin's definitions concerned deviation from either language. Brown (2000), Su (2001) and Cook (2003) showed that the term transfer implies more than simply the effects of the L1 on the L2; the L2 also influences the L1. The effects of the second language on the first, sometimes called "reverse" or "backward" transfer.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES ON BACKWARD TRANSFER

Recent years has witnessed a growing interest in L2 effect. Researchers approach this phenomenon from different perspectives: phonology (Major, 1992), lexical semantics (Dewaele & Pavlenko, 2003; Laufer, 2003; Pavlenko, 2003; Ram íez, 2003), morphosyntax (Balcom, 1997; Pavlenko, 2003; Ram íez, 2003), sentence processing (Cook, et al., 2003; Su, 2001), and pragmatics (Cenoz, 2003; Valdes & Pino, 1981; Su, 2004). Schmidt (1995) revealed that Australian aboriginal language can be found some marks from English transfer. Sarason(1999) claimed that L1 (Spanish)-L2 (English) students made more use of pronouns in quantity. Cook (2003), for example, published a collection of articles addressing the issue of “Effects of the Second Language on the First”, to use the name of his book. Moreover, Carson and Kubanyiova (1994) investigate Chinese students across three English proficiency levels who wrote in L1 Chinese and L2 English in U.S. pre-academic intensive English programs, universities, and graduate schools. Carson and Kubanyiova (1994) argued that L1 Chinese writing proficiency declined as L2 English writing proficiency increased. Fred Jyun-gwang Chen (2006) conducted the bidirectional transfer between English and Chinese in the case of Chinese ESL learners in US, this study was carried out from Taiwanese perspective, not mainland China.

All in all, little research has been made from L2 effect on L1 within L2 and L1 environment on sentence translation and discourse level, even less effort can be made on backward transfer of interlanguage from mainland Chinese in L2 environment. Due to various reasons, the situation can be quite different in mainland China, for example, economic, historical, educational background and geographical differences, etc. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to investigate whether the backward transfer occurs in sentence translation and discourse level and the relationship between the backward transfer and L2 proficiency. Specifically, the investigation will be made in terms of the question of the impact of English temporal adverbial clauses on Chinese ones. Moreover, if it was found to occur, to what extent is backward transfer related to learners’ L2 English proficiency?

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The term multi-competence was firstly introduced by Cook to refer to “knowledge of two or more languages in one mind”(Cook, 2003, p.2). It encompasses bilinguals’ knowledge of both the first language and the second one. This distinctive compound state of mind is not equivalent to two monolingual states and thus L2 users are unique in their own right (Cook, 2003, p.124). In this light, cross-linguistic influence is a preferred term than transfer, and L2 users than L2 learner. In addition, Cook (2002) mentioned that “clearly neither total separation nor total integration can be completely true”. Thus, the two languages are in an integration continuum in the minds of Chinese learners of English. The two languages can affect mutually in bi-directions more or less. To some degree Chinese output of English users can be influenced by their English. On the other hand, considering the temporal adverbial clause with *zai...zhiqian(before)*, *zai...zhihou(after)* and *dang...shi(when/while)*, this type of influence is called restructuring transfer. To some extent, EFL users restructure their English to violate some syntactic rules in Chinese.

However, interlanguage theory needs to be illustrated before restructuring in this paper. Selinker (1972) coined this term which is used to refer to both the internal system that a learner has constructed at a single point in time (an interlanguage) and to the series of interconnected systems that characterize the learner’s progress over time (interlanguage or the interlanguage continuum). So as to enhance skills learning for second language, McLaughlin (1987) proposed information processing model. It reflected that information-processing capacity can be extended through restructuring. Restructuring can bring about qualitative changes in learners’ interlanguage and these changes relate to both the way knowledge is represented in the minds of learners and also the strategies they employ (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 212). The primary mechanism of restructuring is automatization. McLaughlin (1987) claimed that ‘once procedures at any phase become automatized...learners step up to a “meta-procedural” level which generates representational change and restructuring’ (p.138). That is to say, restructuring involves the replacement of existing procedures with more efficient ones.

In addition, the paper studies on two types of language environment---L2 (English) and L1 (Chinese). There are two kinds of contexts or settings in which learning takes place---natural and educational settings. The former arise in the course of the learners’ contact with other speakers of the L2 in a variety of situations. In natural settings, informal learning occurs. That is, learning is considered to result from direct participation and observation without any articulation of the underlying principles or rules (Scribner & Cole, 1973). In contrast, formal learning is held to take place through conscious attention to rules and principles and greater emphasis is placed on mastery of subject matter treated as a decontextualized body of knowledge (Scribner & Cole, 1973). The mainland Chinese undergraduates in UoN are involved into both natural and educational settings. They can learn English out of classroom for communication purpose, in addition to language classroom (named language center) for academy. However, for mainland Chinese undergraduates in Hei Longjiang bayi Agricultural University, they are mostly involved into educational settings. Ellis (2010) claimed although the potential exists for natural discourse to occur in the classroom, studies show that it seldom does. Language classroom, Ellis (2010) defined it as a setting where the target language is taught as a subject only and is not commonly used as a medium of communication outside the classroom. So the proficiency of L2 for mainland Chinese undergraduates in Hei Longjiang bayi Agricultural University mainly originated from educational settings.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study sets out to examine the L2 effect of English on mainland Chinese EFL users' L1 on the sentence translation and discourse level, with a focus on their use of temporal adverbial clause. It seeks to answer the following questions:

- 1) Does their L2 have any effect on their L1 when the mainland Chinese EFL users are making temporal adverbial clause in their L1?
- 2) If indeed, does their L2 English proficiency have any effect on the degree of their L1 Chinese and if does, how does their L2 English proficiency level relate to backward transfer?

V. RESEARCH FOUNDATION

A. Linguistic Pattern under Research

Temporal adverbial clause belongs to a complex sentence, which is generally composed of subordinate clause and main clause. Wang (1984) covered that subordinate clause is at the beginning and the main clause is at last.

- 1) Dang wo jia che de shihou, wo buneng he renheren tanhua.

When I drive car, I cannot with anyone talk.

- 2) When I'm driving, I can't talk with anyone.

- 3) I can't talk with anyone when I'm driving.

As we can see, example1 is a Chinese temporal adverbial clause in which the conjunction *Dang* is in the clause-initial position. Li and Zhang (1986) also indicate that the natural clause sequence in Chinese complex sentences is subordinate-to-main clauses (SC—MC), although the salient and less common main-to-subordinate clause (MC—SC) sequence is possible. Thus, we can find SC-MC as the unmarked order. However, example2 &3 are the English temporal adverbial clauses. Scollon (1993) revealed that *when* can be used in English in two ways. The unmarked structure is *X when Y*, while the marked one is *when Y, X*. In the same case, we can find the characteristics of temporal adverbial clause proposed by conjunctions before and after in example4 to example9.

- 4) Ta shangban zhiqian xian du le baozhi.

He go to work before past tense read past tense newspaper.

- 5) Before he went to work, he read newspaper.

- 6) He read newspaper before he went to work.

- 7) Temen sou hou wo zai gaosu ni.

They leave after I tell you

- 8) After they leave, I will tell you.

- 9) I will tell you after they leave.

In addition, Chen Chunhua(2004), Guan yanhong(2006), Li Yinmei & Wang Yina(2016) also revealed that English main clause tends to be put in the first place. What's more, from typological perspective, Chinese is a left-branching sentence, and English is a right-branching sentence, which can be reflected in attributive clause in these two languages. Therefore, the research of this paper is to explore whether 3 different groups would use the unmarked English MC-SC clause organization order in their L1 Chinese translation and writing. The following is to illustrate the methodology of the paper.

B. Psycho-linguistic Pattern under Research

Iconicity is concerned with sequencing information closely and Ungerer & Schmid (1996) described the principle of Iconic Sequencing as "the sequence of two clauses corresponds with the nature rules (temporal order of events)"(p.251). Example 10) can be provided as follow,

- 10) She opened the door and lay on the bed.

- 11) *She lay on the bed and opened the door.

The sentence 10) can be accepted due to the natural rule, and sentence11) is syntactic right but cannot be accepted in principle of Iconic Sequencing, which violates the possible world. Clark (1977) claimed that sequential iconicity is best manifested in language development in children. Then Tai (1985, 1993) proposed the principle of Temporal Sequence which meant the order of the two syntactic units in complex sentence is determined by the temporal order of the states which they represent in the conceptual world. Like 10), we generally put 'and' or 'then' after the first event and before the second event in Chinese. However, we can use the sentence patterns like the following in English,

- 12) She opened the door before lying on the bed.

- 13) She lay on the bed after opening the door.

Sentence 12) and 13) can show that the normal clause order in English is not constrained by the sequence of events. The most typical example is like sentence 14),

- 14) You can't sleep until you finish your homework.

- 15) You finish your homework and then can sleep.

Sentence 15) is Chinese version to English sentence 14), from which we can see that Chinese linguistics word order corresponds to the temporal order of events unlike English. Therefore, with the regard of word order, Chinese is more iconic than English. On the basis of it, the linguistic patterns used to encode the conceptual principles may vary from culture to culture.

C. Sociolinguistic Pattern under Research

Young (1982) showed that Chinese speakers tend to delay their topic until the supporting sentences have been given totally and Scollon(1991) argued that there exists confusion in intercultural communication often arises as a result of differing discursive strategies in the placement of the topic statement. The Chinese scholars, such as Li & Wang (2015) claimed that Chinese is a topic salient language and the subordinate clause owns rich topicality and transitivity. The subordinate clause is put at the beginning as the background of topic. Chen (2006) illustrated that Chinese discourse convention is an inductive one, English discourse convention is a deductive one. Chinese need to use a considerable amount of words (small talk) to conform the politeness principle, which means small talk is valued as a type of face work to mitigate the imposition in the following topic statement. However, English usually put topic statement in the first place and followed by the supporting statement. All in all, The Chinese SC-MC sequence pattern aims to build a good interpersonal relationship, and then try to give the topic statement, but English MC-MC sequence pattern aims to give the topic statement firstly and base on the event. The difference can be due to different cultures and ways of thinking between Chinese and English.

VI. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Three groups of subjects participated in this study, one group (group1) are Chinese Mainland undergraduates from University of Newcastle in Australia, the second group (group2) are Chinese mainland undergraduates from Hei Longjiang Bayi Agricultural University in China, they are majored in English; The last group (group3) are mother tongue reference group. The three groups can be composed of 180 participants. Group1 and group2 can be divided into 3 subgroups (levels), with 20 participants on each proficiency level. There are 60 participants in group1 and the same number in group2. Group3 can be made up of 60 participants. We set the first two groups as experimental groups and the third one as a controlled one. Specifically, group1 are undergraduates who have been staying in UoN for three years, they are studying in L2 environment; group2 are English major undergraduates who are in junior level; and group3 are baseline group for data comparison with EFL groups. Both group2 and group3 are from L1 environment. The proficiency level in group1 is divided on the basis of their IELTS scores. Level1 participants get IELTS scores over (equal) 7; level2 participants get IELTS scores in the range of 5.5-7; level3 participants get IELTS scores below 5.5 or don't pass the exam. The proficiency level in group2 is divided on the basis of their English scores in Test for English Major Band4 (TEM4). Level1 participants get English scores over 80; Level2 participants get English scores in the range of 70-79; Level3 participants get English scores in the range of 60-69.

B. Instrument and Procedure

Data for this study are collected from students completing their English-Chinese translation as well as writing essays which can be completed through several pictures. The translation exams contain 15 items in 3 types of conjunctions--*when*, *before* and *after*. Out of 15 test items, 5 ones focus on the conjunction of *before*, 5 ones focus on the conjunction of *after*, and 5 ones focus on the conjunction of *when/while*. For the essay task, the participants are intended to write a narrative of 100-120 words from eight sequential pictures, aiming for them to narrate the sequential pictures in order. During this, the participants need to use temporal adverbial clauses. They are given one hour to complete the two tasks.

Since there are two types of tasks, we manipulate both cautiously. Participants complete translation tasks before writing the essay. The translation test items are put in appendix1 and the sequential pictures for essay writing are as follow:



VII. RESULTS

The two research questions are as follow: 1) Does their L2 have any effect on their L1 when the mainland Chinese EFL users are making temporal adverbial clause in their L1?

2) If indeed, does their L2 English proficiency have any effect on the degree of their L1 Chinese and if does, how does their L2 English proficiency level relate to backward transfer?

Based on previous study, L1 skills may decline in an L2 environment, it is hypothesized that L2 has some effect on L1 when students make temporal adverbial clauses. In addition, there is a relationship between L2 proficiency and the use of L1 clause pattern SC--MC (before/after/when/while..., ...) in the translation and essay writing tasks for mainland Chinese ESL learners. First of all, we can see the frequency distribution in the performance of the Chinese ESL learners on translation task across group1.

TABLE 1

Participants		Translation task			
Clause pattern		After/before/when/while-middle		After/before/when/while-initial	
Group1	Level1	7	11.7%	13	21.7%
	Level2	12	20%	8	13.3%
	Level3	15	25%	5	8.3%
Chinese total		34	56.7%	26	43.3%

As revealed by table1, group1 exhibits different use of *After/before/when/while-initial* at different proficiency levels in translation task. Generally discussing, temporal adverbials are put in the middle part more than the initials. Among it, level1 shows the vast contrast between the two parts. Level1 tends to put temporal adverbials in the initials. Gradually Level3 can be found only 8.3% students put temporal adverbials in the initials. On the whole, Group1 tends to put temporal adverbials in the middle part. But the contrast is not severe. Temporal-initials and -middles lie in 43.3% and 56.7% respectively. The explanation is that to some extent group1 can be influenced by their L2 (English) word order. In addition, they have been staying in Australia for two years or so, English mode of expression plays an important role. However, students in high proficiency (Level1 in Group1) can mostly put temporal adverbials in the initials, which can prove the higher proficiency students are, the more capable of overcoming backward transfer from L2 (English) to L1 (Chinese).

TABLE 2

Participants		Translation task			
Clause pattern		After/before/when/while-middle		After/before/when/while-initial	
Group2	Level1	11	18.3%	9	15%
	Level2	14	23.3%	6	10%
	Level3	17	28.3%	3	5%
Chinese total		42	70%	18	30%

As revealed by table2, group2 exhibits different use of *After/before/when/while-initial* at different proficiency levels in translation task. Specifically, it is the same as Group1 that temporal adverbials are put in the middle part more than the initials. Among it, level1 shows the more students put it in the initial than level2 and level3. Level3 tends to put temporal adverbials in the middle. Level3 can be found only 5% students put temporal adverbials in the initial. On the whole, the contrast is becoming clear. Temporal-initials and -middles lie in 30% and 70% respectively. Although Group2 tends to put temporal adverbials in the middle, there are still more students in Level1 with the tendency to put temporal adverbial in the initial. It can indicate that the backward transfer can be found more in low level students from Chinese university.

Therefore, in terms of translation task, backward transfer can be totally found in Group1 and Group2, whereas it can be overcome to some extent with the higher proficiency level. The following part we will discuss essay writing task.

TABLE 3

Participants		Essay writing task			
Clause pattern		After/before/when/while-initial		After/before/when/while-middle	
Group1	Level1	15	25%	5	8.3%
	Level2	13	21.7%	7	11.7%
	Level3	17	28.3%	3	5%
Chinese total		45	75%	15	25%

As revealed by table3, group1 exhibits different use of *After/before/when/while-initial* at different proficiency levels in essay writing task. In general, temporal adverbials are put in the initial part more than the middles. Among it, level2 shows a little bit more students choose middle position to do the task. Level3 shows the vast contrast between these two

positions. On the whole, Group1 tends to put temporal adverbials in the initial part. The contrast is absolutely severe. Temporal-initials and -middles lie in 75% and 25% respectively. Although Group1 have been staying in Australia for two years, they still put temporal adverbials in initial position mostly. Therefore, backward transfer from L2 (English) to L1 (Chinese) occurs scarcely.

TABLE 4

Participants		Essay writing task			
Clause pattern		After/before/when/while-initial		After/before/when/while-middle	
Group2	Level1	17	28.3%	3	5%
	Level2	14	23.3%	6	10%
	Level3	16	26.7%	4	6.7%
Chinese total		43	71.7%	17	28.3%

As revealed by table4, group2 exhibits different use of *After/before/when/while-initial* at different proficiency levels in essay writing task. In general, the reflection is similar to group1. Among it, temporal adverbials are put in the initial part much more than the middles. Level2 shows the slightest contrast between the two positions. However, it cannot indicate Level2 is more likely to put temporal adverbials in the middle. On the whole, Group2 tends to put temporal adverbials in the initial part. The contrast is still severe. Temporal-initials and -middles lie in 71.7% and 28.3% respectively. It is easy to explain that students make use of mother tongue to come up with their ideas or write essays. Although Group2 is in English department, they cannot escape from Chinese environment. Therefore, backward transfer from L2 (English) to L1 (Chinese) also occurs scarcely.

TABLE 5

Participants		Essay writing task			
Clause pattern		After/before/when/while-initial		After/before/when/while-middle	
Group3 (controlled one)		57	95%	3	5%

In general, we make a specific comparison between these three groups in terms of backward transfer in translation and writing tasks. The results are as follow,

TABLE 6

Particip-ants	Translation task		Essay writing task	
	After/before/ when/while-initial	After/before/ when/while-middle	After/before/when /while-initial	After/before/when/while-mi ddle
Group1	43.3%	56.7%	75%	25%
Group2	30%	70%	71.7%	28.3%
Group3			95%	5%

From the two tasks, it is evident to illustrate that in translation task, students tend to choose temporal-middle, while they tend to put temporal adverbials in initial position in essay writing task, which can indicate that in input-output task, backward transfer occurs within all types of students; while in output task, backward transfer occurs scarcely whatever students are at home or abroad. The explanation is mainly that language and social environment can directly influence backward transfer.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The present study makes a contribution to the study of the influence of the L2 on the L1 by examining the backward transfer on the syntactic level. The findings of this study can be summarized as follows:

Firstly, a second language can have an unstable influence on the first language in L2 environment, which is accordance with the language task. And a second language might exert influence on the first language in L1 setting, especially when the exposure to L2 is intensive. However, in most cases, backward transfer can seldom happen in Group2 (L1 setting).

Secondly, there is a relationship between L2 proficiency and the use of L1 clause pattern SC---MC (before/after/when/while..., ...) in the translation and essay writing tasks for Mainland Chinese ESL learners. What's more, the relationship between L2 proficiency level and backward transfer is quite complicated. In particular, there is a tendency that the higher proficiency students are, the higher capability they overcome backward transfer.

APPENDIX. ENGLISH-CHINESE TRANSLATION

- 1) My father had left for Canada just before the letter arrived.
- 2) You can't do your homework while you're watching TV.
- 3) I'll go on with the work when I come back tomorrow.
- 4) I went to school after I finished my breakfast.
- 5) The young scientist had worked day and night for a long period of ten years before he succeeded in finding out the

new elements in chemistry.

- 6) She turned off the light before she left the office.
- 7) Please clean the room after you read this book.
- 8) He was always trying out new ideas when he was a child.
- 9) Lin Tao came to see Jim while Jim was mending his bike.
- 10) He had learned English for three years before he went to London.
- 11) She fell asleep when/while she was reading the newspaper.
- 12) We went home after we had finished the work.
- 13) I'll write to you after I finish my work
- 14) Take the medicine before you go to bed.
- 15) The man called the police after being robbed.

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Students' Perceptions of Collaborative Summary Writing

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Abstract—Writing is one of the four main language skills that are given emphasis in Second Language Learning. Summary writing is often viewed as a difficult and a challenging skill in learning a second language, which may result in negative attitudes forming, both toward summary writing and to writing in general. The main purpose of this study is to investigate students' perceptions and problems related to collaborative summary writing in a university in Saudi Arabia. The study involved five undergraduate EFL Saudi female students as a case study and who were exposed to writing course participated in this study. The students were given different collaborative writing tasks during the semester and completed one summary writing task collaboratively for the purpose of this study. Then their views about the task were recorded via semi-structured interview. The findings suggest that most of the participants express positive attitudes toward collaborative writing and consider it beneficial for improving different aspects of writing skills, second language proficiency, and confidence. Several problems occurred during the process of collaboration, and these are also identified and discussed.

Index Terms—collaborative summary writing, collaborative writing, L2 writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is considered to be one of the most important academic skills, especially in settings like schools and universities. Among the different genres of writing, summary writing is found to be challenging and difficult to master, hence, collaborative writing has been suggested as a potential solution (Lin & Maarof, 2013). Collaborative writing is defined as the joint production of a text by two or more writers (Storch, 2011). In recent years, there has been a significant growth of research on collaborative writing in the L2 classroom (see, for example, Shehadeh, 2011; Storch, 2005; Lin & Maarof, 2013). Collaborative writing emphasizes the significance of interactions and cooperation to solve problems in creating a text. Both cognitive and sociocultural theories of L2 learning encourage the use of collaborative writing tasks. From the cognitive perspective, Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis claims that language negotiation for meaning and form facilitates L2 learning. On the other hand, the sociocultural perspective is based on the Vygotskian notion that learning is a socially mediated process (Vygotsky, 1978). Specifically, students engage in scaffolding where lesser-advanced students learn from more advanced learners through their interactions, generating ideas, and languaging (Vygotsky, 1978).

Statement of the problem

Summary writing is considered a useful albeit sophisticated skill to master. Norisma, Sapiyan, & Rukaini (2007) stated that summarizing is a significant skill which involves multiple cognitive activities that occur during understanding a text and generating a shortened version of it is known as summarizing. Writing a summary requires students to read a text, find the main points, delete the redundant details, combine similar ideas, and write a text using their own words (Casazza, 1993). Norisma et al. (2007) found that most students failed to summarize texts effectively and concluded that they were weak at summarization. In addition, a study conducted by Chen and Su (2011) reveals that in writing summaries, students tend to copy rather than paraphrase which can be considered plagiarism.

Due to the difficulties involved in writing a summary, the problem addressed in this study is to determine student's perceptions about collaborative summary writing as a learning approach. Seen in this light, collaborative writing, which has a beneficial effect on writing skills and encourages students to actively take part and produce a text, provides an alternative for teachers to foster their students' summary writing skills due to its collaborative focus. However, to date, few studies have been conducted on collaborative summary writing. Subsequently, this investigation aims to explore and summarize student's perceptions about collaborative summary writing. This study concerns those interested in the educational process, especially in the field of writing, because it sheds light on the collaborative summary writing approach. It is hoped this approach may overcome the shortcomings of traditional summary-writing practices.

The main purpose of this study is to answer the following question:

1. What are Saudi female students' perceptions of collaborative summary writing?
2. What are the problems that may occur during the collaborative writing process?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Learning a second language

Language plays an essential role in our lives because it enables us to express our desires, feelings, and ideas. Creating a learning environment where language learning is an efficient experience has been the focus of several previous studies (Sajedi, 2014). Second language acquisition (SLA) involves learning another language besides one's mother tongue either in a classroom setting or outside the classroom (Ellis, 1997). Second language learners are recommended to seek a great exposure to the language being learned (Krashen, 1981). Similar to the first language development, exposure to the second language enables learners to develop different aspects of their new language. Learning a second language is difficult and requires a lot of practice to avoid interference with learners' first language. In addition, a lot of mental and cognitive processes occur in the learner's mind like perception, memorizing, thinking, and so forth, during the acquisition of a second language (Ellis, 2008).

Second language writing

Language consists of receptive skills (reading and listening) and productive skills (speaking and writing). However, the productive skills, particularly writing, are considered more difficult for second language learners (Gökçe, 2011). Many learners find writing boring and tough because it requires many skills such as good organization, creativity, imagination, and good language knowledge (Gökçe, 2011). Indeed, some students have valuable ideas, but they find composing meaningful thoughts very hard, especially in a second language. Also, some students have negative attitudes toward writing in their second language. Using different pedagogical techniques and strategies in teaching writing may foster students' abilities and raise their level of interest. Powell (1984) conducted a study comparing student's attitudes with their success in writing and found that learners do not like or enjoy writing either in a first or second language because writing tends to be accomplished in only one way most of the time: traditional essay writing. Powell (1984) also stated that writing teachers generally use rigidly structured approaches, and generally do not attempt to change their approach to teaching writing. For instance, teachers mostly ask their students to write in different styles (e.g., narrative or argumentative), but they always teach them using the same methods, without changing their style of teaching. In another study, Fareed, Ashraf, and Bilal (2016) investigated the problems that occur in ESL learner's writing. The study revealed that the major problems with ESL learners' writing are related to a lack of linguistic proficiency, writing anxiety, lack of ideas, reliance on their L1, and weak structural organization. Fareed et al (2016) added that many factors affect learners' problems in writing; for example, untrained teachers, ineffective teaching methods and examination system, a lack of reading and writing practice, large classrooms, low levels of motivation, and lack of ideas. The study also suggested a number of remedies to encourage learners to read and write more extensively such as training teachers and making changes to the examination system.

L2 collaborative learning

Unlike traditional, individual-focused learning methods, collaborative learning offers great benefits to language learning. However, collaborative learning is defined differently by different scholars; Slavin (1980) defines collaborative learning as when a group of students work together and are given rewards and recognition based on the whole group's performance. On the other hand, Artz and Newman (1990) describe collaborative learning as when a group of learners work as a team to solve a problem, complete a task or achieve a common goal. Indeed, over the last few years, group work has become very common in L2 classrooms. Several studies have emphasized the significance of collaborative work for teaching and learning a second language (see, for example, Shehadeh, 2011; Dobao, 2012; Lin & Maarof, 2013; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012).

The use of pair or group work in the classroom is mainly based on the sociocultural theory, which states that human development is related to social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978). In first language acquisition, children's linguistic and cognitive development (novices) arises from their social interactions with more knowledgeable others (experts). Vygotsky (1978) claimed that the assistance provided to children (in the form of scaffolding) enables children to improve their cognitive and linguistic abilities and therefore allows them to reach their potential level of development. Research has also shown that scaffolding can be applied to second language contexts (Shehadeh, 2011). A number of studies have investigated and analyzed group talk (metatalk or language-related episodes) and concluded a positive effect for second language learning (Shehadeh, 2011). In a comparative study, Pica and Doughty (1985) examined the difference between the effects of teacher-centered classes and cooperative classes; they found that more opportunities for language practice that were given to learners while in small groups produces more scaffolding which enables learners to stretch both their cognitive and linguistic development beyond their current level towards their potential level of development. Based on previous studies, learners should be encouraged to engage in group work to enhance and facilitate their learning (Shehadeh, 2011).

L2 collaborative writing

For students, writing skills are crucial to master because their writing skills are constantly evaluated as a measure of their academic success (Ismail & Maasum, 2009). L2 teachers adopt different methods of teaching writing. One of the recommended methods is the incorporation of collaborative writing in which students have a shared responsibility and work together to produce a written text (Storch, 2005). The last few years have witnessed several studies on collaborative writing. Many of these studies have been conducted to examine the benefits of collaborative work on L2 writing (Shehadeh, 2011). The process of collaborative writing allows participants to explore, discuss, cooperate and improve their learning capabilities (Dobao, 2012). Vygotsky (1978) argued that social interaction precedes development. Collaborative writing is built on the Vygotskian notion of having to interact with others, cooperate, and exchange ideas

in order to allow development to take place (Heidar, 2016). Many studies have attempted to measure the effect of collaborative writing on overall writing performance. Shehadeh (2011) investigated two groups of student's perceptions of collaborative writing; the majority of students in the experimental group reported that the experience was interesting because the other members enabled them to write to higher standards and develop their content, organization and vocabulary skills. Other studies found reinforcement in students' writing in terms of increased grammatical accuracy (Altai, 2015; Storch, 2005; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). In general, the students perceived collaborative writing positively. Positive reactions included opportunities to compare ideas (Storch, 2005) and negotiating meaning (Altai, 2015). Also, Scotland (2014) investigated student's perceptions of assessed group work and found that they had positive perceptions towards it. In another study (Dobao & Blum, 2013), students were given one collaborative writing task and their reactions were generally positive although a third of them did not see a positive effect on developing grammatical accuracy or vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, more research needs to be conducted about student's perceptions toward collaborative writing in order to gain a better understanding of learners' observed behaviour and language learning outcomes.

Collaborative summary writing

Summary writing is a significant academic skill for L2 learners and is used most frequently in universities. It requires students to read and understand a passage, then paraphrase and write a summary. Summary writing is considered an essential exercise to enhance students' comprehension skills (Choy & Lee, 2012). Most students, especially those with limited vocabularies, find summary writing a challenging task. Students encounter several problems when writing a summary; one of these is their inability to paraphrase passages. In addition, many students find summary writing a cognitively demanding task which requires instruction and practice to do it properly, otherwise, students may simply copy rather than accurately paraphrase (Nambiar, 2007). In addition, Perin, Keselman & Monopoli (2003) conducted a study on summary writing which found that students faced difficulties in finding the main ideas in a text. Furthermore, they found that students who had prior knowledge about the topic were able to summarize the passage more effectively than those who did not. Therefore, collaborative summary writing is introduced as an approach to be used in second language classes in order to improve student's reading and writing skills. Lin and Maarof (2013) investigated both student's perceptions of collaborative writing in summary writing as well as the problems they encountered and found that students had positive perceptions in terms of motivation, grammar, vocabulary and co-construction of knowledge. In the same study, students reported several problems such as limited second language proficiency, unwillingness to offer their opinions, and an inability to finish the task in the allocated time. Shehadeh (2011) found that when students collaborate to compose a summary, it not only reduces the cognitive burden of this complex task, but it also develops different aspects of their writing. Sajedi (2014) has shown that collaborative writing is useful for L2 improvement because it encourages students to become more engaged in the task, enhancing their confidence, and increasing their responsibility.

III. METHODOLOGY

The participants of this research study are five Saudi female students currently studying at level two and are majoring in English. Students are chosen in this level particularly because they have mastered paragraph writing but struggle with summarizing, which is a skill included in their course. The students are enrolled in a writing class for three hours a week and had several collaborative writing tasks. The study employed interviews as the method of data collection. A collaborative summary writing activity was given to the students followed by a semi-structured interview with the five participants.

Instrument

The instrument used was an interview protocol comprised of semi-structured questions to elicit students' perceptions of the experience of collaboration after completing one summary writing task in the classroom (see appendix 1 for the interview questions). Questions are made based on the results of previous studies (see, for example, Shahedah, 2011; Sajedi, 2014). Although the students were used using different collaborative writing experiences in writing essays or paragraphs, this was their first time using a collaborative approach to write a summary.

Procedures

The study was carried out in the 12th week of a 15-week semester. Five students were selected randomly as a group. They were given a passage of an appropriate level and length, asked to read it carefully, find the main ideas, delete the irrelevant points and write the summary collaboratively using their own words. Students worked together in which each one of them contributed in one or two sentences to the summary while the other group members checked for grammatical accuracy, use of vocabulary, and clarity of ideas. Then, the participants were interviewed by the researcher. The interviews were informal, semi-structured and were conducted using the student's first language to provide the participants with the opportunity to express their ideas clearly. Furthermore, the researcher interviewed each one of the participants individually to ensure privacy.

IV. FINDINGS

Students' perceptions of collaborative summary writing

Based on the participant's answers during the interviews, all of them agreed that collaborative summary writing is beneficial in different ways especially in terms of improving their grammar, expanding their vocabulary, and improving their paraphrasing skills. Participant A, for example, pointed out that:

"I prefer collaborative writing, particularly when everyone of the group provides her sentence structure and we as group members decide for the best."

So, participant A relates collaborative writing to the ability to build the best sentence structure. Another feature of collaborative writing is that students might benefit from the feedback given by the other group members in order to improve their writing. In this regard, participant B said that:

"I think group interactions are useful because they help to correct errors and remind us of things we might forget when working individually."

Participant C also found group interactions important in improving her writing skills and claimed:

"...by interacting, we search, discuss and think of the best words and grammatical structures that fit in the context."

Participant C, therefore, claimed that group interactions are effective to improve both vocabulary and grammar. Further, participant D said that:

"My level of English is not proficient, so I need someone else to polish my language and group discussions are often valuable."

Overall, the respondents relate collaborative writing to the development of L2 writing in different areas (e.g., language proficiency, grammar improvement, expanding of vocabulary and developing paraphrasing skills).

The four participants revealed that writing collaboratively was able to positively affect their confidence and motivation for writing. For example, participant E reported that:

"If I make a suggestion and they accept it, my confidence increases."

In contrast, participant C claimed that writing collaboratively did not affect either her confidence or motivation, revealing that collaborative writing might even destroy someone's self-confidence, reporting that:

"If a student is put with a group that has members who are beyond her level, this might make her less confident."

In sum, the majority of the participants (80%) claimed that collaborative writing has a positive effect on their motivation and confidence.

Students were also interviewed about the evaluation criteria. Two participants thought receiving a group grade is fair, whereas two other participants reported that it depends on the members of the group, the fifth one thought it is unfair to have a group grade. For example, participant D claimed:

"If the group members are cooperative, then I think the marking is fair."

Therefore, participant D relates the fairness of evaluation to the collaboration of the group members. On the other hand, participant C had a different point of view:

"...in all kinds of collaborative learning, I think it is unjust that all members take the same grade while there is a disparity in their contributions."

Therefore, participant C sees it from a different angle, that grading should be related to each member's own contribution. Overall, the participants had different views about accepting group evaluation.

Most of the participants claimed that the success of collaborative writing depends largely on the group members in the team. Participant B, for example, claimed that:

"Collaborative writing, in general, is a very useful tool especially if you have group members who are similar to your level or beyond."

Therefore, participant B finds the usefulness of collaborative writing relies on the members of the group. Participant C also agrees:

"I believe the success of collaborative writing depends largely on who are you going to join? Is the relationship between the group members strong? Is the work divided in a way that is fair for all the members?"

So, participant C thinks writing collaboratively depends on the group members, their relationships, and how the work is divided among them (i.e., whether fairly or not). Similarly, participant A said:

"I prefer it when the professor gives us the opportunity to decide who to be within the group, instead of dividing us randomly."

Overall, the participants claimed that group members play a crucial role in the success of collaborative summary writing.

Students' problems of collaborative summary writing

When the participants were asked about the problems they encountered in the process of collaboration, the majority of them reported that the main problem with collaborative writing was working with uncooperative group members. Participant E, for example, mentioned that:

"Sometimes, the group members rely mostly on one or two members, while the rest are doing nothing."

For participant E, some group members are more responsible than others. Participant B agreed with participant E and claimed:

"The members' different levels will make the most work on those who are more proficient."

So, participant B views the problem differently and thinks that some members do not collaborate because their level of proficiency is not sufficient enough. Participant C also sees the issue from a different angle, and claimed:

"Sometimes, all the group members will be thanked by the doctor for the great work while in reality, only one or two members have participated. This might affect the relationship among group members."

For participant C, some group members may not contribute at all to the group discussions but will be praised by their tutor for great work, which may lead to negative attitudes toward such members. Overall, all the participants found the lack of collaboration as the major problem in writing as a group.

Another problem that was reported by only two participants is the limited time that is given for writing. For instance, participant B claimed that:

"Sometimes, collaborative writing is a kind of wasting time as some members are dependent on the others."

For participant B, some members wait for the others to do the task and do not provide any contribution. For participant B, working alone might be better than wasting time while asking for other members' contributions and opinions.

Overall, the participants perceived collaborative summary writing positively and they wish to do it again. They find it positively affects their grammar, vocabulary, paraphrasing skills and motivation. However, they encountered some problems during the process of collaboration such as working with uncooperative group members and limited time.

V. DISCUSSION

From the interview responses, all the participants revealed positive perceptions of collaborative writing in terms of several different aspects. In terms of language development, the participants claimed that collaborative writing was helpful in enriching their writing skills, which is in harmony with previous studies. For example, Shehadeh (2011) stated that the collaborative experience had a positive impact on students' L2 writing development. In terms of grammar development, the findings of the current study echo several prior studies' findings. For instance, Lin and Maarof (2013) and Storch (2005) found that collaboration affected the participants' grammatical accuracy positively. In terms of vocabulary development, Gökçe (2011) and Shehadeh (2011) indicated an improvement in vocabulary and quality of writing after writing collaboratively. Therefore, students prefer writing collaboratively because a member can be proficient in some aspects like grammar, but not others like vocabulary. As a result, group members complement each other and collaborate to produce a better summary.

Another feature that was mentioned by the participants is sharing ideas and learning from each other, which is frequently cited in past studies (Shehadeh, 2011; Storch, 2005; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012). By writing together, students exchange ideas, make suggestions, paraphrase sentences, and negotiate meaning. These interactions enrich their vocabulary, foster their grammatical accuracy, and enhance their overall language proficiency. When someone makes a mistake, others will provide corrective feedback and in this way, the final product will be improved. Such interactions open students' eyes to aspects of language they may not have considered before. Discussing these issues with each other helps them think and search deeply until they reach a solution to a problem they encounter. Therefore, their overall language will be developed and they will gain benefits in different aspects of L2 writing.

Most of the participants indicated that collaborative writing supported their motivation and confidence in writing. This finding confirms past studies (Shehadeh, 2011; Gökçe, 2011; Yong, 2006) whose participants claimed that collaborative writing fostered their self-confidence. In addition, Lin and Maarof (2013) conducted a study on Malaysian students, which revealed that collaborative summary writing increased students' motivation toward writing. When a member receives positive feedback for her contribution or when the other members accept their suggestions, this increases confidence and motivation toward writing. Therefore, the students will be more engaged and eager to write. However, contrary to the majority of studies, participant C claimed that collaborative writing might affect their motivation negatively. For them, being a part of a group which has more competent or dominant students might make them not accept their contributions and suggestions. As a result, this may lead them becoming less confident and unmotivated to participate. Therefore, teachers should be mindful of this in the class and always remind their students of best practice for polite social interaction. Although having students with different levels in the same group has positive effects, it also can lead to negative ones.

Scotland's (2014) study that was conducted with Qatari students showed they claimed to accept a group grade which contradicts the findings of the current study. Four of the participants in this study pointed out that a group evaluation would be accepted only if all the group members are cooperative and one participant did not accept it at all, although they did not really receive a mark for their collaborative summary writing. The reason for this might be that some members work harder than others, and so deserve better marks. Normally, in group writing, a member's mark is tied to the performance of the whole group. Plastow, Spiliotopoulou, and Prior (2010) made a comparison between individual marks and group marks for 230 students. Surprisingly, the results indicated that no statistical correlation was found between individual and group marks. This is an indicator that group evaluation is not valid compared to individual evaluation. Maybe that is why the participants in the present study do not find group evaluation reflects the real ability of each member. For example, higher-ability members might positively affect the mark of lower-ability members and vice versa.

All the participants agreed that the kind of members in a group has a great influence on collaborative writing. This is because collaborative writing encourages students to take responsibility not only for their own writing but also share the responsibility to help other members of the group in their accomplishing goals. This is in line with Talib & Cheung's (2017) findings, who claimed that the success of collaborative writing is largely related to teamwork. A number of participants prefer to choose group members by themselves. So, maybe having members who are close to each other will lead to better interaction and therefore better writing. Some students may find it difficult to work with people they are unfamiliar with. Also, some students may prefer to choose team members in order to make sure they will be beneficial to the whole group. Some members are passive and unwilling to participate which reduces the enjoyment and cooperation of the whole group. In this way, the other members will not benefit and might become demotivated to participate which will be reflected by the overall quality of their writing. The participants also agreed that not everybody provided an equal amount of effort which corresponds with past studies (Lin & Maarof, 2013; Sajedi, 2014). In addition, Altai (2015) pointed out that some of the participants in her study complained about uncooperative group members. The reason for this might be that the group members change from one task to another. In some cases, the group members contribute equally, while they do not in others. Further, some members might be irresponsible and unwilling to provide their ideas and participate just because they expect other members to do so. In other words, some members (passengers) depend on others, particularly those who are more proficient in L2 writing skills. Passengers or free riders are those who do not provide any contributions to the group but still receive benefits (Scotland, 2014). The problem of passengers in group writing is very difficult to solve. Teachers need to always encourage their students to participate and make contributions as this will be reflected in their level of development.

Another difficulty that two participants encountered was the limited time to write collaboratively. This finding is consistent with some previous studies that found working in groups take longer time than working individually (Storch, 2005; Lin & Maarof, 2013), but contradicts Altai's (2015) findings where the participants declared that collaborative writing decreased the amount of time they spent on writing texts. Dobao (2012) argued that when assigning the same amount of time, students who write individually produce longer texts than those who write in pairs or as part of a group. As for the current study, the participants may not be proficient enough in English as they are in level two. This means that writing collaboratively will require more of their time to suggest, explore, discuss, pool ideas, talk about the best ways to use language and finally decide on the best choices. Therefore, the time required is not only for writing itself but also for what happens before the writing process as part of the collaboration.

VI. CONCLUSION

Research and empirical studies on collaborative writing have suggested its significance for teaching a second language. This study was conducted to investigate student's perceptions toward collaborative summary writing. The general principle behind collaborative writing is that students work together as a team to achieve a common goal, namely that each student learns from the others. Hence, considering the perceptions of students toward collaborative writing and problems that occur in the process of writing, it can be concluded that students have a generally positive attitude toward collaborative summary writing, although they encountered some problems in the process of collaboration. The findings of this study echo a vast number of past studies and suggest a lot of advantages for using collaborative writing in enhancing different aspects of language proficiency and paraphrasing skills as well as building motivation toward L2 writing. Further, some problems occurred: a lack of group collaboration and limited time. Therefore, L2 teachers should encourage their students to reflect on their perceptions of collaborative writing because this provides them with a great opportunity to discuss and learn from these discussions.

Limitations and further studies

This study has a number of limitations that should be mentioned. First, the present study is limited in that it is based solely on five participants' reports gathered by semi-structured interviews. Thus, a general claim cannot be made about students' perceptions of collaborative summary writing as the researcher worked with only a limited number of participants. However, the participant's responses did reflect a number of issues highlighted in previous research. Second, all the participants in this study are studying at the same level; level two. Having more participants from different levels could affect the results. In addition, the limited meant that the participants only collaborated on one summary writing task. If there was more time, the participants could do more collaborative summary writing tasks and so the findings would be more reliable. Consequently, further studies need to be conducted in order to eliminate or mitigate these limitations.

APPENDIX

Interview questions

- 1/You have been in a collaborative summary writing experience, how do you feel about this experience in general?
- 2/ Was collaborative writing helpful? Why? Or why not?
- 3/ Tell me what is it like to interact with members of your group in order to compose a piece of writing?
- 4/ What do you think of the feedback you get from your group members?
- 5/ Does collaborative writing help you to understand more about paraphrasing? How?

- 6/ What are the effects of collaborative writing on personality factors like motivation and confidence?
- 7/ Based on your own experience, tell me the advantages and disadvantages of collaborative writing?
- 8/ What are the problems you face in collaborative summary writing?
- 9/ Is it fair that all group members take the same grade?

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A Comparative Analysis of Chinese and English Animal Idioms from Culture Perspective

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Abstract—Idioms are the crystallization of human wisdom and the essences of language. Animal idioms, which can reflect people's feelings or explain complicated phenomena and rules with vivid and expressive animal images, contain rich and unique cultural connotations. This paper studies a comparative analysis of English and Chinese animal idioms from perspective of culture, aiming to make people know the cultural differences, improve their intercultural awareness and use animal idioms accurately, to promote intercultural communication more smoothly and properly.

Index Terms—English and Chinese animal idioms, cultural connotation, cultural differences, cultural influence

I. INTRODUCTION

Idioms are pervasive in a language, reflecting its culture even more vividly and deeply than all other kinds of words. Animal idioms vary from their literal meaning, not only reflecting people's different opinions and attitudes towards animals, but also transmitting different cultural connotations profoundly and intensively. Therefore, the study of comparing the similarities and differences of English and Chinese animal idioms will help both English and Chinese learner to have a better understanding the two cultures as well as use animal idioms more accurately and properly in intercultural communication.

A. Definition and Classification of Animal Idiom

Webster's new World College Dictionary states that idiom is to be a phrase, structure, or expression. It is regarded as a unit of practice in a given language, with a particular structure, or meaning, other than the addition of the literal meanings of words.

In generally, Chinese idioms can be roughly divided into: proverbs(谚语), allusions(典故), chengyu(成语), xiehouyu(歇后语), slang(俚语), idiomatic expressions(惯用语), colloquial sayings(俗语), couplets(成对词) and so on. (Guo, 2016, p.129) Chengyu is one of the most familiar forms in Chinese idioms.

As for English idioms, in a broad sense, they have a particular structure and meaning, including set phrases, proverbial sayings and a lot of slang expressions. In modern English, idioms refer to the habitual expression of a certain language, the special language of a certain country or nationality, the special dialect of a particular region, society or class, and the language style of famous works.

From the definitions of idioms, as a specialized form of language, differing from other phrases combined with simple words, idioms cannot be translated word by word without knowing their culture backgrounds.

As an important branch of idioms, animal idiom is also a fixed phrase cannot be translated word by word because of context and cultural connotation in it as well.

From the wide classification, animal idiom also contains Chengyu, proverbs, common sayings and so on.

From the narrow classification, animals can be divided into fish, reptiles, birds, amphibians, mammals and invertebrate animals. Thus, animal idioms are the same, we can classify them into idioms with animals living on land such as idiom "to rain cats and dogs" (倾盆大雨); animals living in the sea like "fish out of water"(局促不安); idioms with insects like "to have ants in one's pants" (急于行动); idioms with poultry like "cock of the walk"(称王称霸的人). (Chen, 1998, p.79)

B. Features of Animal Idioms

Both English and Chinese languages contain lots of animal idioms but have their own features.

Zhao Yan (2017) thinks that animal idioms have four features: universality, immobility, integrality, rhetoric. Universality means English idioms exist everywhere and the origin of animal idioms also depend on the geography environment. Immobility means the words in animal idioms cannot increase or decrease; they are set phrases. Integrality means animal idioms have a unique and complete meaning. Rhetoric means people make animals figurative in order to express people's minds. (p.103)

English idioms can be a fixed phrase or a sentence, but many Chinese idioms are composed of four words such as

“狗急跳墙”，three words like “落汤鸡”and six words like “放长线钓大鱼”. In addition, Chinese animal idioms are often used in writing, but English animal idioms are commonly used in speaking.

II. ANIMAL IDIOMS AND CULTURE

As an important part of language, idiom is the core and essence of language. Meanwhile, as an essential part of idioms, animal idioms greatly show cultural connotation of a nation.

A. *The Relationship of Language and Culture*

Culture can be divided into material culture and spiritual culture. Therefore, culture is the deposit of people's knowledge, experience, beliefs, values, actions, attitudes, and something got by a group of people or individual person through working. (Davis, 2001, p.158)

“Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols used for human communication.” (Wardhaugh, 2009, p.212)

“Language is the cornerstone of culture, Language and culture influence and interact with each other. As a tool of cultural transmission, Language has a great restriction on the spread of culture and is the strength for the survival of culture” (Li, 2016, p. 92)

Therefore, language and culture are inseparable. Language formation of a nation is influenced by many cultural factors including traditions, people's thinking, social psychology, customs, values and so on. Meanwhile, language affects the formation of human thinking and cultural communication. So different languages contain their own cultural connotations.

B. *The Relationship between Animal Idioms and Culture*

Language is the epitome of the culture, and culture is one of the most powerful factor influence the language. “Using animals as metaphors to convey emotions become a language habit of English and Chinese. The semantic understanding of idioms should consider both conceptual meaning and pragmatic meaning.” (Liu, 2017, p.125) Therefore, animal idioms are also influenced by culture, and inseparable from culture as well.

English and Chinese animal idioms have their own national cultural colors. It is difficult to penetrate all the elements contained in idioms from the superficial meaning to the deep connotation and cultural characteristics. (Zhang, 2014, p. 33) We should pay attention to the expression of their language and their cultural meaning.

III. COMPARISON BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE ANIMAL IDIOMS

Animals are closely connected with human life, and are endowed with human characteristics. Animal idioms can express oneself more vividly and concisely. Different animal idioms have different meanings, but the same animal idioms also have different meanings such as dog, dragon, snake and so on.

A. *The Same Animal with Same Meaning*

1. Wolf & 狼

“Wolf” is always regarded as destruction, danger and even evil. There are some differences between Chinese and western cultures in the perception of wolves, but the semantic meaning of destruction exists in both cultures, such as:

- a. cry wolf (虚张声势)
- b. keep the wolf from the door (勉强度日)
- c. a wolf cub with a savage heart- -have a wolfish nature (狼子野心)
- d. figuratively, cruel and brutal (狼心狗肺)
- e. It is a foolish sheep that makes the wolf his confessor. (蠢羊才向狼忏悔)
- f. a wolf in sheep's clothing (披着羊皮的狼)

2. Bee & 蜜蜂

In contrast to the wolf, bee is the representative of diligence in Chinese and English culture. So, there are many idioms about bees as compliments, such as,

- a. as busy as a bee (像蜜蜂一样奔忙)
- b. bee's knees (出类拔萃)

Meanwhile, in Chinese history, there are also many poems which regard bee as a representative of assiduous:

- c. The bees come again; it's so pity that they are busy all day. (墙外蜜蜂又来, 可怜终日太忙生)
- d. After gathering hundreds of flowers into honey, for whom hard work for whom sweet. (采得百花成蜜后, 为谁辛苦为谁甜)

3. Pig & 猪

Pig is regarded as lazy and dirty image, and there are more expression about pig such as hog, swine and so on. Thus, pig in idioms is to describe someone is greedy and lazy or someplace is very dirty and mess.

- a. pig it (过着和猪一样的生活)
- b. pig out (大吃大喝)

c. as dirty and greedy as a pig(又脏又馋)

d. In a pig's eye! (胡扯)

The idioms with pig are also to describe a group of people or individual person with bad morals such as:

e. worse than pigs or dogs (猪狗不如)

f. pigs love that lie together (臭味相投)

4. Snake & 蛇

Snake culture has a long history that could be traced back to ancient time in Chinese culture, and to the period of the Bible in English culture. Snakes are known for their cold blood and not close to humans, so there are a lot of animal idioms in Chinese and English about snakes with negative meanings, and some implicate a group of evil people and things:

a. snake in the bosom (忘恩负义的人)

b. to nurse a snake in one's bosom (护恶养奸)

c. deal with someone courteously but without sincerity (虚与委蛇)

d. have a heart as malicious as snakes and scorpions (蛇蝎心肠)

e. a man whose heart is not content is like a snake which tries to swallow an elephant(人心不足蛇吞象)

B. The Same Animal with Different Meanings

Different nations live in different cultural environments and with different religious beliefs and histories which influence people's association of cultural meanings of idioms. (Liu, 2017, p.127) Due to the differences between Chinese and English culture, the same animal in idioms have different meanings.

1. Dog & 狗

In China, most of people keep dogs for security guard especially in rural area and more and more people keep them as pets. In ancient China, people thought that dogs like to bark, and their bark indicates bad omen. So, they always use dog's blood to expel ominous. Besides, the idioms are usually used to satirize or even insult people, such as:

a. every dog is valiant at his own door (狗是百步王, 只在门前凶)

b. be on the sly (偷鸡摸狗)

c. like a dog counting on its master's backing (狗仗人势)

But in English, dogs are the best friend of human, there is one saying about dog and god—spelling dog from right to left is God. So, most English idioms with dogs are positive, and the image of a dog is often used to describe human behavior such as:

d. hot dog (真开心啊)

e. you are a lucky dog (你是一个幸运儿)

f. love me, then love my dog (爱屋及乌)

g. every dog has his day (每个人都有他得意的时候)

2. Dragon & 龙

Dragon has a history of more than 5,000 years in China. For people, the dragon is a special existence, which is regarded as the embodiment of god and also a symbol of power. Emperor was called the real dragon and the son of heaven in ancient China. And now dragon is treated as an auspicious and peaceful symbol in our daily life, such as,

a. dragon and phoenix present auspiciousness (龙凤呈祥)

b. the spirit of people just like dragons and horses (龙马精神)

c. dragons rising and tigers leaping -- a scene of bustling activity (龙腾虎跃)

d. full of life and energy(生龙活虎)

However, as for English people, dragon symbolizes evil. People often use "Dragon" to describe people who are fierce. In addition, in Bible, people call the demon who fights against god "the great dragon". So, in English idioms, dragon is used in a negative way.

e. sow dragon's teeth (挑起纠纷)

f. a dragon of woman (凶悍的女人)

3. Bat & 蝙蝠

In China, bat symbolizes auspiciousness, happiness and longevity, because it sounds like "fu" in Chinese, the pronoun of "蝠" and "福" are the same, so it is associated with good luck, auspiciousness and happiness. Many folk paper-cut patterns use bats to represent lucky, for example, cutting paper with bats and peach (indicts 长寿 longevity) together metaphorically means enjoying both happiness and longevity (福寿双全). Bats and deer (the same sound with 禄 opportunities) composition means having both fame and wealth(福禄双全). Bats and fish(the same sound with 余 abundance) composition contain the meaning of "richer and luckier"(富贵有余).

However, bats in western countries are seen as the embodiment of evil. And in European folk culture, people often associated bats with evil and the dark side. Look at following English animal idioms:

a. crazy as a bat (发疯)

b. have bats in the belfry (胡说八道)

c. as blind as a bat (有眼无珠)

4. Magpie & 喜鹊

Magpie in China is a representative of good luck, because people think that its voice would bring good news. Besides, it is an auspicious bird, here is a fairy tale about Niu lang and Zhi Nv, they meet on the Milky Way on July 7th every year and magpies gather to bridge their paths.

a. The magpie smiles and the turtledove dances. (鹊笑鸠舞)

b. Magpies chirp, good things come to my house. (喜鹊叫喳喳, 好事到我家)

c. Magpies chirp on the branch, it's sunny. (喜鹊枝头叫, 出门晴天报)

But in Scotland, the magpie is considered as a death omen: in England, magpies are often spat upon to ward off bad luck.

d. Magpies that chatted, no omen so black. (鹊噪为最坏的兆头)

IV. REASONS FOR THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE ANIMAL IDIOMS

Comparing the English and Chinese animal idioms, we know the same animal might have the same meaning, but also could be different due to the culture differences, which will lead to misunderstanding and the failure of communication. So, it's essential to find the reasons for the differences between English and Chinese animal idioms.

A. The Influence of Geographical Environment

Geographical environment plays an important role in one nation's culture. Different geographical features breed different idioms, different idioms carry different cultures.

The territory of the United Kingdom includes England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. Britain is on an island, surrounded by the sea, and contains abundant fishing resources. There is no doubt that water resource is vital to them, and fish makes a great impact on people's daily life, so many animal idioms related to water and fish in English such as "a fish out of water" (如鱼得水), "fish in troubled waters" (浑水摸鱼), a queer fish (性格古怪的人), a cold fish (冷酷无情的人), not the only fish in the sea (多的很), only a small fish (小人物). In addition, animal husbandry is also well developed in Britain, so there are a lot of animal idioms related to sheep, wool is the chief income for shepherds, so idiom such as "lose one's wool" (发怒) is to describe someone who is very angry.

However, China lies on the Asian continent, people cannot live without soil. In ancient time, with its advanced agricultural technology, China became a great agricultural country. Therefore, there are a lot of people live in rural areas who depend on farming, so a large proportion of idioms related with cattle, for instance, "牛脾气", "牛肥马壮", "牛头不对马嘴" and "对牛弹琴". And there are many animal idioms from agriculture such as "it is good horse that never stumbles" (好马不失蹄), "fuel is not sold in a forest, nor fish on a lake" (林中不卖柴, 湖上不卖鱼), "old wood is best to burn, old horse to ride" (好柴好烧, 好马好骑).

Compared the origin of English idioms and Chinese idioms from their own living circumstances, it can be seen that the geographical environment has a great effect on idioms. The geographical environment of a country directly affects the natural resources of a country.

B. The Influence of Historical Development

In the development of human history, with the change of society, the migration of nations, the conquest and assimilation of nations and the wars between nations, the foreign national cultures have an impact on the English language. History plays an important role in the formation of idioms, and many idioms come from historical events.

The historical development of the English-speaking countries, especially Britain has greatly influenced the English language. Britain has been invaded by many natives throughout its history such as the ancient Romans, the Greeks. Here is an idiom "rain cats and dogs" (倾盆大雨), it means rain heavily, coming from a history event. It is because of the invasion of Scandinavians that directly affects the formation of these English animal idioms. In ancient times, Norsemen's god was Odin, they saw dog as wind, cat as rain. So, cats and dogs together symbolize "storm". Besides, it's also influenced by history stories. In Western, there are a lot of stories and sentences from Bible, for example, here is a sentence: Do not give dogs what is holy to dogs- they will only turn and attack you. We can translate it into Chinese like "狗咬吕洞宾, 不识好人心".

While in China, idioms are also influenced by history and history stories. In Chinese history development, there is a person of great significance to China called Mao Zedong, he said that All imperialism and reactionaries are paper tigers (一切帝国主义和反动派都是纸老虎). Tigers are ferocious in my mind, but paper tiger is fake, which motivated people's confidence and encouraged them not be afraid at that hard time. Nowadays, people used to compare difficulties and setbacks with paper tiger, because people will eventually be able to defeat them with persistent efforts. And there are also many idioms from Chinese history stories like "亡羊补牢" (mend the fold after the sheep have been stolen), the purpose of this story is to tell people to remedy the mistakes in time.

C. The Influence of Religions and Beliefs

Religious belief is an essential part of social culture and the embodiment of people's spiritual life. It has an important significance in social life, and its influence is obviously reflected in language. (Zhao, 2014, p.33)

Religion is not only considered as a certain ideological belief, but also serves as a kind of universal cultural phenomenon containing deep-provoking contents. After a long history of evolution and development, religion has created a rich and colorful religious culture. They have not only made outstanding contributions to social science, literature, art, ethics and many other cultural fields, but also had a great and far-reaching impact on the development of Chinese and English idioms. (Zhao, 2008, p.145)

In western countries, God is the ruler, the supreme existence, and god is unique. The religion of Britain is New Christianity spread by the Anglican church. Bible is the classic of Christianity, which contains allusions, metaphors and proverbs, many of them become well-known idioms. In addition, many animal idioms come from the Bible, such as "lion on the way" (拦路虎); a land of milk and honey(丰饶的地方), cast pearls before swine(对牛弹琴).

On the contrary, Chinese people believe Confucianism, Buddhism, Taoism and so on. Confucianism take the five principles "integrity, wisdom, humanity, courtesy and honesty" as the core. Buddhism is spread by India monks in China. After a long period of propagation and development, Buddhism with Chinese characteristics came into being. It takes goodness as men's essential believes all physical existence is vanity. Therefore, there are many idioms related to Buddhism such as "a beast in human face" (人面兽心); "devils in animal forms" (牛头马面). Buddhism emphasizes kindness and mercy; the believers always think saving one's life from death is better than building a seven-storied pagoda and they also believe people has a past life and next life, what you have done in your life will influence the destiny of your next life. So, they account that killing animals even ants should be banned. Besides, Taoism also plays an important role in Chinese culture, valuing the balance of Yin and Yang, natural and simple life. There are some old sayings from Taoism, "一人得道, 鸡犬升天"(one person get the moral, towards each other to heaven), "狗咬吕洞宾, 不识好人心" (mistake a good man for a bad one) .

V. CONCLUSION

Comparing English and Chinese animal idioms, it is clear that due to different living circumstances, religions and histories, animal idioms with different cultural connotation will deeply influence intercultural communication.

Knowing the animal idioms with their cultural characteristics, we can have a good command of the essence of idioms, and better understand the same or different meanings behind each animal idiom, helping us use the animal idioms correctly, and carry out intercultural communication more properly and effectively.

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