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Design and Evaluation of a Spanish Language Therapy Support System

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Abstract—*Specific Language Impairment (SLI)* is a language disorder that delays progress in mastering speech-language skills, and typically occurs in childhood. Most speech-language pathologists commonly use paper-based instruments to diagnose and treat this problem. This article describes the design, implementation, and evaluation of SATEL, an ontology-based system used both in diagnosing this condition and as part of speech therapy for children with SLI. With the help of a Kinect sensor, SATEL is able to recognize and classify pronounced words. The proposed system was designed and evaluated by a team of four speech-language pathologists and 26 children diagnosed with SLI. Results showed an accuracy rate of 94.42% and 97.75% in recognizing syllables and words correctly and incorrectly pronounced in the diagnostic and treatment modules, respectively.

Index Terms—specific language impairment, speech therapies, ontologies, assistive technology

I. INTRODUCTION

Some language disorders affect a significant number of children in early school years (Jackson-Maldonado, 2011). Particularly, *Specific Language Impairment* is associated with problems of grammaticality, poor vocabulary, and speech fluency. Children with SLI do not suffer from any physical condition, such as hearing loss or neurological disease (Jackson-Maldonado, 2011), but do not develop ordinary language skills as expected in early childhood, and face specific difficulties encoding and decoding in the communication process.

SLI negatively influences children's participation in classroom activities, since they struggle to learn new words and communicate ideas and thoughts; this affects their academic development as the reading fluency has greater effects on their performance in later years (Lange, 2019). Additionally, this type of disorder is a significant cause of undesired child behaviour such as anxiety, frustration, and insecurity, which has repercussions on academic performance and social interaction (Jackson-Maldonado, 2011; Woodman et al., 2018).

Technically speaking, children facing SLI may have difficulties with some or all dimensions of language, such as phonology, the lexicon, semantics, morphology, and syntax. Thus, SLI is not a homogeneous disorder. Indeed, there are many subtypes and combinations (Vázquez et al., 2011), this is why it is essential that children with this condition receive appropriate and personalized therapy. On the other hand, although SLI is an international and recurrent problem, in practice, speech-language pathologists rarely leverage the full potential of computer-based technology. Indeed, only a few specific computer-based systems exist to support SLI therapy. Moreover, it was found that current systems are not considering adaptability with a view to personalizing care.

This paper describes the design, development, and evaluation of an automated tool called *Language Therapy Support System* (referred to as its Spanish acronym SATEL). SATEL aims to provide support for SLI diagnosis and language therapy for native Spanish-speaking children. Specifically, the speech therapy provided by the system focuses on helping children to overcome problems as they learn to pronounce certain words, syllables, and phonemes. This study involved language specialists and children treated at the *Psychopedagogical Care Centre for Preschool Education* (referred to as its Spanish acronym CAPEP), in Ensenada, Mexico.

II. TECHNOLOGY SUPPORTING SLI CARE

Due to the high influence and rapid spread of computer-based technology and the Internet, organizations in all fields (e.g. industry, tourism and education), have achieved increased productivity. However, there remain some specific fields or subfields in which this possibility should be addressed or improved. Specifically, in the field of education, the last two decades have seen several theoretical and empirical studies on language learning systems (Schoelles & Hamburger, 1996; Segalowitz & Gatbonton, 1995; Sun & Gao, 2019; Xu et al., 2019).

Recently, research by Sharifi (2018) compared computer-based learning and traditional learning by students of English, and found better language learning performance among students using computer tools, while Sydorenko, Daurio, and Thorne (2018) generated computer simulations based on real-world scenarios to teach students a new language, leading to better performance by students learning to master a new language. However, despite extensive research in educational technology and language pedagogy, schools and teachers have not fully appropriated the technology to apply it to language teaching (Kuure et al., 2015). Particularly, little research was found in SLI. Examples of studies in this field are outlined below.

One of the first tools to address SLI was the BALDI system (Massaro, 2003). BALDI is a computer animation tool that uses a talking head to illustrate the necessary articulatory movements to pronounce a word. Years later, in Toki and Pange (2010), an improved environment was implemented based on the BALDI project. In this system, children have access to the 'Articulation Gym' module, where they can practice phoneme utterance by completing specific tasks.

More recently, Di Pretoro (2016) proposed visual programming languages as a mean to develop SLI treatment. In particular, she recommended the Scratch platform, an environment that uses building blocks of different colours and shapes that resemble Lego bricks, and promotes the structural development of cognition, which is associated with improvement in children's linguistic capabilities.

One of the most recent contributions is presented in Nasiri, Shirmohammadi, and Rashed (2017), who conducted a literature review on serious games used in therapy for children with language problems. Based on the outcomes of this study, the group proposed a game in which the child has to give spoken instructions to move an avatar, explore an environment, and find objects.

Although some progress has been made, none of the above systems provide support for both the diagnosis and treatment of SLI. All the cited tools offer support in one way or another, either by assisting the therapist in diagnosing the SLI or by complementing the child's therapy, disregarding the symbiosis required between these two interconnected activities. Furthermore, they do not consider personalizing the learning environment with features such as a customized system interface, a specific sequence of instructions, or personalized feedback. The rest of this article describes how personalization is addressed in the implementation of SATEL.

III. SATEL IMPLEMENTATION

SATEL was developed to support the diagnosis and treatment of SLI, explicitly addressing phonetics, phonology, and semantics. The concept of SLI diagnosis refers to any medical intervention or examination on an individual who may have any language disorder not caused by any physical or evident condition, in order to identify the nature of the problem (Jackson-Maldonado, 2011). On the other hand, the concept of therapy implies the required post-diagnosis treatment to help a person to overcome a disease or condition (Cambridge Dictionary, 2019).

Ideally, such a system should 1) evaluate incorrect pronunciations produced by the child when speaking, and 2) provide audible and visual feedback. In implementing SATEL, engaging characters were used based on the age of the intended user, using conventional technology like the Kinect motion sensor from the Xbox video game console. As far as system functionality is concerned, open source libraries were used to recognize and evaluate children's pronunciation.

The methodology for developing the proposed system consisted of two main stages: a) *the design and implementation of the environment*, and b) *the evaluation of the proposed environment*.

Design and Implementation of the Environment

In this phase, the structures and algorithms to conduct the diagnosis and treatment of children with SLI were created, as well as the system architecture design and required user interfaces. The design and development of SATEL was structured as follows: 1) implementation of the system architecture; 2) knowledge representation and algorithms; and 3) design of the user interfaces.

A. Implementation of the System Architecture

Figure 1 shows the design of the SATEL architecture, enabling interaction between the components of the environment. The architecture consists of four layers: *User, Application, Database, and Expert Knowledge*.

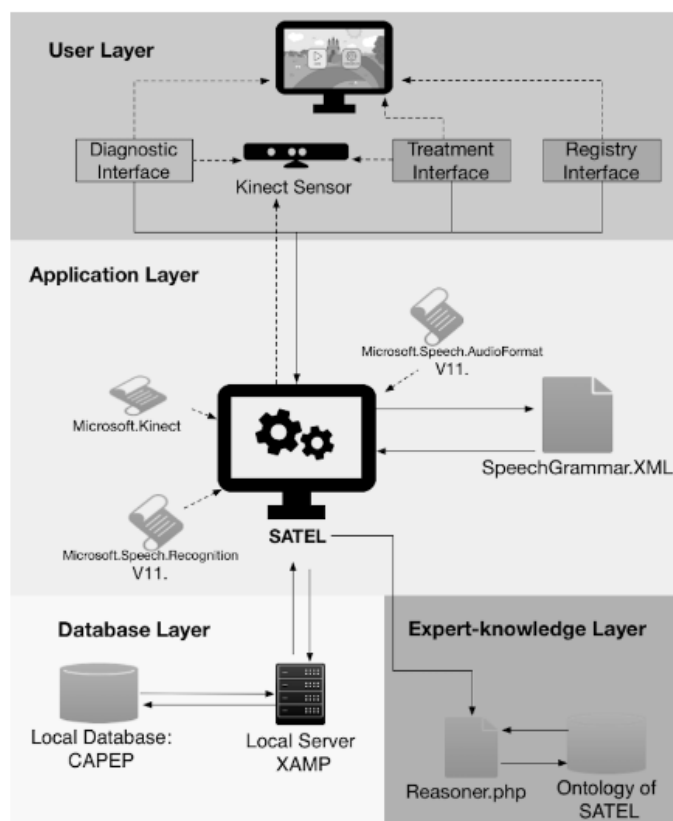


Figure 1. SATEL architecture: a) The User layer presents the devices and interfaces that interact directly with the user; b) The Application layer is the central core of SATEL including the libraries used; c) The Database Layer includes the local database; and lastly, d) The Expert Knowledge Layer incorporates the ontology that represents the expert knowledge.

Within the *User layer*, three components interact directly with the user: 1) the user registration module; 2) the user interfaces, in order to conduct the diagnosis and language therapy; and 3) the Kinect sensor, which captures the user's pronunciations.

In the *Application layer*, through the use of Microsoft® speech recognition libraries, the algorithms implemented in SATEL are used to perform the necessary diagnostic and treatment procedures. These libraries are used to process the information provided by users as they use the system. This information is then compared with a previously defined Spanish grammar included in the *SpeechGrammar.xml* file.

The *Database layer* includes the components that make it possible to store the information provided by users as they interact with SATEL, and the XAMPP server, which enables communication between the database and SATEL.

Finally, within the *Expert Knowledge layer*, the knowledge of the speech-language pathologists is represented by an ontology and formalized using the Web Ontology Language (OWL) (Flórez-Fernández, 2007). According to the research carried out in Liaw et al., (2013) and Liaw et al., (2014), the representation of knowledge through ontologies is suitable for use and application in information systems for health support. There is previous work where ontologies are used to model expert knowledge, such as the work presented in Alloni et al., (2018), where an ontology-based system is developed to support cognitive rehabilitation therapies, which includes exercises similar to those used in speech therapies. Similarly, in Greenbaum et al., (2019), ontologies are used to manage a considerable amount of medical terms and concepts. In SATEL this knowledge base is used through a reasoner to diagnose and determine personalized treatment for children with SLI.

B. Knowledge Representation and Algorithms

Nowadays, adaptive learning has become a relevant research topic. Adaptive learning aims to personalize instruction based on several factors, such as devices, context, and individual student characteristics, customizing aspects like the instructional content and sequence, the look and feel of the material, and the type of feedback (Liu, 2007). Primarily, the design of the domain model of SATEL seeks to adapt and integrate language therapy sequences and instructional content, in order to provide instruction and support according to the specific language requirements of each child using the system.

Considering the heavy reliance on expert knowledge to understand and validate the proposed model, it was decided to explore the use of ontologies. Through this knowledge representation technique, a knowledge structure was obtained that was easy for therapists and computers to understand (Gascuena et al., 2006).

IV. EXPERT KNOWLEDGE BASE

Below is included some of the information obtained from an interview conducted with therapists from CAPEP. The instrument outcomes were used to design and implement the SATEL ontology, which represents the expert knowledge base.

1. The therapists from CAPEP divide Spanish phonemes into four complexity levels:
 Level I. Vowel phonemes: {a, e, i, o, u}.
 Level II. Consonant phonemes {b, k, d, f, g, j, l, m, n, p, s, t, y}.
 Level III. Consonant phonemes {r, err, ch, ñ, z}.
 Level IV. Consonant phonemes {bra, kra, dra, fra, gra, pra, tra, bla, kla, fla, glo, pla, tla, rra}.
2. Child age and complexity levels:
 (a) Children between 2 and 2.5 years of age must be competent using words including phonemes from complexity levels I and II.
 (b) Children between 2.5 and 5 years of age must be competent using words including phonemes from complexity levels I to III.
 (c) From age 5 and up, children must be competent using words including phonemes from complexity levels I to IV.

A. Description of the SATEL Ontology

The above information was incorporated into the proposed ontology as shown in Figure 2. The ontology consists of three layers of classes: high-level (*Diagnostic* and *Treatment*), core-level (*Word* and *Vocabulary*), and symbolic-level (*Syllable* and *Phoneme*).

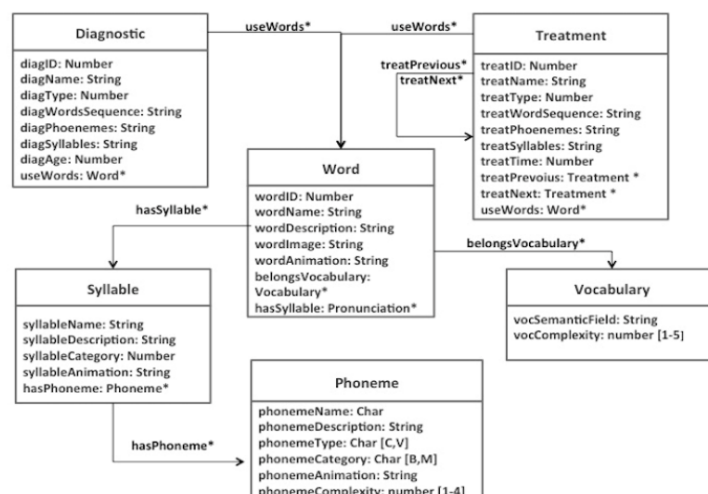


Figure 2. The SATEL ontology. The *diagnosis* and *treatment* classes use the *word* class, composed of syllables and phonemes.

The first layer is intended to cover the top elements within the domain ontology. In this case, it includes the high-level activities that serve to address SLI: *Diagnosis* and *Treatment*. The *diagnostic* class contains descriptive attributes and also some variables to indicate the phonemes, syllables, and words to consider for children of each specific age. Similarly, the *treatment* class represents the phonemes, syllables, and words to be strengthened during the intervention, as well as the previous and next treatment in the event of success, partial success, or failure in reaching the expected pronunciation performance. Both classes are connected to the *word* class through the *useWords* attribute, which makes it possible to establish a relationship between the high-level classes and their used words.

The *core-level* layer includes the words selected for SLI therapy purposes. The *word* class consists of the core elements of the knowledge base, including all the words selected for diagnosis, treatment, or both. The *wordAnimation* attribute is used to indicate the animation file for each specific word. This animation provides the feedback for the correct pronunciation of words, through an avatar representing a girl. Each word can be used for improving pronunciation or vocabulary skills; words are connected to the corresponding classes through the *hasSyllable* and *belongsVocabulary* attributes.

Finally, the *symbolic-level* layer includes the basic classes *Syllable* and *Phoneme*, which are used to compose the set of entities within the *word* class. These classes are also linked through the *hasPhoneme* attribute. The *phonemeAnimation* and *syllableAnimation* attributes are used to indicate the multimedia file.

B. Speech Processing Algorithms

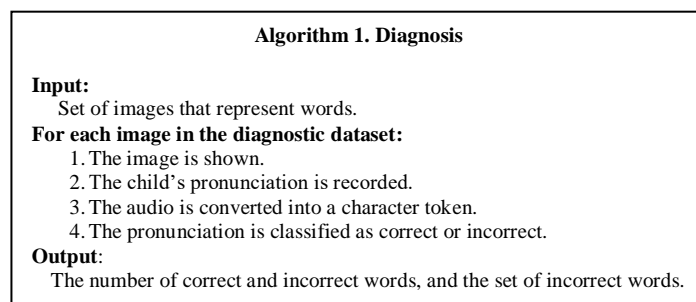
Traditionally, CAPEP therapists use 52 printed images to conduct diagnostic and treatment activities, and commonly show children some or all of these images, as required, hoping that they spontaneously pronounce the corresponding

word. These images are based on the full set of words from the standardized language test “Linguistic Exploration in Preschool Children” (Exploración lingüística del niño preescolar - ELNP) (Ballesterro, 2019). If therapists are diagnosing SLI, they evaluate the vocabulary level and the correct pronunciation of the words. On the other hand, if they are treating SLI, the therapists provide feedback on the pronunciation mistakes.

The implemented algorithms consistently use the *SpeechGrammar.xml* file, which stores the set of words defined for the diagnosis procedure. Following the recommendations of the CAPEP therapists who participated in the study, the SATEL knowledge base includes the 52 words used in the ELNP language test. This instrument includes categories of words that make it possible to identify phonetic and phonological problems present in children, representing all Spanish phonemes described in the four levels of complexity outlined in the expert knowledge base section. The words in the ELNP instrument are distributed as follows, based on the complexity grading scale for Spanish phonemes: 25 level II, 12 level III, and 15 level IV (all also considered level I). A set of these words was considered in SATEL for the diagnosis of SLI. In addition, in order to avoid duplicating words, the treatment process was supplemented with 38 additional words recommended and provided by the therapists, and distributed as follows: 24 level II, 8 level III, and 6 level IV. The results of this study showed that, by using the Kinect sensor and its development libraries, it is possible to identify the correct or incorrect pronunciation of this group of words and phonemes with a high confidence level. The implemented algorithms are described below.

1. Diagnostic Module

This module shows a set of images, then records and classifies the words pronounced by the child. *Algorithm 1* summarizes the activities in this module.

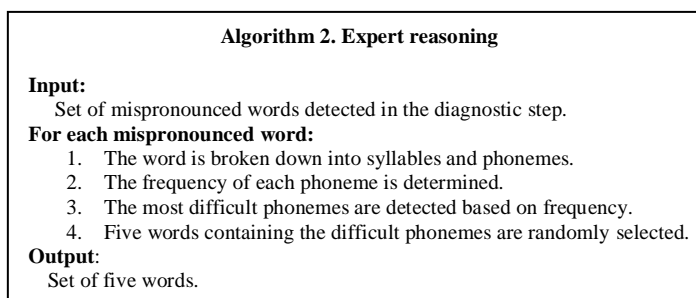


Each image in the dataset has its corresponding word, defined in the grammar file *SpeechGrammar.xml*. Through the *Microsoft.Speech.Recognition* library the system converts the audio received by the Kinect sensor to a character token named *Result.Semantics.Value*. A confidence index is also obtained, indicating the perceived clarity in the pronunciation.

To determine the correct pronunciation of a word, two factors are considered: (1) whether children vocalize the word corresponding to the image presented, and (2) the clarity and precision with which they pronounce each phoneme. Once all the images have been presented to the child, the outputs of the diagnostic module are the number of correct and incorrect words, and a list of incorrect words.

2. Expert Reasoning

Expert knowledge is represented by the ontology depicted in Figure 2. This ontology is used by the reasoner module to conduct the diagnosis and treatment of children with SLI. *Algorithm 2* summarizes the activities in this intermediate process.

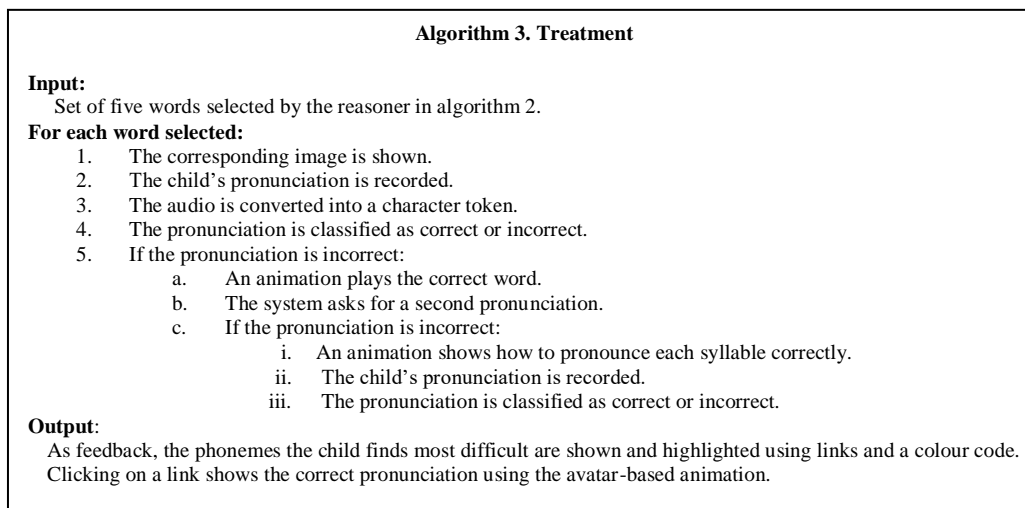


The expert reasoning algorithm uses as an input the set of incorrect words from the child's last diagnosis. This is sent to the *reasoner.php* file, which uses *algorithm 2* to break down the received words into syllables and phonemes. Each word is separated into syllables, using the knowledge base represented by the ontology. Then, it is separated into phonemes to identify those that recur most frequently; this process allows the system to detect which phonemes are the most difficult for each child.

Once the most difficult phonemes are identified, a new query is sent to the ontology, using the list of detected phonemes as a parameter. This makes it possible to obtain words containing the specific phonemes. Finally, five words that include the problematic phonemes are selected randomly for consideration in the treatment process. Thus, the system is able to provide personalized treatment to children.

3. Treatment Module

In a similar manner to the diagnosis activity, *algorithm 3* shows the required procedure for the treatment activity.



A list of five words is received from the reasoner module. Then, for each word, the corresponding image is displayed to the child (see Figure 3). Like in the diagnostic module, the Kinect sensor detects the words pronounced by the child and then, using the Microsoft® *Speech* libraries, the pronounced word is classified as correct or incorrect.

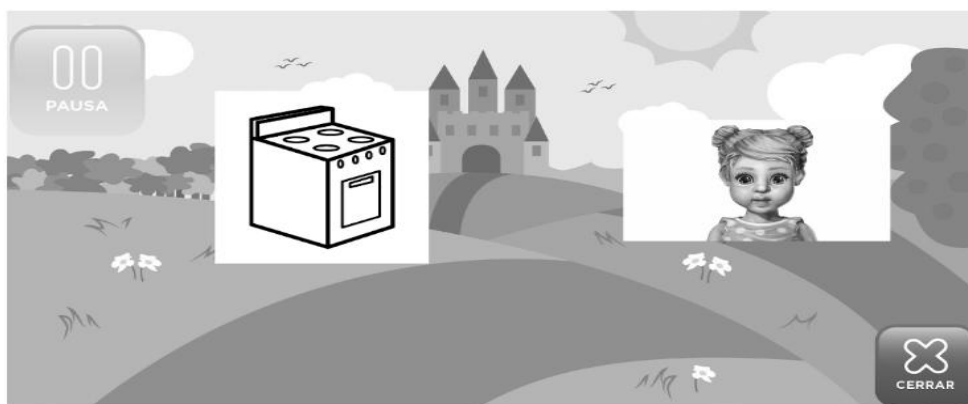


Figure 3. SATEL treatment interface. This interface presents the set of images used during the treatment activity, and the avatar used for feedback.

If the detected pronunciation does not match the displayed image, it will be saved in the database as an incorrect answer, and an animation will be played showing how to say that word. Then, the system asks for a second pronunciation of the same word. If the system detects an incorrect pronunciation again, that word is divided into syllables and an avatar-based animation of how to pronounce each syllable is shown.

V. SATEL EVALUATION

This section describes the results of the evaluation of the system's performance and the user experience provided by the environment.

A. Study Methodology

1. Participants

In general, the implemented system was evaluated by four female therapists with more than 20 years of experience each in the field of SLI, and 26 children. The language therapists were professionals working at CAPEP with expertise in areas involving language development. The children were 20 boys and 6 girls aged between 4 and 7 years. All were from different public schools and received language therapy at CAPEP.

CAPEP receives children identified as having a language problem by teachers from different schools in the town, in

order to diagnose the possible existence of SLI professionally. If CAPEP confirms SLI, the language therapy service is provided. Therapists determined which children participated in the evaluation of SATEL, mainly on the basis of which children displayed a favourable attitude towards interacting with technology and had parental consent.

2. Data Collection and Sources

The data used in this study was collected from multiple sources: interviews, observation, questionnaires, videos, and system logs.

First, during the therapy sessions, each child's pronunciation was logged in the system database, and the whole intervention was recorded. Then, using the logs and videos, precision and accuracy were evaluated to estimate the system's ability to identify correct and incorrect pronunciation of words and syllables by children.

This activity was carried out by the first author of this article. Following the therapists' instruction that a word should be correctly articulated to be considered a satisfactory pronunciation; word pronunciation was evaluated one by one. Then, in order to estimate the precision and accuracy of SATEL in classifying correct and incorrect pronunciations, a comparison was made between the results of the video evaluation and the classification data in the SATEL system logs.

3. SATEL Performance Evaluation

This phase evaluated the *precision* and *accuracy* of SATEL in categorizing correct and incorrect pronunciations.

Considering that SATEL performs a binary classification of the children's pronunciations, *precision*, *inverse precision*, and *accuracy* were estimated using the equations for binary classifiers (Powers, 2011). In this context, *precision* implies the system's confidence level in classifying the pronunciation of a word or syllable as correct (positive pronunciation), and is quantified by equation (1), where *TP* is the number of *true positive pronunciations* and *FP* the number of *false positive pronunciations*:

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP+FP} \quad (1)$$

Inverse precision measures the proportion of incorrect cases that are indeed negative pronunciations (equation 2), where *TN* is the number of true negative pronunciations and *FN* is the number of false negatives:

$$Inverse\ precision = \frac{TN}{TN+FN} \quad (2)$$

Finally, the accuracy of the classifier indicates the proportion of correct classifications with respect to the full set of positive and negative pronunciations, and is defined by equation 3 as:

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP+TN}{TP+FP+TN+FN} \quad (3)$$

The results of the performance evaluation of SATEL are given below.

B. Diagnostic Module

A total of 26 children from CAPEP participated in evaluating the SATEL diagnostic module. The purpose of this evaluation was to assess the system's ability to properly identify correct and incorrect pronunciations using the implemented algorithms. Based on the therapists' recommendations, participants were asked to pronounce the first 20 words of the 52 initially included in SATEL. These words were considered by the researchers and therapists sufficient to evaluate the children's speech and language skills and the system's performance. The complexity level of the selected words is distributed as follows: 9 level II, 9 level III, and 2 level IV. These included words with two and three syllables. The data shown in Table 1 was obtained from this evaluation.

TABLE 1
PRECISION, INVERSE PRECISION, AND ACCURACY OF THE SATEL'S DIAGNOSTIC MODULE.
The User Identifier Consists Of A Unique Id Followed By The User's Gender – M (Male) Or F (Female) – And Age.

User	Proper identification of correct pronunciations	Precision	Proper identification of incorrect pronunciations	Inverse Precision	Accuracy
1-M7	4 out of 4	100%	16 out of 16	100%	100%
2-M5	6 out of 7	85.71%	11 out of 13	84.61%	85%
3-M5	2 out of 2	100%	18 out of 18	100%	100%
4-M5	5 out of 5	100%	15 out of 15	100%	100%
5-M4	7 out of 8	87.50%	11 out of 12	91.60%	90.00%
6-F6	0 out of 0	—	20 out of 20	100%	100%
7-M5	5 out of 6	83.30%	14 out of 14	100%	95.00%
8-M6	4 out of 5	80.00%	15 out of 15	100%	95.00%
9-M6	3 out of 4	75.00%	15 out of 16	93.75%	90.00%
10-M6	0 out of 0	—	19 out of 20	95.00%	95.00%
11-F6	4 out of 5	80.00%	14 out of 15	93.33%	90.00%
12-M6	6 out of 6	100%	12 out of 14	85.71%	90.00%
13-M6	2 out of 3	66.66%	17 out of 17	100%	95.00%
14-M6	7 out of 7	100%	11 out of 13	84.61%	90.00%
15-M5	6 out of 7	85.71%	13 out of 13	100%	95.00%
16-M7	10 out of 11	90.90%	8 out of 9	88.88%	90.00%
17-F6	6 out of 7	85.71%	12 out of 13	92.30%	90.00%
18-M6	3 out of 4	75.00%	16 out of 16	100%	95.00%
19-F6	6 out of 6	100%	14 out of 14	100%	100%
20-M6	5 out of 5	100%	15 out of 15	100%	100%
21-M4	0 out of 0	—	20 out of 20	100%	100%
22-M4	7 out of 8	87.50%	12 out of 12	100%	95.00%
23-F6	4 out of 4	100%	14 out of 16	87.50%	90.00%
24-F6	7 out of 7	100%	13 out of 13	100%	100%
25-M6	11 out of 11	100%	8 out of 9	88.88%	95.00%
26-M5	9 out of 9	100%	9 out of 11	81.81%	90.00%
	129 out of 141	91.65%	362 out of 379	94.92%	94.42%

The precision of SATEL varies depending on the detection of correct or incorrect pronunciations. A better performance was observed in identifying words pronounced incorrectly (*TN*), with 94.92% correct identifications. The precision of the system was lower in detecting correct pronunciations. However, an acceptable performance was observed, with an average precision of 91.65%. It should be noted that there were nearly three times more incorrect pronunciations than correct ones; this behaviour is considered normal because the test was conducted with children facing SLI. Overall, for the diagnostic module, the accuracy of SATEL in the detection of both correct and incorrect pronunciations was 94.42%.

The first column in Table 1 (User) uses a letter and number combination to indicate the gender (female or male) and age of children participating in the study. SATEL's performance is consistent regardless of age and gender. The accuracy of the system was 94.44% and 94.41% for children 4-5 and 6-7 years old, respectively; and 95.00% and 94.25% for girls and boys, respectively.

C. Treatment Module

The performance evaluation for the treatment module was carried out with 15 of the 26 students who participated in the previous evaluation: 11 boys and 4 girls. The objective of this evaluation was to assess SATEL's precision and accuracy in identifying correct and incorrect pronunciations of words and syllables. As mentioned in algorithm 2, children were asked to pronounce 5 previously selected words on the basis of their diagnosis results. Whenever they said a word incorrectly twice, they were asked to pronounce the syllables in that word. Our evaluation of SATEL's ability to classify pronunciations takes into account each individual child's pronunciation of words and syllables, resulting in a different number of evaluations for each child (see Table 2).

TABLE 2
PRECISION, INVERSE PRECISION, AND ACCURACY OF THE SATEL'S TREATMENT MODULE.
The User Identifier Consists Of A Unique ID Followed By The User's Gender – M (Male) Or F (Female) – And Age.

User	Proper identification of correct pronunciations	Precision	Proper identification of incorrect pronunciations	Inverse Precision	Accuracy
1-M6	2 out of 2 (0)*	100%	15 out of 16 (9)*	93.75%	94.44%
2-M5	0 out of 0 (0)*	100%	21 out of 21 (11)*	100%	100%
3-M6	2 out of 2 (1)*	100%	19 out of 19 (10)*	100%	100%
4-F6	5 out of 5 (4)*	100%	12 out of 13 (5)*	92.30%	94.44%
5-M4	4 out of 4 (2)*	100%	10 out of 10 (4)*	100%	100%
6-M5	1 out of 1 (1)*	100%	20 out of 20 (10)*	100%	100%
7-F6	1 out of 1 (0)*	100%	18 out of 19 (10)*	94.73%	95.00%
8-M6	4 out of 4 (3)*	100%	12 out of 13 (4)*	92.30%	94.11%
9-M5	1 out of 1 (1)*	100%	21 out of 21 (11)*	100%	100%
10-M4	2 out of 2 (2)*	100%	15 out of 16 (7)*	93.75%	94.44%
11-M4	5 out of 5 (2)*	100%	10 out of 10 (4)*	100%	100%
12-M5	2 out of 2 (0)*	100%	13 out of 14 (7)*	92.85%	93.75%
13-M6	3 out of 3 (2)*	100%	19 out of 19 (10)*	100%	100%
14-F6	3 out of 3 (2)*	100%	16 out of 16 (8)*	100%	100%
15-F6	3 out of 3 (0)*	100%	10 out of 10 (4)*	100%	100%
	38 out of 38	100%	231 out of 237	97.31%	97.75%

*(number of evaluated syllables)

From these results, a fairly similar level of precision was observed in SATEL's classification of incorrect pronunciations. A slight increase of 2.39% was observed in the treatment module. As for correct pronunciations, the results of the experiment showed that 100% precision was achieved. This excellent performance was obtained as a result of considering the evaluation of syllable pronunciation (the number of syllables evaluated is given in brackets). The treatment module exhibited 97.75% accuracy in the detection of pronunciations, both correct and incorrect, which the creators of the system consider a remarkable performance for this version of SATEL. Again, SATEL's performance is consistent regardless of age and gender, exhibiting only a slight variation. The accuracy of the system was 98.31% and 97.25% for children 4-5 and 6-7 years old, respectively; and 97.36% and 97.89% for girls and boys, respectively.

In general, SATEL's ability to identify the correct and incorrect pronunciation of words is outstanding. The use of the confidence index to identify incorrect pronunciations, implemented through the classification algorithms, allowed the system to perform its work effectively, achieving an error rate in accuracy of 5% or less. Furthermore, system performance improves considerably when evaluating the pronunciation of syllables. In this case, when classifying words and syllables, SATEL exceeded the researchers' expectations with around 98% accuracy. However, these outcomes indicate that SATEL performance may be affected by several factors, including word length and the combination of certain syllables.

Another important point to note is the performance of SATEL at an individual level. From this perspective, the lowest classification accuracy during the diagnostic process was 85%; this only occurred in one case. On the other hand, classification accuracy for 57% of children was 95% or more. Similarly, for the treatment module, individual accuracy was 95% or more for 67% of users. These outcomes indicate an adequate performance in general and in individual cases.

Finally, the use of SATEL's ontology was adequate to provide personalized assistance within the treatment module. Once the SLI diagnostic process had been conducted, SATEL was able to personalize treatment therapies by asking for the pronunciation of specific words and syllables according to the children's language deficiencies.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORK

This paper described the SATEL system, a computer-based tool intended to complement and reinforce SLI therapies. Unlike current computer-based systems supporting SLI, SATEL integrates language therapists' two main activities: diagnosis and treatment. This paper proposes an ontology to represent the knowledge of speech-language specialists and presents the results of an evaluation of SATEL performance conducted with children facing SLI.

An outstanding system performance was achieved in terms of identifying correct and incorrect words and syllables spoken by children facing SLI. The outcomes indicate that the system, supported by the Kinect sensor, is able to evaluate children's pronunciations with accuracy of 94.42% and 97.75% for the diagnostic and treatment modules, respectively. Using the Kinect sensor and the information provided by its development libraries, SATEL is able to identify correct or incorrect pronunciations of words and phonemes with a high confidence level.

Previous studies on the use of computer-assisted tools to support language learning, specifically in the case of SLI, have emphasized the use of specific multimedia elements to support children in mastering pronunciation skills. Different technologies and learning strategies have been proposed and implemented, such as the use of computer animations, computer games, and mobile technologies. While this interactive approach is fully supported by the authors of this study, it is also complemented by two main characteristics: the design and implementation of an ontology-based knowledge base and a set of algorithms to personalize instruction.

SATEL's threefold ontological scheme enables the integration and linkage of the syllables and phonemes of existing

words. Even though the words currently available in the SATEL ontology are limited to the system's needs, this knowledge representation is scalable and versatile; it can be easily adapted to many different language learning activities. On the other hand, the implemented algorithms provide the capacity to personalize instruction.

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‘EMI Is a War’ – Lecturers’ Practices of, and Insights Into English Medium Instruction Within the Context of Sri Lankan Higher Education

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Abstract—English Medium Instruction (EMI) is a growing educational praxis in the world. Sri Lanka also practises EMI in primary, secondary and university education contexts. Nevertheless, EMI is not adequately researched: the existing scholarship alludes to the significance of its context-dependency (e.g., Snchez-Prez, Maria del Mar 2020). Moreover, there is a lacuna of scholarly knowledge of how EMI works in Sri Lankan educational contexts. Hence, this exploratory study examined lecturers’ practices of, and insights into, EMI within the context of Sri Lankan higher education. The data were drawn from in-depth qualitative interviews with ten lecturers who teach Social Sciences through EMI at three state universities in the country. Interviewees – encompassing males and females and belonging to varying age groups – have a range of EMI teaching experience and different professional and educational qualifications. Qualitative thematic analysis was utilised to uncover themes related to EMI in the data. Findings disclose a few issues and problems associated with EMI. They underscore the belief that EMI enhances L2 (Second Language) proficiency, thus creating a space for job opportunities for undergraduates, and higher education and professional development for both lecturers and students. Nevertheless, EMI is problematic mainly due to (i) low L2 proficiency in both lecturers and students, (ii) lecturers’ inconsistent praxis in assessing and teaching students, (iii) the shortage of training programmes on EMI, and (iv) arbitrary administration issues including the recruitment of EMI lecturers. The paper provides insights into EMI implementation in English as L2 contexts and adds new vocabulary to EMI praxis and research.

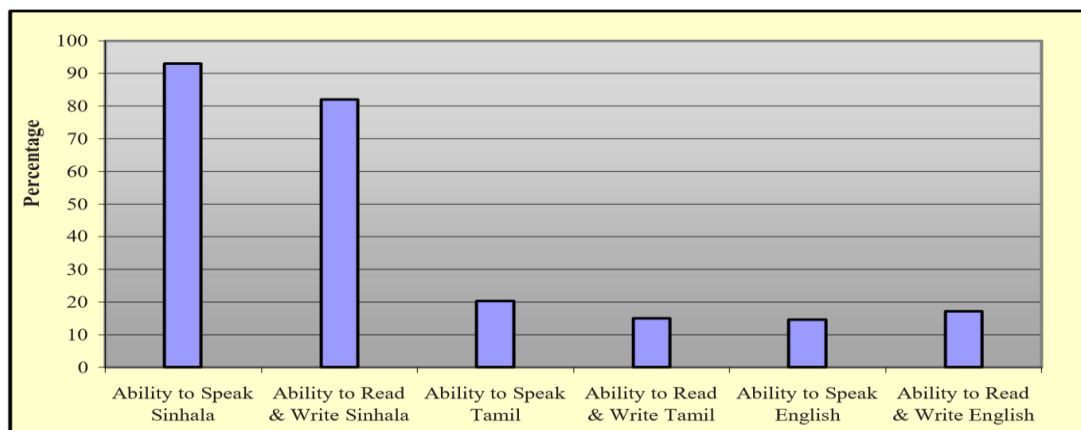
Index Terms—EMI, interview, thematic analysis, perception, Sinhala, L1 and L2

I. INTRODUCTION

English has been at the centre of numerous globalisation mechanisms since the late 20th century. It is considered the language of opportunity, thus as pivotal in relation to the progress of, *inter alia*, technology, business, medicine, internationalisation and education. Given that, the use of English as a medium of instruction for educational purposes – regardless of what language/s learners speak as of their First Language (L1) – has become a common currency in many non-English speaking countries, both in the once-colonised countries by the British, and/or in the developing countries (Coleman, 2006; Wa ¨chter & Maiworm, 2008). Countries, where English lacks any official recognition, also offer courses in the medium of English endorsing the ‘coveted internationalisation’ through higher education (Llurda, 2013, p. 497). Accordingly, English Medium Instruction, henceforth EMI – meaning, English as the medium of instruction in contexts where English is not commonly spoken (Dearden & Macaro, 2016) – has been a burgeoning educational praxis. Sri Lanka has also been in this practice of EMI, not only in primary and secondary education contexts, but also in universities since the 1990s.

Language Use in Sri Lanka

English is the link language in Sri Lanka, while Sinhala and Tamil are the two national languages. Closely consistent with the population, literacy rates in Sinhala and Tamil languages (Figure 1) are 81.8% and 14.9% respectively: approximately 17% of the population can read and write English while only about 13% of the population can speak English (Department of Census and Statistics, 2014).



(Source: Department of Census and Statistics, 2014)

Figure One Language Use in Sri Lanka

Although English is taught as a compulsory subject (as a Second Language) from Grade 3 (at the age of 8 years) onwards in schools, only about 50% of candidates have been securing pass grades at the General Certificate of Education (Ordinary Level) examination for three decades (Department of Examinations of Sri Lanka). Moreover, regarding English skills, Sri Lanka has secured only the 78th position out of 100 countries in the world and the 18th out of 28 countries in Asia (Global Ranking of Countries and Regions, 2019). Evidently, Sri Lankans' English skills have been at a low ebb for decades.

It is against this backdrop that the state universities in Sri Lanka offer EMI classes. In line with the policy of 'free education' in Sri Lanka, the cost for undergraduate education in state universities is borne by the government, hence, the admission of undergraduates is limited, based on students' Z-score values, merit and district quota (Universities Act, 1978). As per the University Act, the Minister of Higher Education has the authority to decide on the medium of instruction at state universities: nevertheless, each university, as 'autonomous bodies', can exercise its discretion regarding EMI implementation and praxis (Attanayake, 2017, 91).

At the dawn of independence from the British administration, EMI was confined to Medical, Engineering and Science Faculties at Sri Lankan state universities. Since the beginning of the 21st century, EMI has been practised even in the Faculties of Humanities and Social Sciences of universities, which have traditionally relied on Sinhala or Tamil as their primary medium of instruction. Evidently, EMI is swiftly outspread to domains where national languages have been the focus. Therefore, EMI warrants research: this study explores lecturers' practices of, and insights into English medium instruction in selected state universities.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

EMI is relatively a new research topic: only a single scientific study had been in existence on EMI prior to 2000, which is Vinke's (1995) study from the Netherlands which underscored the significance of Mother Tongue (MT) in lecture comprehension (Macaro, Curle, Pun, An & Dearden, 2018). Maiworm & Wächter's (2002) study is the first to explore the growth of English-taught programmes in Europe, while Dearden's (2015) study is the first to map the global expansion of EMI. Given the exponential growth of EMI since the early 21st century, the overall EMI implementation picture has been the focus in scholarship (Ammon & McConnell, 2002; Maiworm & Wächter, 2002; Macaro et al., 2018; Wächter and Maiworm, 2008).

EMI is frequently adopted in countries where the national language is not widely spoken, such as the Netherlands, Germany, Finland, and Sweden (Byun, 2011). It has also been widespread in Asia (Naun, 2003), especially in former British colonies such as India, Singapore, Malaysia, and Hong Kong (Altbach 2004). EMI is a means to cope with internationalisation in Asian countries such as China, Japan and Korea (Lassegard 2006; Manakul, 2007; Tsuneyoshi, 2005; Yumei 2010). For instance, along the lines of internationalisation, EMI is a 'strategic response to the increasingly competitive academic market' (Kim & Tarter, 2018, p. 403), a window for innovation (Byun et al., 2011), a path for future prospects (Collins, 2010) and academic disciplinary requirements (Evans & Morrison, 2011).

Nevertheless, the implementation of EMI programmes is not without challenges and negative effects, as disclosed through many meticulous case studies, which have shown both analogous and disparate results. EMI programmes in China and Japan are promoted by the governments (Macaro et al., 2018), while Taiwanese universities have initiated EMI without the government's top-down policy (Yang 2015). Teachers' and students' English language proficiency is not a crucial obstacle in European universities (Maiworm & Wächter 2002; Wächter and Maiworm 2008), although Erling and Hilgendorf's (2006) study of a German university attests it otherwise. Students' low proficiency in English is a barrier to comprehension of the subject content (e.g., Belhiah & Elhami, 2015; Goodman, 2014; Huang, 2015; Soruç & Griffiths, 2018). This leads EMI lecturers to focus on the content, ignoring the language, as revealed through Roothoof's (2019) comparative study of Humanities and STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics)

in a Spanish context.

Further, Zhang (2017) uncovers that the current main problem in China's EMI policies lies in non-English speaking lecturers' language practices. Lecturers' subject knowledge and English language proficiency are equally important for the success of EMI (Hoare, 2003; Kirkgöz, 2005, 2013; Sert, 2008). Further, Tsuneyoshi's (2005) study of a University in Tokyo shows the insufficient assistance for language development as a barrier for EMI. It adds that insufficiency in securing capable lecturers in EMI and lack of proper compensation for EMI lecturers who take the challenge are constraints. The lack of interaction between teachers and students, and scarcity of feedback in EMI classes (Kang & Park, (2004) are also main obstacles for EMI. Despite Airey's (2012, 2020) suggestion that content lecturers should reflect on their students' linguistic goals, lecturers' inadequate English language competency is a hindrance to achieving it. Accordingly, inadequate language competence is the main obstacle to both acquire and/or disseminate the content knowledge correctly.

Comparative studies on EMI and students' L1 also have added much insight to the existing scholarship on EMI. L1 is more useful both in comprehending the information and in gaining conceptual insights of the content (Coşkun, et al., (2014), and in sustaining the knowledge (Kirkgöz, 2014) than an L2. Three common negative EMI characteristics are (i) lack of interaction between students and teachers, when non-English speaking teachers conduct EMI classes (Airey & Linder 2006), (ii) less coverage of syllabi (Klaassen & Graaff, 2001; Vinke et al., 1998), and (iii) lack of efficiency and professionalism in disseminating knowledge (Sert, 2008; Vinke et al. 1998). EMI creates negative effects on non-English speaking teachers and/or L1 (e.g., Hoare, 2003; Klaassen & De Graaff, 2001; Kirkgöz, 2005). It creates the potential to distance one from his/her national language (Kirkgöz, 2005), and to develop Mother Tongue attrition and cultural identity loss (Smith, 2004), resulting in 'linguistic genocide' (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000, 174). Despite the growth of EMI, it is also not without resistance (Macaro et al, 2018).

While EMI in Asian countries is under-researched (Byun, 2011), there is a dearth of research on EMI in Sri Lanka. Wedikkarage (2009) highlights that EMI is solely an authoritative and administrative decision in Sri Lankan school contexts, and a failure due to the lack of language proficiency: neither the teachers nor the students are 'comfortable,' and only 7% of the population, in general, are competent in English (2009: 264). Concurring with Wedikkarage's study, Medawattegedera (2011) reveals – through an ethnographic case study of EMI science classes in four schools in Sri Lankan public schools – a considerable discrepancy between policy and practice and a variation of policy implementation across different school types. Nevertheless, she argues for the acceptance of code-switching as a pragmatic approach in schools to overcome the language issue. Consonant with Collins' (2010) study, Thirunavukarsu's (2012) study conducted in a district (where the Tamil language is predominantly used) in Sri Lanka reiterates the necessity of EMI as a route to enhance English skills, and for upward social mobility. In line with Dearden's (2015) study of 60 countries, including Sri Lanka, there is a trend towards EMI backed by the government: yet, as she contends there is the potential for the national languages to be undermined.

Research findings on EMI are inconsistent: whether EMI enhances or downgrades the educational outcomes is unresolved (Berriz, 2006; Graddol, 2005, 2006; Wright, 2004). Given the diversity in research findings, the paucity of Sri Lankan contexts, and the lacuna of a single study on Sri Lankan university lecturers' perceptions on and practices, EMI warrants research on this global phenomenon.

Research objective

The exploratory study aimed to examine the lecturers' practices of, and perceptions on EMI from state universities in Sri Lanka, seeking to answer: (i) lecturers' experiences and the role as practitioners of EMI, (ii) what challenges and issues they encounter in practicing EMI, and (iii) what they have observed in students in EMI classes by utilising in-depth interviews.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Study Context

The research was conducted at three state universities in Sri Lanka. Each gained its university status in 1958, 1995 and 1996 respectively, and currently practise EMI in subjects of humanities and social sciences. Undergraduate education is state-funded and offered free of charge in these universities. The student population (as internal students) pursuing subjects in humanities and social sciences in these three universities is 6000 approximately.

B. Participants

1. Interviewees

Interviewees include ten EMI university lecturers. The group of interviewees (Table 1) – who encompass both males and females, belonging to varying age categories— have a range of university teaching experience and different professional and educational qualifications. The selection of the interviewees was based on the prior information collected through a questionnaire from all the lecturers who teach subjects related to humanities and social sciences in EMI in the three universities concerned. Ten interviewees, who conduct lectures both in English and Sinhala were included for their comprehensive views on EMI. Henceforth, they are identified with pseudonyms: Ranjith, Rangga, Chapa, Pathum, Mahela, Geetha, Namal, Pavani, Bandara and Rosy.

TABLE ONE
PROFILE OF THE INTERVIEWEES

Name	Age group	Gender	Teaching experience by years (appr.)
Ranjith	40-45	Male	18
Rangga	50-55	Male	20
Chapa	45-50	Female	20
Pathum	55-60	Male	18
Mahela	55-60	Male	26
Geetha	35-40	Female	8-9
Namal	35-40	Male	8-9
Pavani	40-45	Female	12
Rosy	35-40	Female	8-9
Bandara	30-35	Male	5

2. Interviewers-Cum-Researchers

The information collected from interviews is considered as edifices; hence, it is imperative to provide an explanation of the researchers' relationship to English. Interviewers-cum-researchers – two females and one male – are non-native speakers of English and are Senior Lecturers at a Department of English at a state university in Sri Lanka. None of them is an EMI lecturer, yet each holds more than 18 years of experience in teaching English to undergraduates.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

A qualitative interview paradigm was employed to collect data by visiting all three universities. As per the ethical considerations, formal consent was sought from the participants and the universities; their right of withdrawal was given at any point without any negative consequences, and anonymity and confidentiality were assured. Each lecturer was interviewed in-depth, and face-to-face for approximately 60 minutes using a semi-structured interview format. Each participant was given the interview schedule in advance and was informed of the focus and the data collection stratagem. With a view to obtaining a better in-depth understanding of EMI, they were expected to use either English or Sinhala for the conversation, and assurance was given that their English proficiency would not be judged. The interview included the following questions, albeit unrestricted and interactive.

- (1) How did you enter EMI?
- (2) How do you position your English language proficiency/English background to teach in English?
- (3) Do you follow any special teaching strategies in EMI classrooms?
- (4) Are there any differences in teaching in EMI and in L1 classrooms?
- (5) Are you concerned with students' language acquisition in EMI classrooms?
- (6) Do you assess students in EMI and Sinhala/Tamil medium classrooms in the same way?
- (7) What issues do you face in EMI classes, if any?
- (8) Do you think EMI improves students' English proficiency English?

A qualitative thematic analysis (Guest, G. et. al. 2012) was used to examine and identify different patterns of meaning across the collected data, transcribed verbatim, through a rigorous process of data familiarization.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of the current study are organised under five main themes as presented in Figure 2.

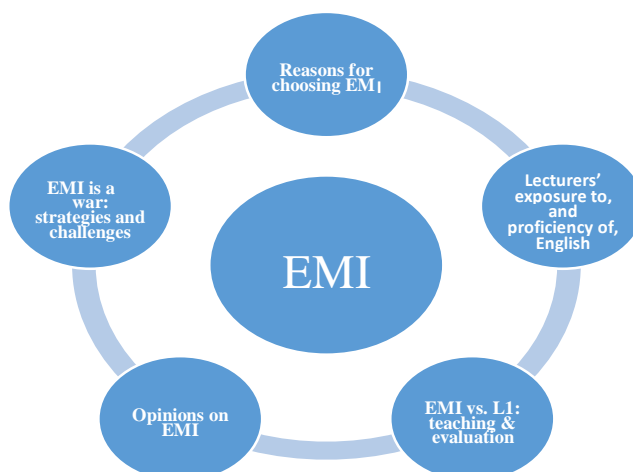


Figure Two Findings-Emergent Themes

A. Lecturers' Exposure to, and Proficiency of, English

A preliminary finding of this study was the lecturers' positioning of their exposure to, and proficiency of, English. The ascending order of language competence followed in the study is as follows: poor; fair; average; good; very good and excellent. Each participant's L1 is Sinhala. Nine of them revealed the dearth of exposure to English in their home contexts: Namal overtly stated 'both my mother and father can't write or read anything, even in Sinhala'. Each participant's primary and secondary education had been in Sinhala. Except for Chapa, others confirmed that their English language competence was 'very poor' at schools. Each participant had obtained his/her first degree from a Sri Lankan state university: six in Sinhala and four in English. Nine participants have obtained at least one postgraduate degree in the medium of English. As at the beginning of their EMI career, or prior to their postgraduate studies, each sans Chapa positioned his/her English language competence either as 'poor' or as 'fair.' Only Chapa rated her current competence in English as 'very good,' while nine positioned it as 'average': in other words, coinciding with Jiang et al. (2019), all participants currently positioned themselves as capable of using English to present subject knowledge. Nevertheless, many of them expressed their lack of confidence regarding English skills, for instance, as overtly expressed by Pavani: 'I don't think I have the *capacity* [original emphasis] to teach in English'.

The common consensus is that those who have higher exposure to English will acquire the language better, and will communicate better; hence, they will disseminate correctly and confidently the content of the subject in EMI (e.g., Erling & Hilgendorf, 2006; Jiang et al., 2019). In view of that, whether many members in the current study adequately disseminate the expected content knowledge and develop skills in EMI classes, especially in subjects of humanities and social sciences, is skeptical. This concurs with the findings of Asian EMI contexts where English is not used as an L1 (Erling & Hilgendorf, 2006; Maiworm & Wachter, 2002).

B. Reasons for Choosing EMI

The commitment to the career is generally perceived as the main reason for entering the teaching profession (Cole, 1985; Hansen, 1995). Nevertheless, findings of this study revealed that it is deviant, and three-fold: (i) institutional decision enforced on lecturers (ii) social prestige and personal benefits for lecturers because of English, and (iii) subject related requirements.

1. Institutional Decision Enforced on Lecturers

Five participants overtly revealed that they were unexpectedly enforced into EMI by the university authorities, the Vice-chancellors, and the Deans, either at the recruitment interviews or during the probationary period of their profession, as elaborated in the different excerpts given below.

Our Vice-chancellor "straight" asked us to do EMI ... we were "forced" to take EMI classes during our probationary period. The Dean also asked us to teach by "using our little knowledge" of English. He said we needed to produce graduates who would "know some English" so it would be "our victory". (Mahela)

When we entered the university [for recruitment interviews], we were asked whether we could teach in English. If we had said "no", we wouldn't have been selected. (Namal)

Only when the [faculty] prospectus was given, I got to know that I had to teach in English. (Pavani)

It was a decision thrust on me. (Rosy)

I would be "lying" if I said I did EMI classes "willingly" (Pathum)

We were influenced to teach in English by "rote learning" of lessons... some [were] successful, some failed. (Mahela)

Rangga also recalled how he implemented EMI in his Department during his tenure as the Head in 2014. This apparently was an impromptu Department decision taken by the Head, not a forceful thrust by the Vice Chancellor.

Evidently, most lecturers have been forcefully taken into EMI programmes. Hence, the reasons for entering EMI cannot be perceived as lecturers' commitment to the profession, but their subjection to the force of circumstances by the authority.

2. Social Prestige, and Personal Benefits and Preference

Except for Chapa, all others either implicitly or explicitly expressed that EMI is beneficial to enhance their own English skills and to gain social prestige. They could improve their English skills by being in EMI programmes and consequently they could gain academic qualifications related to the English language.

I'm happy to teach in English for two reasons. It gives an opportunity for us to improve our English, ... students will also get the opportunity to improve their English; so willingly or unwillingly teaching in English is important. (Rosy)

Pavani implied that EMI is beneficial to obtain International English Language Testing System (IELTS) qualification, hence, to expedite the path for her higher education scholarship. Meanwhile, the reasons for Chapa's and Rosy's preference to teach in EMI to L1 classes are twofold: Chapa stated that she feels more confident and comfortable in teaching in English, while Rosy recollected that she was a graduate of EMI in her BA Degree, hence, she prefers English to L1 for teaching. Ostensibly, despite the initial forceful engagement in EMI, lecturers currently engage in EMI willingly, as English skills are perceived to be obligatory for socio-economic progression, consonant with previous

studies (Farrell & Giri, 2011; Hornberger & Vaish, 2009; Phillipson, 2001; Stroud & Wee, 2005). Hence, it was socio-cultural and educational demand associated with the English language which allowed lecturers to take advantage of the opportunities that presented themselves, even though by the authority.

3. Subject-Related Terminology Requirements

Two participants stated that English is required to teach some science-related subjects as there are no Sinhala equivalents for some terminology. However, unlike technical subjects like mathematics and computer engineering, the overall aim of the humanities and social sciences is to empower students with a wider knowledge and skills to gain a pluralistic view of human problems and society. Hence, language competence should not be confined to the delineation of terminology, which requires future research.

C. 'EMI is a War': Strategies and Challenges

Noticeable pragmatic strategies and challenges in EMI are reported below with excerpts depicting separate circumstances – both recurring and isolated features. They can be summed up in the metaphor used by Mahela: 'EMI is a war for teachers and students as both were in the same boat' regarding English. All the participants with no hesitation admitted that their EMI teaching greatly depends on the PowerPoint slides prepared in advance.

Given the unfamiliarity and limited competence in English, lecturers have to spend much time and effort in preparing for EMI, including the notes to be read out in class, and the sentences needed to explain the PowerPoint slides and the lesson. Evidently, EMI teaching is often at the mercy of the PowerPoint slides, hence problematizes the students' conceptualisation of the content of the subjects. The following excerpts provide detailed testimony.

When I do a presentation... PowerPoint in English. I remember now... at the beginning of my EMI, I used to write down "all what I would say in class". I "write from A to Z of what I tell the students". I didn't mean that I read out all what I wrote, but "I write all". (Pavani)

We ... keeping dictionaries near us ... staying up all night...that's how we did, ...that's how we tried, even now... I do it for 2- 6 hours for a session, excluding the [time taken to prepare notes. (Mahela)

My "mouth aches" from the reading for two hours. I must read out the slides and display them...have to prepare notes for the ones I don't not read out. It's such a "trouble". (Rosy)

All unanimously agreed that the interaction in EMI classrooms in English—be they teacher-students or among students—was highly limited. Of the random interaction in class, most were teacher-initiated between the teacher and the whole class. The major reason is the language weakness both in lecturers and students. As such, most of the participants agreed that they were not resistant to students' usage of L1 for any interaction, while five of the interviewees admitted that bilingualism is welcome in classrooms. For instance, Bandara stated, 'Students often ask questions in Sinhala in EMI classes.' Mahela revealed how L1 was used for the dissemination of the EMI lesson. 'We used both English and Sinhala at the beginning of our EMI classes. During a two-hour session, we used to teach only for 20 minutes in English. The rest was conducted in Sinhala. It is a common understanding that English should be considered as the language of communication for all EMI-related activities: the delivery of lectures, students' group work, the teacher-student interaction, the student-student interaction, classroom group discussions, and formative and summative assessments. Nevertheless, the actual use of English in EMI classrooms is often confined to the reading of PowerPoint slides and the teacher-prepared notes.

What is also implicitly reflected through participants' strenuous exclusive preparation is EMI lecturers' lack of communication power in English, in contrast to the findings of previous studies (Björkman 2009; Kaur 2009; Mauranen 2009). As rightly noted by Doiz and Lasagabaste (2020), EMI in our study is also an 'onerous' task for many lecturers. To disseminate knowledge properly, language issues in EMI should be addressed in a more integrated and comprehensive way (Doiz and Lasagabaster, 2020). Nevertheless, EMI reduced lecturers' abilities to improvise and to express their subject knowledge clearly and accurately.

The major problem in this regard lies in the process of recruitment of lecturers for EMI. Despite their [relatively] poor English language proficiency, and lack of confidence to teach in English, EMI is a direct or indirect thrust on the lecturers. Moreover, despite the suggestion that all EMI lecturers should reflect on the linguistic goals of their students (e.g., Airey, 2012, and 2020), our study reports it slightly differently, as the English language was a communication hurdle for the majority of the participants themselves.

However, many of the participants considered it their duty or responsibility to teach English: the reasons apparently are three-fold: (i) lecturers' own lack of competence in English (nine out of ten participants), (ii) the absence of skills to teach English and (iii) the feasibility aspects such as insufficient time. Many of them often define the subject-specific terminology, while only Bandara admitted his efforts to teach English: 'I teach English to students during lectures ... take about half an hour and teach English, ...especially tenses, simple grammar points and sentence patterns'. Yet, all these teaching gestures are only for the purpose of enabling content communication.

Moreover, the lecturers taken for the study practised stratagem of somewhat varied quality: modified teacher talk, group activities, extracurricular activities in English and extension of lecture duration. To eliminate students' language barrier, Chapa employs modified teacher talk when clarifying the content, while Rangga includes writing activities in English during lectures, as demonstrated through the following excerpts.

I speak in English "slowly" for the English medium students... I always try to use "simple English" ...I just

don't want to use very "big words". (Chapa)

One teaching technique I do is after about half an hour, I give students some "writing activities". Unlike students in L1 class, students in EMI are "weak" ... They "can't write". So, I sometimes give them some "samples". (Rangga)

Referring to a personal anecdote, Chapa stated the necessity and significance of student-led activities through EMI despite students' language barriers.

Students are really catching up the language and the subject, because... I'm an example for that also, whatever I did at home... when I came first year to the campus and started learning in English its completely different. I was thousand times better during my final year than my first year... teaching methods really matter here. (Chapa)

What was also noticed from three other lecturers is the way they motivate students to engage in extra-curricular activities in English. For instance, Pavani stated, 'We have a society called Nature Club. We ask students to take down the minutes [of the meetings] in English. So, they can develop their English'. Besides, Rangga stated that he doubles the duration of his EMI lectures, not the L1 instruction classes. This bears a close resemblance to the findings from two other lecturers.

Generally, for my EMI lectures, I double the usual time... I take four hours to do a two-hour lecture...because its time consuming when I do extra activities. In Sinhala medium classes, it is only the explanation. (Rangga)

Further, the study also revealed how linguistic challenges in EMI can result in psychological challenges. For instance, Namal narrated how 'a senior experienced lecturer was *shivering* [original emphasis] while conducting an EMI session.' Mahela also expressed how he feels less confident in EMI classes: 'explaining the *subject matter* is *ok* now but going beyond that...I am *scared* [original emphasis] to tell a joke [in English], if students laugh at me.' This inconsistently alludes to the contention that telling jokes and personal anecdotes in L1 is helpful to build rapport with the students and sustain their attention (Kim & Tatar, 2017). Mahela also recalled whenever he made language blunders in EMI classes, he was 'upset' and 'confused' and it took about '20 minutes' from the session for him to recover from the psychological trauma. Such circumstances problematise as to whether and how the students have gained the content knowledge along the lecturers' continuum of L1 acquisition.

Given the lack of competence in English, lecturers attempt to facilitate teaching and classroom interaction through some strategies. Such approaches are mainly three-fold, albeit in different quantities (i) by accommodating bilingualism – incorporating students and lecturers' first language through code-switching or code-mixing; (ii) rephrasing and repeating the presentation of lectures, and (iii) expanding lecture duration. The recurrent strategy that the majority practised was the use of bilingualism. In learning unfamiliar and complex subject knowledge in EMI contexts, as posited in literature (Toribio 2004; Ong et al., 2013), students' cognitive capacity is challenged both by the content and the language. To assist students' comprehension and to eliminate nonunderstanding, strategies such as code switching and code mixing can be productive, as suggested by Medawattegedara (2011). L1 in EMI contexts is 'crucial for social and instructional purposes and for their own time management' (Kim & Tatar, 2017, p. 157). However, in the current study, meaning construction and transmission in this way depended mainly on written texts on the PowerPoint slides, for instance, learners' reading comprehension skills in English.

To reiterate, for subjects in humanities and social sciences, semantics is also pivotal, as they aim to offer pluralistic views of society. Besides, modified teacher-talk paves the way for effective communication, which is congruent with previous research findings (Björkman 2011 & Jian 2019). It enhances intelligibility in EMI class, and may have compensated for participants' insufficient English competence. Nonetheless, it is problematic because many lecturers in our study focused on lexical issues, especially in subject-specific terminology, giving less or no attention to semantic, logical, and grammatical issues. Strategies used in this manner may be more aptly useful for technical subjects such as science, medicine and engineering (Meierkord, 2013), rather than for the subjects of humanities and social sciences, which largely depend not only on technical terms but also on the conceptual descriptions. This exploration resonates with what is reported in Basturkmen & Shackleford's (2015) studies: they highlighted the instances where EMI lecturers largely neglect, grammatical, and discourse features, which are essential to developing proper comprehension and the accurate presentation of the content.

D. EMI vs. L1: Teaching and Evaluation

Regarding the comparative experiences in EMI and L1 classes, teaching and evaluation practices are significant. The recurring feature in teaching praxis is that lecturers never prepare any PowerPoint slides for L1 classes but use the same prepared in English for EMI classes. In other words, Sinhala medium PowerPoint slides have never been prepared for L1 classes due to two reasons: (i) to make students in L1 classes also exposed to English, and (ii) to reduce the workload on lecturers in preparing them in Sinhala. Pathum correctly articulated the consequences.

Sinhala medium students get "two advantages" ... they perceive the lesson in Sinhala, and "capture" the English words on the PowerPoint slides... because they know that English is essential outside the university. (Pathum)

Corresponding to the above, almost all the interviewees agreed that they spent relatively more time preparing for EMI classes, especially at the beginning of their EMI career than in their L1 classes. Unlike in EMI classes, the teacher talk in L1 classrooms is, not solely dependent on, or greatly limited to, the PowerPoint slides, the prepared notes or to

the 'A to Z' written descriptions of the slides. L1 teaching, in contrast, is extensive through examples and anecdotes, given the lecturers' confidence and familiarity in the language. Nine interviewees acknowledged that they were more confident in L1 classes than in EMI, as rightly articulated by Pavani.

When I teach in Sinhala, I am so fluent and "confident" because the lecture is "in my blood", but in EMI classrooms, I get "stuck"...am "confined", and I teach "within a framework"... I use many "examples" in Sinhala medium classroom to explain the lesson, but not in EMI. I know its "unfair by students". (Pavani)

However, two lecturers who had found it very hard to teach in English at the beginning, agreed that currently 'delivering a lecture' in EMI is easier than in L1 contexts, the reason being the prepared PowerPoint slides and their familiarity with the English subject-specific terminology. In addition, for some subjects like Economics, Rosy said it is easy for her to teach in English than in L1 simply because of the absence of subject-specific equivalent vocabulary in Sinhala.

In situations such as those involving the evaluation of examinations and class-based written assignments, all participants overtly or implicitly stressed the importance of leniency and the acceptance of code-mixing and code-switching in assignments. Mahela revealed how they ignore any grammatical, lexical, and semantic errors in the answers: 'Students *tie* [original emphasis] some English words, then two or three Sinhala words in between, almost nonsense at times. But as a team we ignored them in evaluating'. Bandara admitted that they ignore language errors: 'we don't reduce marks for language mistakes or errors'. Pavani underscored the importance of leniency even more strongly.

[When] some students write in Sinhala in the middle of their English answers... we as lecturers become so "helpless". We have discussed such issues within the Department and decided to give marks.... If their language is considered for evaluation ... grammar, spellings etc., we "won't be able to *give any marks*" [meaning we must give zero]. (Pavani)

Rosy justified it by saying that code-mixing is used in lieu of L2 vocabulary. While revealing that student answer in 'Sinhala-English' (an unaccepted variety of English which incorporates many elements of Sinhala), he provides a rationale for the acceptance of such non-academic, non-standard expressions: 'although EMI students understand, they are unable to write [answers] at the exam ... because they can't present their knowledge'. Hence, they are at a 'disadvantage.' To minimise the barrier in writing skills, both Rangga and Chapa suggested extensive group or individual oral presentations as formative assessments. The evaluation practice of leniency and the discretion exercised at individual departments seem quite specific to our study and necessitate future research. Students' non-standard English should be addressed through common national regulations, as Kuteeva (2020, 297) contends, along 'the continuum of standard versus nonstandard language uses.'

Another significant finding is setting the examination papers: EMI examination papers are simply the translated versions of the papers set for L1 students. However, Rangga problematized the credibility of the process: 'Setting exam papers in English is not an easy, simple job. We just translate the Sinhala one, but ... whether we do it correctly is skeptical.'

In brief, there are many discrepancies in the system of teaching, and in the process of evaluation in EMI and L1 classrooms. Non-preparation of L1 PowerPoint slides, the arbitrary extension of lecture duration of EMI classes, and the over-dependence on PowerPoint slides for teaching in EMI classes are a few poignant cases in point. Merciful evaluation and using bilingualism in EMI evaluation are potentially wrought with problems. A crucial outcome is the potential for a weaker student to obtain a better grade than a brighter student because of the evaluation mechanism of EMI. This praxis may lead to unjust treatment, by making both the teaching and assessment processes less reliable.

E. Opinions on EMI

In responding to our inquiry about whether EMI would be an obstacle for the students to perceive and present the abstract and complex concepts in subjects related to humanities and social sciences, many of them considered it as a lapse that can be compensated as students gain a learning context to enhance their English skills. Each of them overtly and intensely communicated the need for EMI programmes for higher education avenues, for career paths, and as ways for internationalisation of the programmes.

Another recurring finding was the dearth of training for EMI lecturers. Despite the majority's perception of the efficacy of the existing EMI programmes, the necessity for continual professional development programmes on EMI for lecturers was highlighted. Four participants also noted that there was a form of resistance to EMI from the non-EMI lecturers, yet it was ignored by the administration and the colleagues, as evidenced through the following testimony.

If we do a special degree, it must be in English. That's my opinion. You know... "without English, we can't do anything" in the future. (Namal)

I have told students that English should not be "allergic" to them (Pavani)

Whatever it takes, learning in English medium is more valuable than studying in Sinhala medium. (Geetha)

Had I studied in English [BA degree], I wouldn't have been [stagnant] in this position today. (Pavani)

Employability opportunities are more in the private sector... English is needed for that. (Bandara)

Yeah ...EMI is needed for all the subjects, because... it's not because I think that English is better than Sinhala.

Of course, we have to preserve Sinhala because it's only here... but if we want to get the kind of development in education, we need English (Chapa)

I blame the university I studied [for my first Degree] for not offering the subjects in English then. (Pavani)

We can hire foreign lecturers through EMI. (Bandara).

I think English should be the national language [to accommodate EMI]. (Namal)

A significant recurring theme of the above excerpts is the overarching importance given to English, by devaluing the learning in L1. The majority while implicitly expressing the disadvantages of learning the content in L1, highlighted that learning in English is prestigious for career, education, and social prestige, concurring with Collins' study (2010). This is an implicit gesture of lack of linguistic power attributed to L1, which bears resemblance to previous studies (Kırkgöz; 2005). Perceptions of this nature may construct an ideology in society that EMI lectures are the only or the main way to provide qualified education in state universities. Moreover, bearing resemblance to previous studies (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000), such perceptions may construct an impact of attrition on L1 education.

In sum, the findings of our study, partly concurring with previous studies (e.g. Macaro et al., 2018) conclude that the current trend of EMI programmes produces more challenges and issues than opportunities for both higher education of lecturers and students. The goal of EMI in humanities and social sciences is not to enhance L2 proficiency *per se*, but to give knowledge and skills needed to address the pluralistic social issues in general. Evidently, the lack of English language competence has largely blundered this goal.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Given the current trend of globalization in the field of education, the expansion of EMI is inevitable at Sri Lankan universities. When measured quantitatively, the general satisfaction level with EMI – its overall efficacy in developing students' English proficiency and the EMI practices at Sri Lankan universities – appears to have produced generally good results. However, as this study has exposed, the compulsory implementation, the trend of EMI without adequate regard to lecturers' English language proficiency, and the lack of professional development systems have produced several negative outcomes in higher education. If implemented without any empirical evidence, EMI programmes are likely to put the higher education system at risk.

Findings offer insights for future EMI policy implementation not only for Sri Lankan universities, but also for any English as Second Language contexts. First, it is crucial to explicitly measure the level of English proficiency required of lecturers for EMI programmes. Then, administrators, who expand EMI without prior implementation plans, should notice that most EMI problems identified in this study were partly due to its mandatory, *ad hoc* implementation. Thirdly, higher educational institutions intending to widen/offer EMI programmes need a proper strategic approach to make them effective, both in teaching and assessment.

Hence, replication studies at different English as Second Language contexts would provide data that may be applied to design an effective implementation strategy for EMI policy. This paper provides an analysis of the EMI practices and lecturers' perceptions at Sri Lankan universities, which can serve as a point of reference for scholars and educators in any English as L2 context.

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Forgotten Time and Valued Space: Montage Narrative in Republican Chinese Women's Literature

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Abstract—In the West, montage was originally practiced in avant-garde movements. Although montage was widely discussed in the Western context since its origin, this concept is also connected to the literature and culture of modern China in a certain way. Among the Republican Chinese writers, many women writers attempted to employ montage narrative in their creative writing. These writers transformed the montage narrative into a gendered one and used it to also secretly realise their attack on male neotraditional ideology. As a narrative strategy, montage provides a narrative possibility for women writers to deconstruct the prevalent discourse on gender roles, and to construct their identity, meanwhile conveying their innovative and unique understanding regarding feminism and modernity in modern China.

Index Terms—montage narrative, Republican China, modernism, women's literature

I. INTRODUCTION

Montage may be generally counted among the principal artistic strategies in modernity, and its impact has been involved in various disciplines, among which the most being widely mentioned is the film. The concept of montage became a popular technique in the film industry by the 1930s. Coming from French, montage means “to mount” or to raise up, and the word is still used in film production where it simply means, “editing”. It was discussed in literature and culture more broadly by Walter Benjamin at that time (Benjamin, 2008).

In the field of literature, the concept of montage refers to the conjoining of heterogeneous discourses in a given text. From the narratological perspective, the deployment of montage signals a shift between narrative voices and sometimes, something like Gérard Genette's extradiegetic narrator. In this way, once montage is understood in narratological terms another historical peculiarity of the fiction may be identified.

Although montage was widely discussed in the Western context since its origin, this concept is also connected to the literature and culture of modern China in a certain way. The association between montage and modernist writing might be considered as an attempt to differentiate one type of writing from other types at that time.

Among the Republican writers, many women writers attempted to employ montage narrative in their creative writing. They seem not to be concerned with chronological sequence in their writing; rather, they indulged in the establishment of a sense of space. For women writers, what they attempted to do was to challenge the recognised world view through constructing unconnected time-streams that might explain the essence of existence. Additionally, montage as a narrative strategy provides a narrative possibility for women writers to deconstruct the prevalent discourse on gender roles, and to construct their identity, meanwhile conveying their innovative and unique understanding regarding feminism and modernity in modern China.

II. DEFINITION OF MONTAGE IN LITERATURE

As we know, montage in the West was originally practiced in avant-garde movements such as Cubism, Dadaism, and Surrealism, so the concept of montage in the field of literature refers to the conjoining of heterogeneous discourses in a given text. Indeed, we may find that not all literature is organised in accordance with the methods and the values of continuity editing, and some instead employ a very different approach in part or a whole, that is, montage. According to Linda Costanzo Cahir, montage editing (in literature or film) is the rhythmic cutting of sentences or shots based on images and emotional responses in relationship to one another. Rather than arranging the paragraphs or shots in accordance with narrative progression, as continuity editing does, montage creates its stream of shots or paragraphs based on the associational relationship of one image to another (Cahir, 2006, p.52).

Many scholars agree that modernist montage in literary works derives from the visual montages of Futurism and Dadaism. It is undeniable that from these modern movements, the practice of montage in literature to some extent adopts formal liberties such as syntactic contractions and breaks, or visualisations through an emphasis on typography as well as the exhibition of words as images and sound (Cahir, 2006, p.53).

To be specific, in a literary text, the writer assembles events and scenes situated in different time and space into one dimension, thereby transcending the limits of time and space to deliver the jumping and disordering nature of human

consciousness across time and space. Dispersing among the textual structure, the employment of montage tends to playfully dissect language itself, breaking down conventional syntax and semantics in the process. Thereby, this kind of skill favours ambiguity, irony, and paradox over narrative unity or totality.

From the narratological perspective, the deployment of montage signals a shift between narrative voices and sometimes, something like Gérard Genette's extradiegetic narrator. In this way, once montage is understood in narratological terms another historical peculiarity of the fiction may be identified. For instance, the 1929 novel *Berlin Alexanderplatz* by Alfred Döblin was widely used as an example to criticise the deployment of montage as a modernist literary technique from the narratological perspective and to "contextualise montage as a narratologically innovative phenomenon which eliminates the figure of the controlling fictional narrator" (Slugan, 2014, p.65).

Overall, the usage of montage in a literary text always puzzles the reader with its fragmentary structure, but as a matter of fact, in this process, the author conveys his or her understanding of the logic of events scenes and characters, presenting a certain system of values which shows that the montage is connected with one certain external ideology.

A. *The Relationship between Montage and Stream of Consciousness*

When it comes to the concept of montage in literature, it is necessary to clarify its relationship with the stream of consciousness.

Although sometimes SOC and montage are often used interchangeably, they should not be equated completely. SOC itself in literature can only be presented by various techniques including montage, whereas montage itself not only can appear independently in a text but also can be a significant narrative strategy to present the stream-of-consciousness phenomenon. In this sense, we can say that montage and SOC partly overlap (Figure 1):

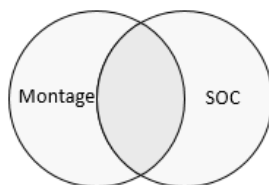


Figure 1

In fiction, writers can use montage to construct different space frames. As for presenting the stream of consciousness, montage has a different manifestation. For example, according to Melvin Friedman, montage consists of time montage and space montage: "Time montage means the protagonist can think about the past, present and future things at the same time. Space montage means the fiction can show different spaces at the same time" (Friedman, 1955, p.168).

B. *Montage in Modern Chinese Literature*

Although montage was widely discussed in the Western context since its origin, this concept is also connected to the literature and culture of modern China in a certain way.

In early modern China, some artists and critics such as Lu Xun, once held a belief in montage as a new vehicle for cultural production and communication (Macdonald, 2007). Also the New Perceptionists, a group of writers in Shanghai in the 1920s and 1930s that includes Liu Na'ou, Shi Zhecun, Mu Shiying, and Ye Lingfeng, occasionally used "montage" to convey a cinematic quality in the writing of their group. For example, it is commonly known that Shi Zhecun attempted some new types of modern literary techniques in his writing, among which montage was one of the ways he used the most. Shu-mei Shih (2001) notes the use of screenplay terminology in Ye Lingfeng's works, and "the fluid movement of a film camera" in Mu Shiying's works. She argues that Mu used montage in several stories, such as "Gongmu" (Public cemetery, 1933), in which many scenes employ montage. For instance, in a scene outside the nightclub, a rickshaw puller in between the Studebakers and Fords, and a pan-shot of people in the city engaged in pleasure and deceit contrasted immediately with the death of a labourer at the construction site. Next, the camera moves from one venue to another without any connection, and the montage is organised around the central image of the eyeballs of the female character, Mrs. Liu, all the time.

In another short story, "Yezonghui li de wuge ren" (Five people in a nightclub, 1932), Mu also makes use of montage, "juxtaposing seemingly irrelevant events occurring at the same time for a combined, associational effect" (Shih, 2001, p.324). In this work, specifically, the energy of the street is conveyed in a stream of words and sentence fragments of montage effect, in which lines are from advertisements, conversational snippets as well as newspaper headlines. The writer's camera-eye pans slowly across several city streets, pausing on a woman applying lipstick, a neon sign, shops and cinema, zooming in to find its target (Mu, 2008).

To some extent, the association between montage and modernist writing might be considered as an attempt to differentiate one type of writing from other types at that time. It may be said that defining the text as "montage" or SOC types privileges them as technically experimental and therefore different from more conventional realist fiction.

III. NARRATIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF REPUBLICAN WOMEN'S WRITING

Many Republican women writers seem not to be concerned with chronological sequence in their writing; rather, they indulged in the establishment of a sense of space.

In Fu Lei's (1908-1966) wide-ranging 1934 essay, "Wenxue duiyu waijie shijie de zhuiqiu" (Literature's pursuit of the reality of external world), he vividly linked the aesthetics of fragmentation and juxtaposition to geographical space and considered montage in his discussion (Fu, 2000). According to Fu Lei, the particular importance of montage in the pursuit of the modern world's reality lay in its ability to "create spaces and subjectivities on the peripheries out of fragmented, transmitted, and juxtaposed images of different places and times" (Fu, 2000, p.219).

It is undeniable that breaking the chronological timeline or using montage narrative was not exclusive to women writers amongst Republican Chinese literati. So, what I would like to highlight is rather the way in which women writers convey their contemplation of the suppression of women's idealism against the milieu of an unchanged society by taking advantage of the narrative and making it prevalent amongst women intellectuals. These writers transformed the montage narrative into a gendered one and used it to also secretly realise their attack on male neotraditional ideology.

Next, I would like to explain these two main characteristics in a broad sense regarding their montage narrative.

A. *The Forgotten Time*

It has been ascertained that the establishment of a sense of space in stream-of-consciousness fiction is independent of the absence of a time sequence. Moreover, we should also recognise the point of existence itself, no matter the break or uncertainty of time flow in the narrative. Hence, before exploring the notion of spatial form, I would like to look at two kinds of specific practice for the unorthodox temporal sequence.

1. *The Discontinuity of Time*

The first temporal type is the discontinuity in the narrative, which can be found in many Republican women writers' literary works. For example, in *Shengsi Chang* (*The field of life and death*, 1935), Xiao Hong arranges a series of discontinuous time sequences, taking advantage of the ordered but jumping seasons to depict the decade, within which there exist two aspects of discontinuity: the skipped seasons, and the interval years in between. Although seemingly the arrangement of seasons is according to the sequence of the regular four seasons: spring, summer, autumn, and winter, the fact is that the ordered seasons do not happen in one year but across several years, and sometimes the season in question is also unclear or absent. Similarly, the arrangement of the years always has uncertain intervals in between, and the length of the interval is left unspecified. In this way, the narrative is provided with relative independence of time, clinging to specific events and scenes.

According to the logical relationship between these events, the time sequence is supposed to be coherent before the ninth chapter in *The Field of Life and Death*, as these story events just happened in one year, while from the ninth chapter to the eleventh chapter, the timeline appears interrupted. It seems that the ninth chapter should follow the eighth chapter, but it seems that there is a particular time gap in between them, and the exact number of years in the gap cannot be confirmed. Following this, the eleventh chapter jumps a decade, and the season of the tenth chapter is indeterminate.

Xiao Hong boldly interspersed a few fragments across ten years of past events, so that the coherent time sequence is presented through several pieces. Thus, time lacks its function as an organising structure for the writing. As Zhao Yuan (1987) comments, *The Field of Life and Death* depicts a four-season flow but it does not take advantage of this implied time sequence to promote the plot. What occupies the framed picture is simply scenes that are depicted skilfully. Similarly, Chen Sihe (2004) argues that in Xiao Hong's works, it is difficult to figure out clues about time. Although seemingly the author arranged some temporal symbols, when reading through it, the reader would always feel that the narrative leaps about all the time, and sometimes several scenes appear simultaneously. It seems that Xiao Hong is fairly skilled at performing her narrative art on the same plane. What Chen describes in terms of the leaping characteristics of this work refers to the SOC phenomenon, and this sort of leaping and omission should be considered as a deliberate arrangement conducted by the author. In a certain sense, the temporal fragmentation is also associated with the strengthening of moments. The author ignores the temporal continuity of narration, and thereby she spends fewer words on the depiction of characters themselves as well as on the event itself. Instead, what she highlights is every extracted moment. In these fragmentary moments, the characters' feeling and consciousness regarding life and death are also magnified. In this way, every moment seems shocking. In the third chapter, for instance, Xiao Hong takes advantage of a whole event to represent one season, that is, Old Mother Wang (*lao Wangpo*) had to take her old horse to the slaughterhouse for the sake of paying the rent to the landlord. The narration is powerful enough to convey the character's feeling. Also, it seems that only autumn can represent the farmer's tragedy. For the readers, it might seem a triviality, while for the character, Old Mother Wang, selling her horse to the slaughterhouse is a big event of that year. Such a single event makes the scene seem more substantial and the narration more powerful. The narrator selected this clip on the time scale using a magnifying glass so that the concept of time disappears and the moment is framed instantly.

In the performance form of montage narrative, the discontinuity of time often occurs. The change of temporal continuity might also be an implication of the transformation of the cognition of human experience. For women writers, what they attempted to do was to challenge the recognised world view through constructing unconnected time-streams that might explain the essence of existence.

2. The Uncertainty of Time

The other temporal form that appears often is the uncertainty of time. In the short story “Ye” 夜 (The night, 1941), for example, Ding Ling (1904-1986) obscures the temporal sequence.

Despite the title of the short story seemingly indicating that the plot takes place in a single night, the intermittent memories within the character’s interior monologue and the narrator’s FID from time to time means that the chronology is very complexly interwoven, making it hard for the reader to work out the time when events take place. In this way, the whole plot mainly centres on the stream of consciousness of the male character He Huaming through his relationship with the three women in the short story: Qingzi, Hou Guiying, and his wife. As a low-level cadre (*jiceng ganbu*) who is not totally released from productive work, He Huaming’s inner ideology is described through vivid narration. He feels that the people’s new world and people’s new “life consciousness” (*shenghuo yishi*) can only be regrown by transforming “Old China” (*jiu Zhongguo*) (Feng, 1982). The temporal uncertainty provides a flexible, unpredictable space for the character’s inner awareness when tackling everything around him, especially grappling with his impulses towards love and sexuality.

Qingzi, an attractive young girl, is the first woman mentioned in the text. Her unexpected appearance makes the narrative seem like a “camera” juxtaposing her appearance with the opening scene, and this kind of montage appears repeatedly. Obviously, He Huaming cannot help being attracted by Qingzi’s youth and pretty looks, and this temptation is so great that he forgets all about his unpleasant work. However, a dramatical paragraph of interior monologue in the form of free direct discourse betrays his obsession with class; in his eyes, a landowner’s daughter is supposed to be guilty and promiscuous. Finally, his solid faith in revolution and politics overcomes his emotion. At this time, He Huaming’s consciousness begins to flow in a disorderly fashion, and his wife first appears in the narrative. A series of flashbacks let us know that he is a matrilocal son-in-law (*daochamen*) and his wife is twelve years older than him. Their children passed away one after another, and after a time they never had a child again. In this fragment of montage, the narrator ignores the existence of time. The forgotten time, to some extent, implies the unchangeable social plight and the characters’ unhappy fate. He Huaming’s wife should be an ever-present role throughout her invisible timeline; however, in He’s eyes, she is just “a woman who can cook three meals a day”. Compared with the other two women characters, his wife seems like a thoroughly tragic person. From the perspective of appearance, she’s not as young and pretty as Qingzi. Here, the narrator does not depict how she looks directly. Instead, the author employs an FID from the perspective of the husband — he cannot put up with his wife’s “half-bald foretop” and her “scarred pale hands”. In the following narrative, she is portrayed as a discontented woman all the time, not only complaining about He Huaming but also expressing her dissatisfaction with her fate. Indeed, this character whose name is never given is one of the few female characters depicted as a thoroughly negative and tragic image in Republican women’s literature. For He Huaming, his wife is excluded from both his revolutionary and sexual needs.

The third woman is his revolutionary comrade Hou Guiying, and this character reveals the author’s thinking in terms of the relationship between revolution and love. For the temporal sequence, her montage-style entry in the story breaks the timeline of the narration, and we know that it happened one time when He Huaming was feeding his cow. Her sudden appearance frightened him, but it was certain that he had thought of having relations with her from a long time ago, so her seduction made him “feel horrible stuff grow in his body”, and “he almost tried to do a scary thing”. He Minghua’s restraint of his sexual impulses accords with his identity as a competent revolutionist. Surely, it was because Hou Guiying was also a primary-level cadre that He was attracted to her. Sharing the same political norms lead to them being subject to the same political rules. Deviant behaviour was not allowed inside the revolutionary camp, especially for a female cadre. Although both of them struggled in their married lives, they had to endure this as getting divorced would be criticised and have a negative impact on promotion.

Similarly, in the opening paragraph of the short story “Qiao” (Bridge, 1936), the author Xiao Hong employs the method of repeated narrative to realise an obscure temporal effect:

In the summer and fall, the water that collects under the bridge is level with the sides of the ditch.

“Huang Liangzi, Huang Liangzi, the baby’s crying!”

Late at night or early in the morning, these were the shouts that came from the bridgehead. For a long time! As time went on, the people who lived at the bridgehead became well acquainted with the sound and grew accustomed to hearing it.

“Huang Liangzi, the baby’s hungry! Huang Liangzi... Huang... Liang...zi.”

Especially on rainy evenings or on a windy morning, in the midst of a solemn quiet, this sound echoed off the water under the bridge or was reinforced by the gusting wind as it carried into distant homes.

Huang...Liangzi. Huang... Liang...zi, sounding like the refrain of a song.

The moon had disappeared below the horizon, leaving one lonely star hanging in the western sky.

Huang Liangzi emerged from the open field east of the bridge.

In this fragment, we see that the author uses free direct discourse, free indirect discourse, and montage creating a sense of ritual for the female protagonist’s coming into sight. Regardless of the season or the time of day, Huang Liangzi is likely to appear at the bridgehead after being summoned by her master. A similar narrative mode appears in the story many times. If we say that the discontinuous time to some extent still belongs to the linear narrative, the temporal uncertainty makes us completely forget this concept, and we may always feel lost in the process of reading.

However, it is this kind of fragmental time that allows the characters' consciousness to be foregrounded.

B. *The Valued Space*

As mentioned above, many Republican women writers seemed committed to the establishment of a sense of space in their writings rather than being preoccupied with chronological events, and this spatial focus is frequently found in montage narrative. In many cases, we find that the characters' interior monologue or free indirect discourse emerges at moments of unexpected transformation of space, thereby, on the whole, exhibiting a special type of stream of consciousness.

This notion of spatiality has been generalised as "spatial form" in Joseph Frank's seminal essay of 1945, "Spatial Form in Modern Literature", in which his basic argument is that modernist literary works, such as those by Joyce and Proust, are "spatial" insofar as they replace normal narrative sequence "with a sense of mythic simultaneity" and disrupt the normal continuities "with disjunctive syntactic arrangements" (Frank, 1991, p.281). We can see that the proposal of "spatial form" in essence challenges the temporal nature of literature. Inspired by Sergei Eisenstein, Frank argues that the juxtaposition of disparate images in a cinematic montage automatically produces a synthesis of meaning between them, which supersedes any sense of temporal discontinuity. Frank's idea establishes a clear link between "spatial form" and modernism.

Surely, there is no point to proving that a given female writer was the first to take advantage of the so-called "spatial form" or to use montage technique in Republican China; after all, these Western concepts had not yet emerged and of course not been introduced into China. However, many of women writers upended the traditional hierarchy of form and content in the literary narrative criteria espoused by mainstream critics. Unlike most New Literature male writers, the powerful strident call for change was prevalently not the choice of women writers, who opted instead for a more fluid narrative style. They did not hasten to remove themselves entirely from their creation but rather allowed themselves to hide inside it, becoming an invisible presence behind their work. Montage as a narrative strategy, or rather the establishment of "spatial form", provides a narrative possibility for women writers to deconstruct the prevalent discourse on gender roles, and to construct their identity, meanwhile conveying their innovative and unique understanding regarding feminism and modernity in modern China.

1. *The Juxtaposition and Synchronicity of Space*

In stream-of-consciousness literature, we may find that amazing coincidences often happen at any time, but are they simply the story plots randomly arranged by the author, or do they convey some hidden meaning? From the narrative perspective, the coincidence can be concluded as two patterns of "spatial form": juxtaposition and synchronicity. Through the very act of juxtaposition, according to Joseph Frank, "past and present are seen spatially, locked in a timeless unity which, while it may accentuate surface differences, eliminates any feeling of historical sequence" (Frank, 1991, p.652). Similarly, the synchronicity represents the structural integrity in the aspect of narrative logic (Jung, 2012). Both of them are forms of rebellion against conventional linear narrative, breaking the flow of time, which can be commonly applied into SOC novels in order to link the past and the present (Wang, 2014).

Among Republican women writers, the ones who often preferred this technique include Lin Huiyin, Xiao Hong and Eileen Chang. For example, Lin Huiyin's "In Ninety-nine Degrees of Heat", Xiao Hong's *The Field of Life and Death*, Eileen Chang's *Qingcheng zhi lian* (Love in a fallen city, 1943) and "Chuangshiji" (Genesis, 1945) all feature this kind of juxtaposition.

In "Chuangshiji", for instance, Eileen Chang settled spatial juxtaposition through the characters' memories, thereby highlighting their respective psychological change. The coincidence of spatial juxtaposition always happened even though in different spatio-temporal settings. The short story contains two main spaces: one is the home the character lived in as an unmarried girl (*niangjia*) and the other is the husband's house after getting married. Yingzhu and Ziwei were separate female protagonists in these two spaces; Ziwei was Yingzhu's grandmother. For these two spaces, Eileen Chang did not simply set the women into two physical spaces but endowed each with their respective cultural implications. The author artfully puts them into a juxtaposed structure using the memory of daily life as a linking point, and in this process, a montage narrative with multiple dimensions is shown.

The elusive montage scenes plus free indirect discourse always makes the narrative obscure, and readers may feel lost and confused about the relationship between the characters, especially under, as here, the situation without any markers or transformation signs between the past and present in the different spatio-temporal settings. Under such circumstances, the tragic ending of the love stories of various female characters becomes their main connection. Yingzhu searched for love for the sake of love, and she met Mao Yaoqiu, a rich and handsome man and supposedly an ideal marriage target for Yingzhu. Gradually, Yingzhu found that Mao was a playboy. However, even though Yingzhu knew that he lived with other girls, and that one of the girls was pregnant, Yingzhu still chose to pursue a relationship with him. When Mao Yaoqiu made clear that he was no longer in love with her, Yingzhu had to break up with him. Another female protagonist, Ziwei, as Yingzhu's grandmother, seemed like an overpowering woman completely controlling her big family. She also experienced an unhappy love and married life. Although she was born into a prominent family with a prestigious background, she still could not escape from the tragic fate of being forced to marry a strange man. After getting married, she found that her husband behaved badly and had so many bad habits that she had to sell her personal property in order to keep the family afloat. For a long time, she was treated poorly by her husband's

family. Sadly, she then treated her daughter-in-law and her granddaughter in a similar way. In the plot, there is also another female character of whom not much detail is given, namely Yingzhu's mother, or Ziwei's daughter-in-law. The scene where she first appeared in the short story was in the kitchen. For one thing, she was required to manage all the household affairs; also, her husband began to feel an antipathy against her because of her aging. More sadly, her mother-in-law, Ziwei did not show any concern or love for her.

In the beginning, the narrative centres on Yingzhu's story. The sudden transformation of space takes place when the perspective shifts to Ziwei's past through an old photo. In Ziwei's history, there appears another layer of spatial juxtaposition: her parents' home where she lived as well as her husband's home where she lived after getting married. Also, the ancient Chinese zither song "Yangguan sandie" (a parting tune with a thrice-repeated refrain) was also a bond of spatial juxtaposition. The first time that Yingzhu listened to this song was when she was young, so it was part of her own experience; for her, it represented her feeling when leaving home due to her childhood trauma. However, similar experiences shared between Yingzhu and her grandmother did not make them close. When the song appears for the second time, Ziwei showed her indifference. For her, it might be just a song she had heard in the past. The strangeness and alienation between Yingzhu and Ziwei could be glimpsed through this song.

In a SOC text, this kind of heterogeneous juxtaposition is a pervasive pattern for presenting a montage narrative. Besides, in other short stories, such as Lin Huiyin's "In Ninety-nine Degrees of Heat" and Eileen Chang's *Love in a Fallen City*, this pattern appears. In "Ninety-nine Degrees of Heat", the author juxtaposed the scenes about females and the poor, managing to simultaneously reveal their living conditions. In this way, when "female" and "the poor" come into the narrator's view at the same time, these two symbolic words are linked together. Indeed, both groups were underprivileged without the right to manage their own destiny. In this way, Lin Huiyin rethinks the implication of the female subject in the process of negotiating with modernity. By contrast, sometimes the two juxtaposed spaces alternate in the narrative. For example, in Eileen Chang's *Love in a Fallen City*, Bai Liusu's different feelings towards Bai's Mansion in Shanghai and Repulse Bay in Hong Kong alternate to create a juxtaposed effect.

2. The Repetition of Narratives

Apart from the spatial juxtaposition, the repetition of narratives, mainly certain ways of behaving or types of discourse, is another common way in which "spatial form" is built up, referring to the events or discourse with similar properties recurring in the works.

For example, in "Xiao Liu" (1935), Xiao Hong takes advantage of repetitional narratives to describe the sad story of Xiao Liu and his parents struggling with their life. Living in poverty and oppressed by vicious powerful landowners, they had to move house many times, so Xiao Liu's mother decided to take Xiao Liu to commit suicide. In this short story, the mother's calling for Xiao Liu, like, "Liu... Ah! Xiao Liu...Ah! Liu...", appears six times, interwoven in between different scenes.

To be specific, the first three times that the female protagonist calls are from the scenes when they move house. The repetition of the mother's calling not only implies her reliance on her son but also highlights the child's ceaseless toil in this process. The last three instances of calling happen when they are driven out of the house by some authoritative vicious power, and we can see that the fourth calling achieves the transformation of two different scenes. Through the direct discourse: "Don't squeeze me! Move to the inside a little bit, my leg hurts!", it can be determined that the former scene happened when they slept one night, and the latter scene happens when they are driven out of the house, and at that time Xiao Liu's father is not at home. Similar montage narrative appears again after the sixth time of her calling in the narrative, when the scene jumps to another night when they are asleep.

The author resorts to a cinematic narrative, without attention to the interiority of its characters; rather, what she emphasises is not only the tension in the relationship between this underprivileged family and the powerful, authoritative class but also the inferior position of the female protagonist and her inequality with her husband. This type of montage narrative also demonstrates one of Xiao Hong's favourite subjects: the impotence of the individual under tremendous pressure, regardless of whether that pressure comes from society or from the family. Although the narrative is fragmented into different scenes through the montage style, the repeated appearance of the same calls of the female protagonist realises the unity and indicates the short story's ideological meaning.

In addition, it is noteworthy that Xiao Hong's received for the first time an official evaluation from Lu Xun in early 1935. After Xiao Jun sent "Xiao Liu" to Lu Xun, he read it and recommended it to the magazine *Tai Bai* where Chen Wangdao (1891-1977) worked as the chief editor. Meanwhile, Lu Xun wrote a letter to Xiao Hong and praised her, saying that it was full of passion rather than merely playing with writing tricks (Gu, 2016). Although at that time Xiao Hong's writing was still not sufficiently mature, Lu Xun's praise was a great spiritual support and encouragement for her.

Through the analysis above, we find that the mode of repetition of narratives in novels forms a complicated relationship of tension with the fiction itself, which not only strengthens and multiplies the meaning of the fiction but also delays the readers' reading process, thereby making it constantly controlled or disturbed. Thus, it enables the linear expectations of fiction to be changed and at the same time intensifies the inherent conflict.

To some extent, the inner enclosure caused by the repetition of the expressional discourse does not accord with the aesthetic expectation of traditional realism. It was criticised for the absence of realistic suffering and was sometimes merely considered as women's hysterical random thinking (Lin, 2015). Hence, almost all women's writing of this

category did not at that time receive much notice and appreciation from mainstream critics. Not all of writings could survive and own the luck of “Xiao Liu”. And, we have to admit that without Lu Xun’s praise, “Xiao Liu” would probably also have been dismissed.

C. Montage Narrative in Xiao Hong’s Fictions

Among Republican Chinese women writers, Xiao Hong used montage narrative most frequently. For instance, in the novel *The Field of Life and Death*, there is an example of parallel montage. From the outset, the narrator depicts a scene featuring a goat:

A goat gnawed at the exposed roots of an elm tree by the side of the road.

Elm trees had partitioned the long road out of the city into shady patches. Walking down it was like striding beneath a huge swaying umbrella that blocked out the sky.

As the goat began gnawing on the bark of the tree, threads of saliva trickled down its whiskers. Caught up by the wind, they looked like soap lather, or sluggish, floating strands of silk. The goat’s legs were covered with them. Huge scabs on the elm tree bore witness to how badly scarred it was. Yet the goat lay down to sleep in the shade, the white pouch that was its stomach rising and falling.

Then, the little boy appears, which seems like a direct shifting of the point of view: “A little boy made his way slowly through a vegetable plot. His straw hat made him look like a big mushroom. Was he hunting for butterflies? Stalking grasshoppers? Just a little boy under the midday sun.” Following this passage, a farmer appears: “Before long a limping farmer also appeared in the vegetable plot. The cabbage patch was about the same colour as the goat.” Then, the target of the narration returns to the little boy again: “Green-tasseled sorghum grew adjacent to the southern edge of the vegetable plot. The little boy wormed his way in among the sorghum, brushing against the tassels with his head and knocking them to the ground.” After this passage depicting the little boy, the “camera” turns to the farmer: “The limping farmer had long since seen that it was his son, and from a distance, he hailed the boy in a raspy voice: “Hey, Tunnel Legs! Didn’t you find it?” So only at this point do we learn that the farmer and the little boy are father and son, and that they have come out to search for their lost goat. Thus, it can be seen that the sequence of the first cross-montage picture refers to: boy — farmer (father) — boy — farmer (father) — farmer (father) and boy.

The character to appear in the narrative is Granny Pockface (*mamian po*). The scene is of her in a yard, washing clothes. This heavy household chore make her look awkward and indecent and she is depicted as a “comic stage figure” and a “she-bear”. Along with Two-and-a-Half coming into sight again, we learn that Granny Pockface is his wife, the little boy’s mother. One funny detail is that when Two-and-a-Half is cursing about the goat being stolen: “Damn...the son of a bitch”, Granny Pockface mishears it and thinks that he is blaming her for not having prepared dinner yet. Then, all of them begin to search for the goat. At this time, the narrative suddenly shifts to the goat again:

Still half asleep, it scratched itself with its horns. The leafy green of the trees turned its coat a pale yellow. A roadside melon peddler was eating his wares. The line of carts stirred up clouds of dust as it moved from the shade onto the road leading into town.

The goat was lonesome. It had finished its nap and its meal of bark, and was ready to go home. But no, it wasn’t heading home. It passed under the trees and listened to each whispering leaf. Might it be heading into town, too? Yes! It trotted off toward the road leading into town.

Thus, the action of the villagers looking for the goat and the depiction of the goat itself alternate in the narrative, forming the cross-montage narrative. This process ends up with a picture of the goat: “As for the wandering animal, it scratched itself from time to time in the shed, nearly knocking down the door, which banged noisily.”

It can be seen that the sequence of the second cross-montage picture refers to: goat — goat searchers — goat — goat searchers — goat and goat searchers. It is interesting that when the goat has finally arrived back home by itself in the end, Two-and-a-Half and Granny Pockface were not aware of it, so Granny Pockface insists on searching for it regardless of her husband’s dissuasion.

Through the cross-montage narrative, two things become apparent. The first is that the goat is of great importance to Two-and-a-Half and Granny Pockface. When Granny Pockface realises that she has lost her goat, she nearly breaks down in grief. As Hu Feng suggests “her rendering of the peasant’s affection for their livestock (goats, horses, and cows) is so realistic and sincere that nowhere else in our corpus of peasant literature can we come across such moving poetry”, Xiao Hong is skilled at capturing peasants’ attachment to livestock and having this resonate with readers.

The second discovery is the contrast between the fate of animals and the fate of human through the montage narrative. Usually, humans are considered to be much more important than animals, and thus, animals are sacrificed and used to serve the needs of humans, which is also treated as natural and justified. However, in Xiao Hong’s works, the life of humans is no better than that of animals, and often it is worse, especially for women.

While Two-and-a-Half and Granny Pockface struggle seeking for the goat, the goat is wandering and foraging leisurely. The use of montage narrative highlights the contrast effect even more intensely. Apart from Two-and-a-half and Granny Pockface and their goat, the depiction of other villagers and animals is also shown. To take another cross-montage fragment, for example, this point can be shown in the juxtaposition of Fifth wife’s elder sister’s labour that occurs simultaneously with a female dog’s labour. As Fifth wife’s elder sister’s labour is made infinitely harder by her husband, who burns her and drenches her in cold water, a dog which is right next door experiences an easy, quiet, peaceful birth in a warm, sheltered barn with straw. In this respect, this incident may have a link with Howard

Goldblatt's idea regarding Buddhist and Christian influences on the author's creative writing. He notes that "in the first two chapters alone, the characters' appearance and actions are portrayed with the aid of animal images nearly twenty times. The visual effect of this device on the reader is substantial". As Goldblatt points out, animal imagery is one of the most striking features of Xiao Hong's language. Xiao Hong's language becomes distinctly powerful "when metonymy, as well as a metaphor, is used to evoke animals and humans contiguously so that the two species are joined in the homogeneous space of the body" (Liu, 1994, p.163). In this process, the narrative strategy of montage to a great extent benefits for strengthening the expression of the author's creative mind in this respect.

Similarly, in another work, the short story "Kan fengzheng" (*Look at the kite*, 1933), Xiao Hong also employs a cross-montage narrative strategy. The first chapter shows an old man returning home alone in the night, through which we learn about his suffering and miserable situation. Through a passage of FID, we know that the old man should have a son and daughter, however, unfortunately, his daughter died several days ago, and his son left home three years before.

The second chapter is about a young man named Liu Cheng. He was just set free from the prison and lives in a village. Through his revolutionary education (*geming jiaoyu*) for villagers, we see that Liu Cheng must be a revolutionary leader, which led to his being arrested. It seems that Liu Cheng's talking with villagers to some extent, influences them in a positive way.

The third chapter is the meeting point of these two characters. Liu Cheng lives in Aunt Wang's (*Wang dashen*) home, and through the conversation, we learn that Liu Cheng is the old man's son. So, Aunt Wang lets her husband inform the old man of this situation as soon as possible. In the following chapter, the focus turns back to the old man, who is lying alone on the broken bed. The fifth chapter is the interaction of these two narrative lines. The cross-montage narrative forms a tense atmosphere and a strong sense of rhythm, thereby causing a cinematic, dramatic effect. After learning of his son's release, the old man decides to go to Aunt Wang's home to find his son; however, when he arrives, Liu Cheng has already left: "Liu Cheng rushed away! He just left before his father's coming! His father's heart was broken! He was a monster, a wolf, a wolf without a heart!"

After that, the two intersecting narrative lines depart from each other again. In the last chapter, when the old man is watching children flying kites in the playground, he hears the news that Liu Cheng has been arrested. Although Liu Cheng and the old man are situated in different spaces, both of these two narrative clues intersect once more. In short, the cross-montage narrative lines can be presented as: the old man — Liu Cheng — the old man and Liu Cheng (son) — the old man — Liu Cheng — the old man and Liu Cheng (son).

Much like the filmic montage technique that could create a single "room" or space out of different spaces and times through the juxtaposition of different shots, cross-montage in literary works generates a spatio-temporal transformation in different dimensions, juxtaposing different moments regardless of the past, the present or the future.

IV. CONCLUSION

In the field of literature, montage refers to the conjoining of heterogeneous discourses in a given text. Although this concept was widely discussed in the Western context since its origin, it is also connected to the literature and culture of modern China in a certain way. For example, in early modern China, Lu Xun once held a belief in montage as a new vehicle for cultural production and communication.

Among the Republican Chinese writers, many women writers attempted to employ montage narrative in their creative writing. Xiao Hong, for instance, used montage narrative most frequently. They were not to be concerned with chronological sequence in their writing; rather, they indulged in the establishment of a sense of space. For women writers, what they attempted to do was to challenge the recognised world view through constructing unconnected time-streams that might explain the essence of existence. In addition, they transformed the montage narrative into a gendered one and used it to also secretly realise their attack on male neotraditional ideology. As a narrative strategy, montage provided a narrative possibility for women writers to deconstruct the prevalent discourse on gender roles, and to construct their identity, meanwhile conveying their innovative and unique understanding regarding feminism and modernity in modern China.

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Prepositional Phrases in Modern Standard Arabic: An Agree-Based Analysis

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Abstract—Prepositions, in Arabic traditional grammar literature, have been analyzed as Genitive Case assigners (Hasan, 1976; Sibaweihi, n.d.). This paper presents a phase-based analysis for prepositions (Ps) in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). The analysis is built on Chomsky's (2005, 2008) Feature-Inheritance model of Agree. In this proposed analysis, Prepositional Phrases (PPs) in MSA are analyzed as phases, where a Probe-Goal relation is established between the prepositional Probe *p*-P and the DP in its searching domain (i.e., its complement). The outcome of this relation is valuation of the unvalued Case feature on this DP complement (i.e., Genitive Case), and a similar valuation to the unvalued phi-features (ϕ -fs) on the Probe *p*-P.

Index Terms—agree, feature-inheritance, Arabic, preposition

I. INTRODUCTION

Arabic prepositions (Ps) such as *ila*, *fi*, *min*, *bi*-, and *li* in the following examples are Case assigners which assign Genitive Cases to their complement Determiner Phrases (DPs), as can be seen from the morphological realization on each of these complements:

- (1) *āhaba* Ali-un *ila* as-suuq-i
went Ali-Nom to Def-market-Gen
'Ali went to the market'
- (2) *yuzadu* kitaab-un *fi* al-ḥaqībat-i
(There) Exists book-Nom in Def-bag-Gen
'There is a book in the bag'
- (3) *ʔaaʔa* Ali-un *min* al-madrasat -i
Came Ali-Nom from Def-school-Gen
'Ali came from the school'
- (4) *marartu* *bi*- ar-rajul-ayn
Passed(1s)by Def-man-(dual/Gen)
'I passed by the two men'
- (5) *ʔaʕtaytu* *li*- Ahmad-a ar-risalat-a
gave(1s) to Ahmad-Gen Def-letter-Acc
'I gave the letter to Ahmad'

The morphological realization of the Genitive Case varies depending on the type of the DP complement. That is, - *i* is the default form for the Genitive Case morpheme. The morpheme -ayn is used with dual nouns as in *rajul-ayn* (dual form of 'man'), while -a is used with the name *Ahmad*, which is *diptote* (Hasan, 1976; Sibaweihi, n.d.).

When the complement of a P is followed by a modifying adjective, the Genitive Case morpheme -*i* appears on that adjective as well:

- (6) *ʔakala* Ali-un *min* at-ṭaʕaam-i al-la ḥee ḥ-i
Ate(3m) Ali-Nom from Def-food-Gen Def-delicious-Gen
'Ali ate from the delicious food'

Note that Arabic adjectives (generally) show agreement with their modifying nouns in Number, Gender, and Case. The adjective *al-la ḥee ḥ-i* 'Def-delicious' in (6) agrees with *at-ṭaʕaam-i* 'food' in Case (Genitive), and the only possible source for this Case is the preposition *min* 'from'.

Section II presents a comparison between Arabic and English Prepositional Phrases (PPs) in terms of form, function, usage, meaning, and syntactic function. An overview of some analyses of PPs will be presented in section III. The proposed analysis will be presented in section IV, followed by some concluding remarks in section V.

II. OVERVIEW OF ENGLISH AND ARABIC PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

PPs have been classified based on their function, form, and usage. Ps across languages function as connectors of one word in the sentence to another. Specifically, Ps usually connect their complements to other parts in the sentence, such as nouns, verbs, or adjectives (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Van Valin, 2004; Wishon & Burks, 1980):

- (7) There is a book in the bag.

(8) Linda is fond of chocolate.

(9) The boy ran to the gate.

Ps *in*, *of*, and *to* in English connect their complements to the noun 'a book' in (7), the adjective 'fond' in (8), and the verb 'ran' in (9), respectively.

Like English and many other languages, Arabic Ps connect their complements to other words in the sentence. For instance, *ila* 'to' in example (1) connects the complement *suuq-i* 'market-Gen' to the verb *āhaba* to reveal the relationship between the two elements; similarly, *fi* 'in' connects its complement *al-ḥaqibat-i* 'the bag' to the noun *kitab* in example (2) above.

In terms of form, Ps in English are classified into two types: single (e.g., *in*, *on*, etc.), and complex (i.e., made up of more than one P: *in spite of*, *in front of*, etc.). Carter & McCarthy (2006) list more than 50 Ps of this type in English. The complex class is formed of two- or three-word sequences (see, Quirk et al., 1985, for detailed explanation). The complex class is said to be *open* in the sense that new combinations can be formed (Macková 2012).

The number of Ps in Arabic ranges between 17 and 21 (Alhawary, 2016; Saeed, 2014). Ps in Arabic show some similarities with their corresponding Ps in English; that is, like English, Ps in Arabic have been classified into different categories depending on their function, form, and usage. Such classification is not essential to the proposed analysis; however, a short review of the nature of Ps in Arabic is due.

In terms of form, Hamdallah and Tushyeh (1993), and Saleh (2015) state that Arabic Ps are morphologically independent (separable), and independent (inseparable). For example, *min*, *ila*, etc. (see, examples (1) - (3), above) are separable Ps, while *bi-* and *li-* in (4) - (5) are always attached to their complements.

Based on their function (and form), Saeed (2014), and Saleh (2015) (among others) add a third type of Ps in Arabic: Semi-prepositions (i.e., *xalf* 'behind', *qabl* 'before', *baʿd* 'after'). According to them, this type of Ps not only function as mere Ps, but also as nouns and adverbs:

- (10) ʒaʔa Ali-un baʿd-a al-maghrib-i
came Ali-Nom after-Nom Def-sunset-Gen
'Ali came after sunset'
- (11) wasala Ali-un qabl-a al-ʔiʒtimaʕ-i
arrived Ali-Nom before-Nom Def-meeting-Gen
'Ali arrived before the meeting'
- (12) waqafa Ali-un xalf-a al-baab-i
stood Ali-Nom behind-Nom Def-door-Gen
'Ali stood behind the door'
- (13) min xalif-i al-baab-i
.....from behind-Gen Def-door-Gen
'from behind the door'

Note, however, that *baʿd*, *qabl*, and *xalf* inflect for Case (i.e. *Nominative* (-a) and *Genitive* - i in (13)), and thus resemble nouns and adjectives which inflect for Case. Saeed (2014) argues that Arabic *semi-prepositions* resemble English in that they can form combinations with real (independent) Ps in Arabic, thus creating complex forms as shown in (13).

Ps vary in terms of their usages. For instance, Quirk et al. (1985) classify the usages of PPs in English as: (a) Ps that indicate time (i.e., temporal) or spatial (i.e., Ps of location, and direction) relationships, (b) Ps which indicate cause or purpose, (c) Ps which indicate means or agentive, and (d) Ps which indicate accompaniment, concession, respect, support, and /or opposition.

Like English, Arabic Ps are used to denote temporal and spatial relationships. They are also used to express notions of resemblance, cause, accompaniment, and exception (see, Al-Marrani, 2009, for more on the uses of Arabic Ps).

Hasan (1976) argues that Ps in Arabic do not carry meanings themselves, but they carry meanings in other element (i.e., their meanings are dependent on the elements with which they occur). However, Saleh (2015) states that Ps come in different meanings whether they are attached to nouns or not. Notice how the meaning of the verb *rayib-tu* 'wanted-I' in (14) and (15) changes when the P changes:

- (14) rayib-tu fi liqaaʔika
wanted-I to meeting-you
'I wanted to meet you'
- (15) rayib-tu ʕan liqaaʔika
'I ignored meeting you/ not interested in meeting you.'

The change in meaning indicates that it is the P which identifies the meaning of the sentence. Thus, Ps do carry meanings themselves.

Structure of PPs

PPs are mandatorily made of a P and a complement. This way, PPs are different from other syntactic phrases where a single word can make up a phrase (Downing & Locke, 2006). Based on their position in the structure, PPs can have either *adjectival* or *adverbial* Function (Frank, 1972). That is, a PP can function as an adjectival phrase when it follows and describes a noun or an adjective, as in (16) and (17), respectively:

(16) The boy with the blue shirt.

(17) John is very good at math.

The PP 'with the blue shirt' describes the noun 'the boy', while PP 'at math' modifies the adjective 'good'. Moreover, a PP can also function as an adverbial phrase as in (18) where PP 'in the morning' modifies the adverb 'early':

(18) We should get up early in the morning.

B. Preposition Stranding and Pied-Piping

PPs in English as well as in Arabic can be pied-piped. This way PPs appear at the beginning of the sentence as shown in the following examples:

(19) About what are you talking?

(20) *tatahadaθuun ʕan ma ʔa*?

talking(3mp) about what?

'What are you talking about?'

The PP *ʕan ma ʔa* 'about what' in (20) can be pied-piped to the beginning of the structure in Arabic, as shown in (21):

(21) *ʕan ma ʔa tatahadaθuun?*

about what talking(3mp)

'About what are you talking?'

Ps are usually placed before their complements; however, in English, it is possible for a P to get stranded, as in the following examples:

(22) What are you talking about? (Open interrogatives)

(23) This is the book I told you about (Relative Clauses)

(24) This bed has been slept in. (Passive construction)

Unlike English, Ps in Arabic cannot be stranded¹, as the ungrammaticality of (25) shows:

(25) **ma ʔa tatahadaθuuna ʕan?*

What talking(3mp) about?

Having briefly introduced the forms, functions, and usages of Ps in Arabic and in English, the next section will overview some of the analyses proposed for PPs.

III. ANALYSES FOR PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Different analyses have been proposed for Ps. Some of these analyses have discussed the meanings of Ps, their syntactic structures (i.e., the kind of complements Ps take, the premodifiers which can appear with Ps) (e.g., Carnie, 2008), and the use of Ps as postmodifiers (e.g., Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999). Other studies have analyzed Ps as functional elements (e.g., Baker, 2003, for English Ps), and lexical (e.g., Jackendoff, 1977; O'Grady, 1996), while others have proposed that Ps form a hybrid category which combines properties from both categories² (Chanturidze, Carrola, & Ruigendijk, 2019; Tseng, 2000). In terms of their syntactic function, different analyses have considered Ps as predicative (e.g., Stowell, 1983), non-arguments (e.g., Baker, 2003), adjunct modifiers, etc.

The following paragraphs, however, will limit the discussion of Ps to their syntactic, internal structure due to the limited scope of this paper.

Baker (2003) analyzes Ps as functional categories, and states that "whether an item takes a specifier or not is thus an important characterizing feature for the functional categories" (p. 25). That is, lexical verbs acquire their specifiers by External Merge, while functional tenses and complementizers (including Ps) acquire their specifiers through movement (Internal merge).

Baker reasons for this conclusion through typological facts from different languages (i.e., the limited number of Ps). Baker also follows researchers such as Croft (1991), Grimshaw (1991), among others, who consider Ps to be closely related to case markers, thus functional (i.e., functional category K proposed by Lamontagne & Travis (1987) and Bittner & Hale (1996)). Furthermore, Baker based his classification of Ps on the fact that there are no derivational processes that involve Ps in English, for instance, and in many other languages³ as well.

Tseng (2000) states that Ps can be lexical or functional based on their uses. Tseng explains that functional Ps are sometimes referred to as "case-marking" or "non-predicative", as in (26):

(26) *John gave a book to Mary.*

Notice, however, that P *to* in (27) is lexical:

(27) *Mary went to school.*

¹ Notice however that p-stranding becomes possible in MSA, and in many other dialects of Arabic (see, e.g., Algryani, 2019, for Libyan Arabic), but two conditions must be met: a. A resumptive pronoun must cliticize onto the preposition, and b. A complementizer is used as in this example:

man allathi jaaʔa maʕa-ka?

who that came with-you

'who came with you?'

² Keizer (2008), for instance, concludes that all English Ps are lexical except *of* and *by* which show functional properties when associated with deverbal nouns as in: 'The treatment of the patient by the doctor' (p. 248).

³ Baker adds if Ps are functional then other functional categories such as D (e.g., pronouns) can incorporate into P that governs them. Note that this is the case in Arabic: *min- hu* 'from-him', *min- ka* 'from-you', etc.

Tseng further argues that functional Ps show “high fixedness” (p. 28), while lexical Ps show low fixedness. Still, however, there are Ps which show intermediate level of fixedness. High fixedness entails that replacing a P in a given context with another P turns this context into ungrammatical as in (28):

(28) *Delicate negotiations resulted at/for/on/to/with/by an acceptable compromise. (p. 28)

Ps with lower degree of fixedness make replacement of such Ps possible, as can be seen in (29):

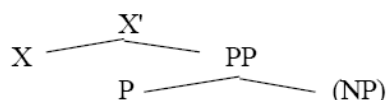
(29) The magician put the rabbit on/behind/under/beside his top hat. (p. 28)

According to Tseng, functional Ps are fixed by an element external to the PP. For clarification, the verb *resulted* in (30) is the fixing trigger.

(30) The negotiations resulted in

To demonstrate this, Tseng (p. 30) states that “[a] particular structural relationship must exist between an *external* fixing trigger and the preposition it fixes. In particular, the PP headed by the fixed preposition P must be a complement of the trigger X” in (31):

(31)



Tseng adds that fixing triggers can be *internal* (i.e., fixed by their complements):

(32) Those people are *in* the know. (p. 31)

In this example, the only possible P is *in*. However, if we take out the complement 'the know', it becomes possible for any P to fill in the same position:

(33) Those people are [P ____] [NP ____]

Thus, it is the complement of *in* which is the fixing trigger for this P in this example, not the NP subject or the verb⁴. Tseng concludes that, as far as syntactic properties are concerned, both lexical and functional⁵ Ps show no difference between them (i.e., both show the same projection properties) (p. 79).

Researchers such as den Dikken (2010) and Svenonius (2010) follow cartographic approaches to the analysis of Ps. These approaches are based on Jackendoff's (1990) analysis of PPs, which argues for two basic semantic components: Path and Place. Specifically, in den Dikken's analysis, Ps are lexical categories which project a functional structure with various functional heads (i.e., P_{LOC} and P_{DIR} are lexical categories).

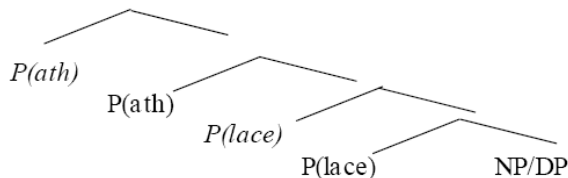
Like den Dikken, Svenonius (2010) argues for a locative P that is syntactically composed of different smaller functional projections, but these researchers differ on the number and interpretation of these functional projections. That is, Svenonius proposes four classes of Ps: projective, bounded, extended, and particles, where locative Ps are projective and bounded, while path or directional P are extended. Particles, on the other hand, form an independent class which conforms to neither class.

Rooryck (1996) argues that PPs are formed by a lexical head P and a functional head F. This F head is responsible for case assigning of PPs. According to Rooryck, the functional projection for PP can have weak and strong features which allow incorporation of P into F.

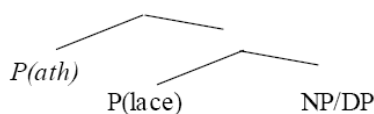
Puigdollers (2013) proposes a simplified version of the “cartographic approach” (p. 68). Following Svenonius (2010), Puigdollers argues that locative and directional PPs contain a small (functional) *p* head in PPs (like little *v* in *vP*). This *p* functions like *v* in that it is the locus of case licensing, and it introduces the external argument of PP. Thus, Puigdollers considers *p(ath)* and *p(lace)* as functional heads, which are also the locus of ϕ -features in the sense of Chomsky (2008) (i.e., phasal heads). Conversely, the other heads of *p(ath)* and *P(lace)* are analyzed as non-functional heads. Puigdollers then proposes the following structure of path and place Ps (p. 70):

(34)

P of direction



P of location



⁴ Based on Tseng's analysis, the verb *rayiba* in example (14) and (15) above is the fixing trigger.

⁵ Note, however, that Rauh (2002) argues for a non-head analysis for functional Ps, and concludes that they are NPs syntactically, for they have limited projection properties, they do not allow specifiers or modifiers, and they exhibit one complementation pattern: [____ NP]. In addition, they assign case, and express relational content.

Note that this can be headed further by a νP which takes Path as its complement.

Puigdollers argues, in the sense of Richards (2011), that a phasal domain constitutes phasal and non-phasal elements. According to Puigdollers, $p(\text{ath})$ and $P(\text{lace})$ are phasal heads which bear unvalued set of ϕ -features and as such probe for DPs which can value these unvalued features. When agreement occurs, $p(\text{ath})$ results in valuing Accusative Case features on the DP, while $p(\text{lace})$ values Dative Case. Puigdollers adds that certain phasal heads may be defective (i.e., bear an incomplete set of ϕ -features). When defective, the phase head belongs to the "immediately next strong phase, that is, ν " (p. 88).

As far as referential index and the ability to take specifiers, Baker (2003) argues that PPs are similar to APs in that they do not have referential index or specifiers (p. 311). Conversely, Jackendoff (1977) argues that Ps are referential, and a P can have a subject (within its projection). That is, the syntactic structure of PPs can be analyzed as X' -heads, and as such a P can combine with its complement thus forming P' , which in turn can combine (optionally) with a specifier and a maximal projection of PP is formed. Baker adds that PPs in English are not arguments, for "English PPs cannot normally appear in subject positions, object positions, or as the objects of a preposition"⁶.

Some PPs in Stowell's (1983) analysis are predicates which theta-mark a subject in copular sentences as in (35), and in small clause constructions as in (36):

(35) Chris_i is [_i in the kitchen].

(36) I want [a table in the kitchen].

(37) Chris put the book in the box.

Note that other analyses posit that the theme *the book* in (37) is not the direct object of 'put', but it is the subject of the PP (e.g., Hoekstra, 1988, den Dikken, 1995).

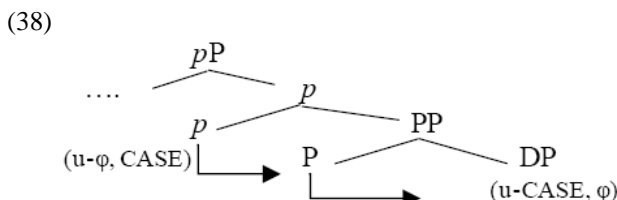
Similar analyses of PPs have argued that Ps function as predicates, based on the unique relation between the P and their complements⁷ (see, e.g., Ouhalla, 1994; and Van Valin, 2004). As such, Ps can assign case to their complements (just like verbs). Similarly, researchers Halliday & Matthiessen (2014), in their classification of words in a functional grammar of English, have included Ps to the verbal class based on Ps nature of predication. Moreover, Hale & Keyser (1993) argue that Ps form predicates, and as such, they require subjects. According to these researchers, subjects are located outside the PP projection.

The following section presents the proposed analysis for Arabic PPs. In this section, PPs are analyzed as phases, and as such a Probe-Goal relation will be initiated between Ps and their complement DPs, thus allowing the derivation to converge.

IV. THE PROPOSAL

This section lays out an Agree-based analysis for PPs in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). It has been shown that Ps in Arabic can assign Genitive Cases to their DP complements. In this proposed analysis, it will be assumed, following den Dikken (2010), that prepositional case is functional (i.e., it is assigned or checked in a specific functional head). Particularly, Chomsky's (2005, 2008) Feature-Inheritance (FI) model of Agree will be adopted. It will also be proposed, following Chanturidze, et al (2019), Puigdollers (2013), and Svenonius (2010), that PPs contain a small p head parallel to little v in the PP domain. This little p resembles v in that it is the locus of case licensing, and it introduces the external argument of the PP.

The proposed analysis shows that PPs in Arabic are phasal⁸, and under Agree model, they must enter into agree relation with another element in the structure. Specifically, it shows that this p head bears a set of unvalued features (i.e., ϕ -features), which must be valued for the derivation to converge, in addition to a valued [CASE] feature with Genitive value. Following the FI model of Agree, it will be argued that the functional/ phasal head transfers its features to a proxy head (i.e., lexical P) with which it should form a p -P Probe⁹. This probe must value its unvalued features against a Goal which bears valued set of ϕ -features, and an unvalued CASE feature (i.e., DP). Consider the proposed structure for PPs (38):



⁶ Note, that Zewi (2012) argues that PPs in Semitic languages can be subjects, as in the following example from the Holy Qur'an (2:10):

a. wa *la-hum* ṣaḏāb-un ʔaliim (p. 468)
And for-them punishment painful
'Literally: for them is painful punishment.'

⁷ For a list of complements Ps can take, see Downing and Locke (2006).

⁸ See, Radford's (2004) discussion on the assumption that PPs in English can be phases.

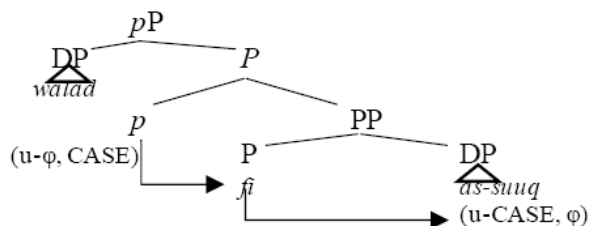
⁹ Kayne (2005) argues that Ps can probe for Goals.

In this structure, the *p*-P Probe finds DP (in P's complement) and Agree occurs: The unvalued set of ϕ -features on *p*-P receives valuation and at the same time, the unvalued Case on DP gets valued, thus resulting in Genitive value on DP. In this sense, phasal *p*Ps resemble phasal *v*Ps in that they transfer their unvalued features to proxy heads (i.e., lexical V), and after *v*-V probe is formed, the search continues for potential Goals which can value this probe's unvalued features.

The analogy between *v*Ps and *p*Ps can be extended. Specifically, it can be assumed that phasal *p*P can have an external DP (in its specifier position) (cf. Brattico, 2012, for a similar conclusion that PPs can have specifiers). This specifier position can host the object *walad-an* 'boy-Acc' of a V as shown in representation (40) for example (39):

- (39) raʔa Ali-un walad-an fi as-suuq-i
saw(3ps) Ali-Nom boy-ACC at Def-market-Gen
'Ali saw a boy at the market.'

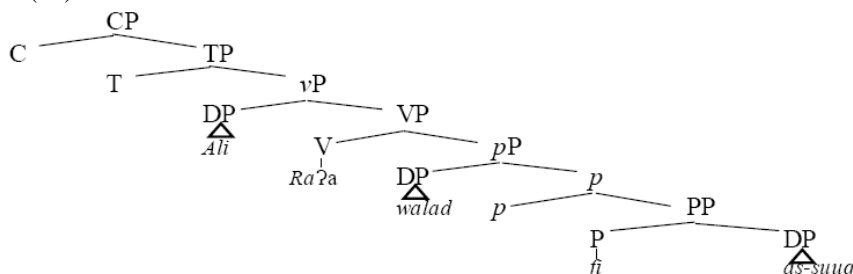
(40)



Concretely, the derivation within phasal *p*P proceeds when lexical P *fi* 'in' merges with its complement DP *as-suuq* 'def-market'. Once phasal *P* enters the derivation, and under the FI model of Agree, it transfers its features to lexical *P*, and a *p*-P probe is formed. The *p*-P probe probes its domain for Goals and enters into Agree relation with the complement DP *as-suuq*. Agree between *p*-P and this DP results in valuation for the unvalued ϕ -features on the probe, and a similar valuation for the *u*Case feature on the DP and Genitive Case value appears on the DP.

The derivation above the *p*P phase continues when the lexical head V enters the derivation and merges with *p*P phase as its complement. The phase head *v* transfers its unvalued phi-features (*u* ϕ) and valued CASE (i.e., Accusative) features to the lexical V head, and a *v*-V probe is formed. This probe searches for a possible Goal and probes the DP in spec *p*P, thus valuing its *u*CASE (i.e., Acc) and receiving valuation for its (*u* ϕ) feature. The same Probe-Goal process occurs in the CP phasal level, and the subject DP (i.e., *Ali*) receives Nom Case value and the unvalued set of ϕ -features on the C-T probe is valued, and the derivation converges.

(41)



V. CONCLUSION

This paper has shown that PPs in MSA can be analyzed as phasal (i.e., *p*P). Based on the FI model of Agree, a *p*-P probe is formed within a PP when phasal *p* head transfers its unvalued (ϕ -features) and valued Case feature (with a Genitive value) to lexical *P*. It has also been shown that the Genitive Case value on the DP complement for Ps in MSA is the outcome of an Agree relation between the *p*-P probe and its complement. Being phasal, *p* can have a specifier which can host a DP (e.g., a complement for a higher probe).

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Assiri, Ahmad (2015). Word-Final Consonant Clusters in Three Dialects of Arabic. *King Khalid University Journal of Humanities*, 24, (2), 11-51.

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The Effect of Teacher Scaffolding on Students' Paragraph Writing Skills in EFL Classroom: The Case of Grade Nine Students in Meneguzer Secondary School, Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia

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Abstract—This study was intended to examine the effect of teacher scaffolding on grade nine students' paragraph writing performance in Meneguzer secondary school, Amhara-Ethiopia. The study employed a quasi-experimental research design with explanatory sequential mixed methods of data collection and analysis. There were experimental and control groups of students including 40 students in each group. Test, questionnaire and interview were used to gather data. The quantitative data were analysed using an independent sample t-test, whereas the qualitative data were analysed thematically. The pre-test yielded a significant value of sig. (2-tailed) = 0.659 which was higher than $\alpha = 0.05$. This showed that both the experimental and the control groups of students were equal and homogenous in their writing performance before treatment. However, after the treatment, there was a significant difference between the writing performance of the students in the two groups as the analysis of writing test in post-test yielded sig. (2-tailed) = 0.025 which was smaller than $\alpha = 0.05$. This implies that the treatment enabled the participants in the experimental group to improve their writing skills. The result of the questionnaire and interview analyses further revealed that the experimental group of participants were motivated and initiated by the teacher scaffolding to improve their writing skills. Thus, it can be concluded that teacher scaffolding has a positive significant effect on students' writing skills. As a result, it motivates students to practice their writing skills independently.

Index Terms—scaffolding, teacher scaffolding, instructional technique, writing skill, and teacher support

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing ability in the second or foreign language has great importance for students' academic success. Durga and Rao (2018) claimed that it is a common means of communication that EFL learners should practice to be effective for academics and job requirements. Effective students in writing are always successful in expressing their ideas and attaining their goals.

In teaching writing, selecting appropriate writing tasks promotes learners' confidence to write independently. Therefore, a teacher has the responsibility to identify activities that promote students' writing ability. He/ she should also facilitate the overall practice of students' writing. As a facilitator, he/she comments on the incorrect agreements, improper use of articles, pluralization, and syntactic forms of students' sentences. He/she also gives feedbacks on drafts of a paragraph to maintain its unity, coherence and development. The teacher gives these comments and feedbacks while the students are revising their paragraphs. Students can also get feedback from their friends. They make an overall revision before they submit the final writing.

This process of scaffolding writing follows the stages of writing. It is a process of supporting students by making the tasks clear and simple for them. It motivates students to be committed to progressing their writing. To scaffold students, Bruner (1978) suggested some techniques that the teacher need to employ in the EFL classrooms. The techniques include motivating students' interests, simplifying the tasks, controlling the frustration of students, marking critical points, and correcting errors carefully.

The teacher of second or foreign language learners has to facilitate students learning till their students become more proficient (Diaz-Rico & Weed, 2002). Scaffolding in teaching writing is practised in the way of giving verbal or written feedback for student writers in the process of writing. Peterson (2010) added that the teacher provides feedback on students' writing to support their writing development and nurture their confidence as writers. Hence, the teacher and

students should work collaboratively to achieve students' writing skills development. When students become more efficient the guidance is removed gradually.

Thus, scaffolding writing is considered as an effective technique to teaching writing skills through combining it with stages of process writing. Therefore, in this study, the researchers are initiated to employ this technique to examine its effect on the paragraph writing skills of students in the Ethiopian context.

In Ethiopia, English has been taught and given much emphasis so that it is being taught as a subject, and it is serving as a medium of instruction for other subjects in secondary and tertiary levels of education. In the syllabi of secondary schools and universities, all English language skills are incorporated.

Although all the skills are equally important, students appeared to be much more deficient in writing as far as the researchers' experience shows. Particularly, at Meneguzer secondary school, Grade Nine students had difficulties in generating ideas, constructing sentences and organizing paragraphs. Consequently, it was believed that employing a different and innovative teaching writing technique was a paramount important approach to improve students' writing ability. Hence, the researchers were inspired to employ the scaffolding technique to teach writing skills for grade nine students to examine its effectiveness. Substantiating this, Vernon (2002) suggested that this technique can be implemented by combining it with the stages of writing in the process approach writing approach.

In this regard, there are global studies that investigated the effect of teacher scaffolding techniques on students' writing achievement. For instance, Vonna, et.al, (2015) in Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris University and Negeri Malang and Artini and Padmadewi (2019) at North Bali Bilingual School Singaraja made investigations. The results have shown that the scaffolding technique can significantly improve the students' writing achievement.

Similarly, this study was conducted to examine the effect of teacher scaffolding on students' paragraph writing skills in the Ethiopian context to attain the following objective. The general objective of this study was to examine the effect of teacher scaffolding on grade nine students' paragraph writing skills. The study specifically, attempted to answer the following research questions:

- Does teacher scaffolding have any effect on grade nine students' paragraph writing performance?
- Is there any significant difference between the experimental and control groups of the participants in their paragraph writing performance after the treatment?
- What is the experimental group students' reflection towards scaffolding on their paragraph writing performance?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Design of the Study

A quasi-experimental research design was employed to examine the effect of teacher scaffolding on students' paragraph writing performance as it allows using the intact groups based on the availability of participants and the natural setting (Gass and Mackey, 2005). Besides, the study employed a mixed-method, especially the explanatory sequential mixed methods research approach (Creswell, 2014).

B. Participants of the Study

The participants of this study were Grade Nine students, of the 2019/2020 academic year, from Meneguzer Secondary School, South Gondar, Amhara Region, Ethiopia. There were four sections of Grade Nine, 40 students in each class. A pretest on writing performance was given to all students in the four sections. Based on the students' mean score similarity, two sections were selected. They were assigned as experimental group and control group using the lottery method of random sampling technique. That is to mean, there were 40 students in each group. For the interview, six students were selected from the experimental group using a systematic random sampling technique.

C. Data Gathering Instruments

Test, having pretest and posttest, was used as a major data-gathering tool. The pretest was used to check the homogeneity level of participants in their writing performance, whereas, the posttest was used to measure the effect of teacher scaffolding on students' writing performance after the treatment. Both of them were prepared with similar procedures with the insight obtained from Heaton (1990). The researchers developed selected writing topics, specifically, 'Effects of drought' for pretest, and, 'Effects of deforestation' for posttest.

The time frame to write paragraphs on these topics was determined to be 80 minutes for each topic. Finally, to score the tests, there was a rubric to keep the consistency of scoring students' paragraphs. The analytic scoring rubric which was used for the writing tests had been designed in the range of points based on performance qualities.

A questionnaire was also used to examine the feelings of the students in the experimental group towards the role of scaffolding technique on their writing skills. The questionnaire included 12 close-ended items with 5 levelled Likert scales.

Besides, assessing the reflection of participants in the experimental group upon the effect of scaffolding on the writing progress, an interview was also used. The interview had 3 semi-structured items in an open-ended and chained format. The interview was delivered in the Amharic language, the student's mother tongue, for ease of communication to obtain sufficient data.

D. Data Collecting Procedures

First, the quantitative data were collected. Then, the qualitative data collection followed. Accordingly, the treatment of teaching the experimental group about writing paragraphs was made before data collection. The lesson delivery which took an hour each day was made using a manual for teaching paragraph writing. Then, on the fourth day of the first week, the participants of the experimental group were required to write a paragraph on the topic: 'Effects of Smoking Cigarette'. After participants wrote the first draft, the researchers gave feedback on the content (relevance and subject knowledge) and organization (coherence, logical sequencing). After they wrote the second draft, then, feedback was given to them on the mechanics (spelling, punctuation) of their paragraph. This session took four hours in two days.

Next, on the first day of the second week, another practice of paragraph writing was held on the topic, 'The Effects of Drinking too much Alcohol.' In the process of writing, the researchers gave feedback on vocabulary richness and language use. In this regard, the focus of language use was on the usage of articles, word order, tenses, prepositions and sentence constructions concerning language use. Then, on the second school day, both experimental and control groups of students were instructed to write a paragraph on the topic, 'The Effects of Deforestation' as a posttest and the raters scored the participants' paragraphs similar to the pretest in two days. The task took two hours for writing and two hours to score the posttest by two raters.

On the third school day of the second week, the questionnaire was administered to the experimental group participants. Finally, the interview was delivered to the experimental group after filling the questionnaire on the same day. For the interview, samples were selected among the experimental group participants by the systematic random sampling technique. Six participants were chosen for this purpose.

E. Methods of Data Analysis

Explanatory sequential mixed methods of data analyses were used to analyze the test, questionnaire and interview data. The pretest data were analyzed through an Independent Sample t-test to check the homogeneity level of students in their writing performances. The scores of the posttest were also analyzed using Independent Sample t-Test to calculate the mean score difference between experimental and control groups. The questionnaire data were analyzed with frequency and percentage, whereas, the interview data were analyzed thematically.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Analyses of the Pretest Results of the Experimental and Control Groups of Students

The results of the pretest score of the experimental and control groups were analyzed through an independent sample t-test as follows.

TABLE 1
PRETEST MEAN SCORE RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS OF STUDENTS

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pretest	Experimental	40	23.88	14.046	2.221
	Control	40	22.40	15.679	2.479

As shown in the above table, there were 40 participants in each of the experimental and control groups of students. In the pretest, their mean scores were 23.88 and 22.40 for the experimental and control groups, respectively. This implies that before the treatment of scaffolding, there was no significant difference between the writing performance of the experimental and control groups of students.

TABLE 2
ANALYSIS OF PRETEST SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS OF STUDENTS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pretest	Equal variances Assumed	.106	.746	.443	78	.659	1.475	3.328	-5.151	8.101
	Equal variances not assumed			.443	77.075	.659	1.475	3.328	-5.153	8.103

Alpha value=0.05

Regarding the assumption of homogeneity of variance, Pallant (2001) claimed that if a significant value of two groups is greater than 0.05, the two groups have equal variance. Hence, based on the above Table2, the significant value of the two groups in their pretest was $p=0.746$ that is greater than 0.05. This means that the variability of the scores for each of the groups of students was similar. In other words, there was a homogeneous variance between

experimental and control groups writing performance in their pretest since the analysis in Table 2, the sig. (2-tailed) value= 0.659 was greater than 0.05. Equal Variances were assumed. Therefore, there was no significant difference between the experimental and control groups of students regarding their writing performance before the treatment.

B. Posttest Results of Experimental and Control Groups of Students

The results of the posttest scores of the experimental and control groups of students were analyzed through an independent sample t-test as follows.

TABLE 3
MEANS SCORE RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS OF STUDENTS IN THE POSTTEST

	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Posttest	Experimental	40	31.38	13.770	2.177
	Control	40	24.15	14.517	2.295

As this analysis reveals, the mean score of the posttest for the experimental group of students was 31.38 and 24.15 for the control group. This implies that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups of the participants in their paragraph writing performance after the treatment as the mean score results of the experimental group of students exceed the control group of students mean score result.

TABLE 4
ANALYSIS OF POSTTEST SCORES OF EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS OF STUDENTS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df.	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Posttest	Equal variances Assumed	.007	.935	2.284	78	.025	7.225	3.164	.926	13.524
	Equal variances not assumed			2.284	77.784	.025	7.225	3.164	.926	13.524

Alpha value=0.05

As the assumption of homogeneity of variances was checked in pretest scores of experimental and control groups of students, Levene's test for equality of variances was also checked in the posttest writing performance of the experimental and control groups of students. In this regard, Pallant (2001) stated that the experimental and control groups are varied if the significance value is $p=0.05$ or less. Therefore, in the current study the sig. (2-tailed) value is 0.025 which is lower than 0.05 that violates the assumption of the equality of variances. In other words, the violation of the assumption indicated that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in their post-test writing performance. This implies that the experimental group performed better in the writing tasks than the control group of students.

C. Analyses of Questionnaire Data

The analysis of the questionnaire data intended to assess the reflection of the experimental group of students about the effect of teacher scaffolding on their writing performance is presented as follows.

TABLE 5
QUESTIONNAIRE DATA ANALYSIS

No	Item	Number of participants responded				
		1	2	3	4	5
1	The teacher's support helped me to brainstorm ideas to develop a paragraph	2	1	0	30	7
2	The support I received from my teacher helped me to shape the topic sentence of the paragraph	0	0	1	5	34
3	The paragraph writing process became easier due to my teacher's close support.	4	6	0	10	20
4	The support of the teacher helped me to organized ideas in writing paragraph	0	0	0	8	32
5	The teacher's support reduced difficulties of organizing ideas to develop paragraph	2	4	0	25	9
6	The guidance the teacher gave me helped me keep the structure of my paragraph.	0	5	2	11	22
7	The support of the teacher helped me to keep the unity of the paragraph	0	2	3	4	31
8	The support informed me to use cohesive devices properly such as, first, next, because, for example, as a result, but, etc.	0	3	2	23	12
9	The teacher's support has reduced my frustration of making errors in writing a paragraph.	3	2	0	27	9
10	The teacher's support helped me use appropriate language to the intended audience in my paragraph writing.	1	2	1	14	22
11	In the writing process, the teacher's support helped me to revise my paragraph	3	1	0	11	25
12	My writing skill has been improved through the support of the teacher.	0	2	1	32	5
Total=482		15	28	10	200	229
Percentage		3.11	5.81	2.1	41.49	47.51

Key: 1=strongly disagree 2= Disagree 3= Undecided 4= Agree 5=strongly agree

According to the result of the questionnaire data analysis in Table 5 above, the respondents agreed that the teacher's support helped them to improve their writing skills. The analysis showed that the respondent's level of agreement on the effect of teacher scaffolding on their writing was found to be 41.49 per cent agreed and 47.51 per cent strongly agreed. To be specific, teacher scaffolding helped students in brainstorming ideas, organizing sentences to form paragraphs, in maintain unity and coherence of paragraphs and editing paragraphs. Moreover, participants' reflection of the effect of teacher scaffolding showed that the teacher's support reduced their difficulties of writing and frustration of making errors while writing a paragraph. Generally, the analysis of the questionnaire data indicates that teacher scaffolding was founded helpful for learners to improve their writing performance.

D. Analyses of Interview Data

The analysis of the participants' interview responses concerning the effect of teacher scaffolding on their writing performance showed that most of the participants improved their writing skills practically in the case of teacher scaffolding. Among the participants, student two (s_2) said "I have learned that a paragraph should deal on a single idea. The support of my teacher made me eager to develop unified sentences in a paragraph". Besides, s_5 in his part reported that the teacher scaffolding helped him to maintain coherence in the paragraph through using cohesive devices to join sentences such as cause and effect, contrast and addition cohesive devices. Moreover, s_1 and s_4 reported that the teacher scaffolding improved their difficulties to use correct spelling, punctuation, capitalization, choice of words and sentence structures.

Additionally, the interviewees' reflections showed that the teacher's support motivated them to practice writing skills. It also shaped them to rely on their writing ability. In this regard, S_6 forwarded his feeling as "I could not write a meaningful sentence before this treatment. When I start to write about a given topic, I become confused about what to start and how to organize words in a sentence. However, after I got this treatment, I was able to write a paragraph by combining sentences. Now, I am motivated to write a paragraph."

Generally, the analysis of the interview revealed that the teacher's close support of students' writing has contributed to improving their writing performance and being motivated in writing. This indicates that teacher scaffolding helped students to promote their writing skills.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results are discussed in a way to answer the raised research questions. That is to say, so as to answer the research questions posed, the findings obtained from each data analysis were triangulated and then concluded as follows.

Regarding the effect of teacher scaffolding on students' writing performance, the post-test means score result of the experimental group of students was founded greater than the control group mean score result. Besides, the findings of the questionnaire and interview data analyses that were intended to examine the respondents' reflection about the treatment of teacher scaffolding substantiate this finding that the teacher scaffolding has improved students writing performance. Hence, the practice of teacher scaffolding has a positive effect on students' writing. This finding agrees with the studies of Katilie (2003), Vereappan et.al. (2011), Yangrifqi (2012), Solikhah (2012), Laksmi et al (2015) that teacher scaffolding has a positive effect on students wring performance.

The second research question was about investigating whether there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups of participants in their writing performance. In this regard, the means scores of the posttest were 31.38 and 24.15 for the experimental and control groups, respectively. Similarly, the observed significance value is lower than the alpha value i.e. sig. value /2-tailed/=0.025 less than $p=0.05$ so that the assumption of 'Equal variances not assumed' had been checked. Therefore, in the posttest, the two groups were founded to be significantly different. This means that the experimental group of learners showed better writing achievement than the control group of students. Substantiating this, the findings of both the questionnaire and the interview data analyses that intended to check respondents' reflection about the effect of teacher scaffolding revealed that the experimental group participants made better performance than the control group in their writing skills. Consequently, the finding of the questionnaire and the interview data analyses supported the finding of the posttest mean score results.

The third research question was intended to assess the feelings of the experimental group of participants towards the effect of teacher scaffolding on their paragraph writing performance. In response to this question, the findings of both the questionnaire and interview data analyses revealed that there was a positive effect of teacher scaffolding on their writing performance. Therefore, the experimental group of students felt that using teacher scaffolding could help the students to improve their writing skills effectively. The teacher scaffolding technique of teaching writing motivated the students to practice writing skills actively and confidentially.

Generally, in the discussion of the findings, teacher scaffolding had a positive effect on Grade Nine students' paragraph writing skills. The result of the study showed that teacher scaffolding has contributed better than the conventional method of teaching paragraph writing skills of students. As a result, the students were found motivated to practice more their writing skills.

V. CONCLUSION

In general, it can be concluded that implementing teacher scaffolding can improve the students' paragraph writing skills. This is because students who were treated by the teacher scaffolding achieved better than the students who were not treated by the teacher scaffolding in their paragraph writing. This implies that using teacher scaffolding has a significant effect on students' writing performance when compared with the conventional method of teaching writing. It can also motivate students to practice their writing skills independently.

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- ✓ *Journal of Education and Practice*, 10 (22), 23-40, August 2019.
- ✓ *Theories and Practice in Language Studies*.10 (4), 372-378.
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Examining the Effectiveness of Think-Aloud Procedure and Reading Strategy Inventory: Insights From Reading Process Research

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Abstract—A study was conducted to explore the reading strategies of ESL (English as a Second Language) engineering students. The subjects of the study were 52 B.Tech students. The research focused on investigating the reading process of ESL students. The think-aloud procedure and reading strategy inventory were used to collect the data. Three pilot studies were conducted to validate quantitative and qualitative research procedures. A 40-item reading strategy inventory was administered to identify the engineering students' reading strategy use. The scores obtained in the reading strategy inventory has been compared to the verbal reports elicited through the think-aloud procedure. Data analysis presents an overview of the frequency of strategy use while reading an academic-related text. The paper examines the effectiveness of reading strategy inventory and think-aloud procedure for reading process research. The findings of the study discuss the data collection procedure relevant to reading process research. The study highlights challenges in validating quantitative and qualitative research procedures and suggests ways to overcome them.

Index Terms—reading strategy, reading process, think-aloud, verbal reports, reading strategy inventory

I. INTRODUCTION

Researchers have used quantitative and qualitative research procedures to explore reading skills and strategies of ESL (English as a Second Language) Learners. Many educational forums have discussed the process and product approaches to reading and their effectiveness in enhancing English language proficiency. In India, English being the second language, reading has become an essential part of language instruction at every level. Students have to understand that learning a language means comprehending, communicating, and thinking as they do in their mother tongue. Reading is essential inside and outside the classroom for a wide variety of purposes, and the teachers have to take enough care while imparting reading skills to the students in the classroom. This research focuses on exploring the reading strategies of ESL engineering students. Data was collected using reading strategy inventory and think-aloud verbal procedure. Pilot studies were carried out to check the validity of reading strategy inventory and think-aloud verbal procedure. This paper examines the effectiveness of the think-aloud procedure and reading strategy inventory in a reading process research.

Validating data collection procedures is a challenging task for researchers in the applied fields of study. Researchers across the world rely on quantitative and qualitative data to substantiate their research findings. There are many recommended data collection procedures in English Language Teaching (ELT), Applied Linguistics, and Classroom Research. Most universities across the world make the Research Methodology course mandatory for research scholars studying Masters or Doctoral Programmes. Some of the standard quantitative data collection procedures involve administering questionnaires, polls, surveys, and tests. Among the various qualitative data collection procedures, classroom observation and interviews are used by many researchers to authenticate their findings. Before deciding on a relevant data collection procedure, the researchers review the past and latest studies conducted in a particular field and either replicate similar procedures or modify them. Some researchers replicate research procedures that were already tested. A relevant research procedure in a specific context may not be suitable for another context either due to regional or cultural variations. In English as a Second Language (ESL) research contexts, validating research tools enhances the quality of research findings. However, some researchers do not pay much attention to validate research tools either because of time constraints or due to lack of awareness. This paper also discusses the process involved in validating research tools in an ESL research context.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Research Procedures in L2 Reading Research

Researchers exploring reading strategies have used questionnaires and verbal probes to uncover the strategies of ESL learners. In L2 studies, language learning inventories were administered to determine the frequency of using a particular strategy in the past (Dörnyei Zoltán, & Taguchi, 2010, p. 5). According to Bowles (2010, p.8), in L2 research, merely relying on students' responses can be risky because it may not give much information about the cognitive processes;

however, verbal reports enable the researchers to access the learners thought processes. Think-aloud is a qualitative approach through which the participants express their thoughts verbally during a reading activity. The reading process involves the recognition of letters, words, phrases and clauses. Since reading involves cognitive processes, such as decoding and analyzing, researchers exploring reading strategies rely on the think-aloud technique to probe the thought processes. Willis (2004, p. 29) believes that verbal reports are relevant for tasks that involve problem-solving and decision making. The findings of a study conducted by Nalliveetil (2014, p.47) reveal that ESL students found the think-aloud technique similar to brainstorming sessions. Elleman and Oslund (2019, P.8) reviewed existing theoretical and empirical research in reading comprehension and recommended strengthening professional development programmes and collaboration for better reading comprehension instructions. Awareness of the latest techniques in reading comprehension instruction can make the ESL teaching-learning process more interactive and productive. Since comprehension is an active process, an English teacher has to encourage the readers to engage with the text. Teachers can test the comprehension level by asking open-ended questions or collecting summaries of the assigned reading text.

A study by Pritchard (1990) utilizes culturally familiar and culturally unfamiliar passages to examine the process of how a reader activates and utilizes the relevant schema for comprehension. His study aimed to identify the strategies proficient readers use to understand culturally familiar and culturally unfamiliar passages. Pritchard's study also examines those strategies concerning the cultural backgrounds of the readers and cultural perspectives of the reading materials. His findings suggest that more idea units were recalled from the culturally familiar text in similar cultural groups. The findings of Pritchard's study reveal that when the content of reading materials changes, processing behaviour changes as well. His findings conclude that reading is a content-specific activity. Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) believe that many researchers have recognized the relevance of metacognitive awareness in reading comprehension because it differentiates skilled readers from unskilled readers. Further, Taraban et al. (2004) point out that understanding reading behaviours is necessary to consider the specific situations in which reading occurs and the reading tasks that individuals confront.

B. Relevance of Strategies in Language Learning

The term strategy has been used in many fields of study. Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary (8th edition) defines strategy as "a plan that is intended to achieve a particular purpose" (Hornby & Turnbull, 2010). McDonough (1995) defines strategy as an articulated plan for meeting particular types of problems. Students may resort to strategy use when they encounter problems in language learning. Bialystok (1990) says that strategies are related to solutions in specific ways, and they are productive in solving the problem for reasons which theorists can articulate. She further says that strategies are systematic because the learners uncover the strategy from their knowledge of the problem and employ it systematically. Carrell (1998) points out that strategies are more efficient and developmentally advanced when generated and applied automatically as skills. According to Stern (1975), strategy is a plan for action. He further says that good language learning needs strategies of experiment and planning to develop the new language into an ordered system and revise this system progressively by constantly searching for meaning. A strategy is, therefore, a tool, plan, or method used for accomplishing a task.

Skill is the ability of a person, while strategy is a plan designed for a particular purpose. According to Carrell (1998), skills refer to information processing techniques that are automatic and applied to a text unconsciously for reasons like expertise, repeated practice, compliance with directions, luck and native use. Carrerll says that strategies are actions selected deliberately to achieve particular goals. Learning strategies are the behaviours and thoughts during a learning activity that influence an individual's encoding process (Weinstein and Mayer, 1986). According to Rubin (1987), learning strategies contribute to developing the language system that the learner constructs and directly affects his/her learning. The readers use strategies to enhance their vocabulary and sentence construction knowledge to understand varied English texts. According to Rausch (2000), the concept of learning strategies is based partly on cognitive learning theory, where learning is considered as an active, mental, learner-constructed process. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) define learning strategies as particular thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to comprehend, learn or retain new information. Lessard-Clouston (1997) says language learning strategies may be visible behaviours, steps, techniques, or invisible thoughts and mental processes and involve information and memory. Oxford (1990) divides strategies into two major classes, namely direct and indirect. According to her, language learning strategies that involve the target language are called direct strategies, and these require mental processing of the language. Oxford (1990) points out that a direct learning orientation consists of memory, cognitive and linguistic deficiency compensation strategy groups, while indirect consists of metacognitive, affective and social strategy groups. According to Rausch (2000), the direct strategies relate to retrieval of vocabulary, the identification, retention, storage, and other elements of the target language, while the indirect strategies are concerned with the management of learning and include activities like needs assessment, planning and monitoring, and outcome evaluation. Oxford (1990) subdivides direct and indirect strategies into six groups: memory, cognitive and compensation under the direct class, while under the indirect class come the metacognitive, affective and social. She says that memory strategies help learners to remember and retrieve new information.

C. Importance of Reading Strategies in Language Learning

A reader may use different strategies to understand an academic or a non-academic related text. While reading a text, readers may consciously or unconsciously resort to strategy use when they find the text too difficult to understand. Reading comprehension results when a reader is aware of skills and strategies appropriate for the text type and understands how to apply them to accomplish the reading purpose. Reading process and comprehension are essential aspects of cognition. According to Berardo (2006), reading always has a purpose and is an integral part of everyday life. Berardo says that reading can have three primary purposes such as survival, learning or pleasure. Nel and Dreyer (2003) believe that one of the most serious problems in higher education is reading. According to Levine et al. (2000), ESL university students need to develop their reading strategies to read academic texts and advance their professional careers. Reading strategy instruction should prepare the students to understand the purpose of reading and help them select appropriate reading strategies. Nel and Dreyer (2003) point out that many students enter higher education under-prepared for the reading demands that are placed on them. According to Wood et al. (1998), students often select ineffective and inefficient strategies, while Dreyer (1998) says this is due to their low reading strategy knowledge and lack of metacognitive control. Luo and Wei (2014) conducted a study using the 50-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL) to measure self-reported use of language learning strategies. Their findings indicate the use of social strategies over metacognitive strategies in a second language immersion setting. Ozek, and Civelek (2006) recommend think-aloud protocols for observing the mental processes as they provide objective data. Qahtani (2020) employed retrospective think-aloud protocol to explore the reading strategies of EFL learners. His findings suggest that the think-aloud procedure is helpful to evaluate and reconstruct readers background knowledge.

III. METHODOLOGY AND QUESTIONS

A. Context of the Study

Many published research projects have discussed the effectiveness of reading skills in ESL teaching-learning contexts. However, the current study explores the reading strategies of ESL engineering students studying First Year B.Tech in engineering colleges affiliated to JNTU (Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University), India. The 52 students chosen for the study are 26 males and 26 females studying first-year B.Tech in engineering colleges affiliated to JNTU. Since English is the medium of instruction, these students are required to spend much time reading academic-related course materials written in English. It has been observed that the ESL engineering students find vocabulary and syntactic structures in the engineering textbooks difficult to comprehend. Failure to understand engineering concepts can affect their performance in internal and external assessment and job interviews.

The pre-requisite for the entrants of the engineering stream is a pass in intermediate/plus two with a specialization in Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry (MPC). These ESL engineering students are more familiar with the vocabulary related to numerical values, formulas and science-related terms. They have less exposure to the concepts related to the engineering stream. Their aim to become a software engineer or study Master of Science (MS) course often drives them to study B.Tech (Bachelor of Technology). English language communication skills that students gain during their engineering education help them communicate in social and academic situations. Also, it prepares them for their future educational and professional endeavours.

In the JNTU engineering curriculum, English is a credit course in the first semester of first-year B.Tech. Reading comprehension is a component in the English language course syllabi of first year B. Tech. The reading activities in the prescribed English textbook focus on reading techniques such as skimming, scanning, prediction, inferencing, local and global comprehension skills. These skills relate to reading, wherein students answer comprehension questions given at the end of the reading passage. Research in reading also recommends a process approach in the teaching of reading skills. The present study explores the reading strategies of ESL engineering students.

B. Research Questions

The study is based on the following research questions:

- What kind of data collection procedure is relevant for a process approach in reading skills?
- Is it necessary to compare and contrast quantitative and qualitative data to identify the reading strategies of ESL students?
- The effectiveness of reading strategy inventory and think-aloud procedure for classroom research
- What makes the quantitative and qualitative data collection procedure reliable or unreliable?

C. Procedure

The research progressed with a series of transitions or stages. Three pilot studies were conducted to validate the research tools for data collection. The first pilot study focused on validating the items given in a five-point scale of the reading strategy inventory. In pilot study II, the focus was on using the think-aloud technique. Since the think-aloud methodology adopted in pilot study II had drawbacks, the study was repeated. In pilot study III, a study using the think-aloud protocol technique was repeated with certain modifications. The main study followed pilot study III, and the details of all the stages are discussed in this paper.

D. Instrument

Since the present research focuses on the reading strategies of engineering students, it was felt necessary to validate the data collections procedures. Hence, the available reading strategies were reviewed, and a 40-item reading strategy inventory was developed for assessing the reading strategies of first-year B. Tech students. The primary source of reading strategy inventory was the questionnaires developed by Oxford (1990), Taraban et al. (2000), Mokhtari and Reichard (2002), Taraban et al. (2004), and Mathew (2009). The subscales used in the pilot study I and the main study were similar to the reading strategy inventory developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002). A 40-item reading strategy inventory was developed for pilot study I. These items were categorized under three sub-scales: global reading strategies, support reading strategies, and problem-solving strategies. The items were categorized depending on the kind of strategy statement. Fourteen items were listed under global reading strategies, fourteen listed under support reading strategies, and twelve listed under problem-solving strategies. Under each given statement in the reading strategy inventory, a 5-point scale range is given to describe each item.

E. A Description of the Scoring Pattern in the Reading Strategy Inventory

From the pilot study I, it was observed that the classification of items would be more appropriate for our study. Since ten more items were added to the 30-item reading strategy inventory developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002), it was felt that the edited list of 40-item reading strategy inventory gave additional information related to reading strategies. Students also responded to the five-point scale given in the reading strategy inventory. Students were asked to read each statement and rate how often they use the strategy described in the statement using a 5-point scale range. The individual scores obtained in each item were added to obtain a total score. The average response for the sub-scale global reading strategy was obtained by taking the total score obtained in all the items of the sub-scales and dividing it by the number of items. The same procedure was followed to get an average response in support and problem-solving reading strategies. The total scores obtained from each strategy subscale, namely global, support and problem-solving reading strategy, were added and then divided with the total number of items to get an average response of the entire inventory. The interpretation of these scores is derived from the interpretation scheme used by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002). While examining the reading strategy usage of individual and groups of students on the reading strategy inventory, which ranges from 1 to 5, three levels of usage were identified, as suggested by Oxford (1990) and Mokhtari and Reichard (2002). For language learning strategy usage: “high (mean of 3.5 or higher), medium (mean of 2.5 to 3.4) and low (2.4 or lower)” (Oxford, 1990; Mokhtari and Reichard, 2002). These usage levels provide a helpful standard that can be used for interpreting the score averages obtained by individuals or groups of students (Oxford, 1990; Mokhtari and Reichard, 2002).

F. The Process of Validating Quantitative Data

It was necessary to determine whether the engineering students understood the strategy statements in the reading strategy inventory. So, a pilot study was conducted in engineering colleges affiliated to JNTU and Osmania University. The two sets of reading strategy inventory administered to the students were the 30-item inventory developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) and the 40-item edited version of reading strategy inventory based on the works of Oxford, (1990), Taraban et al. (2000), Mokhtari and Reichard (2002), and Taraban et al. (2004). In the edited version, some items were added, and some items were modified for clarity. A study on the reading strategy inventory developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) and the edited version was found necessary because it would reveal which inventory best suits the future investigations on reading strategies.

G. Pilot Study I

As mentioned in the earlier section, to test the reliability of the reading strategy inventory, a preliminary pilot study was conducted in engineering colleges affiliated to JNTU and Osmania University. The reading strategy inventory was administered to six first-year B.Tech students (three boys and three girls). The findings from the preliminary study suggested that the 40-item reading strategy inventory can be administered to engineering students. However, the findings suggested that reading strategy inventory, a self-report instrument, reveals only the students' perceptions about their reading strategies. Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) caution that the best possible use of these strategies will ultimately depend, to a great extent, on students' age, their reading ability, text difficulty, type of material read, and other related factors. For this reason, more related resources on reading strategies were reviewed. A review of literature related to the think-aloud technique and retrospective probe indicated that these research tools could provide more insights into the reading process. Since these techniques give scope for individual verbal responses, a pilot study was conducted to determine whether it would give the required data for the research.

H. Think-aloud Procedure

Think-aloud probe based on the work of Nielson (1994), Singhal (2001) and Thompson et al. (2006) was used to get insights into the reading processes of engineering students. A pilot study was conducted to test whether the think-aloud technique would give insights into the reading strategies. Garner (1987) suggested that the researcher has to provide a task in the think-aloud method and ask the subjects to say aloud everything they think and everything that occurs to them while performing a task.

The relevance of the think-aloud probe as a research tool was tested through reading passages chosen from the prescribed textbooks. A reading passage was taken from the prescribed English coursebook of the first year B. Tech and the second reading passage was from an engineering text. The subjects for pilot study II were twelve students (six boys and six girls) of first-year B.Tech from engineering colleges affiliated to JNTU. Students' permission was sought, and the think-aloud verbal interview was recorded. Each student was asked to read the passage. Immediately after reading the passage, the student was subjected to the think-aloud verbal probe to elicit information on his/her reading process. Students were allowed to look into the given reading passage as and when required. Students were allowed to read the text as and when they felt it necessary. Students were allowed to respond by reading the text as it would give more insights into their reading process. The same procedure was used to elicit the students' responses from both the reading passages.

I. Re-validating the Qualitative Research Procedure: Pilot Study II

The preliminary research findings (pilot study II) on the think-aloud procedure further suggest that the methodology needed to be modified for eliciting relevant responses related to the reading process. It was observed that the researcher was focusing on think-aloud questions that were recommended by Nielson (1994), Singhal (2001) and Thompson et al. (2006) and thus was repeatedly asking pointed questions that they suggested. For this reason, the drawbacks of the think-aloud verbal interview were closely examined and thus modified the think-aloud approach. The findings of pilot study II suggest that familiar texts do not give much insight into the reading process, and too much technical jargon would make the text difficult to understand. For this reason, the study was repeated using semi-technical texts.

G. Pilot Study III

It was decided to repeat the field study using a think-aloud procedure with a modified approach, so pilot study III was conducted to clarify the relevance of the research tool. Two semi-technical reading passages were selected, and the think-aloud procedure was used to elicit responses from the students. The study was conducted on six engineering students (three boys and three girls) studying first-year B.Tech in engineering colleges affiliated to JNTU. Students were interviewed individually, and their responses were recorded. Each student was asked to read the passage silently, and after having read the complete passage, the student had to report to the researcher. The same method was used to elicit responses on the second reading passage. The researcher asked open-ended questions relating to the text and individual student's understanding of the reading passage. The students were encouraged to express their thought processes verbally while reading the text. The students were also allowed to skim or scan through the given passages when they felt it necessary. They were encouraged to express their thought processes verbally while reading the text. Their responses were recorded and later transcribed as these would give information about how the students are processing a text. The findings of pilot study III indicate that the modified think-aloud approach is relevant to probe into the reading process of ESL engineering students.

K. The Procedure of the Main Study

Since the think-aloud probe requires individual attention, the researcher had to give individual attention to all the 52 engineering students. The researcher had a detailed interview with individual students throughout the study, which lasted more than an hour each, and their verbal responses were recorded. A few think-aloud questions were scripted based on pilot studies II and III, while most of them were designed by the researcher as needed during the interview session. The point of these probes was to allow the interviewer to explore beyond what the respondent says or does not say without increasing the chances of invalid or reactive reports. Think-aloud questions were used to probe for additional evidence beyond what respondents report spontaneously. This probe was used to make the students report on the components of high-level mental processes, like the sequence of steps that leads to the solution of a problem. Students were also asked to express their thoughts verbally as they read the text.

Ericsson and Simon (1980) argue that when verbal reports are collected with other records of behaviour, the consistency of results can be checked. Schoenfeld (1985) contend that verbal data should be compared and contrasted with data from other sources. For these reasons, the think-aloud verbal probe and the 40-item reading strategy inventory were used to identify the ESL engineering students' reading strategies.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

An analysis of the think-aloud verbal procedure, the reading strategy inventory scores, including the similarities and variations in the use of reading strategies, are presented in this section. The data recorded using the think-aloud procedure is analyzed based on Nalliveetil (2014) categorization: successful readers, partly successful readers, and unsuccessful readers. Successful readers could comprehend the complete text, while partly successful readers could comprehend parts of the text and unsuccessful readers failed to comprehend the text.

A. Analysis of Verbal Reports

The data analysis of the think-aloud procedure is presented in Tables 1, 2 and 3

TABLE 1
AN OVERVIEW OF VERBAL REPORT

Student No.	Gender	No. of times strategy used	Student No.	Gender	No. of times strategy used
1.	Female	07	27.	Male	09
2.	Male	18	28.	Male	04
3.	Male	01	29.	Female	03
4.	Female	05	30.	Male	04
5.	Male	01	31.	Female	05
6.	Female	02	32.	Male	11
7.	Female	05	33.	Male	01
8.	Male	03	34.	Male	11
9.	Female	02	35.	Male	Nil
10.	Female	04	36.	Female	03
11.	Male	Nil	37.	Male	12
12.	Male	05	38.	Female	03
13.	Female	04	39.	Female	04
14.	Male	09	40.	Male	05
15.	Female	15	41.	Male	06
16.	Male	07	42.	Female	Nil
17.	Male	04	43.	Female	05
18.	Male	06	44.	Female	07
19.	Female	Nil	45.	Male	02
20.	Female	02	46.	Male	Nil
21.	Male	08	47.	Male	03
22.	Female	Nil	48.	Male	22
23.	Male	02	49.	Female	07
24.	Female	Nil	50.	Female	Nil
25.	Female	05	51.	Female	Nil
26.	Female	10	52.	Female	09

An analysis of the data in Table 2 indicates that Student No.48 (Male) used global, support, and problem-solving strategies (22 times) to comprehend the text. Nine students could not use any of the strategies.

B. Analysis of Reading Strategy Inventory

A reading strategy inventory was administered after the verbal interview. The reading strategy usage of individual and groups was examined in 5- point scale ranging from 1 (I never do this) to 5 (I always do this), and three levels of usage were identified, as suggested by Oxford (1990), for language learning strategy usage: high (mean of 3.5 or higher), medium (mean of 2.5 to 3.4) and low (2.4 or lower). The table below presents the average mean of student 1 to student 52. The sequencing is the same as the sequencing of students in the think-aloud verbal probe. The average mean of all the students in global strategies, support strategies and problem-solving reading strategies is given below:

TABLE 2
READING STRATEGY INVENTORY SCORES

S= Student, F= Female, M= Male

Student No.	Global Problem	Support	Problem Solving	Student No.	Global Problem	Support	Problem Solving
S1- F	3.85	3.71	4.08	S27-M	4.07	4.21	4.16
S2-M	3.78	3.5	3.91	S28-M	3.35	4.0	4.08
S3-M	1.85	2.21	1.91	S29-F	3.85	4.07	4.33
S4-F	4.57	4.28	4.5	S30-M	3.78	3.21	4.16
S5-M	3.92	3.71	4.33	S31-F	4.0	3.71	3.58
S6-F	3.35	3.78	4.16	S32-M	3.64	4.07	4.66
S7-F	3.5	3.21	4.16	S33-M	3.64	3.71	4.25
S8-M	2.71	4.0	4.0	S34-M	4.07	4.14	4.33
S9-F	3.57	4.64	3.25	S35-M	3.57	3.64	3.91
S10-F	3.14	3.85	3.66	S36-F	4.35	4.5	4.16
S11-M	3.28	3.64	4.08	S37-M	3.85	4.0	4.08
S12-M	3.92	3.0	3.16	S38-F	3.78	3.42	3.58
S13-F	4.42	4.92	5.0	S39-F	3.42	3.28	3.25
S14-M	3.85	4.21	3.66	S40-M	3.71	3.28	3.75
S15-F	3.71	3.07	3.66	S41-M	3.64	4.0	4.33
S16-M	3.57	3.57	3.83	S42-M	3.14	4.42	3.25
S17-M	3.42	3.42	3.5	S43-F	4.35	4.71	4.41
S18-M	4.28	3.92	4.25	S44-F	4.07	3.64	3.91
S19-F	3.5	3.28	3.75	S45-M	3.5	3.42	4.66
S20-F	3.78	4.0	4.0	S46-M	3.42	4.14	3.58
S21-M	3.57	4.0	4.16	S47-M	2.78	2.85	3.0
S22-F	3.71	4.42	4.16	S48-M	4.21	3.64	4.58
S23-M	3.14	3.21	3.14	S49-F	3.35	2.28	2.25
S24-F	3.64	3.50	3.33	S50-F	3.64	3.35	3.83
S25-F	4.0	3.78	3.83	S51-F	4.07	4.07	4.0
S26-F	3.78	3.64	3.41	S52-F	3.64	3.35	3.83

Mean Scores

Total Number of all Students = 52

Number of Items = 40

Total Number of Students X Number of Items (52 X 40) = 2080

Total Score = 7781

7781/2080

- The mean of all students in global, support and problem-solving strategies is 3.74

Therefore, the overall mean of all students is in the category 'high'. Although the overall mean of all the students is in the higher range, the scores were not uniform across global, support and problem-solving strategies. Of the 52 students, the mean of 30 students was uniform in global, support and problem-solving strategies. The mean of 22 students in global, support and problem-solving strategies were in different ranges. Following are the details of the 30 students whose mean scores were on the uniform scale.

- 26 students are on the scale of 3.5 and higher in global, support and problem-solving strategies. Their average mean is 3.87.
- 3 students are on a scale of 2.5 to 3.4. Their average mean is 2.95.
- 1 student is on a scale of 2.4 and lower. His average mean is 2.0.

It was observed that a majority of the students are in the high range.

Mean scores in global strategies

- The overall mean of 39 students in global reading strategies is 3.5 or higher. Their average mean is 3.85.
- The overall mean of 12 students is on a scale of 2.5 and 3.4. Their mean is 3.21
- The overall mean of 1 student is on a scale of 2.4 or lower. His average mean is 1.85

Mean scores in support strategies

- The overall mean of 36 students is 3.5 and higher in support reading strategies. Their mean is 3.99.
- The overall mean of 14 students is on a scale of 2.5 and 3.4. in support reading strategies. Their mean is 3.24.
- The overall mean of 2 students is below the scale of 2.4 or lower in support reading strategies. Their average mean is 2.25.

Mean scores in problem-solving strategies

- The overall mean of 41 students in problem-solving reading strategies is 3.5 and higher. Their mean is 4.0.
- The overall mean of 9 students in a scale of 2.5 and 3.4 in support reading strategies. Their mean is 3.17.
- The overall mean of 2 students in problem-solving reading strategies is in a scale of 2.4 or lower. Their mean score is 2.08

C. A Comparative Analysis of Verbal Data and the Scores of Reading Strategy Inventory

The given data indicates the students' use of reading strategies while reading academic-related materials. A reading strategy inventory was administered immediately after the think-aloud verbal interview. The students were instructed to read each statement and rate how often they use the strategy described in that statement using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (I never do this) to 5 (I always do this). The students were reminded that their responses should refer only to strategies they use when reading college-related materials.

An analysis of the students' verbal report while reading an academic-related text and the average scores in the sub-scales of all the successful students and some of the partly successful readers in global, support and problem-solving reading strategies indicate similarities in the use of reading strategies. The reading strategy inventory scores of some of the partly successful readers and most unsuccessful readers show variations in the use of reading strategies.

D. Similarities of Reading Strategies in Verbal Reports and Reading Strategy Inventory of Successful Readers

TABLE 3
A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF READING STRATEGY INVENTORY SCORES AND VERBAL REPORTS

Sl. No	Student No.	Reading Strategy Inventory Score			Verbal Reports No. of times strategy used
		Global	Support solving	Problem	
1	S1-Female	3.85	3.71	4.08	07
2	S2-Male	3.78	3.5	3.91	18
3	S4-Female	4.57	4.28	4.5	05
4	S14-Male	3.85	4.21	3.66	09
5	S15-Female	3.71	3.07	3.66	15
6	S21-Male	3.57	4.0	4.16	08
7	S25-Female	4.0	3.78	3.83	05
8	S26-Female	3.78	3.64	3.41	10
9	S27-Male	4.07	4.21	4.16	09
10	S32-Male	3.64	4.07	4.66	11
11	S34-Male	4.07	4.14	4.33	11
12	S37-Male	3.85	4.0	4.08	12
13	S40-Male	3.71	3.28	3.75	05
14	S43-Female	4.35	4.71	4.41	05
15	S48-Male	4.21	3.64	4.58	22
16	S52-Female	3.64	3.35	3.83	09

The verbal reports and the reading strategy inventory scores of all (16 students) successful readers while reading an academic-related text show similarity in the use of global, support and problem-solving reading strategies.

E. Similarities of Reading Strategies in Verbal Reports and Reading Strategy Inventory of Partly Successful Readers

An analysis of the verbal report data and the average mean scores in the reading strategy inventory of partly successful readers indicates similarities as well as variations in the use of reading strategies. However, most of the students' verbal data and scores of the sub-scales global, support and problem-solving reading strategy inventory show similarities in the partial use of reading strategies.

TABLE 4
A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF READING STRATEGY INVENTORY SCORES AND VERBAL REPORTS

Sl. No	Student No.	Reading Strategy Inventory Score			Verbal Reports No. of times strategy used
		Global	Support solving	Problem	
1	S7-Female	3.5	3.21	4.16	05
2	S8-Male	2.71	4.0	4.0	03
3	S10-Female	3.14	3.85	3.66	04
4	S12-Male	3.92	3.0	3.16	05
5	S16-Male	3.57	3.57	3.83	07
6	S17-Male	3.42	3.42	3.5	04
7	S18-Male	4.28	3.92	4.25	06
8	S28-Male	3.35	4.0	4.08	04
9	S29-Female	3.85	4.07	4.33	03
10	S30-Male	3.78	3.21	4.16	04
11	S31-Female	4.0	3.71	3.58	05
12	S38-Female	3.78	3.42	3.58	03
13	S39-Female	3.42	3.28	3.25	04
14	S41-Male	3.64	4.0	4.33	06
15	S44-Female	4.07	3.64	3.91	07
16	S47-Male	2.78	2.85	3.0	03
17	S49-Female	3.35	2.28	2.25	07

The verbal reports and the scores of the reading strategy inventory of seventeen partly successful readers show similarities in the use of reading strategies.

F. Similarities in the Use of Reading Strategies in Verbal Reports and Reading Strategy Inventory of Unsuccessful Readers

An analysis of verbal report data and the average mean scores of reading strategy inventory indicate that some students are unsuccessful in using reading strategies while reading an academic-related text. The verbal data and the average mean in the sub-scales of global, support and problem-solving reading strategy inventory of an unsuccessful reader show similarities.

TABLE 5
A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF READING STRATEGY INVENTORY SCORES AND VERBAL REPORTS

Sl. No	Student No.	Reading Strategy Inventory Score			Verbal Reports No. of times strategy used
		Global	Support Solving	Problem	
1	S3-Male	1.85	2.21	1.91	01

Only one unsuccessful student's verbal reports and reading strategy inventory scores show similarities as he was unsuccessful in using the reading strategies. The rest of the unsuccessful readers' verbal reports and reading strategy inventory scores do not show similarities. Their reading strategy inventory scores show high use of strategies, while the verbal reports indicate that most of these readers failed to use strategies while reading an academic-related text.

G. Variations in the Use of Reading Strategies in Verbal Reports and Reading Strategy Inventory Scores

An analysis of the verbal report data and the average scores in the reading strategy inventory reveal variations in the use of reading strategies by partly successful and unsuccessful readers. The variations are visible in the verbal reports and in the average scores of global, support and problem-solving reading strategy inventory sub-scales.

TABLE 6
A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF READING STRATEGY INVENTORY SCORES AND VERBAL REPORTS

Sl. No	Student No.	Reading Strategy Inventory Score			Verbal Reports Strategies Used
		Global	Support solving	Problem	
1	S5-Male	3.92	3.71	4.33	01
2	S6-Female	3.35	3.78	4.16	02
3	S9-Female	3.57	4.64	3.25	02
4	S11-Male	3.28	3.64	4.08	Nil
5	S13-Female	4.42	4.92	5.0	04
6	S19-Female	3.5	3.28	3.75	Nil
7	S20-Female	3.78	4.0	4.0	02
8	S22-Female	3.71	4.42	4.16	Nil
9	S23-Male	3.14	3.21	3.14	02
10	S24-Female	3.64	3.50	3.33	Nil
11	S33-Male	3.64	3.71	4.25	01
12	S35-Male	3.57	3.64	3.91	Nil
13	S36-Female	4.35	4.5	4.16	03
14	S42-Male	3.14	4.42	3.25	Nil
15	S45-Male	3.5	3.42	4.66	02
16	S46-Male	3.42	4.14	3.58	Nil
17	S50-Female	3.64	3.35	3.83	Nil
18	S51-Female	4.07	4.07	4.0	Nil

As observed in the table above, the reading strategy inventory scores and the verbal reports of 18 students show dissimilarities in the use of reading strategies.

The findings suggest that verbal reports and reading strategy inventory scores of thirty-four (34) students were similar in the use of reading strategies. In contrast, the verbal reports and the reading strategy inventory scores of the remaining eighteen (18) students show variations. These variations in verbal reports and reading strategy inventory scores were in responses of the partly successful and unsuccessful readers.

V. DISCUSSION

Researchers in the past relied on quantitative and qualitative data to identify the reading strategies of ESL students. However, not many studies in reading strategy research have compared the effectiveness of data collection procedures. It is observed that researchers who investigated the reading process have based their findings using either a quantitative or qualitative approach. However, the findings of this study are based on an in-depth analysis of quantitative and qualitative data. The findings reveal that it is necessary to compare and contrast quantitative and qualitative data. The data from the reading strategy inventory has been compared with the data elicited using the think-aloud verbal procedure. This study followed Nalliveetil's (2014) classification model and categorized students as successful, partly

successful and unsuccessful strategy users. It has been observed that the reading strategy inventory scores of partly successful students show similarities and variations in the use of reading strategies. An analysis of the reading strategy inventory scores and verbal reports indicates that the frequency of strategy use and mean scores of successful readers indicate a higher use of reading strategies. The similarities in the frequency of strategy use found in the verbal reports and reading strategy inventory scores of sixteen successful readers, seventeen partly successful and one unsuccessful reader suggest the effectiveness of research tools in generating valid data. However, the reading strategy inventory scores and the verbal reports of the eighteen students show dissimilarities in the frequency of strategy use. The scores indicate a higher use of reading strategies. In contrast, the data from the verbal reports indicate that these eighteen students did not use the strategies to the frequency that was reported in the reading strategy inventory. The dissimilarities in the use of strategies could be identified because of comparing the quantitative and qualitative data. The findings of the study suggest that research tools have the potential to provide invalid data. It is observed that depending solely on quantitative data provides information about the students' perceptions of strategies rather than their actual use of such strategies in a given reading context.

The think-aloud procedure as a qualitative research tool has been useful to probe into the ESL engineering students' actual reading strategy use in a given reading context. Even though the large amounts of data generated using this procedure poses a challenge to the researchers, it accounts for the validity of data in researching the reading process of engineering students. A close examination of verbal reports indicated that most of the strategies reported by the ESL engineering students in their verbal reports were similar to the 30-item reading strategy inventory model developed by Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) and the 40-item reading strategy inventory developed for this study. The recorded verbal data in the audio format requires careful listening and meticulous transcription into a written form. Transcribing the verbal data into a written form is tedious process and time-consuming. Another challenge for researchers is to quantify the qualitative data. In order to quantify the verbal data, the questionnaires developed by Oxford (1990), Taraban et al. (2000), Mokhtari and Reichard (2002), and Taraban et al. (2004) was found relevant.

The validity of reading strategy inventory as a research tool was tested before administering it in the main study. The findings highlight the need to validate the questionnaires through pilot studies. The pilot study examined the students' ability to comprehend each of the given strategy items. Even though the results of the pilot study proved that statements given in the reading strategy inventory are comprehensible to the students, a comparison of scores in reading strategy inventory and the frequency of strategy use in verbal reports of the main study show variations. Based on the uniformity of scores of the reading strategy inventory and verbal reports, the accuracy rating of the reading strategy inventory as a research tool is 65%. A mismatch in the reading strategy inventory scores and the frequency of strategy use in the verbal reports of 18 students (35%) indicate how perception differs from reality. These ESL students perceived that they are competent users of reading strategies while the same competency is not reflected in their verbal reports. As observed in this study, the self-inflated scores can provide invalid results, and the findings of the study support the views of Ericsson and Simon (1980) and Schoenfeld (1985) that consistency of results has to be checked by comparing and contrasting the data with other sources. In order to achieve consistency in results, researchers investigating the cognitive processes have to use self-measuring reports that can generate factual and observable data. Many researchers administer self-evaluation questionnaires wherein the respondents must choose a rating scale that best fits their personality. Rating scales such as 1 (I never or almost never do this) to 5 (I always or almost always do this) used in the reading strategy inventory as a parameter to evaluate an individual's self-competence or self-awareness can, sometimes, pose confusion if each of the scales is not explicitly made clear in a research context.

The findings of the study suggest that the think-aloud procedure is a useful technique to uncover the reading strategies of ESL engineering students. The inadequacies of quantitative data are compensated when the qualitative data has the potential to address such shortcomings. The think-aloud procedure and reading strategy inventory focused on eliciting information related to the reading process of ESL engineering students. The think-aloud procedure allowed the students to verbally state the strategies that were used to comprehend words, phrases and sentences while reading an academic text. During the reading process, students were made conscious of their thinking processes and procedures that helped or hindered their comprehension of words, phrases and sentences. When a student could not comprehend a word, phrase or sentence, the think-aloud made him/her realize the reasons behind such impediments. The findings of the study reveal the effectiveness of qualitative research procedures to probe into difficult areas where quantitative research techniques may not provide accurate results. However, it was observed that the reading strategy inventory was useful to elicit ESL engineering students' perceptions of reading strategy use. Exposure to the 40-item reading strategy inventory made the students conscious of strategy use while reading academic-related texts. Quantitative data gathered through questionnaires can provide a lot of valid information, which is otherwise difficult to collect using qualitative research procedures. The findings of the study are limited to the ESL teaching-learning contexts with a specific focus on engineering undergraduates. However, the quantitative and qualitative research procedure followed in this study can be applied to other ESL/EFL research contexts where reading processes are investigated.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study examined the effectiveness of the think-aloud procedure and reading strategy inventory in ESL reading process research. Adopting research procedures without field-testing their effectiveness can sometimes lead to

inaccurate results and findings. A thorough analysis of the data collection procedures at each of the stages during the progression of the research makes this study significant in ESL research contexts. Pilot studies were undertaken to examine the validity of the think-aloud procedure and reading strategy inventory. The findings of the pilot studies gave an impetus to the main study. Validating research procedures enhances authenticity in research findings. The data that a researcher collects from various sources determines the quality of a particular research design. When the research findings are based on primary sources, there is a need to adopt a suitable methodology to elicit data or else it can lead to falsified results. The findings suggest that a researcher must be cautious while adopting a research procedure to generate qualitative or quantitative data.

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Second Language Listening Comprehension Gain From Aural vs. Audio-Visual Inputs: The Case of EFL Arab Learners

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Abstract—This study aims at finding out which medium is best for the acquisition of L2 listening skills, aural or audio-visual listening comprehension. Sixty EFL Arab learners were asked to sit for pre- and post-tests. The post-test proved a significant improvement in the performance of the students of the experimental group who were exposed to audio-visual medium. This outperformance of the experimental group appeared in their ability to distinguish the meanings of several words in the pre- and post-tests. They were able to identify most of the L2 vocabulary, grammar and syntax because of using the audio-visual materials. The experimental group managed to understand the linguistic information and they were also able to answer the questions in both given tests correctly. On the contrary, the performance of the control group was clearly poor in terms of the L2 vocabulary, grammar and syntax and the reason is referring to the use of the traditional material which is the aural one. The subjects of the experimental group were interested in learning listening by using audio-visual materials because it helps them to develop the listening skills faster, unlike the subjects of the control group. Therefore, the results show that multimedia is effective in enhancing the skills of listening comprehension of female Saudi EFL learners.

Index Terms—audio-visual, aural, EFL learners, L2 listening comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Aural vs. Audio-Visual Listening Comprehension

In aural listening comprehension, a listener receives comprehensible input aurally and he/she is required to internally interact in order to reconstruct or analyze the received input. Bacon (1992) and Scarcella and Oxford (1992) explain that during the timeline of FL listening comprehension, aural listening comprehension is always relatable to the term "authentic materials" which according to Rogers and Medley (1988) refers to "language samples that reflect a naturalness of form, and an appropriateness of cultural and situational context that would be found in the language as used by the native speakers" (p. 468). In other words, it is the language that L2 natives produce in oral interactions. On the other hand, audio-visual listening helps improve EFL learners' listening skills by providing both linguistic and cultural inputs; listeners select and interpret information which comes from auditory and visual cues in order to define what is going on and what the speakers are trying to express. Buck (2001) explains that the audio-visual listening mean is that one where students can watch the theme and hear the speech at the same time. This mean is helpful for weak EFL students because it simplifies difficult listening comprehension. Regarding to that, Lever-Duffy (2003) shows that the audio-visual mean has many advantages because both senses (sight and hearing) of EFL students are motivated and construct many perceptual interactions to the given audio-visual comprehension. This advantage of the audio-visual material simplifies learning L2 as it satisfies the learners expectations including those ones who have different strategies for the listening skill.

B. Factors Hindering Listening

There are some problems that may hinder listening comprehension because it is a complex process that requires learners to adopt an active role to encode listening input. Nushi and Orouji (2020) report a number of general factors lying behind listening difficulty. These include speech speed of delivery of texts, lexical coverage, limited capacity of short-term, lack of prior knowledge, and high levels of anxiety. Similarly and in some more detail, Dunkel (1991) points out that there are eight factors which hamper the efficiency of listening comprehension on the part of EFL/ESL learners, namely speed, repetition of words, poor vocabulary knowledge, unawareness of discourse markers, lack of contextual knowledge, lack of concentration in a foreign language, learning habits and interaction. First, while listening, EFL learners should learn how to divide language chunks or clusters into small groups of words in order to overcome speed speech. Second, repetition of words or redundancy gives EFL learners further time in order to process and construct meaning of the spoken language. Therefore, EFL learners may face difficulty in listening comprehension

when there is a little redundancy in the listening passage. Third, EFL learners may face difficulty in listening comprehension as well if they are not aware of the reduced forms which frequently occur in the spoken language. These reduced forms may occur phonologically, syntactically, semantically or pragmatically. Fourth, EFL learners should be trained to identify the functions of discourse markers like adverbs and different types of conjunctions when constructing meaning of the spoken language. Fifth, EFL learners should be aware of the cultural values and norms that determine the communicative functions of the spoken language in different social situations and the goals behind such utterances. Sixth, EFL learners should be trained to have full concentration while practicing different modes of listening such as aural, audio or audio-visual. Seventh, EFL learners should be trained to use different listening strategies. These strategies include detection of key words, guessing the most probable meaning of unknown words from the context and identifying main and minor ideas, hypotheses and generalizations. Eighth, EFL learners should be aware that the main purpose behind listening comprehension is to train them to interact and become good responders who can negotiate meaning.

C. Top-Down and Bottom-Up Listening Strategies

As other language skills, listening is acquired by following different learning strategies. Bueno, Madrid and McLaren (2006) indicate that the L2 listening process has two basic strategies: top-down and bottom-up listening strategies. As for the top-down listening strategy, it involves recognizing the major core of the speech in the comprehension generally, regardless concentrating on the meaning of each word or each sentence. On the other hand, the bottom-up listening strategy has a linguistic identity that stresses the usage of the linguistic knowledge of the L2 for the learners. The L2 linguistic background entails recognizing the L2 sounds and words like, for example, being able to distinguish the homophones as in 'flower' and 'flour'. In addition, the L2 learner should be able to recognize the types of syllables like the closed syllable as in 'test' and the leftovers syllable as in 'cottage' in order to identify the words. L2 learners should also have a sufficient knowledge about parsing to get acquainted to the hierarchical structure of the sentences. They are also supposed to update their stored information of the L2 to the new inputs, because this step helps in having a full understanding of the new knowledge in any given spoken text. It is also necessary to use both listening strategies (top-down and bottom-up) in the listening process because skipping one of them will lead to a failure in the performance. Such learners have a pre-idea about what they will hear and cannot change that idea along with the listening text. They tend to overlook information contrary to their background information; they make inferences based on their background knowledge and avoid understanding the new information. Those learners usually fail to define the end of words as they cannot divide the speech stream into sound units. They also go through difficulty in defining word boundaries when L2 stress patterns differ from those of their L1. Thus, they fail in analyzing, evaluating facts and causes included in the listening text.

Rost (2002) asserts that both terms are mainly meant to reflect on how a listening text is processed by EFL/ESL learners through certain strategies and learning techniques. Both terms are viewed as two different separate strategies adopted by EFL/ESL learners in order to process and comprehend a listening text. Top-down listening strategies specifically refer to a general outlook of a certain listening text which reflects its meaning in general. Such top-down strategies usually start with a general discussion of the topic prior to using an extensive task which reflects the comprehensive meaning of the intended listening task. According to Lynch and Mendelsohn (2002), top-down strategies depend on EFL/ESL learners' knowledge about the topic being listened to, their knowledge of the appropriateness of using language chunks and expressions in different situations, and their knowledge of different language functions in various social situations. On the contrary, Brett (1995) explains that bottom-up listening strategies differ from top-down strategies in their focus on understanding the details of the intended listening task including sounds and words. Whereas top-down strategies are adopted when listening to a mother-tongue listening comprehension, it is likely that EFL/ESL learners adopt bottom-up strategies when listening to an English listening task. They attempt to understand every detail and word in the text. Thus, according to Underwood (1990), EFL/ESL learners may desperately fail in understanding all words and details included in the intended listening task. They may account their failure on the basis of English language speed speech, which is faster, from their view, than their first languages including Arabic. However, this justification is virtually untrue because even for an English man learning Arabic, for example, he could consider Arabic as fast language. The point is that every language is spoken at a certain speed, and it is the brain which mainly responsible for processing each word included in the intended listening task. It could be hardly difficult for the brain to process each single English word. This cognitive failure is the main reason of why EFL/ESL learners consider listening as a difficult task. This does not simply mean that EFL/ESL learners should be only trained to use top-down strategies even though such strategies are useful as a kick-start of comprehending an overall gist of the intended listening task.

Therefore, as much as EFL/ESL learners are in need to focus on developing top-down strategies, they cannot totally ignore the bottom-up strategies. It is totally mistaken for EFL/ESL learners to believe that they can rely on a single listening strategy. For instance, they cannot process a listening task from a general meaning view (i.e. top-down strategies) or from a detail-based view (i.e. bottom-down strategies). Therefore, Field (2002) states that it is inevitable for EFL/ESL learners to use both strategies while listening to a target language listening task. For instance, when an EFL/ESL learner only picks up a few words of the listening task, he/she becomes interested in the whole listening text. In such a case, a learner will attempt to reconstruct the fragments of sentences. Using both strategies of top-down and

bottom-up, according to Nunan (1992), will help such a learner comprehend the listening task. Therefore, EFL/ESL learners should keep a balanced approach which combines both types of listening strategies: top-down and bottom-up.

II. THE PRESENT STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

EFL learners in general and EFL learners of Najran University in particular face many difficulties in listening comprehension. In light of the above-mentioned factors and strategies pertaining to the skill of listening, the present study attempts to find out which medium is better for acquiring better listening, the aural medium or the audio-visual medium. To the best of researchers' knowledge, there is no study conducted on this topic at Najran University. Therefore, it is felt necessary to examine the ability of Saudi EFL learners at the level of university in two different types of listening comprehension, namely aural and audio-visual. The present study collects data based on two different types of listening comprehension tests: aural test and audio-visual test.

This study investigates the L2 listening skills acquisition among EFL Arab learners, namely female EFL Saudi students at Najran University. The proper aim of this study is to investigate which medium is best for the acquisition of L2 listening skills, aural or audio-visual listening comprehension. This investigation holds a comparison between aural and audio-visual listening activities in terms of a number of L2 listening variables. They include L2 vocabulary knowledge, understanding the linguistic information, auditory discrimination, and guessing the meaning of unknown vocabulary. In other words, the current study attempts to find answer to the following research questions:

1. How likely do the Saudi female EFL learners vary in their knowledge of L2 vocabulary?
2. To what extent do they differ in grasping the linguistic data occurred in the given listening comprehension?
3. How likely do they apply the different ways of discrimination and guessing of unknown words?

III. THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

The theoretical framework of this study is based on learners' L2 variables devised by both Vandergrift and Baker (2015) and on Mayer's (2001) cognitive theory of multimedia learning. As to learners' L2 variables, the present study excludes the first variable of L1 vocabulary knowledge because it is not highly applicable to Arabic and English. This variable is mainly meant to transfer L1 lexical knowledge into L2 listening when the two languages are highly related to each other, e.g. French and English. Instead, the current study is theoretically based on the other variables of learners' L2, namely L2 vocabulary knowledge, metacognition, working memory, and auditory discrimination. L2 listening test is devised and analyzed in terms of Vandergrift and Baker's (2015) learners' L2 variables.

Vandergrift and Baker (2015) examine the effect of the L2 student's variables on the L2 listening comprehension. The variables include the L1 and L2 vocabulary; the listening comprehension of L1; the sufficient ability of recalling and the audial reorganization. Moreover, they investigate how the student's cognitive variables involve in the L2 listening comprehension. The data were gathered by French and English listening comprehension tests. These tools are for analyzing the L1 and the L2 listening comprehension. The authors used the *Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test in its fourth edition* in order to measure the knowledge of L1 and L2 vocabulary. The *Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery* (Pimsleur, Reed, and Stansfield, 2004) was adopted in order to measure auditory discrimination. Vandergrift and Baker use a self-report which is called the Metacognitive Awareness Listening Questionnaire including twenty-one items related to the procedures and methods of L2 listening comprehension. The procedures and methods entail working out problems, preparing and assessment, intellectual translation, informational background, as well as instructed attentiveness. Taking part in the study was carried out on voluntarily basis where participants and their parents had to give their consent. Vandergrift and Baker indicate that all the students' expected variables were confirmed as favorable signs of the L2 listening comprehension. Remarkable statistical correlation coefficients appeared to prove the favorable interactions between students' L2 vocabulary, L1 variables, L1 listening comprehension, audial reorganization and the sufficient ability of recalling as well as the students' L2 listening comprehension skills.

As to L2 vocabulary knowledge, Field (2003) clarifies that EFL learners may not be able to identify L2 words because of the rapid speech. This failure on the part of L2 learners does not, however, underestimate the contribution of L2 vocabulary knowledge to the success of L2 listening process as Mecartty (2000) finds that knowledge of L2 vocabulary, grammar and syntax contribute by 14% to enhance L2 learners' listening skills. Staehr (2009) proves that the L2 listening test scores of Danish learners are correlated to their L2 vocabulary size and depth; L2 vocabulary knowledge accounts for 51% of the listening differences among Danish participants, where 49% explains L2 listening difference in terms of participants' vocabulary size while 2% of that difference is attributed to vocabulary depth. Bonk (2000) and Zealand and Schmitt (2013) highlight the considerable effect of L2 vocabulary knowledge on L2 listening variation because L2 learners vary in their management of the words which they know and those which they are not sure of their meanings while listening to an L2 listening task. This variation is mainly attributed to their different metacognitive abilities. In this context Brett (1997) explains "listening assumes increased importance as not only it is a key language and communication skill in its own right, but it also provides a channel through which new language can be received and may become intake" (p. 39).

As to metacognition, Goh (2008), and Vandergrift and Goh (2012) explain that metacognition reveals the cognitive strategies which L2 listeners use in order to comprehend the listening task; these strategies include controlling,

regulating and directive the cognitive processes of comprehension. In this regard, Graham and Macaro (2008) attribute better performance in L2 listening to the cluster of L2 listeners' cognitive strategies. For instance, in their argument of listening to learn versus learning to listen, Vandergrift and Cross (2018) believe that it is not enough to listen to learn but learners should learn how to listen in an L2; it refers to a pedagogical tendency towards addressing the process of learning and how students arrive at comprehension (p. 1).

As to working memory, Juffs and Herrington (2011) emphasize that L2 learners vary in their learning and use of an L2; that is their retention of L2 phonological information related to L2 sounds and their processing of visual and spatial information. Andringa, Olsthoorn, van Beuningen, Schoonen, and Hulstijn (2012) find statistically insignificant relationship between L2 listening ability of Dutch learners and their working memory.

As to auditory discrimination, just like the little evidence on the correlation between L2 listeners' working memory and their success in an L2 listening task, little is known about the relationship between L2 listeners' auditory discrimination and L2 listening success. In this concern, Wilson, Kaneko, Lyddon, Okamoto, and Ginsburg (2011) affirm the statistically significant relationship between L2 listeners' ability of auditory discrimination and their success in L2 listening.

As to the cognitive theory of multimedia learning of Mayer (2001), its main components are: (1) visual and auditory structures, (2) little capacity of processing available in the memory, (3) sensory, working and long-term memory stores, (4) cognitive ability to select words and images, organize work and images, and integrate newly acquired knowledge with the stored knowledge. Participants' responses to the 14-item questionnaire are analyzed in terms of these components. Mayer (2009) asserts that the first, third and fourth components of the cognitive theory of Multimedia learning help realize meaningful learning. Brett (1997) finds "there may be certain gains in efficiency of the use of a computer interface for all of the components of listening tasks. Responses to question 4 seem to indicate that learners feel that such an amalgamation helps make listening easier. It was certainly noticeable during the video plus pen and paper tasks that over half of the learners in each class never watched the video but only looked at the written true/false statements on their task papers" (p. 48).

IV. RESEARCH METHODS

A. Research Design

The present study adopted the design of the quasi-experimental research. Two types of tests, namely pre-test and post-test, were employed for both the control group and the experimental group. Some of the subjects selected for the study were assigned to the experimental group while the others were assigned to the control group. Both experimental and control groups sat for the listening pre-test. Then, the experimental group was taught on watching and listening using audio-visual listening materials whereas the control group was taught listening using aural listening materials only. Finally, the experimental group appeared for watching and listening post-test based on the audio-visual materials while the control group sat for the same test but on the basis of using aural listening materials only. The listening post-test aims to determine statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups in terms of the four dependent variables: subjects' knowledge of L2 vocabulary, metacognition, working memory and auditory discrimination.

B. Participants

A cluster random sampling technique was used to select sixty female EFL students. The participants are in the first-year level at the Department of English, College of languages, Najran University. A consent form was distributed to the subject to confirm that they agree to participate in the tests. The sample was further divided into two groups, namely experimental group and control group with each group having thirty subjects. In addition, more ten female students were selected for the pilot study.

C. Materials

The materials meant for the test instrument were ten short English conversations. They were extracted from an English learning program called "Living English" broadcast on ABC Australia TV channel (formerly known as Australia Plus). The episodes of the program are also available on the website: <http://www.abc.net.au/education/learn-english/> and also on YouTube (<https://www.youtube.com/playlist?list=PLqmHbm3J8Fw1JYCdFQpgrEr8adJ3q-JWv>). The average duration of each conversation is one minute and thirty seconds. The conversation content is designed for beginners and those who have basic English skills. Therefore, such conversations are appropriate to the level of participants whose proficiency in English doesn't exceed the level of beginners. The variable-based questions of the test were constructed based on the content of the conversation as shown in the next sub-section.

D. Listening Test

The instrument of data collection in this study was a listening test. It consisted of a pre-test and a post-test. The two listening tests were derived from activities included in the episodes of Living English program. Before administering the test, the participants were exposed to the listening activities during the experimental period. This helped subjects to recall situations in which the tested items occurred in a way that could remind them of the correct answers. Each type of

the listening test contained five questions each. They were devised in order to know the effect of the independent variable (aural or audio-visual materials) of the present study on the dependent variables (subjects' knowledge of L2 vocabulary, metacognition skills, working memory, and discrimination of sounds). As the materials of both listening pre- and post-tests were derived from a reputable website which is taught worldwide at different English Language schools and language centers, both pre- and post-listening tests can be judged as valid and reliable. In this particular case, the need to pilot the two listening pre- and post-tests did raise. In order to assess the reliability of pre- and post-tests in Appendices A and B, a pilot study was conducted on ten female students and calculated by the Cronbach Alpha.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Theoretically, the data were analyzed based on the interrelationship between the variables. The analysis of data also relied on the cognitive theory of multimedia learning as introduced by Mayer (2001). The current study, then, adopted the t-test, paired samples statistics test and Pearson correlation analysis to decide if there was a remarkable statistical difference between the subjects' performance the control group and the experimental one, on the one hand, and indicated the effect of using audio-visual and aural listening materials on the subjects' performance, on the other. The statistical significance was determined at the level of $P > .05$.

The reliability coefficient of the research tool administered (i.e., the test) was computed by using Cronbach's alpha. Table 1 displays the values of reliability for both tests (pre- and post-test) while Table 2 reveals values of Alpha Cronbach for each test. All the outputs were elicited from the SPSS version 21.

TABLE 1
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized terms	N of Items
.925	.926	2

TABLE 2
ITEM-TOTAL STATISTICS

Test	Scale Mean if Deleted	Item Variance if Deleted	Item-Corrected Correlation	Item-Total Squared Correlation	Multiple
pre-test	67.0000	879.831	.863	.744	
Post-test	63.5833	748.383	.863	.744	

As Table 1 shows, the reliability coefficient is .92, which deems high. It indicates that the internal consistency of the tests items is high. Therefore, the values of the total items of both tests collectively and the values for each test as separate indicate a strong internal consistency of the items. As a result, this leads to the possibility of generalizability of the findings of the current study.

To discover the most effective channel to aid listening comprehension, means, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis were computed. Table 3 and Figure 1 summarize all the statistics for the experimental group while Table 4 and Figure 2 reflect the achievements of the control group.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (N=30)

No.	Variables	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum
1	pre-test	87.8	8.9	10	100
2	Post-test	93.3	10.1	20	100

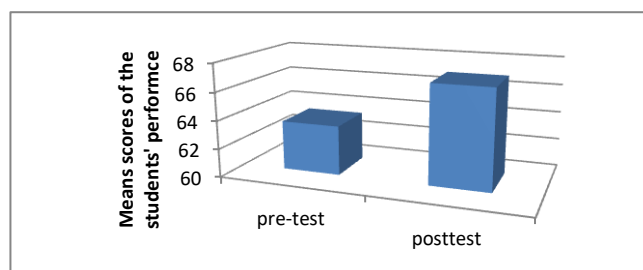


Figure 1. Means of students' scores of listening test (experimental group)

As shown in Table 3 and Figure 1, the students got improved from time 1 (pre-test) ($M=87.8$, $SD=8.8$) to time 2 (post-test), gaining ($M=93.3$, $SD=10.1$). This indicates the positive effects of exposure to the treatment of audio-visual mode that delivered listening comprehension skills.

Regarding the listening comprehension delivered by the audio tracks mode, mean scores of the students as shown in Table 4 and Figure 2 indicated that the students also got a slight improvement in listening comprehension skills when engaged in audio mode (the improvement from a pre-test ($M=39.3$, $SD=15.0$) to the post-test ($M=40.6$, $SD=15.8$)).

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE CONTROL GROUP (N=30)

No.	Variables	M	SD	Minimum	Maximum
1	pre-test	39.3	15.0	10	100
2	Post-test	40.6	15.8	20	100

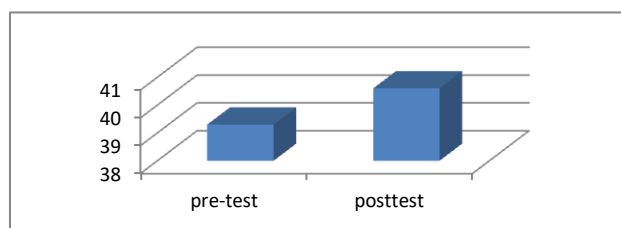


Figure 2. Means scores of the control group students

Concerning whether there was a statistically significant difference between the achievements of both groups in terms of both tests, a t-test was performed. The results of the t-test indicated that the differences between the students' scores in both tests are significant. Means of the audio-visual group students ($M=63.0$, $SD=27.3$) were significantly higher than the means of the audio group ($M=67.0$, $SD=29.6$), $t(58)=15.1$, $p=.000$, $d=.12$). This indicates that the audio-visual technique was the best mode to aid L2 listening skills.

TABLE 5
MEANS SCORES FOR BOTH GROUPS

Group		pre-test	Post-test
Experiment	Mean	87.8	93.3
	Std. Deviation	8.9	10.1
Control	Mean	39.3	40.6
	Std. Deviation	15.0	15.8
Total	Mean	63.5	67.0
	Std. Deviation	27.3	29.6

TABLE 6
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levene's Test for t-test for Equality of Means								
		Equality of Variances								
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	12.18	.001	15.189	58	.000	48.50	3.19	42.10	54.89
	Equal variances not assumed			15.189	47.36	.000	48.50	3.19	42.07	54.92
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	3.71	.059	15.304	58	.000	52.66	3.4	45.77	59.55
	Equal variances not assumed			15.304	49.49	.000	52.66	3.44	45.75	59.58

To measure if female EFL learners statistically significant vary in their knowledge of L2 vocabulary, Paired Samples Statistics test for the two groups was carried out in Post-Test. Table 7 indicates the results:

TABLE 7
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS TEST (POST-TEST) L2 VOCABULARY

	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Post-test experimental group	86.0000	3.60555	-11.00	29	0.008
Post-test control group	75.0000	5.00000			

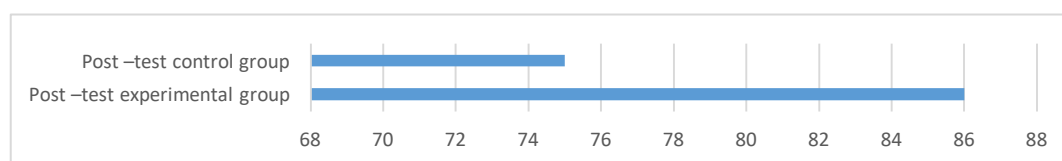


Figure 3. Paired samples statistics test (Post-Test) L2 vocabulary

Table 7 and figure 3 show that there are statistically significant differences in the achievement for the experimental and the control groups in L2 vocabulary. The value of the t-test is (11.00), which is higher than the value of the t-table

(2.045), at significance statistical level (0.008) less than the value specified (0.05) which indicates that these differences were in favor of the experimental group.

To measure the extent to which the Saudi female EFL learners differ statistically in grasping the linguistic data occurred in the given listening comprehension, Paired Samples Statistics test for the two groups was carried out in post-test. Table 8 indicates the results:

TABLE 8
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS TEST (POST-TEST)

	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Post-test experimental group	90.80	9.31128	-3.693	29	0.021
Post-test control group	75.60	5.12835			

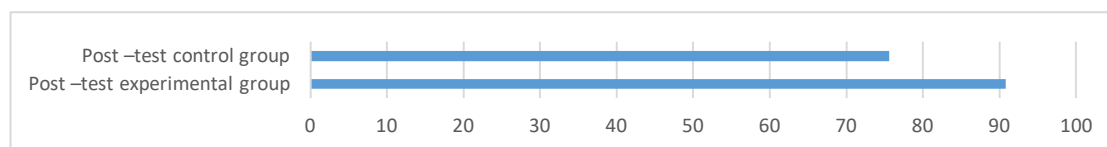


Figure 4. Paired samples statistics test (Post-Test)

Table 8 and the figure 4 show that there are statistically significant differences in the achievement of both the experimental and control groups in grasping the linguistic data occurred in the given listening comprehension. The T-test value is (3.693), which is higher than the value of the t-table (2.045), at significance statistical level (0.021) less than the value specified (0.05) indicating that these differences were in favor of the experimental group.

To measure whether female EFL learners statistically significant apply different ways of discrimination and guessing of unknown words, Paired Samples Statistics test for the two groups was carried out in Post-Test. Table 9 indicates the results:

TABLE 9
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS TEST (POST-TEST) WAYS OF DISCRIMINATION AND GUESSING OF UNKNOWN WORDS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Post-test experimental group	96.00	5.29150	7.941	29	0.015
Post-test control group	74.333	6.65833			

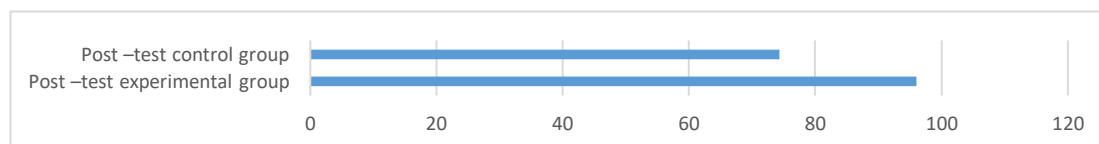


Figure 5. Paired samples statistics test (Post-Test) ways of discrimination and guessing of unknown words

Table 9 and figure 5 show that there are statistically significant differences in the achievement of the experimental and control group in the discrimination and guessing of unknown words. The value of the t-test is (7.941), which is higher than the value of the t-table (2.045), at significance statistical level (0.015) less than the value specified (0.05) indicating that these differences were in favor of the experimental group.

VI. DISCUSSION

The present study significantly contributes to the literature of examining the listening comprehension among EFL learners in the Saudi context. Its results were in favour of using the audio-visual listening materials which enable Saudi EFL students to realize different cognitive factors of the listening process.

In order to find out the best medium (aural or audio-visual) for the participants, means, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis were computed. The mean of the experimental group is (M=87.8, SD=8.8) for the pre-test, and (M=93.3, SD=10.1) which show that the exposure to the audio-visual materials is significantly positive. Meanwhile, the means of the control group in the pre-test is (M=39.3 SD=15.0) and for the post-test is (M=40.6, SD=15.8), which show that their improvement in the aural material is not really remarkable. In addition, a t-test was carried out and the results show that there is a remarkable difference between the students' scores in the post-test and the pre-test. Means of the experimental group is (M=63.0, SD=27.3), while the means of the control group is (M=67.0, SD=29.6), $t(58) = 15.1$, $p = .000$, $d = 12$. This finding agrees with those of Brett (1997) and assures that the usage of the audio-visual material is more effective than the aural material in term of improving the skills of listening comprehension of Saudi female EFL learners.

The experimental group outperformed the control group in the listening session due to using the audio-visual listening materials. Moreover, the results contributed to answering the question raised by Nyns (1989) "Which medium is best suited to teach such-and-such a skill"? This research proved that audio-visual medium is highly effective in the listening comprehension, unlike the aural one.

A. Research Question 1

Paired samples statistics test for the two groups (control and experimental) is carried out in Post-test. The experimental group's mean is 86.0000, while the control group's mean is 75.0000. Therefore, the results show that there are statistically significant differences in students' achievement for the control group and experimental group in L2 vocabulary in favour of the experimental group.

No doubt that the experimental group subjects outperformed the control group in both the pre-test and the post-test of listening. The achievement is clear in their capability in recognizing the meaning of variant vocabulary in both tests. They managed to recognize the vocabulary which are confusing to them due to the support of the audio-visual listening means. This result emphasizes the effect of the subjects' knowledge of L2 words, syntax and grammar during the process of both tests. Besides, the results show remarkable differences in the metacognitive capabilities among both groups. The results are compatible with the findings revealed by Bonk (2000), Mecartty (2000), Field (2003), and Zealand and Schmitt (2013).

The finding is compatible with Nunan's (2001) results that listening is characterized with complexity compared to other linguistic skills. This is attributed to the fact that listening entails other sub-categories like understanding, memorizing and evaluating. For this purpose, knowledge of L2 vocabulary is essential because it enables EFL learners to understand the content of the listening activity. Indeed, knowledge of L2 vocabulary makes listening an easier task. As long as EFL learners can understand the listening content, they can successfully reply to questions pertinent to the listening activity. In such a way, EFL learners will be able to improve their speaking skills as well. Therefore, this finding is compatible as well with Ellis (2005). Saudi female students will be able to improve their ability of proper and correct ways of pronunciation related to various words which they are being taught. They will be able to recognize different sounds that for particular words they are learning. Hence, they will be able to distinguish between different English words. This will lead Saudi female EFL learners to have successful patents in realizing the English-native accents at the long term. They will be also able to differentiate various types of words classes of the same words and their proper ways of pronunciation.

B. Research Question 2

To measure if female EFL learners statistically significant differ in grasping the linguistic data occurred in the given listening comprehension, paired samples statistics test for the two groups is carried out in post-test. The mean of the experimental group is 90.80, while the mean of the control group is 75.60. The results show that there are statistically significant differences in student achievement in control group and experimental in grasping the linguistic data occurred in the given listening comprehension in favour of the experimental group.

In addition, the experimental group subjects were capable to prove their ability in understanding information contained in the listening text unlike the control group. They succeeded in that because of their capability in comprehending the information in the post test. They also managed to response with correct answers to the questions related to the listening comprehension test. The results show the experimental group's capability in controlling the cognitive procedures in the listening session. The results of this study confirm those ones revealed by Goh (2008), and Juffs and Herrington (2011). Anyhow, it is not compatible with the findings revealed by Andringa et al. (2012).

This finding supports findings reported by Bueno et al. (2006) as L2 listening performance includes top-down listening process and bottom-up listening process. The top-down process ensures that Saudi female EFL learners will generally understand various main ideas contained in the listening activity regardless of focusing on the meanings of particular words or certain structures. In addition, the bottom-up process will sustain the ability of Saudi female EFL learners to exploit their L2 linguistic knowledge in understanding the listening comprehension. Their linguistic knowledge is centred on their L2 sounds' background and their familiarity to the L2 vocabulary. For example, Saudi female EFL learners will be able to distinguish different types of phrase structure rules. They will also be able to differentiate between various minimal pairs like bin and pin, fan and van, thin and sin, etc. As such, Saudi female EFL learners will be able to distinguish between various utterances in their attempts to have full understanding of the meaning of the listening activity.

This finding also conforms to those reported by Celce-Murcia (2001) because Saudi female EFL learners should understand structure of English phrases as a means of understanding the spoken text which they are listening to. In this regard, there are expectations that Saudi female EFL learners will practice their background of the L2 to understand different English sounds' units and different boundaries of syllables in their process of identifying words included in the listening activity. This finding will help Saudi female EFL learners memorize and retrieve the retained English words because they have the capability of parsing. At this stage, Saudi female EFL learners will successfully restore new information because they have managed to match them to the old memorized types of information. In this concern, Saudi female EFL learners should adopt either one of these two processes because it is difficult according to Celce-Murcia (2001) to carry out the two processes together. Therefore, Saudi EFL learners must have a pre-idea of what they will listen to, so that they can avoid making inferences according to their background knowledge, but instead understanding the new information. Therefore, Saudi female EFL learners will be able to define the end of words because they can identify the sound units which form the speech stream. They will also be able to overcome the difficulty of defining word boundaries, particularly those L2 stress patterns which differ from those of the Arabic language. Thus, Saudi female EFL learners will be able to analyse, evaluate facts and causes contained in the listening text.

C. Research Question 3

Paired samples statistics test was carried out to measure whether both groups apply different ways of discrimination and guessing of unknown words in post-test. The experimental group's mean is 96.00, while the control group's mean is 74.333. Thus, the results show that there are remarkable differences in students' achievement for both groups (control group and experimental group) in ways of discrimination and guessing of unknown words. According to the results, experimental group outperformed the control group in a notable way.

The multimedia listening means assisted the subjects of the experimental group to succeed in distinguishing L2 vocabulary like the minimal pairs, unlike the control group. This result is compatible with the results revealed by Goh (2008), and Wilson, et al. (2011).

This finding is compatible with those of Brett (1997). The finding proved that multimedia is effective in enhancing the skills of listening comprehension of Saudi female EFL learners. The experimental group was better in the listening performance than the control group because of the privileges of the audio-visual listening. The finding helps to answer the question raised by Nyns (1989) "Which medium is best suited to teach such-and-such a skill"? The present study proved that multimedia listening comprehension led to better results in the listening comprehension in comparison to aural listening comprehension. This was evident as multimedia enabled experimental group to recall missing words. The present study also affirms the efficiency of multimedia materials to the listening comprehension skills of Saudi female EFL participants. This is attributed to the fact that multimedia comprises different components of visual and aural inputs, written tasks and providing feedbacks to learners' responses.

VII. IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSION

This study focused on the effect of audio and audio-visual materials on listening acquisition among EFL students. The results showed that audio-visual has significant effect at the level of Listening acquisition among EFL Students. They indicated that there were statistically significant differences in favour of the experimental group. The post-test proved a significant improvement in the performance of the students of the experimental group which audio-visual has been applied to them and surpassed the control group that underwent audio program. Therefore, the study concluded that the teaching using audio-visual has a higher level of effectiveness in aural listening comprehension materials.

Achievements of Saudi female EFL students in both tests, the pre-test and the post-test, were clearly connected to the use of the multimedia listening means rather than being connected to the aural listening means. In fact, that is because the participants were anticipating hearing the spoken text without intervention even if they don't understand the listening comprehension. On the other hand, the audio-visual listening means provide interaction with the learners because they can see and recognize the setting and the whole information of the listening comprehension.

The Saudi female EFL subjects were encountering some frequent obstacles while using both listening means the audio-visual and the aural one. The obstacles entail comprehending the speech and the text completely since they are supposed to understand the whole listening activities from all aspects. All the obstacles that interrupt the process of understanding the listening comprehension should be worked out by the L2 instructors. The L2 teachers should encourage the L2 students to listen carefully and thoroughly.

The Saudi female EFL students should be instructed to concentrate on the sounds of the words, vocabulary and the use of common discourse markers like 'anyway', 'ok', 'right', 'so', etc. Furthermore, they should be instructed to focus on the basic information and the main ideas existed in the speech. The Saudi female EFL students should also know the perfect way to improve the top-down comprehension from the spoken text. In addition, they should be instructed to relate the information from the given speech to the source of knowledge they came from. Thus, it is recommended for the Saudi EFL teachers to use the audio-visual teaching method to improve the learners' perception towards listening tasks. No doubt that the audio-visual listening means help Saudi female EFL students in concentrating perfectly since they display the gestures of the characters, and the whole setting that provide the learners with a wide knowledge of the situation and simplify the process of recognition.

Therefore, it is crucial for the Saudi EFL teachers to know the complicated identity of listening comprehension in order to bring the suitable tasks for the students. This clarification agrees with results of this thesis that there are remarkable differences between the control and the experimental group in the process of listening by choosing both methods (the aural or the audio-visual one). So, it is clearly successful to teach L2 listening comprehension through audio-visual means more than the aural one.

This study contributes to benefit researchers and practitioners who care about L2 listening comprehension gain from aural versus audio-visual inputs for EFL students. The rapid development in the field of information technology and its multiple uses in education require to think about how to adapt the means and methods of education to be compatible with the nature of technological development in the methods of education, especially after the increasing need for education in the information technology environment. Dealing with these technologies, would raise the level of participatory, interactive and motivation among students.

The present study also significantly contributes to the general policy of the ministry of education and that of Najran University that aim to develop the linguistic skills of the Saudi EFL learners. Educational and academic authorities should hold training courses for teachers especially on the use of audio-visual activities in the classroom. Finally,

further research can be conducted on the use of audio-visual in teaching, especially with regard to the impediments of applying this method in education.

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Online Collaborative Writing via Google Docs: Case Studies in the EFL Classroom

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Abstract—This article reported a case study investigating small group interaction patterns in online collaborative writing tasks and factors influencing team collaborations. Participants included six Asian EFL university students who formed two small groups and were engaged in two online collaborative writing tasks via Google Docs. Data collection included the participants' use of writing change functions and language functions during the collaborative writing processes revealed through Google Docs archives and collaborative essays. Semi-structured interviews were employed to examine factors influencing small group collaborations. The findings revealed that the two teams exhibited divergent interaction patterns, but the patterns of interaction remained consistent within each group across both tasks. The qualitative content analysis showed factors that affected team collaborations were individual goals, learners' English proficiency, individual roles, and the use of collaborative agency. The findings may help elucidate the divergence of online collaborative writing and provide insightful information for instructors to design collaborative writing activities and assist EFL learners in the co-construction of writing tasks.

Index Terms—online collaborative writing, interaction patterns, EFL learners, language functions, writing change functions, team collaborations

I. INTRODUCTION

Collaborative writing (CW) has been broadly implemented in EFL classrooms for the last two decades due to its potential to improve writing quality (Abe, 2020; Limbu & Markauskaite; Storch, 2013); to enhance writing accuracy (Chen, 2019; Dobao, 2014); and to stimulate constructive ideas and meaning-making trajectories (Alghasab, Hardman, & Handley, 2019). In addition, CW provides opportunities for interactive and collective writing in the target language (Hsu, 2020).

Previous studies (e.g., Hsu, 2020; Li & Kim, 2016; Li & Zhu, 2017; Wang, 2019) reported that learners in small groups exhibited distinctive interaction patterns while engaging in collaborative tasks. For example, Li & Kim (2016) found that two small groups of ESL graduate students undertaking English for Academic Purposes (EAP) produced distinctive patterns of interaction, and those interactional patterns shifted within each group across tasks. In another study, Wang (2019) found that two small groups of Chinese university students engaging in two collaborative argument essays shifted their interaction patterns when tasks were set in synchronous writing: one group was willing to engage more in real-time collaboration, whereas the other group demonstrated less directional communication. More recently, Hsu (2020) investigated if task complexity affected peer interaction on web-based asynchronous CW tasks in an EFL classroom context at a Taiwanese university. She found that the interaction patterns remained stable across tasks. While helpful, these studies were conducted in settings where students share the same first language; scant research has explored factors influencing collaborative team efforts university students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. What makes the team collaborate more collectively? This warrants further examination given the increasing mobility of international students. Therefore, the objectives of this study were to investigate small group interaction patterns and factors that influence team collaborations.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Online Collaborative Writing with Google Docs

There has been a growing interest in online collaborative writing (OCW) due to the rapid development of new technologies that support individual and group writing. With the advancement of web 2.0 technologies and social software available for education, writing tasks are becoming less self-directed to be focused more on collaboration. This is because collaborative work yields benefit in text production (Dobao, 2014; McDonough & De Vleeschauwer, 2019; Storch, 2013). In addition, active collaboration has proven to bring cognitive advantage and development (Hsu, 2020).

The OCW tools such as Google Docs (GD) and Wiki are writing tools used extensively in education (Andrew, 2019; Lee & Hassell, 2021). GD is designed to be highly interactive, which permits writers to contribute or edit their text

synchronously in real-time or asynchronously, and such convenience was not available in a conventional writing classroom (Woodrich & Fan, 2017). Furthermore, researchers (e.g., Krishnan et al., 2019; Zioga & Bikos, 2020) reported that web-based word processors like GD could stimulate students' motivation and engagement in group tasks as well as in individual writing development. Through synchronous discussions or asynchronous online discussions, learners can also enhance their critical thinking skills and written communication skills (Afify, 2019). Although OCW has sparked the interest of language educators and L2 writing researchers due to its potentiality for enhancing writing skills (Andrew, 2019; Yanguas, 2020), there is little research on the OCW classrooms with learners from culturally diverse backgrounds.

B. Writing Change Functions and Language Functions in Peer Interaction

Writing change functions were first reported by Mak and Coniam (2008) when they explored how ESL learners co-constructed texts on a wiki platform. The researchers identified categories such as adding, correcting, expanding ideas, and reorganizing ideas. Similarly, in Li's (2013) study on wiki-based CW in a small group, five major types of writing change functions (WCFs) were discovered. They were addition (adding or contributing new texts initially composed by peers or self); deletion (deleting content or texts initially written by peers or self); rephrasing (stating ideas in different words, made on peers' or self-text); reordering (reorganizing ideas by moving texts around content, made on peers or self-text); and correction (correcting grammatical errors or mistakes on language). Changes of meaning in CW tasks have also been examined, such as that by Kessler, Bikowski, and Boggs (2012). Their study found that the students, who were in a midwestern university in the USA, focused on meaning changes (e.g., text that contributed to meaning were added, deleted, or replaced) than form (e.g., capitalization, part of speech, punctuation, pluralization, spelling, tense, spacing, and grammatical changes). This might be because the participants possessed a high level of language proficiency, and they focused more on the global level (content and organization) rather than the local level (grammatical mistakes or language mechanism).

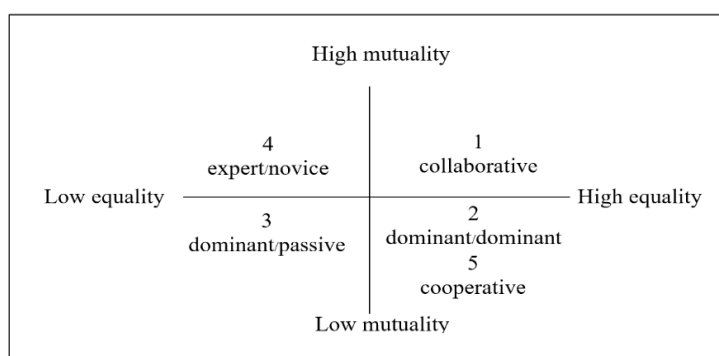


Figure 1. Model of Dyadic Interaction (Storch, 2013)

Another line of inquiry concerning students' revision behaviors is language functions (LFs). LFs mirrors how learners use the target language as a mediating tool to interact with partners (see Elabdali & Arnold, 2020; Li & Kim, 2016; Zhang 2019). Frequently used LFs include acknowledging, agreeing, clarifying, confirming, disagreeing, elaborating, eliciting, justifying, questioning, requesting, and suggesting (Li, 2014). These LFs inevitably shapes the patterns of interaction, which influence writing products (Hsu, 2020; Li & Zhu, 2017). Storch's (2013) earlier study endorsed five distinctive patterns of interaction: 1) collaborative, 2) cooperative, 3) dominant/dominant, 4) dominant/passive, and 5) expert/novice. Storch's dyadic interaction model is defined by member involvement with one another, either equality or mutuality. Equality refers to the contribution level and the extent to which the contributor endeavors to occupy their position in text contribution, whereas mutuality represents the degree of contributor's engagement with others' work through providing comments or editing texts. Storch's model of dyadic interaction is illustrated in Figure 1.

The pattern in Quadrant 1 is labeled collaborative, which depicts moderate to high levels of equality and mutuality, where members contribute and engage with each other's work. In Quadrant 2, there are two patterns of interaction: dominant/dominant and cooperative. The dominant/dominant pattern may show moderate to high equality but low mutuality. In other words, group members contribute but may also compete for control over the task, yet pay less attention to other's contributions (Storch, 2013). Cooperative, on the other hand, sees that members proportionally contribute to the task, and their equality may appear moderate to high, but their mutuality is relatively low as work is divided with minimal engagement with other's texts. Quadrant 3 – dominant/passive – refers to medium to low levels of equality and mutuality, which implies that one member in the group takes control while others are passive participants. Lastly, Quadrant 4 depicts moderate to low equality but moderate to high mutuality. The pattern emerging from this quadrant is identified as expert/novice, in which one member in the group contributes more than others and plays a dominant role as an expert. Unlike the dominant/passive, in which the main contributor fails to provide support to other

members, the dominant member in the expert/novice pattern, on the contrary, supports the team members throughout the CW process (Storch, 2013).

C. Scaffolding Strategies

In collaborative tasks, learners may use scaffolding strategies. The notion of scaffolding is derived from the earlier work of Vygotsky (1978), who posited that learning occurs when learners interact with their social environment, particularly when they engage with more capable peers. To some scholars (e.g., Hammond & Gibbon, 2005; Prichard & Woollard, 2010; Van Lier, 2004), scaffolding is a means of assistance granted by someone who can support or assist in the process of acquiring knowledge and enhancing the learning experience. Scaffolding is perceived to be “a form of support for the development and learning of young learners” (Rasmussen, 2001, p.570) in knowledge building with the assistance of teachers or peers who provide essential tools to enhance the learning experience (Mahan, 2020). According to Hanjani and Li (2014), learners in small groups use scaffolding negotiations to support their peers while co-constructing texts. Furthermore, when scaffolding is provided collectively, it should conform to three conditions: drawing peers’ attention to the problem, providing a solution(s) or alternative(s), and enhancing the scope of the task-related issue, so that the peers could revise their writing for better quality. For this reason, OCW tasks are perceived to be an effective pedagogical approach to escalate scaffolding in the language classroom.

D. Research Questions

As revealed in previous studies, CW styles and interaction patterns are shaped by individual member’s contributions towards the task. Some groups or pairs demonstrated consistent patterns of interaction despite the change in tasks or change in writing modes, whereas some exhibited shifts in interaction patterns. Nonetheless, scant research to date has explored how EFL learners with different cultural backgrounds interact with one another in CW tasks and what factors may influence their collaborations. With this as a gap, this study investigated small group interaction patterns and factors that influence team collaborations. The following research questions guided the study.

- 1) What patterns of interaction occur when EFL learners in small groups engage in OCW tasks in Google Docs?
- 2) What are the factors that influence small group collaborations?

III. METHODOLOGY

Our study is structured as an embedded case study (see Yin, 2018), which may be defined as examining several sub-cases with its own bounded system but embedded within the same study site (see Li, 2014). The sub-cases were bounded by time (two collaborative tasks and CW activities spanning 10 weeks) and setting (a composition course offered at an international university). In this current study, we explored small group interaction patterns and factors influencing team collaborations of EFL university students engaging in two OCW tasks using GD.

A. Participants

The participants were six EFL first-year university students selected from 18 students enrolled in an English composition course spanning one semester at an international university in central Thailand. These participants were chosen based on three criteria: (1) diversity of cultural backgrounds, (2) members in the group were varied in English language proficiency, and (3) all members were off-campus during the time of data collection due to the COVID-19 pandemic situation. The six participants selected for this case study were from five different countries in Southeast Asia, namely, Cambodia (1), Malaysia (1), Myanmar (1), the Philippines (1), and Thailand (2). Students’ English proficiency ranged from pre-intermediate to advanced [comparable to A2 – C1 based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) scale] as reported by their IELTS band scores by the University Admission and Records Office.

B. Group Formation

Participants were divided into two groups. A reason for forming a small group of three members has been recommended to be more effective as it reduces the risk of slacking off from group work (Dobao, 2014). Each group was allowed to form its own team, with at least one member of a different nationality, and the members’ language proficiency levels should be heterogeneous. Group members were informed that they could withdraw from this study at any time. In total, six groups were formed; however, two groups were selected for the case study as they met the three criteria identified above. The profile of the participants involved in the case study is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
PROFILE OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Group	Pseudonym	Gender	Nationality	Language proficiency level (self-evaluation)	IELTS overall band score	Major of Study
G1	Noah	Male	Filipino	Advanced	7.5	Public Health
	Sopa	Female	Cambodian	Intermediate	5.5	Education
	Samart	Male	Thai	Pre-intermediate	4.0	English
	Aung Win	Male	Myanmar	Intermediate	5.5	Education
G2	Danudet	Male	Thai	Pre-intermediate	4.0	Religious Studies
	Tommy	Male	Malaysian	Upper-intermediate	6.5	Management

C. Collaborative Writing Tasks

The researchers constructed two collaborative lesson plans using the course textbook “*College Writing Skills with Readings*” by Langan and Albright (2019). The two CW lessons consisted of descriptive and argumentative essays. A significant reason for choosing these two types of essays was that a descriptive essay has distinctive characteristics that learners employ rich adjectives to draw sensory details and vivid impressions to readers, and it is perceived to be one of the easiest forms of academic writing. On the other hand, an argumentative essay is perceived to be difficult as it requires a writer to raise a debatable issue, state a point of view, and defend the point with evidence to persuade readers (Wingate, 2012). Therefore, the researchers selected these two writing genres (the least challenging and the most challenging) to explore how small groups interacted while performing group work. Each team was allowed to complete each CW task in GD in three weeks.

D. Data Collection Procedure

In the first week of the research timeframe, the principal researcher conducted a three-hour orientation for the participants to familiarize them with working in GD and introduced essential features for collaboration. In the second week, small groups were formed, and the researchers explained the informed consent form for participating in the study voluntarily. Learners signed the consent form that same week. In week 3, the participants started their first CW task. In week 6, they did the second task. Finally, in week 10, the researchers conducted semi-structured interviews via Zoom. Each interview lasted for about 25-30 minutes.

E. Data Coding and Analysis

The work of Li and Kim (2016) was used to identify WCFs and LFs and to determine degrees of equality and mutuality. Equality was measured in terms of (1) frequent use of WCFs and LFs shown in the GD revision history and (2) the percentage of text contributions. Mutuality was determined by (1) LFs on initiating versus responding acts, (2) comparing the instances of WCFs on self-contributed text and WCFs on others' text, all of which was recorded in the GD archives. Frequency counts of WCFs and LFs that each member produced along with the number of text contributions were compared to measure the interaction pattern as guided by Storch's (2013) model of dyadic interaction. Balanced contributions, including WCFs, LFs, and percentage of text contributions, marked high equality, while unbalanced contributions implied low equality. High mutuality was observed through frequent use of responding acts to initiating LFs, and WCFs made on other's texts. This analysis would address the first research question. Semi-structured interviews were employed to address the second research question on factors influencing team collaborations. The researchers analyzed this data qualitatively using content analysis through coding, categorizing, and emerging themes that helped explain team collaborations. The researchers coded 20% of the data both in WCFs and LFs produced by each member in the group to establish inter-rater reliability and inter-rater agreement. The results of Cohen's Kappa reliability index analysis reached 90% for WCFs and 86% on LFs. Any disagreements were resolved through discussion. Likewise, the qualitative data from semi-structured interviews were coded, categorized, and the researchers identified emerging themes from the qualitative content analysis. The taxonomy of WCFs and LFs is shown in Tables 2 and 3.

TABLE 2
TAXONOMY OF WRITING CHANGE FUNCTIONS ADOPTED FROM LI & KIM (2016)

Writing Change Functions	Definitions
Adding	Adding or contributing new content or texts initially produced by peers or self
Correcting	Correcting grammatical errors or other mistakes on language mechanics by peer or self
Deleting	Eliminating content or texts initially produced by peers or self
Rephrasing	Expressing ideas in different words but keeping original meaning, by peer or self
Reordering	Restructuring content or reorganizing ideas by moving texts around content

TABLE 3
TAXONOMY OF LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS ADOPTED FROM LI & KIM (2016)

Language Functions	Definitions & Examples
Initiating	Eliciting: Asking or inviting for more comments, thoughts, or ideas from peers
	Greeting: Greeting or saluting peers or team members
	Justifying: Verifying or explaining one's viewpoints by giving rationale
	Questioning: Making inquiries on statements or texts that are not clear
	Requesting: Making requests or requirements for something related to co-constructed texts
	Stating: Addressing one's opinions or ideas or information previously discussed
	Suggesting: Giving suggestions or propositions about content or structure of the essay.
	Acknowledging: Complimenting or phrasing peer's comments, ideas, or supports
	Agreeing: Expressing agreement with peer's directions, stance, or viewpoints
	Disagreeing: Expressing disagreement with peer's directions, stance, or viewpoints
Elaborating	Giving or adding more information on self or peer's ideas on writing or content

To know the writer's role and the strategies to support each other, Storch's (2002) earlier work was used.

■ Authoritative: a writer who takes control over the task, focuses on one own text, instructs the other but rarely gives support.

■ Expert: a writer who has a good command of English and actively supports or assists peers in carrying out the task.

■ Novice: a writer who takes a passive role in the group by observing and learning from a more knowledgeable peer.

■ Passive writer: a writer who plays a subservient role in text construction due to limited language command or restricted role controlled by a dominant writer.

■ Dominance: One member controlled the task, while the other members contributed minimally. Scaffolding is absent or obscure.

■ Collaboration: Team members engage with each other's text contributions. Language scaffolding is prevalent.

IV. FINDINGS

To respond to Research Question 1, we analyzed how members employed WCFs and LFs on task negotiation, and the number of text contributions made by individual members. We calculated frequency counts of WCFs and LFs each member contributed to both tasks in Tables 4 and 5. The percentage of text contributions, WCFs, and LFs contributions are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 4
WRITING CHANGE FUNCTIONS IN TWO CW TASKS PERFORMED BY SMALL GROUPS

		Group 1				Group 2			
Task 1: Description		Noah	Sopa	Samart	Total	Aung Win	Danudet	Tommy	Total
Adding	Self	25	11	14	65	6	2	13	24
	Other	14	0	1		0	0	3	
Correcting	Self	9	7	6	31	3	0	1	6
	Other	7	1	1		0	0	2	
Deleting	Self	9	5	7	27	3	1	6	15
	Other	5	0	1		1	0	4	
Reordering	Self	2	3	5	12	1	0	0	1
	Other	1	0	1		0	0	0	
Rephrasing	Self	6	1	2	14	5	1	7	15
	Other	4	1	0		0	0	2	
Total		82	29	38	149	19	4	38	61
Task 2: Argument									
Adding	Self	17	9	6	42	7	0	15	26
	Other	9	1	0		1	0	3	
Correcting	Self	2	2	3	12	3	0	6	12
	Other	4	1	0		1	0	2	
Deleting	Self	7	3	4	16	1	0	3	7
	Other	2	0	0		0	0	3	
Reordering	Self	3	4	1	10	0	0	0	0
	Other	2	0	0		0	0	0	
Rephrasing	Self	12	0	2	19	4	0	5	10
	Other	5	0	0		0	0	1	
Total		63	20	16	99	17	0	38	55

TABLE 5
LANGUAGE FUNCTIONS PERFORMED BY SMALL GROUPS

Language Functions		Group 1								Group 2							
		Noah		Sopa		Samart		Total		Aung Win		Danudet		Tommy		Total	
		T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2
Initiating	Eliciting	6	2	0	2	3	0	9	4	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	2
	Greeting	8	2	2	2	2	0	12	4	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Justifying	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
	Questioning	0	3	3	0	0	1	3	4	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
	Requesting	6	8	0	3	1	0	7	11	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
	Stating	9	10	1	3	1	1	11	14	2	1	1	0	2	3	4	4
Responding	Suggesting	8	4	1	0	0	0	9	4	1	0	0	0	2	2	3	2
	Acknowledging	6	1	1	1	1	0	8	2	1	0	0	0	1	0	2	0
	Agreeing	3	1	5	2	8	1	16	4	1	2	0	0	1	0	2	2
	Disagreeing	1	3	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Elaborating	3	4	1	0	1	0	5	4	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
	Total	50	38	14	13	17	3	81	54	5	5	1	0	7	13	13	18

* T1= Task 1; T2 = Task 2

TABLE 6
LEARNERS' TEXT CONTRIBUTIONS, WCFs, AND LFs CONTRIBUTIONS IN PERCENTAGES

Group	Pseudonym	Text contribution (words)		Text contributions (%)		WCFs contributions (%)		LFs contributions (%)		Group WCFs contributions on other texts (%)		Group LCFs contributions on responding acts (%)	
		T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2	T1	T2
G1	Noah	647	664	73	73	55	64	62	70	26	24	59	32
	Sopa	121	182	14	15	19	20	17	24				
	Samart	115	157	13	12	26	16	21	6				
G2	Aung Win	194	123	27	18	31	31	38	28	20	20	44	29
	Danudet	0	0	0	0	7	0	8	0				
	Tommy	534	579	73	82	62	69	54	72				

Interaction Patterns

The group interaction patterns were drawn from the degree of equality and mutuality mirrored in three aspects; members' use of LFs for negotiating on tasks, use of WCFs, and scaffolding offered to each other during the CW process. The following present interaction patterns of small group collaboration.

A. Group 1: Expert/Novice (Task 1) - Expert/Novice (Task 2)

Group 1 consisted of one female from Cambodia (Sopa) and two male students from the Philippines (Noah) and Thailand (Samart). In Task 1, the group jointly composed a descriptive essay, "The Beauty of Southeast Asian Countries". Noah led the team, designated clear roles to the members, and scaffolded his peers concerning language issues. The team exhibited mutual engagement in text construction (reflected by their use of WCFs: 38 instances made on other text, and LFs: 51 initiating acts versus (vs) 30 responding acts, see Table 5). Noah served as an expert to assist the teammates with language issues. In Task 2, the group interaction pattern remained stable when the team constructed their argument essay, "College Education and Being Successful". The triad generated 99 WCFs (75 instances on self-text and 24 instances on other text, see Table 4). Like Task 1, Noah produced the most WCFs (64%), and his text contribution accounted for 73% (see Table 6). The group generated 54 acts of LFs: 41 initiating acts vs 13 responding acts in Task 2. The extended use of LFs and WCFs made on other texts implied that they engaged with others' work. Some examples of the team utilization of WCFs and LFs are illustrated in Figure 2.

	Features of Interactions	Examples of WCFs performed by Group 1	Examples of LFs performed by Group 1	Scaffolding Occurrence		
	<p>CW Task 1 (Description)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■Noah: 82; <u>Sopa</u>: 29; Samart: 38 ■111 Self vs 38 Other <p><u>Examples</u></p> <p><u>Sopa</u> wrote: The Angkor Wat is the most visit two times a year when the morning bright sun rises which makes it look spectacular.</p> <p>Noah corrected: The Angkor Wat is most visited by tourists twice a year when the bright morning sun rises which makes the temple look spectacular. (<i>correcting, other</i>)</p> <p>Samart wrote: I would like to devote myself to Buddhist. And the last is King: He loves and appreciate the divine grace of the king (Rama IX)</p> <p>Noah corrected: He devoted himself to Buddhism; King, as his love passed through the late king (Rama IX). (<i>correcting and rephrasing, other</i>)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■Noah: 50; <u>Sopa</u>: 14; Samart: 17 ■51 initiating and 30 responding acts <p><u>Examples</u></p> <p>Noah: Hi friends! You can call me Joe. We can work together on this platform.</p> <p>Samart: Hi Joe, <u>Just</u> call me Mart. <u>Yes</u> we can work here.</p> <p><u>Sopa</u>: Nice to get to <u>now</u> you. I'm Need from Cambodia. (<i>greeting, suggesting, greeting, agreeing, acknowledging, greeting</i>)</p> <p>Noah: I've got an <u>idea</u>, we can describe our favorite place in our countries, so we can get three different places.</p> <p>Samart: I agree Joe.</p> <p><u>Sopa</u>: Me too. What is our topic?</p> <p>Noah: We can make it something like the beauty of Southeast Asian Countries.</p> <p><u>Sopa</u>: Okay, you can lead us, Joe.</p> <p>Noah: Yes, but we can work together. <u>Don't</u> worry.</p> <p>Samart: OK</p> <p>(<i>stating, suggesting, agreeing, agreeing, questioning, suggesting, agreeing, suggesting, agreeing, stating, agreeing</i>)</p>	<p>Direction maintenance / Intersubjectivity</p> <p>Google Docs version history revealed Noah supported his team with language issues: correcting grammar and tenses; providing both direct and indirect feedback; designating clear roles to members.</p> <p>For example, in the WCFs, Noah corrected <u>Samart's</u> text and in the comment history he explained why he changed I <u>to</u> He in describing in a third person viewpoint. He corrected verb form from "most visit" to "most visited" and informed <u>Sopa</u> that the phrase is in passive form.</p>	<p>CW Task 2 (Argument)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■Noah: 63; <u>Sopa</u>: 20; Samart: 16 ■75 Self vs 24 Other <p><u>Examples</u></p> <p>Samart wrote: Mark Zuckerberg, owner of Facebook. According to the information from the biography website said that he did not graduate from college.</p> <p>Noah rephrased and added: Facebook's Chief Executive Officer and Founder, is a Harvard university drop out who was able to make fortunes deciding to make a path for himself outside college. (<i>rephrasing and adding, other</i>)</p> <p><u>Sopa</u> wrote: There are various reasons why having a college degree is not essential</p> <p>Noah added: There are various reasons why having a college degree is not essential to being successful since a lot of successful people do not have a college degree. (<i>adding, other</i>)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■Noah: 38; <u>Sopa</u>: 13; Samart: 3 ■41 initiating and 13 responding acts <p><u>Examples</u></p> <p>Noah: Hi friends! Please think of 3 arguments and 1 rebuttal of your chosen topic, so <u>we'll</u> weigh things on what looks better.</p> <p><u>Sopa</u>: Thank you for reminding us. <u>We'll</u> share ideas and look at them together then.</p> <p>Noah: Great!</p> <p>(<i>greeting, requesting, acknowledging, stating, acknowledging</i>)</p> <p>Noah: This is my suggestion: "How Necessary is a <u>College Education</u>?" the arguments are, having a college degree <u>doesn't</u> guarantee you a job right away, some people like Bill Gates and Mark Zuckerberg have no college degree.</p> <p><u>Sopa</u>: Okay we can work on this <u>topic</u> and you can lead us <u>again</u> like the first one.</p> <p>Noah: Of course, and Mart, please start the intro and <u>we'll</u> edit that later when <u>you're</u> done with it.</p> <p>Samart: Yes, Joe I can do that.</p> <p>(<i>suggesting, elaborating, agreeing, suggesting, agreeing, requesting, agreeing</i>)</p>	<p>Instructing/Intersubjectivity</p> <p>Noah asked his team to come up with arguments and rebuttal and shared his points. He rephrased <u>Samart's</u> text and left a comment in the GD comment window that the writing needs to paint a clearer picture and spelling it out. Noah added text to <u>Sopa's</u> sentence and reminded her to give example to show to readers.</p> <p>The GD archive showed sufficient <u>evidences</u> of peer scaffolding</p>

Figure 2. Characteristic Features of Interactions Produced by Group 1

(*Note. Excerpts are from the original texts. Errors on language were not corrected.)

As seen from excerpts in Figure 2, Noah positioned himself as an expert, directed the team, and scaffolded his peers. He interacted actively with his peers' texts as evidenced by his extended use of WCFs on other texts (31 instances in Task 1 and 22 instances in Task 2). Furthermore, the team produced various LFs (81 acts in Task 1 and 54 acts in Task 2), and the initiating acts were received and responded to. The GD archives revealed that Noah scaffolded his teammates by giving them both metalinguistic feedback (providing additional information with some explanation) and corrective feedback (overriding text scripts with correct forms on his peers' sentences). Furthermore, he left comments in the GD comment box to communicate with his team, as reflected by his frequent use of LFs in both tasks. Sopa and Samart, on the other hand, positioned themselves as novice writers profiting from the group writing process. The team developed good rapport (see the excerpt of LFs used in both CW Tasks when Noah greeted his peers "Hi friends!" or called Sopa's nickname "Need", or when Samart called Noah's nickname "Hi Joe"). Although members' text contributions to writing products were unbalanced as the leader did more work, the collaborative efforts benefited the novice writers, for they received support from the leader. Data analysis from GD version history along with members use of WCFs and LFs revealed that Group 1 interaction patterns fall into Quadrant 4 of Storch's interaction model, which represents moderate to low equality (proportion of text contributions) but moderate to high mutuality (engagement with other's texts reflected by their use of WCFs on other text and initiating and responding acts of LFs).

B. Group 2: Authoritative/Withdrawn (Task 1) – Authoritative/Withdrawn (One Member Failed to Participate) (Task 2)

Group 2 consisted of three males from Malaysia, Myanmar, and Thailand. In Task 1, the team composed a descriptive essay, "Life in a university". The analysis from the GD archive revealed that Tommy led the group and was later joined by his peers. To some extent, the team interacted with others' texts as reflected by their use of WCFs (49 instances on self-text and 12 on other text, Table 4) and LFs (9 initiating acts vs 4 responding acts, see Table 5), but task negotiation was orchestrated by two members. Danudet withdrew from the group during the collaboration process.

Tommy did most of the work (73%) with minimal support from Aung Win (27%) in Task 1 (see Table 6). In Task 2, the group CW style remained unchanged: Tommy controlled the task (82%), whereas Danudet failed to join his team. Thus, the team CW efforts in Task 2 failed since one member was absent.

From excerpts in Figure 3, Tommy dominated the tasks and directed his team. The analysis from GD archives revealed that Tommy controlled the writing, instructed his peers but failed to designate responsibilities or scaffold his peers. He did not elucidate correct forms of language structures when he removed his peer's texts. Tommy's authoritative role resulted in the withdrawal of a member. Consequently, the team CW efforts became inefficacious due to the lack of member engagement. As illustrated in the excerpts in Figure 3 in CW Task 2, Tommy asked questions twice and gave a comment addressed to Aung Win but did not receive response. This occurrence indicated that the member did not have any affective involvement (Lidz, 1991) on other's texts. Furthermore, singular pronoun (e.g., I, you, your) were extendedly employed, indicating that the members did not develop a sense of belonging that could push them to work more collectively. For example, Tommy commented, "What can be your description or strong adjective to describe this of your sentence?" Aung Win responded, "I'll rewrite this", or when Tommy remarked, "Here you have no counterclaim to support", and received no response (see excerpt in Figure 3). This dyadic interaction did not promote bonds of friendship but rather reduced joint attention. The analysis from GD history archives revealed that Tommy acted more in an authoritative role. He even used his alias "Commander" while performing tasks. From the analysis of text construction through members' use of WCFs and LFs as revealed in GD history, Group 2 interaction patterns fit into Quadrant 3, which represents moderate to low equality of text contributions and moderate to low mutuality of engagement with each other's work marked by members' use of WCFs on other text and initiating and responding acts of LFs. Examples of the team employment of WCFs and LFs are shown in Figure 3.

Features of Interactions	<p>CW Task 1 (Description)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Aung Win: 19; Danudet: 4; Tommy: 38 ■ 49 Self vs 12 Other <p><u>Examples</u></p> <p>Danudet wrote: Life in the dormitory you need to have a responsible a lot. You <u>don't</u> have parents with you.</p> <p>Tommy deleted: Life in the dormitory you need to have a responsible a lot. You <u>don't</u> have parents with you. (<u>deleting, other</u>)</p> <p>Aung Win wrote: If you <u>can't</u> afford to rent apartment, <u>don't</u> worry, <u>don</u> is just a reasonable one for you.</p> <p>Tommy corrected: If you <u>can't</u> afford to rent an apartment <u>nearly</u>, you <u>don't</u> have to worry since a university dormitory is just a reasonable one for you. (<u>correcting and adding, other</u>)</p> <p>Aung Win wrote: One benefit of a dormitory life is friends.</p> <p>Tommy corrected: <u>One of the many benefits of living in a dormitory is to helps students to make friends.</u> (<u>correcting and rephrasing, other</u>)</p>	<p>CW Task 2 (Argument)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Aung Win: 17; Danudet: 0; Tommy: 38 ■ 44 Self vs 11 Other <p><u>Examples</u></p> <p>Aung Win wrote: No accomplishment of college education poses a higher unemployment rate in a country.</p> <p>Tommy deleted: No accomplishment of college education poses a higher unemployment rate in a country. (<u>deleting, other</u>)</p> <p>Aung Win wrote: College extensively teaches its students how to work in a team well.</p> <p>Tommy added: ...how to work in a team well; furthermore, teamwork can develop students' critical thinking skills well as good communication skills that are essential for career opportunities. (<u>adding, other</u>)</p> <p>Aung Win wrote: Certain people claim that some non-college degree holders also have jobs.</p> <p>Tommy deleted: Certain people claim that some non-college degree holders also have jobs. (<u>deleting, other</u>)</p>
	<p>CW Task 1 (Description)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Aung Win: 5; Danudet: 1; Tommy: 7 ■ 9 initiating acts vs 4 responding acts <p><u>Examples</u></p> <p>Tommy: This verb tense is incorrect. Try to correct it.</p> <p>Aung Win: OK.</p> <p>(<u>stating, suggesting, agreeing</u>)</p> <p>Tommy: There is no need to put this transition here.</p> <p>(No response) (<u>stating, no response</u>)</p> <p>This is <u>suppose</u> to be a single noun no plural form.</p> <p>(No response) (<u>suggesting, no response</u>)</p> <p>Tommy: What can be your description or strong adjective to describe this of your sentence?</p> <p>Aung Win: <u>I'll</u> rewrite this. (<u>questioning, stating</u>)</p>	<p>CW Task 2 (Argument)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Aung Win: 5; Danudet: 0; Tommy: 13 ■ 14 initiating acts vs 4 responding acts <p><u>Examples</u></p> <p>Tommy: If you insist, I will change your paragraph. This essay was narrated from a third-person view.</p> <p>Aung Win: Sure.</p> <p>(<u>stating, justifying, agreeing</u>)</p> <p>Aung Win: I fixed the errors highlighted here to present form.</p> <p>Tommy: OK. This is just a temporary placement. I can work more later. Can you read your tiny paragraph here one more?</p> <p>(No response) (<u>stating, agreeing, stating, requesting, no response</u>)</p> <p>Tommy: Where is the source of this direct quote? make sure you take the source (No response)</p> <p>(<u>questioning, suggesting, no response</u>)</p> <p>Tommy: Here you have <u>no any</u> counterclaim to support.</p> <p>(No response) (<u>elaborating, no response</u>)</p>
	<p>Lack of intersubjectivity/questions unresponded.</p> <p>No evidence of scaffolding in GD archive. The leader instructed the team but provided no supports.</p> <p>For example, Tommy commented "there is no need to put this transition here" He did not give any explanation why and Aung Win didn't respond. Likewise, when he deleted other texts, he did not give them a reason why texts were deleted. Task was completed by two members. No clear role designated to members.</p>	<p>Lack of intersubjectivity/Instructing</p> <p>Tommy instructed Aung Win but provided no language scaffolding. For example, he asked Aung Win to reread his short paragraph again did not mention why that paragraph need revision, or there are language issues to improve. He did not give reason or explanation.</p> <p>Aung Win did not respond to his request.</p> <p>Another example when he commented on Aung Win's sentence that lacked counterclaim to support his point, but showed him no example. Aung Win did not respond to this comment either.</p>

Figure 3. Characteristic Features of Interactions Produced by Group 2

(*Note. Excerpts are from the original texts. Errors on language were not corrected.)

To succinctly explain the occurrence of the groups' CW behaviors across tasks, we could summarize the findings in Figure 4.

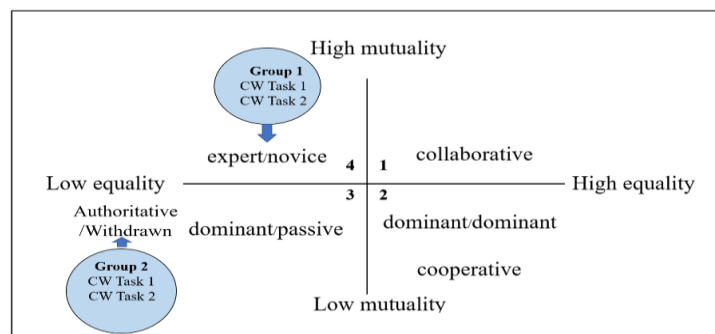


Figure 4. Patterns of small group interaction

To address our second research question, we explored why these two small groups involved in two CW essays, given the same amount of time, exhibited distinctive interaction patterns. We coded and categorized meanings from the semi-structured interviews to elicit themes that illustrate the group members' patterns of interaction. There were four major themes identified: (1) individual goals, (2) learners' English proficiency, (3) individual roles, and (4) agency.

1. Individual Goals

Four convergent goals emerged from our qualitative data analysis concerning fluidity of interaction patterns and CW styles: (1) getting a good grade, (2) producing a good quality essay, (3) improving writing skills, and (4) improving communication skills. These goals influenced interactions and contributions to group work. Members with a determined goal of getting a good grade and producing a good quality essay occupied more writing space and contributed more texts. This assertion was supported by learners' comments in the interviews. Noah (Group 1) expressed his goal of CW tasks that,

Two main goals I have when I collaborated with our team, which are acceptable quality of work and pass the course with a flying color grade at the end of the semester.

Likewise, Tommy (Group 2) echoed his personal goal in the interview,

If you ask me even like it or not, I need to do my part for I need to get a good GPA for my first year in college.

Whereas passive writer like Samart (Group 1) shared that he collaborated with his team to improve writing and enhance communication skills. Samart shared in the interview,

As for me I believe that writing together will improve writing skills, particularly for me and I can learn from my friends.

The findings were in line with previous studies (Alhadabi & Karpinski, 2020; Wang, 2019), where learners with a determined goal of earning good grades were found to pay more attention to academic performance and to be actively engaged in group activities.

2. Learners' English Proficiency Level

Learners with higher language proficiency level took a more active role in CW since they have a distinct advantage over their less capable peers concerning linguistic resources and language skills. Their language competency helped them express thoughts more conveniently, and they could rectify language errors faster. On the contrary, learners with lower language proficiency were reluctant to contribute for fear of making errors. Samart's (Group 1) and Danudet's (Group 2) interviews supported this assertion that their English proficiency is low and limited in vocabulary knowledge, resulting in a reluctance to write or contribute.

I did not write a lot because my vocabulary in English is very limited when I compare myself to my group.

(Samart's statement from the interview).

Maybe it is better for me if I work with a Thai friend who can help me because my grammar is bad. These international students have good English and I feel a little bit shy to work with them. (Danudet's comment from the interview).

This finding implied that learners with limited linguistic resources passively contributed to the group task or even claimed to be a part of the group although their contributions might be insignificant; on the contrary, competent writers would produce more language-related episode and put more effort into the work.

3. Individual Roles

Individual members in the group played a vital role in shaping interaction patterns and collaborative efforts. In the present study, Group 1 appeared to work more collectively. The leader was designated an apparent role and responsibility by his members. The GD history archives revealed that the team assigned sections to be completed by certain members. Consequently, the member interaction is positive. In contrast, the leader in Group 2 failed to designate responsibility for his members to write. This incident was reflected by Aung Win's statement in his interview,

In my group, someone took control of the work, but I was not told properly which part I need to help him. (Aung Win's remark from the interview)

Danudet also echoed a similar view concerning the role of a member in group work,

If I know my work and what I must do and the group can tell me, I can try but I need their help too because I can't write well like them. (Danudet's statement from the interview)

This finding informed us that to produce an effective OCW task, the group must have a supportive leader who focuses not only on self-written texts but also interacts with peers' work, gives constructive feedback, and designates clear roles to the teammates.

4. Agency

Agency is defined as learners' attunements to make crucial decisions that contribute to the group goals of the imposed activity (Nolen et al., 2011). In this study, we investigated specific pronouns (e.g., I, he, she, you, they, we, and our,) used by each team in GD archives comment history, and from the interviews to extract the socially mediated agency either individual agency or collaborative agency. We found that Group 1 used both individual and collaborative agencies across tasks, whereas Group 2 employed more individual agency. Both individual agency and collaborative agency produced by Group 1 for task negotiations are illustrated in excerpts in Figure 2. For instance, in LFs, Noah commented in Task 1, "*we can describe our favorite place in our countries*" or when he called Sopa's nickname, "*Yes, Need but we can work together*". The use of collective agency personal pronouns could drive the team in collaborative endeavors and improve social interactions. On the contrary, the individual agency enforces learners to take actions in pursuit of their goals with less considerate of others' (Li & Zhu, 2017). For instance, in Figure 3 of CW Task 2, Tommy commented, "*If you insist, I will change your paragraph*", or when he asked Aung Win to read the text, "*Can you read your tiny paragraph?*" or gave an instruction, "*make sure you take the source*". The members used individual agency extendedly in the interviews. For example, Danudet stated, "*Maybe it is better for me if I work with a Thai friend*". These tones of language do not promote collective efforts. Therefore, the use of these individual agency personal pronouns (e.g., I, you, he, they) reduced social bonding and joint attention (Hanjani & Li, 2014). This incident might affect the emotional response, and consequently, initiating acts were not responded.

V. DISCUSSION

This study aimed to investigate small group interaction patterns and factors that influence team collaborations in doing OCW tasks. Learners, in small groups, completed writing tasks of the same genre in the same length of time, in an online setting; however, each group exhibited distinctive interactions, but each team's interaction patterns remained similar across tasks. Small group orchestrating stable patterns of interaction across CW tasks on a web-based writing platform were also reported in previous studies (e.g., Elabdali & Arnold, 2020). These studies reported that L2 learners in small groups, particularly when members are heterogeneous in language proficiency levels, would take their fixed roles in group writing, which remained unchanged even as the task progressed. Such finding contrasts Li and Kim (2016), whose study found changes in interaction patterns when task-types shifted. In our study, members with higher language proficiency made a more significant contribution to the quality of the writing tasks and provided notable WCFs and LFs across tasks, which was also reported in Li (2013) and Hsu's (2020) studies. Nevertheless, one prominent writer using extended LFs unilaterally does not necessarily promote collaborative endeavors.

In the present study, Group 1 worked more collectively based on their trilateral efforts, clear roles and responsibilities, and task completion engagement. The team leader in Group 1 scaffolded his peers by demonstrating affective involvement in others' work, providing suggestions to resolve language errors, offering both direct and indirect feedback, and intersubjectivity was apparent. Members were reinforced and given the 'intellectual push' to work at the outer limits of their potentiality (Hammond & Gibbons, 2005) or zone of proximal development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). As a result, the less-abled learners gave it a try despite the language barrier they struggled with, as observed in Group 1. In contrast, the team whose leader showed an authoritative role, dominated the task would lack intersubjectivity. The absence of peer scaffolding and obscure roles and responsibility of members could demotivate the less proficient group members, resulting in them to withdraw from the team, as seen in the case of Danudet in Group 2. Thus, more knowledgeable peer scaffoldings play a vital role in shaping team interaction and collaboration.

Aside from members' engagement, scaffolding strategies, and collaborative efforts, our triangulated data source from interviews explained factors influencing team collaborations. These factors include individual goals, learners' language proficiency, individual roles, and use of agency. In particular, our case study revealed that learners' intent on getting a good grade put in more effort and took their work more seriously. In contrast, learners whose aims were to improve writing and communication skills held different viewpoints, which were that grades are not necessary to achieve success.

A further finding revealed that learners' language proficiency shaped collaborative group behavior. Learners with a good command of English were more proactive in CW than others, for they have broader linguistic resources. Their language privilege allowed them to express thoughts and share texts more freely. Consequently, their contributions positively influenced the writing product. In contrast, learners with lower language proficiency hesitated to share texts for fear of making mistakes. These findings were in line with previous studies (e.g., Dong & Liu, 2020; Hsiu-Chen, 2019) which reported that high-skilled learners produced more texts, invested more efforts into group work, and were able to identify language problems more successfully. In contrast, less-skilled writers passively did their parts for fear of violating basic grammar rules (Zhang, 2019). This incident was observed when Tommy did not scaffold his peers but

removed others' texts without explanations, ensuing Danudet to withdraw from his team for not receiving language scaffolding as opposed to Samart in Group 1 who was supported by his team leader. This phenomenon echoed the work of Hsu (2020), who found that when peer interaction lacked intersubjectivity or scaffolding, the less-abled partner would gradually withdraw from work.

The results of our case study also revealed that collaborations became more collective and engaging when the group experienced emergent leadership. This similar finding was in line with Kukulska-Hulme (2004), who found that groups whose leaders focused on task completion and member satisfaction worked more effectively. In other words, a more effective group is directed by a relationship-focused leader who values individual contributions. The team with a relationship-focused leader would likely exhibit expert/novice interaction patterns since the leader of this type would support the members and offer helps with language concerns (Elabdali & Arnold, 2020). Our findings informed us that a team needs a committed leader who can motivate the members to fulfill the group goals, designate a clear role for each member, and intervene in members' contributed texts.

Lastly, our findings revealed that individual and collaborative agency helped shape interaction patterns. The use of first person plural subject pronouns such as "we" or "our" implied that the team members established joint ownership (Li, 2014; Wang, 2019). The use of collaborative agencies (e.g., we, our, us) is perceived to bring close emotional ties to others, leading to more positive interactions. In contrast, individual agency (e.g., you, he, she, my) can decrease positive interaction. Our study observed members employing either individual or collaborative agency while interacting on tasks. From the interviews, we found that Group 1 used collaborative agency (e.g., we, our, or peer's nickname) extendedly, whereas Group 2 deployed individual agency (e.g., I, you, them), which decreased their interactions and a lower sense of belonging.

VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study further extends the body of literature and research in OCW by investigating small group interaction patterns and factors influencing team collaborations in an English composition class with learners from diverse cultural backgrounds. The findings document how members in small groups collaborated distinctly in completing essays via GD. The results of this study indicated that collaborations help catalyze team members to work more collectively, which demonstrated an expansion of the use of WCFs on other members' texts; how LFs are initiated and responded to; and scaffolding strategies provided by a group leader. All of these were shaped by individual members' goals, language proficiency, members' transparent roles, and use of collaborative agency. The study also provided evidence that the ZPD may be evident even among students at the same study level. In this regard, our study has highlighted that an online setting may offer a reconceptualization of those who are privileged to offer support.

As an embedded case study, the current research has its limitations. Future studies may consider investigating a broader range of CW tasks with other types of writing genres that may influence group writing processes, interaction patterns, and quality of jointly composed texts. Another limitation in the current study is that participants remained in the same group for both tasks. Future research may consider exploring how changing group partners would affect aspects of collaboration and the quality of work. Furthermore, future research may consider longitudinal approaches to gather richer data. The scope of technology used may also be expanded to other social media messaging platforms to examine the correlation between social support and task completion in a virtual environment. These studies have the potential of providing recommendations for synchronous or asynchronous learning environments, in the event that sudden shifts in teaching mode become necessary, such as that observed in the current pandemic.

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Saving the Environment: Environmental Lessons in Colin Thiele's *February Dragon*

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Abstract—This article explores the relationship between humans and nature in *February Dragon* and elaborates on the environmental lessons conveyed in Colin Thiele's *February Dragon*. This article utilizes the concept of ecocriticism by Glotfelty. Ecocriticism explains human-nature interconnectedness. The portrayal of human-nature relation reveals several values of environmental education that readers, both children, and adults, could learn. Three environmental lessons such as respect, responsibility, and empathy towards other living beings were found in the story. Based on the elaborations, the characters in the novel show their respect, responsibility, and empathy towards other species by protecting the animal and the environment from bushfire's dangers.

Index Terms—human and nature, *February Dragon*, environmental lessons, ecocriticism

I. INTRODUCTION

People's intense activities have considerably changed the natural environment due to their intimate relationship to science and technology which can mainly be felt and seen in the era of the industrial revolution (Arafah, B. & Hasyim, M., 2019). For instance, mobile cellphone now can be regarded as a basic need after a meal (Arafah, B. & Kaharuddin, 2019). Despite the widely known fact that technology has offered a great deal of a more advanced lifestyle in several sectors (Arafah, B., 2021; Butarbutar et al., 2021; Farid et al., 2021), the dynamic change in technology has dramatically led to changes in the context of environmental constraints and opportunity (Suleman, D., 2021). It is widely recognized that the strong connection between people and technology (as the product of science development) has caused careless lifestyle that potentially accelerates the rise of environmental issues in this modern world e.g. air pollution, the climate crisis, deforestation, biodiversity loss, plastic pollution and many more (Kaharuddin, Ahmad, D., Mardiana, Rusni, 2020).

In Indonesia, deforestation and land clearing donate around 47.7 percent of total greenhouse gas emissions (Murti, 2019). As reported in climate.nasa.gov in March 2020, there are about 413 carbon dioxide components per million that are at their highest level in 650,000 years. Global temperature and sea level are influenced directly by this phenomenon. According to NASA, since the last nineteen centuries, our global temperature has increased by about 1.6 degrees Fahrenheit. The global average sea level has risen by almost 178 mm over the past hundred years. What we learn from the facts is that the environmental condition affects the life of society because all societies are an integral part of their environment (Hasjim, M., Arafah, B., Kaharuddin, Verlin, S., & Genisa, R. A. A., 2020). In a nutshell, changes in the environment affect people and their society. When the environment is in danger, people are also in danger. On the other hand, as the environment is safe, people and their societies are safe as well (Arafah, B., Thayyib, M., Kaharuddin, & Sahib, H., 2020).

In response to the environmental issues, a strong need is urgently required to encourage people's awareness of the environment. A technique concerning the education of the natural environment can be employed to meet this need (Andi, K., & Arafah, B., 2017). The technique is essential since it shows a way of carrying out the task by implementing a scientific procedure (Ismail, Sunibi, A. H., Halidin, A., & Amzah., Nanning., Kaharuddin., 2020). The technique is aimed at giving knowledge or perception of the environment situation, which is eventually able to affect their skills and actions to preserve and protect the natural environment in their daily lives (Erdoğan, M., Coşkun, E., & Uşak, M., 2011, Arafah, B., & Kaharuddin, 2019). Hence, there must be a decisive action to educate people regarding their environments as an integral part of their societies. This decisive action is also well-known as environmental education. Environmental education should not be simply provided as a subject in scientific disciplines (Tilbury, D., 1995). The works of art, literature, and other disciplines of humanities should also take apart to encourage individuals'

responsibility for the natural environment through the use of existing motifs, themes, and values available in such works (Hasyim, M., Arafah, B., & Kuswarini, 2020).

Many things can be used as lessons in protecting the environment for human survival. One of them is a literary work, which has many benefits to the reader's life since the literary works are generally a reflection of the life at one period. Therefore, literary works are called the result of social products that have many life benefits... everyone must learn from anything and anyone including animals because whatever happens in the universe is a teacher (Irmawati & Arafah, 2020).

Art and literature can be employed as reliable instruments to foster environmental responsibility and awareness among individuals (Özdemir, O., 2006, Arafah, B. & Kaharuddin, 2019). Literature can be understood as a written piece of work containing aesthetic merits produced by authors (Arafah et al., 2021). In addition, Schneider-Mayerson (2020) believes that the general increase of understanding and concern has been echoed by artists and cultural creators, including novelists through their works. Fiction regarding climate change, or cli-fi, has attracted substantial media and critical interest. Starting in 1990, climate change in literature and literary studies is no longer a marginal topic and is being regarded as a specific subfield of literary studies, particularly in literary or critical theory (Johns-Putra, 2016). These days, literature and the environment have become popular topics among literary students. Although this kind of research is only done through textual analysis, it cannot be denied that what is written in literary work is the reflection of real life, as Abrams (1971) designates as "mimesis," art is the imitation of the universe. The imitation of nature reflected in literary works can usually be identified by describing shreds of evidence that the writers presented on pages, chapters, and parts of the novel (Purwaningsih & Arafah, 2020).

Environmental fiction has several positive externalities that make them a fitting object for analysis. In the educational context, various authors have emphasized the importance of natural environments and the significance of other living beings (Babb, Janine, & Miller, 2017). Schneider-Mayerson (2020) argues that climate fiction can play a hand in facilitating people to identify, appreciate, and feel the devastating course on which we find ourselves and map a better direction ahead. It can be concluded that researching environmental fiction will increase environmental awareness and help to find solutions to the ecological problems that are happening now.

Following the trend, children's environmental literature has flourished since the early 1990s (Echterling, 2016). Critics started to investigate children's environmental literature after environmental literary studies, or eco-critics began to gain attention in the early 1990s (Gaard, 2009). Various children's book publications regarding environmental issues commonly are found in developed countries like the USA, Australia, Scandinavian countries, Canada, Germany, France, and Italy (Gonen & Guler, 2011). Some of the notable publications are *Wild Things: Children's Culture and Ecocriticism* by Sidney I Dobrin and Kenneth B Kidd and Greta Gaard's "Children's Environmental Literature: From Ecocriticism to Ecopedagogy".

Children's literature includes books that cover topics related to children from birth until the age of adolescence, whether in prose or poetry, fiction, or non-fiction (Lynch-Brown & Tomlinson, 2005). Literature brings new experiences for children and provides new information, explains issues that children are interested in, based on children's needs through their contents (Gonen & Guler, 2011). Depiction towards characters displaying empathy, an animal or environment, and illustrations design to elicit can be highly influential on readers (Gaard, 2009). Platt (2004) states that "environmental justice children's literature provides "stories for children that examine how human rights and social justice issues are linked to ecological issues, how environmental degradation affects human communities, and how some human communities have long sustained symbolic relation with their earth habitats".

The purpose of this study is to explore the human-nature relationship based on character performance and elaborate on the environmental lessons conveyed in *February Dragon*, an Australian children's book written by Colin Thiele. The book is content analyzed by referring to the exploration of good values within which potentially encourage children's environmental knowledge, cognitive skills, as well as environmentally responsible behavior. Environmental lessons in children's literature are believed able to foster young people's environmental responsibility and awareness that they are expected able to productively engage with the challenges of environmental issues and relatively easy to take the physical type of action (i.e., waste management, saving water and electricity, planting, protecting animals and plants) in their real-life situations (Christenson, M. A. 2009).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *February Dragon: An Environmental Literacy*

February Dragon is an episodic story, which was commended by the Children's Australian Book Council in 1966, and was written at the request of the South Australian Bushfire Research Centre, hoping for a "harrowing tale" could do for the prevention of bushfires what *Storm Boy* had done to protect wildlife in the Coorong Wetlands at the mouth of the Murray River (Clark, 2010). Grey (1994) states that Thiele's novel focuses on for environment and preservation of wildlife during that period. Thiele's stories were pro-environmental and sympathetic to an animal long before either cause was fashionable. His work such as *Storm Boy*, *Fire in the Stone*, and *February Dragon*, represents environmental issues, especially in Australia.

This work specifically contains a story about the adventures of three Australian children, Resin, Turps, and Columbine, who lived on a remote farm in Australia surrounded by bushland. The novel took place in a fictional town

called Gumbowie, which was located in a rural area of South Australia. The story told from a third-person point of view tells of the daily lives of the children of The Pine, Resin, Turps, and Columbine, who were full of enjoyable adventures before the raging bushfires destroyed the whole country.

February Dragon is likely inspired by the actual environmental issues that happened in Australia during the nineteenth century, the bushfires. The title *February Dragon* attributes to Australia's raging wildfire, which is often happened in February. Some of the worst fire happened during 19 century was Black Thursday happened on February 6, 1851, Red Thursday on February 1, 1898, Black Sunday on February 4, 1929, and many more arrival in the following years after (Rigby, 2015).

The portrayal of bush life in *February Dragon* is very realistic. Thiele vividly illustrates Australia's atmosphere during summer, especially in South Australia, which is described as dry and windy. The use of anthropomorphic imagery and zoomorphic imagery are also shown his concern for the environment. The story raises issues like deforestation, pollution, and animal oppression. The story told that there had been many land and animal exploitations for the sake of human needs. As a result, humans have to accept the consequence of their careless behavior.

It is undeniable that *February Dragon* contains numerous environmental lessons that will practically be a significant endeavor in promoting environmental awareness since the story told about how humans interact with nature and its impact on the environmental disaster. Moreover, it also shows the role of children's literature on climate change in raising young people's awareness about their responsibility to the biosphere.

B. Ecocriticism and Children Literature

Many ecocritics indicate *Silent Spring* (1962) by Rachel Carson as the first modern natural writing, while Peter Barry (Barry, 2017) and (Glotfelty, 1996) said that the term ecocriticism was possibly first mentioned in 1978 in William Rueckert's essay "Literature and Ecology". The establishment of ASLE (Association for The Study of Literature and Environment) in 1992 and its journal called ISLE (Interdisciplinary Studies in Literature and Environment) in 1993 were when ecological literary studies, known as ecocriticism, had become a famous critical school (Gaard, 2009, p. 322). As environmentalism originated in the United States during the second half of the 20th century as a cohesive political movement, children's literature soon began to seriously represent its concerns (Echterling, 2016, p. 287).

Since it was coined, ecocriticism was based on the premise that text studies have a great influence on readers and the world in general (Mayerson et.al). In the introductory part of *The Ecocriticism Reader: Landmarks in Literary Ecology*, Glotfelty emphasizes the importance of literary studies in the age of environmental crisis. According to Glotfelty (1996, p. xv), the study of literature in the twentieth century is still overlooked several aspects like gender and race but lack attention to the environmental aspect. Glotfelty proclaimed the concept of "ecocriticism" as a response to the global environmental crisis. She defines ecocriticism as "the study of the relationship between literature and physical environment" (Glotfelty, 1996).

In the field of children's literature, according to Gaard (2009), ecocriticism affiliated with children's literature started with the special publication of *The Lion and The Unicorn* on "Green Worlds: Nature and Ecology" in 1995 and on "Ecology and the Child" in the *Children's Literature Association Quarterly* in Winter 1994-1995 together with ISLE publication series of Dr. Seuss' *The Lorax*. A few years later, in 2004, the notable publication of Sid I. Dobrin and Kenneth B. Kidd's *Wild Things: Children Culture and Ecocriticism* marked as a formal way of children's environmental literature in becoming subject in the literary field.

In reading literature, including children's literature, Glotfelty (1996) proposes several questions that ecocritics could ask, including "Are the values expressed in this play consistent with ecological wisdom?" and "how do our metaphors of the land influence the way we treat it?" Those notions could be used as a basic understanding to explore human nature-relationship and elaborated environmental messages that the author conveyed in the novel.

On that note, O'Brien and Stoner (1987) argue that there are four basic understandings provided by environmental education. First, people and other wild species require the same basic needs. Second, the living and non-living elements are interdependent. Third, people influence the environment while the environment affects people. Lastly, people are responsible for their action's effect on the environment.

Based on the elaboration of ecocriticism and children's literature, it can be concluded that analyzing children's literature from the perspective of ecocriticism will reveal the ecological aspects contained in the story. By revealing those ecological aspects, the reader will find environmental wisdom that the author implies or explicitly written.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Saving the Environment: Environmental Lessons in February Dragon

Thiele's novel *February Dragon* (1966) is one of his exemplary works in representing his environmental stance on the relationship between man and nature. The title of the novel itself is a representation of Thiele's thoughts. Thiele uses the word "February" to refer to the hottest month during the summer in Australia and also to refer to the bushfire events in Australia that often occur in February. The word dragon is also another important word in the title. Dragon refers to a firestorm, which is the name taken from the mythical animal that breathes fire. Thiele chose *February Dragon* as his title to remind the reader of the most dangerous thing in Australia, The Bushfires.

From the very outset, the novel breaks down the relationship between man and nature. In this case, all living and non-living things are included. The relationship between humans and non-human has been vigorously debated. Religions and philosophers have different notions about human creation and human-nature relationships. Within Western Intellectual Tradition, the relationship between humans and nature is known as either dichotomous, human beings are separate and distinct from nature or hierarchical, human beings are part of nature. However, human positions are higher than other creatures (Sandler, 2012, p. 285).

The characters in the novel show two types of human nature relationships; superior or anthropocentric human beings are distinct from other entities, and equal, which means humans and other entities holding the same position on this planet. The anthropocentric aspects of human beings shown in the text consist of dominating and caretaking. Based on Thiele's illustration of the relationship between man and nature, there are two kinds of human position in the ecosphere, sometimes human sentimentalizing or dominating the environment, but they can also be the caretakers of the earth. Thiele also portrays the sense of equality in the relationship of human nature.

Dominating is portrayed by deforestation, animal racist, or speciesism, which later showing its impact at the end of the story. Deforestation is described in the early stages of the story when the migrants moved to the rural area after The War. The migrants cleared the land to build houses, farms, roads, telephone lines, and factories. For animal discrimination, it can be seen by how the characters treat the animal as their property, both domesticated and wild animals.

Although the novel in general shows how human behavior negatively influences environmental sustainability, the author, also illustrates the idea of caretaking. Thiele's stance regarding the caretaker position of human beings manifests in his characterizations of the children. Resin, Turps, and Columbine. The Pines children are the perfect example of stewardship. The children show their compassion and love towards animals reflected by how they treated all the domesticated animal animals on the farm and wild animals in the bush, which is elaborated in the following parts.

B. Respect, Responsibility, and Empathy

After elaborating human-nature relationship, there are three values that readers can learn based on the care-taking side of human beings, which are respect, responsibility, and empathy. In this regard, value refers to something worth which can be used as an individual's standard of behavior in life (Arafah, K., Arafah, A. N. B., & Arafah, B., 2020).

Respects

O'Brien and Stoner (1987, p. 14) argue one of the basic understanding of environmental education is "People and wildlife have the same basic needs". This understanding will lead people to respect the environment, including animals and plants.

At the beginning of the story, Thiele illustrates Bottlebrush Barn, a shady house near the bush where Resin, Turps, and Columbine lived as a wonderful place for pets. There were three mongrel tomcats, three dogs, five calves, two lambs, thirteen piglets, half a dozen goats, two ferrets, a galah, and one possum resided in Bottlebrush Barn. There were also regular visitors, a kookaburra, and a goanna. Because they loved animals, the children decided to christen every pet and wild animal that was staying or visiting Bottlebrush Barn. Admittedly the calves were not house pets, so they christened each one and spoke it as part of the farmyard (Thiele, 1966, p. 12). This situation proves that the children respected the animal because both domesticated and wild animals in the bush were treated as a family by the children.

How the children show their respect for the environment, especially to the animals, can be seen from their kindness. Turps's relationship with ginger is one of the examples of a human and animal harmonious relationship. When Ginger arrived to the Barn, Turps confidently declared that they already know each other. "she kept saying 'I'm your . . . your new mate (Thiele, 1966, p. 35). Turps also treated Ginger just like her family. Since Ginger came into the house, it became her priority.

They all laughed then and went into afternoon tea. All except Turps. She led Ginger back to the stable to brush her down. For Ginger came first—even before afternoon tea (Thiele, 1966, p. 40).

Turps's interaction with Ginger shows that humans and animals can be more than just humans and their property relationships. However, they can be a family and friend relationship.

Responsibility

People are accountable for their effect on the environment (O'Brien & Stoner, 1987). By respecting the animal, humans will build their responsibility in protecting the environment. Thiele's idea of promoting environmental responsibility is expressed by the increasing awareness of the danger of bushfires.

Government and townspeople do their best to protect the land. The government, as mentioned in the novel, employs several rules to avoid the blazes. There is a total fire ban at some areas of the dry forest during the summer, both in the private and state-owned forest. Following the government's implementation, many citizens from different professions volunteer as E.F.S (Emergency Fire Service).

The E.F.S, which was the fire and emergency service that operated in rural areas of South Australia, was ordinary men from different professions who sacrificed their time and life every time they sounded. Men from farms, churches, and offices were gathered together to save the land from the raging bushfires.

Resin knew well enough what that meant he had seen the men of the Emergency Fire Service training at Upper Gumbowie. The members were ordinary men: shearers and wheat growers, truck drivers, clerks and shopkeepers from the farms and little towns, who dropped everything and rushed off in the fire trucks whenever an alarm sounded. They

spread the news by telephone, wireless, and sirens until men came pouring toward the fire from every farm and township for miles round (Thiele, 1966, p. 17).

Every time the alarm sounded, the E.F.S would spread the news and sprightly ran to the fire location. These volunteers dedicated their lives to protect the land from the dangerous bushfires every single year.

Their close relationship with animals has built their empathy towards animals. It is illustrated by Thiele when the children rescued a baby possum hit by a car, which is later called Pinch. The children were crossing the road heading to the gate when they found a baby possum hit by a car on the road near Bottlebrush Barn. Without hesitating, they brought the possum to the house, feeding it patiently till it grows bigger, just like the average possum. For days they thought of nothing else, they fed it with milk from an eyedropper, a drip at a time. They wrapped it in an old woolen scarf and put it by the fire (Thiele, 1966, p. 42). The way Resin, Turps, and Columbine took care of the baby Possum shows their love and kindness towards other kinds without discriminating their species.

Thiele also shows the responsibility of humans in maintaining the sustainability of the environment through the attitude of the characters. Some characters in the novel have shown their thought against any action that could trigger a fire. It can be seen from the conversation between Mr. and Mrs. Pine one day at the veranda.

"People shouldn't be allowed to throw their cigarettes and matches out of passing cars. Don't they know there's a law against it?"

"People are careless Muriel... They forget they're in the bush, and they just toss out their butts as though they are dating in St. Hilda Road over Sydney Harbor Bridge (Thiele, 1966, p. 17).

Through the dialogues above, Mr. Pine shows his troubled mind regarding human carelessness, which will damage the environment. People started to acknowledge that the situation was getting more devastating because the climate condition was getting worse. The same situation can be seen in Stravy and Lemmen when they caught the boys smoking in the bush. They warned the boys about the worst consequence of their careless action if they smoke during the summer.

Empathy

Understanding the existence of other living beings will build empathy inside human beings. In many parts of this novel, Thiele also shows how humans appreciate nature through the character's interaction with the environment. Thiele shows Mr. Pine when they drove home after having charismas lunch at Summertown.

"It's just as well," Mr. Pine said, slackening the belt on his old working trousers, "that Christmas comes only once a year. Otherwise, the people would all be dead from overeating, and the animals from starvation and neglect (Thiele, 1966, p. 115).

After having a family lunch at Summertown, Mr. Pine decided to return home earlier because he wanted to feed the animals on the farm (From the quotation above). There is some irony presented in Mr. Pine's thought about Christmas as he illustrated the comparison between humans, who get an enormous supply of food when animals starved to death because humans ignore them. Mr. Pine action represents human's empathy towards animals

The children also show their empathy when one of their loyal farm dogs, got a skin disease. It was Woppit, a kangaroo dog that had been guarding their father's farms for more than ten years. One day Woppit suffered from severe skin disease. The children felt bad for Woppit, so the children decide to tell their father to bring him to the Vet in Summertown. When their proposal to bring Woppit to the vet in Summertown was refused by Mr. Pine, the children tried to find alternatives by giving him a balm from the old Barnacle store.

IV. CONCLUSION

Children's literature is vital because it gives readers an understanding of their own culture; it helps students develop emotional intelligence and creativity; it encourages and conveys important messages and themes. *February Dragon* is a perfect example of children's environmental fiction. Thiele unravels the interaction between humans and non-human and its impact. Moreover, Thiele also conveyed many environmental lessons to increase the awareness of his readers, especially children. This paper highlights three environmental lessons such as respect, responsibility, and empathy towards the environment that will be a good example in promoting environmental awareness for both children and adults.

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EFL Learners' Perspectives Towards Online Reading Module of IELTS: A Study at Tertiary Level

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Abstract—This paper seeks to investigate the attitude of students towards attending IELTS (Reading) classes online. The International English Language Testing System (IELTS) is a world-wide recognized test that students/ candidates have to take to assess their English language proficiency to study or work in an English-speaking context. They have to either take the IELTS Academic or the IELTS General Training modules. In recent times with the shift from face-to-face to online classes, the students face many challenges while attending online classes of IELTS, especially the reading module. This study aims to find out the problems which are faced by Saudi students while attending online classes. For this, 40 undergraduate students, both males and females of a public university in Saudi Arabia, were chosen as participants to carry out the study. A survey questionnaire was administered to the students who experienced challenges in online classes of IELTS. Based on the findings, the study concludes with some recommendations about how students can overcome the challenges they face while having online classes of the Reading module of IELTS.

Index Terms—attitude, challenges, IELTS, online classes, reading module, students

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years to pursue higher studies, find suitable jobs, or survive in an English-speaking environment, taking the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) is compulsory. It is stated that IELTS has become a “benchmark for language proficiency” (Templer, 2004, p.191). Since it has gained popularity over the years, IELTS stands out to be unique among other tests in terms of its claims to assess English as an international language and indicate a recognition of the expanding status of English (Uysal, 2009). As a result, the test takers of IELTS have significantly increased over the years.

IELTS has two test modules: IELTS Academic and IELTS General Training. Both these modules consist of the four modules: Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. The IELTS Academic is preferred by students who want to pursue higher studies and the IELTS General Training is preferred by candidates who wish to seek jobs or migrate to an English-speaking country. However, students/ candidates find both versions of the IELTS to be highly challenging. All the modules in both versions are time-bound. Students/ candidates have to take intensive training to meet the requirements set by different educational institutions or job sectors. It is known that both versions of the IELTS tests are scored in the same way assessing the four language skills (listening, reading, writing, and speaking). For both the Academic IELTS and the General Training IELTS modules, in the reading module, test takers have to read three passages consisting of 1500- 2500 words. Test takers should answer 38-42 questions in 60 minutes. It is to be mentioned that there are three sections in the Reading module and the level of difficulty increases throughout the paper (IELTS Handbook, 2007).

Students are given a text to read in a regular face-to-face class for the reading module. They read the text on paper. They are given a couple of minutes to read the title and predict what the text could be about. The next step for the students is to go through the questions and get familiar with the type of questions. Once they are familiar with the passage and the type of questions, they start to answer them.

It is said that IELTS is a 'high stakes' exam that often takes place at the end of an intensive course, and students have to be under severe pressure to succeed (Issitt, 2008). Due to the sudden shift from face-to-face to online classes, training and being trained online for IELTS modules have become challenging for both students and teachers. Both teachers and students, cannot deny the benefits of having online classes; however, for a test like IELTS, training the students online and being trained online requires a lot of time, skills, and patience. Based on both teachers' and students' experiences regarding face-to-face classes, it is seen that in a face-to-face class, students feel more comfortable interacting with teachers. Also, it is easier to engage students more in a face-to-face class than online. Below are some advantages of having face-to-face classes of the reading module and some disadvantages of having the classes of reading module online observed by the researchers.

Positive sides of conducting the reading module face-to-face:

1. Attendance of the students is satisfactory.
2. Participation of students in the class is satisfactory as well.
3. Most students are highly motivated to learn about the course.
4. It is mandatory for all students to bring their textbooks.
5. Handouts and materials are provided to them from time to time, keeping them engaged in class.
6. Students are engaged more in the assigned tasks.
7. Students can interact more with the teacher.
8. Students are engaged in group discussions about the text, which helps them better understand the text.

Negative sides of conducting the reading module online:

With a shift from face-to-face classes to online classes, the whole scenario has changed. With the beginning of online sessions,

1. Attendance of the students is significantly less.
2. Participation of the students has decreased, and some students just login for the sake of logging in.
3. Only a few students are interested to know about the text material.
4. It becomes difficult to monitor if all students really have the textbook with them and follow the given handouts and materials as there is no way to monitor these things.
5. There is also a lack of motivation on the students' side.
6. Students feel less motivated to interact with the teacher.
7. There are barely any discussions with classmates.
8. Students read the texts individually.

Rationale of the study: With the shift from face-to-face classes to online classes, the researchers were interested in studying the learners' perspectives regarding online classes of the reading module of IELTS because there were difficulties and challenges that both the teachers and learners faced.

While conducting the IELTS sessions in a regular face-to-face class, students would first get the Reading passage on paper. They would get a couple of minutes to read the title and predict what the text could be about. The next step would be to ask them to go through the questions and get familiar with the type of questions. Once they are familiar with the passage and the type of questions, they can answer the questions. However, some of these things were difficult to monitor online. First of all, teachers are unsure if all the students have the text in front of them. Second, whether all the students read the text cannot be ensured. While responding to the teacher's questions, only a couple of students would respond. In this case, teachers do not have access to monitor all the students and ask them to participate.

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the present study are to find out the challenges which learners face while having the IELTS reading module class online. Therefore, the researchers have observed and monitored the performance of students critically for one semester. Based on the needs and requirements of the students, this paper aims to come up with some solutions to overcome the problems of having reading classes online.

Research Questions

This study aims to fill the gap in the literature by answering the following questions:

1. What difficulties do students face while taking the reading module of IELTS online?
2. Does reading the texts online affect their level of understanding?
3. What strategies do students follow to cope up with the problems of reading the texts online?
4. How can the challenges be overcome?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Over the years, there are many studies conducted on the reading module of IELTS. They have discussed issues like problems that candidates face while taking the reading module, how high-scoring candidates and low-scoring candidates manage to complete the test and various strategies that test-takers use to complete the test. To take the IELTS reading module, candidates must be skilled readers to complete the task. To complete the reading module successfully, test-takers have to focus, pay attention and concentrate intensely. According to Alderson (2000), "IELTS's strength is in using multiple methods of text understanding of any passage, as in real life readers typically respond to reading texts in many ways." (p. 206).

According to Grabe (2009), Grabe and Stoller (2011) and Hudson (2007), reading is an interactive process that involves the interaction between the reader and the text. According to this view of reading, Singhal (2011) points out that a skilled reader interacts with the text to understand the text thoroughly regarding both the main ideas and relevant supporting information. A skilled reader also uses several reading strategies and prior knowledge to construct meaning. For test-takers of IELTS, regarding the reading module, the strategies are no exception. In a study conducted by Ahmadian et al. (2016), reading is considered an essential skill for academic learning. It is also crucial for EFL learners because reading comprehension is integral to International English Language Testing System (IELTS). They have also pointed out that candidates used a wide variety of strategies to complete the reading task. A similar view is expressed by Chalmers and Walkinshaw (2014). Their study also discussed that participants responded to time pressure, unfamiliar

vocabulary, and demands on working memory by employing a range of expeditious reading strategies that focused less on textual comprehension than quickly locating correct answers. Not only this, they used multiple interdependent reading strategies rather than a single independent strategy.

Ahmadian et al. (2016) also stated that candidates came up with many coping strategies. For example, guessing, highlighting and underlining key ideas, skipping, predicting, using linguistic clues to work out the meaning of words, re-reading, using non-textual clues. This research also points out predicting/ guessing to skip unnecessary information adapted by high-scoring readers. Similarly, the guessing technique is mentioned in the study of Chalmers and Walkinshaw (2014) that lower-scoring students guessed under pressure when other reading strategies failed. A similar view is shared by Feng and Chen (2016). Their work also discusses the importance of direct demonstration by teachers to help students understand reading comprehension strategies. They will use the method of thinking aloud and show students how to apply a reading comprehension strategy. As a result, students will observe the process of reading comprehension visually. Later, they will also receive feedback from teachers. In this study, the most crucial aspect in a reading class is explanation and demonstration by teachers. They will explain and demonstrate "flexible use of several kinds of reading comprehension strategies, including different applications in different contexts." (p.1179)

However, Kovalenko (2018) discusses that candidates not having the background knowledge of the texts are considered a great advantage and provide a solid justification to show that IELTS is unbiased. This view is contradictory to the view expressed by Ali et al. (2020). They state that a lack of background knowledge and familiarity with the exam topics affected the test-taker's ability to comprehend reading texts.

All these studies pointed out the fact that to be skilled readers, students have to follow some strategies to cope up with the challenges they face while taking the reading module of IELTS. Along with this, candidates have to be aware of time-management. The teacher's demonstration is also an essential factor in making the test-takers familiar with the type of questions in the reading module.

However, none of these studies show the challenges teachers and students face while having an IELTS reading module class online as teaching IELTS online seems to be a recent phenomenon. In a face-to-face class, teachers can easily guide and monitor the students throughout the reading sessions. Students can read the text, pause to think about the text, interact with the teacher and classmates to comprehend the text more thoroughly. However, in online classes, this is not possible. They have to concentrate solely on the screen, scroll up and down to locate the information. Reading on-screen makes it difficult to highlight, circle, underline key ideas and phrases. They also fail to take down notes while reading the text on the screen. Most students are not familiar with taking notes to return to the located information in the text. For a test like the IELTS, being trained online requires a lot of time, skill, and patience for students. The present study focuses on the reading module of IELTS and the difficulties students face while taking classes online.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

For this study both male and female students of B.A. program in English (Level-7 and 8) at a public university in Saudi Arabia were chosen. Forty students participated in this study. Their age ranged from 18- 25. Their L1 was Arabic. They have been studying the course Preparation for International Tests for one semester.

B. *Instruments*

The research participants were administered a survey questionnaire consisting of 16 closed items. All ordinal variables in the questionnaire were prepared on a 5-point Likert Scale starting from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The questionnaire was based on the experiences of students who had taken classes of IELTS reading module online for one semester.

C. *Data Collection Procedure*

The questionnaire was constructed on Google forms. Its link was forwarded to students through Course Messages, emails, and SMS on mobiles. Within 10 days, the data was collected. The students responded enthusiastically because they faced many challenges during this semester (2nd semester Spring 2021) in the IELTS reading module.

D. *Hypothesis*

The current research validates the negative impacts of online classes and the difficulties that both students and teachers have faced in web-based teaching and learning. Based on the students' observations, the researchers have formulated this hypothesis- IELTS reading module online classes carry several negative impacts with its positive sides. If these negative impacts are not resolved, the whole learning process gets affected and learning becomes doubtful. In other words, it can be said that students do not perform well and do not get internal and external reinforcement to attend classes online. Hence, the aims of the whole pedagogy are lost and there are many challenges to achieve its goals.

E. *Limitations of the Study*

The study was conducted at only one university in Saudi Arabia; hence, the participants were not numerous. Also, all the students who were taking the course of IELTS online did not participate in the study.

F. Ethical Consideration

The names of the participants in the study have been kept anonymous. The participants were assured that the confidentiality of the respondent would be maintained. This questionnaire would be used only for data collection and analysis. There will be no pressure if the questionnaire is unfilled.

G. Data Analysis and Interpretation

After gathering the data, it was analysed statistically using SPSS (Version 26.0). A tabulation of descriptive statistics: minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation was prepared to determine the students' views regarding the IELTS reading module classes online, as illustrated in table 1.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

TABLE 1
LEARNERS' PERSPECTIVES TOWARDS THE ONLINE READING MODULE OF IELTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. I feel that face-to-face instructions from teachers are more helpful than instructions online for the reading component.	40	1	5	4.25	1.171
2. I find reading the texts on the screen to be more time-consuming.	40	1	5	4.07	1.141
3. I think that reading the texts on screen affects my concentration level.	40	1	5	4.05	1.260
4. I think reading the texts on paper keeps me more on track and focused.	40	1	5	4.32	1.071
5. I apply some reading strategies for locating information when I read texts on screen.	40	2	5	3.55	1.061
6. I believe that engaging in pair/group discussion in a classroom environment helps me to be more engaged.	40	1	5	4.10	1.128
7. I feel hesitant to ask teachers for explanations and clarification while reading the texts online.	40	2	5	4.00	1.132
8. I have to take notes while reading online for a better understanding.	40	1	5	4.10	1.081
9. I read aloud when the texts become challenging to comprehend.	40	1	5	4.12	1.202
10. I read slowly and carefully to understand what I am reading.	40	2	5	4.20	.911
11. I have to adjust my reading speed while reading online.	40	2	5	3.85	1.001
12. Sometimes, I print out a hard copy of the text and use it to locate information.	40	1	5	3.65	1.252
13. I feel more nervous when I read a text online.	40	1	5	3.05	1.535
14. When I read a text online, I need to concentrate and focus more.	40	1	5	3.88	1.362
15. I stop every now and then and reflect upon what I am reading.	40	2	5	3.88	.939
16. I believe it requires a particular skill to be a good online reader.	40	1	5	3.70	1.159

Out of 16 variables, 9 of them supported that online reading needs some special attention and focus. The participants supported this idea strongly as they scored 4 or more than 4 points on a 5-point Likert Scale. These are as follows 1. (M= 4.25, S.D. = 1.71), 2. (M= 4.07, S.D.= 1.141), 3. (M= 4.05, S.D.= 1.260) 4. (M= 4.32, S.D.= 1.071), 6. (M= 4.10, S.D.= 1.128), 7 (M= 4.00, S.D.= 1.132) 8. (M= 4.10, S.D.= 1.202), 9. (M= 4.12, S.D.= 1.202), 10. (M= 4.20, S.D.= .911). The rest 7 variables scored less than 4. Their mean and standard deviation were recorded and shown in the following way as 5. (M= 3.55, S.D.= 1.061) 11. (M= 3.85, S.D.= 1.001), 12. (M= 3.65, S.D.= 1.252), 13. (M= 3.05, S.D.= 1.535), 14. (M= 3.88, S.D.= 1.362), 15. (M= 3.88, S.D.= .939) 16. (M= 3.70, S.D.= 1.159). Except item no. 13, the rest 6 items scored more than 3.50, so, it indicates the participants agree with these variables too. It is to be mentioned that no variables had less than 3 points which means participants agreed totally with all the responses.

The data revealed that the respondents were not much satisfied with the online reading sessions for IELTS because they found it difficult to concentrate on applying all the reading strategies. They also had less involvement in pair/group work because of the online classes; therefore, their dissatisfaction was evident.

The findings of this study show that students face more challenges and difficulties in the online IELTS reading module than the traditional classes. They find problems with getting instructions online, whereas face-to-face instructions are more helpful and effective for them. This view is similar to the view expressed in the study of Feng and Chen (2016). Their work also discussed the importance of direct demonstration by teachers to help students understand reading comprehension strategies. They preferred to use the method of thinking aloud and show students how to apply a reading comprehension strategy. For some learners getting the instructions visually helped them to be more focused. Many learners supported the view that they had to take down notes to understand the text better. This is similar to the views expressed in the study of Ahmadian et al. (2016). There, candidates came up with many coping strategies: guessing, highlighting and underlining key ideas, skipping, predicting, using linguistic clues to work out the meaning of words, re-reading, using non-textual clues. Some learners also felt that reading text online affected their concentration level and they had to be more focused. Moreover, they had to apply some strategies for locating information while reading the texts online. The researchers here agree with Singhal (2011), who points out that a skilled reader interacts with the text to thoroughly understand the text regarding both the main ideas and relevant supporting information.

They thought engaging in pair/ group discussion would have helped them be more involved in the activities. The study also shows some students feel hesitant to ask for an explanation when they face any problem. They also have to take notes for a better understanding of the online texts. They have to read slowly and carefully and also adjust their reading speed. Some learners pointed out they feel nervous while reading a text online and they have to stop and reflect upon what they are reading. Not to mention that learners sometimes need particular skills to be good online readers, which is similar to the view expressed in the study of (Singhal, 2011). He points out that a skilled reader also uses several reading strategies and prior knowledge to construct meaning.

Based on the above discussion, it can be mentioned that online reading sessions of the IELTS reading module are challenging for most students. To be more focused, using various reading strategies and being aware of time limitations are issues that students must be aware of from the beginning of the online sessions. They must be self-regulated and take proper guidance from their instructors to overcome the obstacles they face during the online sessions.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

Learners, to a certain extent, face challenges while taking IELTS Reading classes online. Based on this observation, some recommendations are given below.

- Teachers need to train the learners to be more skilled in taking reading classes online.
- Learners need to be self-motivated to attend online classes of IELTS.
- Learners should have more self-practice to get familiar with the online texts of IELTS.
- Teachers need to train learners more to use various reading strategies to complete the reading tasks.
- Learners should learn to be more focused during the online sessions.
- Learners should participate more in online discussions.
- There should be more interaction with teachers instead of being passive learners.
- Learners should be encouraged more to get involved in pair work.
- As the reading module is extremely time-bound, learners should be aware of the time limitation regarding IELTS reading module.

VI. CONCLUSION

For many students taking online classes can be very beneficial as it saves time and they can take the classes whenever and wherever convenient. In the current context of education, the benefits of online classes cannot be denied. Both teachers and students support the view that online classes have made everything very easily accessible. However, it has to be mentioned that online classes can be advantageous for a short period. It cannot be applicable in a course like IELTS, where learners need to be trained rigorously and within time constraints. The reading module of IELTS is no doubt extremely challenging and to have high scores, learners find it difficult to cope with the challenges which come with being instructed online. Online classes can never be the solution for life-long learning. Even when technology is governing all the fields of education, there will still be some learners who would prefer to be guided by teachers and instructors face-to-face. They will still want to sit in a proper classroom to feel the classroom environment with friends and classmates to chat and share information. All these in turn, will keep learners motivated and adequately guided. The crux of the study is that online classes can never be the solution for life-long learning.

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Effect of Word Exposure Frequency on Chinese Advanced EFL Learners' Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

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Abstract—The present study explores the effect of word exposure frequency on Chinese advanced EFL learners' incidental acquisition of three aspects of word knowledge (i.e., word form, word class and word meaning). The participants were 20 Chinese English postgraduates who read two chapters of an original English novel and took four vocabulary tests. The target words were 20 pseudo-words created to replace the words that naturally occurred from one to twenty times in the text. The results show that word exposure frequency has a significant effect on IVA through reading, exerting the strongest effect on word form recognition and the weakest on word meaning recall. The study also finds that seven is the threshold value for significant word gain growth and that local word frequency also influences learners' IVA.

Index Terms—intentional vocabulary acquisition, word exposure frequency, extensive reading

I. INTRODUCTION

Incidental vocabulary acquisition (IVA) refers to the learning of vocabulary without intent to do so, as the learner's primary objective in extensive reading is to comprehend meaning rather than learn new words (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999). The term "incidental" signifies the involuntary nature of picking up new words or word knowledge while making sense of the text. Many researchers (e.g., Day, Omura & Hiramatsu, 1991; Nation, 2001; Richardson, Morgan & Fleener, 2008) believe that incidental learning is an effective way of learning vocabulary and that L2 vocabulary is mainly acquired through incidental language learning activities, primarily through extensive reading. Nagy et al. (1987) argued that "incidental learning of words during reading may be the easiest and single most powerful means of promoting large-scale vocabulary growth" (p. 249). Krashen (1989) even claims that students can learn all the vocabulary they need from context through extensive reading.

The effect of word exposure frequency on IVA has been examined in previous theoretical and empirical studies. Researchers, however, have not yet reached a consensus on the exposure frequency for successful IVA through reading to occur. It is also noted that the majority of previous studies test word meaning recognition only and falsely equated gains in word meaning with word gains in general. Though college students primarily enlarge their vocabulary through extensive reading (Rott, 1999; Gai, 2003), many admit vocabulary acquisition is still one of their biggest problems in English learning (Meara, 1990). This study, therefore, intends to explore the effect that word exposure frequency has on Chinese advanced learners' IVA and the threshold value for the significant effect to occur.

II. REVIEW OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

Vocabulary learning is a gradual process in which learners make word gains through repeated encounters with new words. Nation (2004) believes that one exposure to an unknown word in a text can hardly lead to vocabulary acquisition. Learners must be repeatedly exposed to a novel word in different natural contexts to achieve successful acquisition. Studies have shown that both L1 learners (Nagy et al., 1987; Shu et al., 1995) and L2 learners (Hulstijn, 1992; Horst et al., 1998; Rott, 1999) can incidentally gain knowledge of word form and meaning through reading. Jenkins, Stein and Wysocki (1984) found that word knowledge gains grew as the number of word encounters in context increased. Tekmen and Daloglu (2006) examined the relationship between learners' IVA and word frequency in a text. They found that word frequency was a relatively strong predictor of vocabulary acquisition, accounting for 29% of the variance in acquisition.

Studies (Grabe & Stoller, 1997; Horst et al., 1998; Waring & Takaki, 2003) have also examined the effect of the vocabulary exposure frequency on IVA. The outcomes, however, varied considerably. Jenkins, Stein, and Wysocki (1984) found that about 25% of the learners could learn a word after ten exposures. Horst, Cobb and Meara (1998) explored IVA in relation to word frequency by having 34 Oman intermediate English learners read a simplified version of *Mayor of Casterbridge* over ten days. The students took two multiple-choice tests to see whether they could choose

the correct meanings of the target words. The results of the study showed that words with over eight occurrences in the text were more likely to be acquired than those that occurred fewer times. Rott (1999) also examined the effect of word exposure frequency on IVA through reading. Sixty-seven German learners in the study read six paragraphs in which the target words occurred two, four, and six times, respectively. It was found that words with six exposure times led to significantly greater lexical gains. Pellicer-Sánchez and Schmitt (2010) also found that a novel word could be learned after 6 to 10 occurrences. Waring and Takaki (2003) discovered that the learners needed to encounter a word at least eight times before they could recognize its form and that they had great difficulty identifying the meaning even when the same word occurred over 18 times.

The previous empirical studies on the effect of exposure frequency on IVA lend sufficient evidence to the argument that extensive reading contributes to students' vocabulary learning and have laid solid foundations for further studies in the field of IVA. These studies, however, are not free from limitations. The majority of previous studies tested word meaning recognition only and fail to examine the effect on word gains of different aspects separately. Lexical knowledge involves different aspects of word knowledge and should, therefore, be measured accordingly. Moreover, most studies employed multiple-choice tests and failed to measure partial word gains. Tests of this kind also allowed participants to generate answers based on their guesses instead of truly on their actual lexical knowledge. In addition, the word exposure frequencies in most previous studies were not in the order of natural word occurrences, which made it unlikely to detect the actual threshold value of word exposures.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The current study aims to investigate the effect of word exposure frequency on advanced EFL learners' incidental acquisition of word knowledge in terms of word form, word class and meaning. To address the unresolved issues, we made a stringent control of possible intervening variables. The target words in the present study were the ones that naturally occurred from one to twenty times in the reading material and were all replaced by pseudo-words to prevent the possible effect of prior knowledge of the target words. This study examined different aspects (i.e., word form, part of speech and meaning) of word knowledge and measured word meaning gains in terms of two dimensions, word meaning recall and word meaning recognition. Participants' possible random guessing was prevented by one-on-one questioning. In this way, we can have a more accurate and in-depth understanding of the effects of word exposure frequency on different aspects of word knowledge.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 20 English postgraduate students at a Chinese key university voluntarily participated in the present study. They all have been learning English for more than ten years of English and majoring in English for more than five years. The participants included 6 males and 14 females. All of them passed with a score over 70 points (out of 100) on the Test for English Majors-Band 8 (TEM-8), the highest level of an English proficiency test specifically designed for English majors.

B. Reading Material

The reading material in this study was the first two chapters of the English novel *Of Mice and Men*, which none of the participants had read. The two chapters contained 12,164 words in total, with 43 words new to the participants. The percentage of new words was 0.35%, which satisfied the requirement of knowing at least 98% of the vocabulary in a text to infer the meaning of unknown words from context (Nation & Coady, 1988).

C. Target Words

Altogether 20 words were chosen as the target words in this study, including nine nouns, six verbs and five adjectives. These words naturally occurred in the material from one to twenty times. They were replaced by pseudo-words to eliminate the possible intervening effect of the participants' prior knowledge of the words.

The target words were chosen according to the following criteria: 1) Words should naturally appear from one to twenty times in the text. The plural forms of a noun and the inflected forms of a regular verb (e.g., walked, walking) were counted as occurrences of the base nouns and verbs (e.g., walk); 2) Only content words were chosen, as they usually have clear referents and are more likely to be noticed and processed; 3) Words should be of different parts of speech, and nouns, verbs and adjectives should be chosen since they are the most common parts of speech in the natural text; 4) the meanings of the target words should be able to be inferred through context; 5) the meanings and parts of speech of the target words should stay the same throughout the text; 6) the pseudo-words should follow English spelling conventions and not be easily confused with real English words.

D. Instruments

1. Tests

This study included four tests¹ that were designed to measure the effect of word exposure frequency on the acquisition of the different aspects of word knowledge, i.e., word form recognition, word class recall, word meaning recall and word meaning recognition.

Four immediate tests were carefully sequenced to minimize the effect of an earlier test on the later ones. The first test, the word form recognition multiple-choice test, was administered to see if the participants could recognize the forms of the target words. The participants chose the correct word form from the four provided items, three of which were distractors that resembled the target words in spelling. The second test, the word class recall test, was designed to measure the participants' knowledge of parts of speech. In this test, the target words were each presented with four blanks, with no syntactic clue available. The participants would write answers based on their understanding of the word class of each target word. The third test, the word meaning recall test, examined how well the participants could infer word meanings from the context. In this test, we made twenty cards, each with one target word printed on it. The participants should explain to the researcher the meanings of the target words on the cards, and the researcher would complete the answer sheet based on the answers given by the participants. In the fourth test, the word meaning recognition test, the target words were embedded in twenty sentences. Below each of the sentences were four options of word meaning for the participants to choose from.

2. Interview

After they completed the four tests, the participants took a semi-structured interview, which helped determine partial lexical gains and the reasons for their answers to the test items.

E. Data Collection and Analysis

The experiment was carried out in a one-on-one manner with one participant at a time. The participants were informed to read the material in an hour, a time limit determined by a pilot study on two postgraduate students of English proficiency similar to that of the participants. The participants were ignorant of the research purpose and believed comprehension of the material was the focus of the task. Dictionaries were not allowed throughout the whole experiment.

Immediately after the participants finished reading, we took back the material and asked questions about the readers' comprehension of the text. We then distributed to the participants the test papers in the following order – the word form multiple-choice test, the word class recall test, the word meaning recall test, and the word meaning recognition test. Finally, the participants took an interview, which was tape-recorded for later analysis. The whole procedure for each participant lasted about two hours.

SPSS 16.0 was used to analyze the data statistically. The descriptive statistics were obtained, and the One-way ANOVA was used to measure the effect of exposure frequency on word gains in four vocabulary tests and examine whether there existed significant differences among different frequency groups.

V. RESULTS

A. General Word Gains

The results show that incidental vocabulary acquisition can occur through reading an original English novel. The present study revealed word gains of 45.8% of the target words. The words with frequencies of 7, 10, 11, 14 and above demonstrated word gains of over 50%, which was relatively high given the incidental nature of word learning in this study. The word gains, however, were not consistent across different tests or different word knowledge aspects. The largest gain was achieved on word form recognition (60.5%), with the participants incidentally acquiring this aspect for over half of the tested target words. The second-best performance was in the word class recall test (55.5%). Word meaning recognition and word meaning recall showed lower accuracy rates, though the percentage in the former (41%) was considerably higher than that in the latter (26.25%). At the frequency of 7 (or F7), over 50% of the participants got the target words correct in the word class recall test, the word meaning recall test, and the word meaning recognition test. There existed a significant difference between word gains in the four word tests in general ($p=.000$) as well as significant differences between individual tests ($p<.05$).

B. Effects of Exposure Frequency on Word Acquisition

The present study showed that the word gains by the students substantially grew when the words occurred seven, ten and sixteen times. To identify the effect of exposure frequency on word acquisition, we divided the 20 exposure frequencies into four groups: 1-6 occurrences (Group 1), 7-10 occurrences (Group 2), 11-15 occurrences (Group 3) and 16-20 occurrences (Group 4).

¹ The tests are available upon request.

TABLE 1
DIFFERENCES IN VOCABULARY GAINS AMONG THE FOUR FREQUENCY GROUPS

FG	Between groups		
	1	2	3
2	.033*		
3	.013*	.902	
4	.006*	.142	.059

Note: FG= exposure frequency groups

1= 1-6 occurrences, 2= 7-10 occurrences, 3= 11-15 occurrences, 4= 16-20 occurrences

*. The difference is significant between the two frequency levels ($p < .05$)

Table 1 shows significant differences among the four frequency groups in terms of the frequency effects on target word gains, as well as between Group 1 and each of the rest groups. No significant differences were found between Group 2 and Group3, between Group 2 and Group 3, or between Group 3 and Group 4. This result suggested that generally speaking, words exposed over seven times were significantly better acquired and that the effect of exposure frequency was relatively weak on general word gains after six occurrences. In other words, seven exposures can be the threshold value for a new word to be substantially acquired through extensive reading.

TABLE 2
DIFFERENCES IN VOCABULARY GAINS AMONG THE FOUR FREQUENCY GROUPS IN THE FOUR TESTS

FG	WFR			WCR			WMR			WMRecog		
	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
2	.019*			.010*			.025*			.019*		
3	.144	.050		.006*	.325		.045*	.327		.045*	.327	
4	.006*	.027*	.009*	.006*	.048*	.009*	.006*	.535	.028*	.006*	.110	.016*

Note: FG= exposure frequency groups

1= 1-6 occurrences, 2= 7-10 occurrences, 3= 11-15 occurrences, 4= 16-20 occurrences

WFR: word form recognition test; WCR: word class recall test

WMR: word meaning recall test; WMRecog: word meaning recognition test

*. The difference is significant between the two frequency levels ($p < .05$)

The differences among the four frequency groups were statistically significant ($p < .05$) in all the four vocabulary tests, which indicated the positive effect of exposure frequency on word gains in all the three aspects of word knowledge, as shown in Table 2. The frequency effect was most evident in the part-of-speech test, where the scores among four frequency groups were all significantly different ($p < .05$) except those between Group 2 and Group 3.

In all the four tests, words occurring over six times were significantly better acquired than those less than seven times in a text, except for between Group1 and Group3 in the word form recognition test. No significant differences were found between Group 2 and Group 3, which means words exposed between 7 and 10 times were not significantly better acquired than those that occurred between 11 and 15 times in a text. Significant differences, however, were found between Group 3 and Group 4 in all the four tests, which suggested that word acquisition restarted to grow at 16 repetitions after the downturn in word gains after 11 exposures. Moreover, significant differences were found between Group 2 and Group 4 in word form recognition and word-class recall tests, but not in the word meaning tests. This suggested that for word meaning acquisition, it was less likely to rely on exposure frequency to enhance performance and that for word form and class, student performances could still exhibit visible improvement after 15 exposures. Thus, seven and sixteen occurrences might both be a statistically significant indication for considerable growth in word knowledge regarding the incidental acquisition of word form and class. For word meaning recall and recognition tests, only seven can be considered the threshold value for substantial growth in understanding word meaning.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. Frequency Effect on IVA

The present study finds that exposure frequency exerts a significant effect on IVA and that seven is the threshold value for IVA through extensive reading to occur. Kartal & Sarigul (2017) argue that input frequency significantly influences second language acquisition. This is particularly true with IVA through reading. During extensive reading, the reader's attention is focused primarily on text comprehension, not on the form or meaning of particular words. When readers encounter a novel word, they consciously or subconsciously evaluate the salience of the word in the immediate context. A novel word remains unknown unless the reader perceives it as significant for text comprehension. Word exposure frequency to a certain extent influences readers' judgement of word salience in the text. The greater number of word occurrence suggests the importance of words in text comprehension (Horst et al., 1998). Words with higher frequency are more likely to be perceived, especially when they are indispensable for text comprehension. Once there is a need to learn a new word to comprehend a text or fulfill a specific reading purpose, the learners shift their attention from text reading to word processing. Words with higher exposure frequency are processed more efficiently (Brysbaert et al., 2018). Consequently, IVA through reading is more likely to occur.

This study, in general, yielded a better exposure frequency effect on IVA than previous ones. The reasons are threefold. First, the aspects of target word knowledge vary across studies. The present study investigated three aspects,

i.e., word form, word class, and word meaning. Many previous studies (e.g., Horst et al. 1998) examine word meaning only, the aspect of word knowledge that is acknowledged as the most difficult to acquire accidentally. Second, the participants of this study were all English postgraduates and demonstrated higher language competence. Their higher English proficiency being developed through years of intensive English learning contributes to the positive test results of this study, even in the test of word meaning acquisition. Third, the words in the text were well controlled. Except for the target words, over 98% of the words were familiar to the participants. This design presumably posed little difficulty comprehending the text and allowed the participants to notice and process the target words sufficiently. This design effect was confirmed by the interviews with the participants in which 90% of the participants reported their noticing of the target words.

B. Different Aspects of Word Knowledge and IVA

In terms of different aspects of word knowledge, the word exposure frequency effect is more evident in word form acquisition than in word meaning acquisition. This finding supports the argument that different aspects of word knowledge are learned at different paces (Schmitt 2000). Word knowledge, as Schmitt (2000) pointed out, consists of different aspects of lexical knowledge. Learning a word generally progresses from knowing one simpler aspect to acquiring more comprehensive knowledge. A learner's knowledge of a word, for example, can develop from grasping orthographic and morphological features to gaining syntactic and semantic understandings. The ultimate achievement is to establish a knowledge network, in which different aspects of word knowledge connect with one another, and the newly acquired word knowledge connects with words that have already stored in one's vocabulary reservoir. The incremental nature of word learning necessitates vocabulary research to capture the subtle word knowledge growth and to improve learners' lexical understanding.

Word meaning comprehension and memorization are more demanding and complicated a process, and English learners generally find it most difficult to retrieve word meaning compared to the retrieval of word form and word class. The spellings and parts of speech of a word can be learned and later triggered by recognizing the orthographic form and syntactic information. However, the sight of the words and the syntactic knowledge cannot provide sufficient informative connections for meaning recall. According to the Instance-Based Theory (Bolger et al., 2008), the acquisition of word meaning is more incremental, and the core meaning of the word can only be gradually abstracted after multiple contextual encounters. Therefore, more word encounters, or higher word exposure frequencies, are needed to allow for the accumulative frequency effect on word meaning decontextualization and eventual acquisition.

C. Local Exposure Frequency and IVA

Though the participants' accuracy rates in the tests generally increased along with the increase in word exposure frequency, there exist apparent fluctuations in the learners' word gains. This phenomenon suggests that general exposure frequency is not the only factor that influences IVA. Local word frequency is found to exert a certain effect on IVA. Word exposure frequency, or general word frequency, generally refers to the repeated occurrence of a word in the whole text. By contrast, local word frequency refers to the number of occurrences of a word within a specific area. There are cases where words with lower general frequency but higher local frequency are better acquired than words with higher general frequency but lower local frequency. The word "badam," for example, had a relatively higher local word frequency of 11 times and generated an acquisition percentage of 57.5%, as opposed to 50% for "bugga," the word appearing 15 times with an uneven distribution throughout the whole text. This suggests that the local word frequency in a text can also be a factor to influence word gains.

VII. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study investigated the effect of word exposure frequency on advanced English learners' IVA through reading an original English novel. It is found that advanced English learners can incidentally acquire multiple aspects of word knowledge through reading authentic English materials. Of all the aspects of word knowledge examined in the current study, word form is best acquired, and word meaning recall the least. Seven is the threshold value for significant word gain growth, and sixteen occurrences witness another new high in word gains in word form and class acquisition. The results also show that word gains are not in linear proportion to exposure frequency. Local word frequency and also influences IVA.

The findings of the present study have some practical implications for vocabulary learning. It is observed that few advanced English learners intentionally memorize new words, as many believe it is time-consuming and inefficient. The present study shows that English learners of higher proficiency can learn words by reading long authentic English materials and that word reoccurrence increases the chances of a word being noticed and processed. Extensive reading, therefore, can be an effective way to enlarge learners' vocabulary size. To achieve the optimal vocabulary acquisition effect, English learners need to read materials long enough to ensure that learners can encounter the same new words at least seven times, the time that generates the significant frequency effect to occur. It should also be noted that word learning involves different aspects of word knowledge, which often develop at different paces. Frequency effect is most evident on word form recognition and least on word meaning recall. Learners should learn to understand that learners can hardly fully acquire a word with contextual word learning and that only unbalanced word knowledge is gained

through extensive reading. Therefore, acquisition of word meaning also entails conscious effort on their part to learn the correct meaning from the context and retain the knowledge.

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Reflexives and Reciprocals in English and Modern Standard Arabic: An Investigation and a Comparison

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Abstract—The aim of this paper is to investigate the typology of reflexives and reciprocals in English and MSA, which is a variety of standardized, literary Arabic used throughout Arab countries. It has shown that MSA morphologically encoded reflexives and reciprocals are in fact syntactically and semantically asymmetrical. It will be argued that morphologically encoded reflexives do not project an anaphor (an internal argument) syntactically and their morphological marker semantically serves as a reflexivizer, whereas morphologically encoded reciprocals do project an anaphor syntactically, realized either overtly or covertly. Concerning the distribution of such anaphor, the paper elucidates the admissible and in admissible environments. It is argued that MSA does not allow possessive reflexives, but allow possessive reciprocals such as the construct-state, whether it be a noun phrase or a locative prepositional phrase. This variation is accounted for by assuming that reciprocals occupy Spec of DP and therefore can be bound by an NP from a higher phase, whereas reflexives occupy a position lower than the D head and thus must be bound within their DP phase. Finally yet importantly, MSA override reflexives and reciprocals unlike their English counterparts, are always subject to the Principle A of the Binding Theory.

Index Terms—reflexives, reciprocals, Binding Theory, locative possessive

I. INTRODUCTION

In natural language, both reflexives and reciprocals have often been grouped under the umbrella term of ‘anaphor’ to simplify descriptions and analyses. They represent different, but related, linguistic concepts. Reflexives can be applied to self-directed subjects (Ndimele, 1999, P. 194). Namely, a participant acts on himself or herself, rather than on any other (x hits x). Reciprocals, on the other hand, are expressions that indicate that the subject of the verb is at the same time the object. Unlike reflexives, reciprocals require a plural subject, each acting on the other, (i.e., x acting on y and y acting on x). They introduce a distributing element (each) into the meaning (Gaby, 2008, Heine & Miyashita, 2008; and Kemmer 1993).

The paper is divided into four main sections. Section (1) defines reflexives and reciprocals. Sections (2) and (3) present an overview of this anaphora in English and MSA. Section (4) investigates the thematic and case marking in both constructions. Section (5) discusses short, medium and long-distance reflexives and reciprocals. In sections (6) and (7), an analysis of override reflexives and reciprocals, besides locative possessive is given. The last section concludes and sums up the results of the study

II. REFLEXIVES: AN OVERVIEW

Languages differ in the way they express these two linguistic concepts; for example, although the encoding of reflexives and reciprocals in both English and Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) may be parallel at some levels, it is different at some other levels. A predicate in general may be reflexive-marked in the following three distinct ways: (i) one of its arguments (NP/DP) appears as what Reinhart and Reuland (1993) call a *Self*-anaphor, (ii) the predicate itself (typically a verb) is lexically/inherently reflexive, or (iii) the predicate is specified as reflexive through overt morphological marking. The first mechanism has been referred to by Reinhart and Reuland (1993, p. 693) as “**Extrinsic**” reflexivization, and the latter two as “**Intrinsic**” reflexivization.

Reflexivity in English can be expressed in either way with its intrinsic reflexivity but not being marked by any overt morphology Napoli (1996), as exemplified in (1) and (2).

(1) The little girl_i liked **herself**_i.

In the above example, the predicate *liked* is extrinsically reflexivized when its object argument appears as the reflexive anaphor *herself*. An English reflexive (e.g. *herself*) is a morphologically complex object that consists of a root *Self* and a pronominal prefix. It consists of local reflexives appearing in argument position, usually as a co-argument of the same verb as its antecedent (Stern, 2004). The reflexive pronoun *herself* is co-referential with its antecedent *the little girl*; it agrees with it in person, number and gender and occurs to the right of it (Carnie, 2012). The interpretation of the reflexive pronoun in (1) is referentially dependent on its subject argument *the little girl*.

(2) The little girl **behaved**.

In (2) the predicate *behaved* is intrinsically reflexive due to its lexical meaning, which is not indicated by any overt morphology on the verb.

Both extrinsic and intrinsic methods of reflexivization can also be combined, as illustrated in (3).

(3) The little girl₁ **behaved herself**₁

In this example, the predicate *behaved* as an intrinsically reflexive predicate is accompanied by the *self* anaphor *herself* as its object. Note that this double encoding of reflexivity in English involves a lexically inherent (bare) verb and an anaphor).

In MSA, verbs can be reflexive-marked in three ways: using a *self* anaphor which turns a transitive verb into an extrinsic reflexive or using verbs that are inherently reflexive (e.g., /halaqa/ 'shaved') or verbs having an overt morphological marker (e.g., /ʔistaḥamma/ 'bathed') (intrinsic reflexive). It is worth noting that the use of intrinsic reflexives in this paper includes only MSA morphologically encoded predicates, but does not include inherently reflexive predicates.

- (4) a. /ʔalwaladu₁ ḥammama **nafsahu₁**/.
 The boy.NOM bathed himself.ACC
 'The boy bathed himself.'

- b. /ʔalwaladu ʔistaḥamma/.
 The boy.NOM bathed.ST
 'The boy bathed.' (= 'The boy bathed himself.')

The verb in (4a) is extrinsically reflexive-marked by the anaphor /nafsahu/'himself'. Notice that the reflexive anaphor is used with a transitive verb and reflexivity is consequently achieved through binding; the verb /ḥammama/ 'bathed' is then a syntactically encoded reflexive. While the verb in (4b) becomes "intrinsically" reflexive by virtue of the morphological marker *-st-*, which functions as a **reflexivizer**. Notice that the verb /ʔistaḥamma/ 'st.bathed' becomes intransitive. Unlike English, MSA disallows the double encoding of reflexivity, as shown in (5). It must, however, be borne in mind that the MSA reflexive verbs involve overt morphology.

- (5) a. */ʔalwaladu₁ taʔaddaba nafsahu₁/.
 The boy.NOM TA.behaved himself
 'The boy behaved (himself).'
 b. */ʔalwaladu₁ ʔistaḥamma/ nafsahu₁/.
 the boy.NOM ST.bathed himself
 'The boy bathed himself.'

The starred sentences in (5a and 5b) are ungrammatical, since morphologically encoded reflexive verbs such as /taʔaddaba/'TA.behaved' and/ ʔistaḥamma/'ST-'bathed' are intransitive, namely, verbs that project only one subject argument syntactically. Thus, such reflexive configuration cannot be structurally generated in MSA. The structural typology of reflexive constructions in English and MSA is summarized in the table below:

TABLE 1
 TYPOLOGY OF REFLEXIVE CONSTRUCTIONS IN ENGLISH AND MSA)

Linguistic elements In English	Linguistic elements In MSA	Modes of linguistic encoding
Inherently reflexive verbs <i>behave</i>	Inherently reflexive verbs e.g., /halaqa 'shaved'	Lexical
-	Reflexivizing morphemes <i>ta-</i> , <i>-n-</i> , <i>t-</i> , <i>-st-</i>	Morphological
Self anaphors <i>-self</i>	<i>Self</i> -anaphors e.g., /nafs-/ 'self'	Syntactic

III. RECIPROCALLS: AN OVERVIEW

Regarding reciprocal, it may be encoded across languages lexically, morphologically and syntactically. Each of such modes of linguistic encoding may be realized by using one or more syntactic categories. In English, lexical encoding of reciprocals may include nominal elements (e.g., spouses, friends, neighbors) or verbal elements (e.g., meet, gather, fight), which lexically exhibit a mutual association among participants. That is, the meaning of such elements implies or encompasses a mutual and hence reciprocal relation.

Another linguistic mode of encoding reciprocals is syntactic in nature as it involves the use of a reciprocal anaphor like *each other* that is bound by an antecedent, as shown in 'The two boys _{<1+2>} greeted each other_{<1+2>}'.

Reciprocity may also be encoded by a modifier (an adverb) in English as exemplified in *John and Mary are playing together*. → Adverbial strategy (Implied meaning: *John* is playing with *Mary* and vice versa). Moreover, it can also be linguistically expressed by using multiple sentences e.g. *He glimpsed her and she glimpsed him*, or multiple propositions as in *The boy talked to the girl and she talked to him* (Maslova, 2000, Heine & Kuteva, 2002; König & Kokutani, 2006; Evans, 2008 ; Hicks, 2008) and Haas, 2010). This strategy involves at least two predicates. However, it is less common in languages such as English and Arabic wherein mutuality can be expressed in one proposition or clause; this is perhaps due to reasons of economy.

In MSA, reciprocity can be expressed in three ways using a reciprocal anaphor or having a morphological marker (e.g., *ta-*) on the verb or both. Consider the following examples:

- (6) a. /ʔalwalada:ni_{<1+2>} Daraba: **baʕDahuma: ʔalbaʕD**_{<1↔2>/}
 the two boys.NOM hit some.dl.ACC some.def.ACC
 ‘The two boys hit each other.’
 b. /ʔalwalada:ni_{<1+2>} taDa:raba:/
 The two boys.NOM TA.hit
 ‘The two boys hit each other.’
 c. /ʔalwalada:ni_{<1+2>} taDa:raba: maʕa **baʕDihima: ʔalbaʕD**_{<1↔2>/}.
 the two boys.NOM TA.hit with some.dl.GEN some.def.GEN
 ‘The two boys hit each other.’

Since reciprocity is semantically characterized as a mutual binary relation between/among at least two participants in an eventuality, the subject arguments in (a) bind the reciprocal pronouns. Interestingly, the predicate/ *Daraba:* / ‘hit’ in (a) is not inherently reciprocal; rather, it is only reciprocal by virtue of their co-indexed arguments. The actions involved in (6a-c) are bidirectional and hence reciprocal; the verb / *Daraba:* / ‘hit’ in (6a) is extrinsically reciprocal-marked, with the use of the anaphor /**baʕDahuma: ʔalbaʕD**/ ‘each other’; the verb /*taDa:raba:*/ ‘TA.hit’ in (b), which has the morphological marker /*ta-*/ is also capable of expressing a reciprocal meaning. It is worth noting that MSA allows both lexical and syntactic reciprocalization to appear in the same clause, as shown in (6c) where the morphologically reciprocalized verb / *taDa:raba:*/ ‘TA.hit’ and the reciprocal anaphor /**baʕDahuma: ʔalbaʕD**/ ‘each other’ are combined.

As far as Case and thematic marking are concerned, the predicate/ *Daraba:* / ‘hit’ in (6a) has an NP complement (its internal argument: /**baʕDahuma: ʔalbaʕD**/ ‘each other’ to which it assigns accusative Case and Theme. By comparison, the predicate /*taDa:raba:*/ in (6c) has a PP complement but the NP within the PP counts as the internal argument. Following Reinhart and Siloni (2005), I will assume that a PP complement here arises because of the morphological marking (the prefix /*ta-*/) on the verb that ‘absorb’ accusative Case. The verb as a result is incapable of assigning a structural Case to its internal argument, but /**baʕDihima: ʔalbaʕD**/ ‘each other’ is assigned genitive Case by the preposition /*maʕa*/ ‘with’. The verb however still theta-marks its internal argument (NP within PP) with Theme as the preposition has no thematic content whatsoever (cf. Reinhart and Siloni (2005), Reinhart and Reuland (1993)).

Regarding the lexical encoding of reciprocity in MSA, it may involve only nominal elements as in /*Mustafa wa ʕumarun ʔaxawa:ni*/ ‘Mustafa and Omar are brothers.’ (Implied meaning: Mustafa is Omar’s brother and vice versa), or a modifier as in /*Mustafa wa ʕumarun yuḏa:kira:ni maʕan*/ ‘Mustafa and Omar are studying together’ (Implied meaning: Mustafa is studying with Omar and vice versa.)

Reciprocity can also be linguistically expressed in MSA by using multiple sentences as in /*ʔalwaladu raʔa: ʔalbinta wahija raʔathu*/ ‘The boy saw the girl and she saw him.’ This strategy involves at least two predicates. However, this strategy is less common in languages such as English and Arabic wherein mutuality can be expressed in one proposition or clause; this is perhaps due to reasons of economy. The following table summarizes the structural typology of reciprocals in English and MSA:

TABLE 2
 TYPOLOGY OF RECIPROCALLS IN ENGLISH AND MSA

Single Proposition	Linguistic elements in English	Linguistic elements in MSA	Modes of linguistic encoding
	Nominal	Nominal	Lexical
	Verbal elements meet-fight	-	
	-	Collectivizing morphemes inducing reciprocity (<i>ta-</i> , <i>-t-</i>)	Morphological
	Reciprocal anaphor <i>each other</i>	Reciprocal anaphor / <i>baʕDahum ʔalbaʕD</i> /	Syntactic
	Reciprocal Modifier <i>together</i>	Reciprocal Modifier / <i>maʕan</i> /	
Multiple propositions	Using the same predicate	Using the same predicate	Syntactic

The aforementioned discussion summarizes the structural variations of reflexives and reciprocals in English and MSA. While the encoding of reflexivity and reciprocity in MSA is similar to that in English in many ways, there is some interesting and important variation between them at all of the morphological, syntactic, and semantic levels.

IV. THEMATIC AND CASE MARKING IN ENGLISH AND MSA MORPHOLOGICAL REFLEXIVES AND RECIPROCALLS

Morphological reflexive constructions are one-place unergatives (syntactically intransitive), but semantically they are dyadic predicates as both semantic roles of the base root are syntactically encoded (Dimitriadis, 2004; Reinhart & Siloni, 2005; and Dimitriadis & Everaert 2014, among others). Reinhart and Siloni (2005, p. 400) claim that a bundled reflexive role is assigned to a single NP argument; but they write that the bundled roles must be dissociated in semantics. To capture this, Reinhart and Siloni argue that the reflexivization operation allows the assignment of two theta roles to the same syntactic slot by way of a process called *bundling*. They assume that such an operation is enforced by the θ -criterion requirement that thematic information carried by the verb be assigned. It is worth noting that Rákosi (2008) who uses the term ‘argument-unification’ proposed the same operation under another name. Consider the following example taken from (Reinhart & Siloni, 2005, p. 401)

- (7) a. Max washed.
 b. Verb entry: wash_{acc} [Agent] [Theme]
 c. Reflexivization output: wash [Agent+Theme]
 d. Syntactic output: Max [Agent+Theme] washed.

As shown above, the bundling operation enables the assignment of two theta roles [Agent+Theme] to one syntactic argument (the subject, *Max*) with the fusion of the internal θ -role (Agent) with the external θ -role (the theme). Reflexivization also entails that the accusative Case is absorbed.

As is the case with reflexives, morphological reciprocal constructions are syntactically intransitive but semantically transitive (Reinhart & Siloni 2005; Siloni 2008; 2012). In the reciprocalization operation, the θ -role of the complement domain is also associated with the external θ -role, and this association between the two θ -roles is interpreted as a reciprocal relation since the resulting bundling renders the predicate symmetric. This is illustrated in (8)

- (8) a. John and Mary kissed.
 b. Verb entry: kiss [Agent] [Theme]
 c. Reciprocalization output: kiss_{SYM} [Agent+Theme]
 d. Syntactic representation: John and Mary [Agent+Theme] kissed_{SYM}.
 (Reinhart & Siloni, 2005, p. 401)

Apparently, Reinhart & Siloni (2005) and Siloni (2012) seem to consider that MSA morphological reflexives and reciprocals are straightforwardly reducible to those in English, in which the anaphor in both morphological reflexives and reciprocals may either be present or absent syntactically (e.g., he washed (himself); they met (each other)). In other words, they have failed to take into consideration the asymmetric relationship between morphological reciprocals and morphological reflexives in (9) and (10) below:

- (9) a. /ʔalwaladu ʔistaħamma/.
 The boy.NOM ST.bathed
 ‘The boy bathed.’ (= ‘The boy bathed himself.’)
 b.* /ʔalwaladu₁ ʔistaħamma {nafsahu₁ / maʕa nafsihu₁}/.
 The man.NOM ST.bathed himself with himself.GEN
 (10) a. /ʔalʔawla:du <1+2> taqa:balu:/.
 The boys.NOM TA.met
 b. //ʔalʔawla:du <1+2> taqa:balu: maʕa baʕDihi ʔalbaʕDi<1↔2>/.
 The boys.NOM TA.met with some.pl.GEN some.def.GEN
 ‘The boys met with each other.’

In (9a), the verb is syntactically intransitive as no object can be added once /IST-/ appears with the verb hence the ungrammaticality of (9b) where the *self*-anaphor /nafsahu₁/ ‘himself’ appears as a complement of the verb. The only argument in this sentence, /ʔalwaladu/ ‘the boy’ is conceived as being an *Agent* and *Patient* at the same time.

Unlike morphological reflexives, morphological reciprocals can take an overt reciprocal anaphor as a complement if it is within a PP complement as in (10). Thus, we can say that the affix (morphological marker on the verb) and the *self*-anaphor in (9b) are in complementary distribution, while the affix and the reciprocal anaphor in (10b) are not.

As shown above, there is a reflexive-reciprocal asymmetry in MSA with regard to the possibility of combining verb morphology with an overt anaphor. Given the above asymmetry in Arabic, I propose the following:

- a. Morphological reflexive verbs project only one syntactic argument (the external argument).
 b. Morphological reciprocal verbs project two syntactic arguments (the external and internal arguments). Consider the following examples:

- (11) a. /ʔalwaladu ʔintahara bisababi tawbi:xi ʔSdiqa:ʔihi (*nafsihu)/
 the boy.NOM committed suicide because rebuke friends-his. *himself.3ms
 ‘The boy committed suicide because of the rebuke of {his friends/*himself
 b. /ʔalliSSu ʔistaslama baʕda muTa:radati ʔaʕʔurTati (*nafsihu)/
 the thief.NOM ST.surrendered after pursuing.GEN the police-GEN *himself.3ms
 ‘The thief surrendered after pursuing the police’
 c. /ʔalwaladu taʕallama min ʔaxTa:ihi (*nafsihu)/
 the boy.NOM TA.learned from mistakes.gen.his *himself.3ms
 ‘The boy learned from his mistakes’.

The examples in (11) are grammatical without the *self*-anaphor, but ungrammatical with *self*-anaphor (*nafsihi)/‘himself’. That is because morphological reflexive verbs do not syntactically project an implicit internal argument by which the reflexive anaphor within the adjunct prepositional phrase can be anteceded and bound. Such verbs project a subject but not an object. Therefore, they cannot be followed by adjunct PPs containing unbound *self*-anaphors since this violates Principle A of the Binding Theory.

As far as Case marking is concerned, it is straightforward in sentences with morphological reflexive verbs. There is only one external argument projected syntactically, as demonstrated above, and this argument is assigned a nominative Case.

The following examples show that a morphological reciprocal verb always selects a syntactically realized anaphor as its internal argument, whether it may be realized overtly or covertly.

- (12) a. /ʔalʔawla:du_{<1+2>} taʕaawanuu maʕa baʕDihiim ʔalbaʕDi_{<1↔2>}/.
The boys.3mpl.NOM TA.helped with some.pl.GEN some.def.GEN
‘The teachers helped each other.’
b. /ʔalʔawla:du_{<1+2>} taʕa:wanu: [e]_{<1↔2>}/.
The boys.3mpl.NOM TA.helped
‘The boys helped each other.’

The syntactic instantiation of the implicit argument ([e]) in (12b) in MSA reciprocal construction can be confirmed if we consider binding in sentences with PP complements, as demonstrated in (13) and (14).

- (13) /ʔalʔawla:du_{<1+2>} taʕa:hadu: ^{PP}[ʕala taTwi:r ʔanfusihiim₁]/.
The boys.3mpl.NOM promised.TA on improvement themselves.3p-m-pl
‘The boys promised each other the improvement of themselves.’
(14) /ʔalʔawla:du_{<1+2>} taʕa:hadu: maʕa ʔabi:hiim₂
the boys 3mpl.NOM TA.promised with father3ms.their.GEN
^{PP}[ʕala taTwi:ri { nafsihi₂/ *ʔanfusihiim₁ }]/.
improvement himself.3ms/ *themselves.3mpl_i
‘The boys promised their father the improvement of {himself/ *themselves}.’

The verb /taʕa:hadu:/ ‘TA.promised’ in (13) that passed the binding test is morphologically marked with /ta-/. Verbs of this form are productively used to denote reciprocity. The *self*-anaphor /ʔanfusihiim/ ‘themselves’ in the PP complement in (13) is supposedly bound by the implicit argument ([e]: the antecedent) which I claim to be syntactically present. This claim gains support if we consider the observation that the internal argument /ʔabi:hiim/ ‘their father’ of the morphological reciprocal verb in (14) is the antecedent of the singular *self*-anaphor /nafsihi/ ‘himself’ within PP. If we try to interpret the *self*-anaphors in question to be bound by the plural subject arguments, then ungrammaticality arises, as can be shown by the failure of */ʔanfusihiim/ themselves’. Crucially, this suggests that /ʔanfusihiim/ ‘themselves’ in (14) cannot be bound directly by the plural subject /ʔalʔawla:du_{<1+2>} ‘the boys’ but by the internal argument [e].

As far as Case marking is concerned, there is a difference between intrinsic reflexive and intrinsic reciprocal verbs only when the internal argument of the latter (the reciprocal anaphor) is overt. The case with morphological reciprocal verbs whose theme argument is overt is nevertheless treated differently. The subject argument /ʔalmuʕallimu:na/ ‘the teachers’ in (15a) is theta-marked with Agent and Case-marked with nominative by the finite T. However, the complement argument /ʔaTTa:lib/ ‘the student.3ms.GEN’ is theta-marked by the predicate with theme. Although the NP /ʔaTTa:lib/ ‘the student’ shows up in the PP and is assigned genitive Case by the preposition /maʕa/ ‘with’, it is still interpreted as the internal argument of the verb because the preposition cannot have any thematic content. The sole function of this preposition is to assign structural Case, as assumed by Reinhart and Reuland (1993, p. 686) and Reinhart and Sioni (2005, p. 428)). If the preposition is omitted as in (15b), then ungrammaticality arises.

The examples in (15) also lead to the same conclusion:

- (15) a. /ʔalmuʕallimu:na_{<1+2>} taʕa:wanu: maʕa ʔaTTa:libati
The teachers.3mpl.NOM ta.helped with the female student.3fs.GEN
^{PP}[ʕala taTwi:ri { nafsihi₂/ *ʔanfusihiim₁ }]/.
Improvement herself.3fs/ *themselves.3mpl_i.
‘The teachers helped the female student with the improvement of {herself/ *themselves }.’
b. /ʔalmuʕallimu:na_{<1+2>} taʕa:wanu: maʕa ʔaTTula:bi
the-teachers.3mpl.NOM TA.helped with the students.3mpl.GEN
^{PP}[ʕala taTwi:ri { ʔanfusihiim₂/ *ʔanfusihiim₁ }]/.
improvement themselves₂.3mpl/ *themselves₁.3mpl
‘The teachers helped the male students with the improvement of { *themselves₁ }.’
c. /ʔalmuʕallimu:na_{<1+2>} taʕa:wanu: maʕa ʔaTTa:liba:ti
the teachers.3mpl.NOM TA.helped with the female students.3fpl.GEN
^{PP}[ʕala taTwi:ri { ʔanfusihiinna₂ *ʔanfusihiim₁ }]/.
improvement { themselves.3fpl *themselves.3mpl }.

‘The teachers helped the female students with the improvement of {themselves₂ *themselves}.

In the examples above, we observe that there is parallelism with respect to binding; i.e., it is the implicit argument [e] rather than the subject /ʔalmuʃallimu:na/ ‘the teachers’ that binds the *self*-anaphors in the adjunct PPs.

By running on the binding test on morphological reciprocal verbs marked with /ta-/, it appears that a phonetically null argument is syntactically present (indicating that it is this empty internal argument rather than the external NP that binds the reflexive pronoun in the adjunct PP. This observation supports the hypothesis that morphological verbs syntactically project two arguments, one overt subject argument and one phonetically null but syntactically realized. The latter can in fact be overt, as we have seen earlier. In that case, the Agent-role is assigned to the subject, while the *Theme*-role is associated with the overt or covert argument.

To sum up, morphologically encoded reflexives are in fact syntactically and semantically asymmetrical in MSA. It will be argued that morphologically encoded reflexives do not project an anaphor (an internal argument) syntactically and their morphological marker semantically serves as a reflexivizer, whereas morphologically encoded reciprocals do project an anaphor syntactically, realized either overtly or covertly. The distribution of reflexives and reciprocals is illustrated in the following section.

V. THE DISTRIBUTION OF REFLEXIVES AND RECIPROCALLS IN ENGLISH AND MSA

This section investigates the binding domains for reflexive and reciprocal anaphors. One of the most influential proposals for the distribution of reflexives is Chomsky’s (1991) Binding Theory (BT), which requires anaphors be bound within their binding Domain. Anaphors are usually characterized as expressions that have no inherent capacity for reference as they depend on another form for reference. This dependency is the motivation for assuming that anaphors have a particular set of distribution requirements. Binding means co-indexed and c-commanded. Structural binding domains for anaphors can be categorized into two groups: the local domain (for short-distance binding) wherein an anaphor is bound by the minimal (closest) accessible NP-subject. In addition, the extended domain (for medium-distance binding) wherein an anaphor is bound by an NP-subject within Tense Phrase (TP) Koster & Reuland (1991, p.10).

MSA allows all of short-distance, medium-distance, and long-distance binding, but does not allow the unbound use of anaphors for reasons that I will discuss later in this section. Consider the following examples:

- (16) a. /ʔalbintu qatalat nafsaha:/*nafsahu/
The girl.NOM killed herself/*himself
‘the girl killed herself / *himself’
b. /ʔalbana:tu qatalna baʃDahunna ʔalbaʃD/ *baʃDahum ʔalbaʃDa/
the girls.nom killed some.fpl.ACC some.def.ACC/*some.mpl.ACC some.def.ACC
‘The girls killed each other.’

As shown above, the anaphors /nafsaha:/ ‘herself’ and /baʃDahunna ʔalbaʃDa/ ‘each other’ are anteceded by the first accessible binder, as seen above. If the anaphor is not anteceded by and co-referential with a binder, then ungrammaticality arises because of the violation of Principle A of the Binding Theory, as indicated by the starred anaphoric elements in (16a) and (16b). It is worth noting that Binding in such examples is subject-oriented. However, there are other cases where short-distance binding is possible but not obligatory, as illustrated by the following examples:

- (17) a. /ʔalwaladu₁ saʔala ʔalbinta₂ ʃan nafsaha:₂/nafsih₁/
The boy.NOM asked the girl.ACC about herself/himself
‘The boy asked the girl about herself/himself.’
b. /ʔalʔawla:du₁ saʔalu: ʔalbana:ti₂ ʃan baʃDahunna ʔalbaʃDa₂
the boys.NOM asked the-girls.ACC about some.fpl.ACC some.def.ACC
/baʃDahum ʔalbaʃDa₁
/some.mpl.ACC some.def.ACC
‘The boys asked the girls about each other.’

The sentences above contain a matrix clause followed by a prepositional phrase.

These examples exhibit some degree of flexibility with respect to anaphoric binding; the reflexive pronouns may be either bound by the subject or object. The sentences in (17a) and (17b), unlike those in (16), do not strictly follow local binding when the anaphors are bound by the subjects. When this phenomenon occurs, we no longer have short-distance binding, but rather medium-distance binding.

MSA also allows long-distance binding where a reflexive anaphor inside a finite clause can be bound by an NP outside the clause. However, such long-distance binding is permissible only if the subject of the embedded finite clause is an expletive or if there is an overt NP following the expletive whose interpretation is referentially dependent on the matrix subject, as exemplified in

- (18) a. /_{TP}ʔalbintu₁ taʃtaqidu_{CP}[ʔannahu min ʔaSSaʃbi ʔiSla:ha nafsaha:_i]/
the-girl.NOM think that-it from the-difficulty edification herself.GEN
‘The girl thinks that it is difficult to edify herself.’
b. /_{TP}ʔalbintu₁ taʃtaqidu_{CP}[ʔannahu min ʔaSSaʃbi ʔiSla:ha nafsih_i]/

the-girl.NOM think that-it from the-difficulty edification himself.GEN
 ‘The girl thinks that it is difficult to edify himself.’

- (19) a. /_{TP}ʔalbintu₁ taʕtaqidu_{CP}[ʔannahu min ʔaSSaʕbi ʕalajha: ₁ ʔiSla:ha nafsia: ₁]]/
 The girl.NOM think that it from the difficulty for her edification
 herself.GEN

‘The girl thinks that it is difficult for her to edify herself.’

- b. /_{TP}ʔalbintu₁ taʕtaqidu_{CP}[ʔannahu min ʔaSSaʕbi ʕalajhi ₂ ʔiSla:ha nafsia: ₂]]/
 the-girl.NOM think that-it from the difficulty for him edification himself.GEN
 ‘The girl thinks that it is difficult for him to edify himself.’

As seen in (18a-b), there are two tensed clauses: a verbal clause and a nominal clause. The sentence in (18a) is grammatical even when it seems to involve long-distance binding; i.e., the subject /ʔalbintu/ ‘the girl’ of the matrix clause binds the reflexive pronoun /nafsia:/ ‘herself’ in the subordinate clause. In comparison, (18b) with the indicated indices is ungrammatical due to the violation of Principle A, /nafsia:/ ‘himself’ not having a binder in its binding domain. (18b) is evidence against the presence of PRO. If the postulation of PRO is correct, then (18b) would predictably be well formed, but it actually is not, which provides evidence for long-distance binding in (18a).

Both (19a) and (19b) are grammatical as the expletive /ʔanna/ ‘that’ is followed by an overt NP that is co-referent with matrix subject. If the expletive is replaced by another NP that is disjoint in reference from the matrix subject, then the anaphor in the embedded clause must be anteceded by the closest NP; otherwise, ungrammaticality arises, as shown in (20) below:

- (20) /_{TP}ʔalbintu₁ taʕtaqidu_{CP}[ʔanna ʔalwalada₂ maʕʔu: lun biʔiSla:hi nafsia: ₂/*nafsia: ₁]]/
 the-girl.NOM think that the boy busy edification himself/*herself.GEN
 ‘The girl thinks that the boy is busy with edifying himself/*herself.’

The above sentence is acceptable only if the anaphor is locally bound; otherwise, it is unacceptable.

Long-distance binding in reciprocals is also permissible in similar environments, on par with reflexives.

Thus far, we have seen that reflexive or reciprocal anaphors may be locally or non-locally bound (short-distance vs. medium- and long-distance binding). If we closely look at all the examples given above, we will find that such anaphors not only are subject to Principle A, but also must be in a complement position, whether it be a direct object of a verb or verbal noun, or an object of a preposition. Since reflexive and reciprocal anaphors in MSA seem to be allowed only in a position where they are assigned accusative Case (by a verb) or genitive Case (by a preposition or the D position occupied by a verbal noun), we may be able to say that no reflexive or reciprocal anaphors can occupy a nominative subject position in MSA. The ungrammaticality of the examples in (21) and (22) indeed suggests that this is a correct generalization

- (21) */ʔalbintu₁ lam tadri: ma: ʕa: nafsha: faʕalat/
 the-girl.NOM not know what herself did
 *‘The girl did not know what herself had done.’
 (22) */ʔalbintu₁ wa ʔalwaladu₂ lam jadrija: ma: ʕa: baʕDuhuma:/
 The girl.NOM and the boy.NOM not know what some.mpl.GEN
 ʔalbaʕD<1 ↔ 2> faʕala:/
 some.def.GEN did
 * ‘The girl and the boy did not know what each other had done.’

The ungrammaticality of the examples above is due to the fact that both the reflexive /nafsha:/ ‘herself’, and the reciprocal /baʕDuhuma: ʔalbaʕD/ ‘each other’ occur in the subject position. They do not have a clause-mate antecedent. We can see that the reflexive anaphor in (21) and its reciprocal counterpart in (22) are symmetrical with respect to not being able to appear in a subject position.

VI. OVERRIDE REFLEXIVES AND RECIPROCALLS IN ENGLISH AND MSA

This section focuses on the override usage of reflexive and reciprocal anaphors. But before we discuss override anaphor in MSA, let us see why override are called as such and how they differ from regular anaphors.

Override reflexives and reciprocals have often been categorized as exceptions to the Chomsky’s (1981) binding domains, reserved to footnotes, or completely ignored. They have confusingly been labelled many different terms like ‘long-distance-bound reflexives’ (Zribi-Hertz, 1989), ‘untriggered reflexive pronouns’ (Parker et al., 1990), ‘logophors’ (Reinhart & Reuland, 1991, 1993), ‘locally free reflexives’ (König & Siemund, 2000) and ‘semi-emphatic reflexive pronouns’ (Quirk, 2010), in an attempt to analyze and interpret their occurrences..

Not all of these notions are equivalent, but all of them refer to occurrences of reflexives and reciprocals that violate the binding domains lacking any close structural relation between them and the antecedent (Sørensen, S. 2019, p. 20). According to Huddleston & Pullum (2002), ‘override reflexive’ occurs in places where a pronominal should have been used. In general, they refer to reflexives that co-refer with nominal expressions outside the local domain of the minimal clause.

The contexts licensing the occurrence of these override *self*-forms in English have triggered a new vein of research. There are essentially two types of contexts, which license override reflexives. The first context is that override anaphors need to be anteceded by perspective centers. In other words, it has been observed that English *self*-expressions have distinct characteristics in the context of verbs of saying and perceiving as shown in the following example (adapted from Pollard and Sag 1992):

(23) Bill said that the rain had damaged pictures of himself.

In the above example, reflexive *himself* does not have a co-argument. However, the grammaticality of such sentences crucially depends on *himself* being in association with the subject of the verb *say*, *Bill*. The one referring to the center of perspective.

The other context is the contrastive one. Huddleston and Pullum (2002) list the following environments and corresponding examples for override reflexives:

(24) a. coordination: 'Ann suggested that the reporter pay both the victim and herself for their time'.

b. comparatives: 'They were all much better qualified than myself'.

c. inclusion/exclusion: 'Everybody, including yourself, will benefit from these changes. 'Liz could not understand why nobody except herself had complained'.

d. as for: 'As for myself, it doesn't worry me which one they choose'.

e. how about: 'I enjoyed it—how about yourself'?

f. complement of be: 'The only one they didn't invite was myself'.

g. complement of a preposition in predicative complement function: 'All Ann's novels are really about herself'.

Unlike English, MSA behaves differently with such constructions. It does not allow unbound reflexives. Reflexives in MSA must be bound regardless of whether or not they are part of the predicate-argument structure, and their reference cannot be provided discursively as in the following examples:

(25) a. */ʔalwaladu raʔa: [NP Su:rotan linafsi:]/.

theboy.NOM saw picture of myself.GEN

'The boy saw a picture of myself.'

b. /*ʔalwaladu daʕa: ʔalbinta wanafsi: lilhaflati/

The boy.NOM invited the girl.ACC and myself to the party.GEN

'The boy invited the girl and myself to the party.'

The examples in (25a) and (25b) show that MSA override reflexives, unlike their English counterparts, are syntactically restricted in accordance with Principle A. Reflexives and reciprocals are in fact syntactically and semantically asymmetrical.

While MSA disallows reflexive possessives, namely, constructions consisting of a noun or locative preposition and a reflexive pronoun, it allows reciprocal possessives as illustrated by the following examples.

(26) *ʔalwaladu raʔa: [NP Suwara nafsihi_i].

The boy.NOM saw pictures himself.GEN

'The boy saw himself's pictures'.

(27) ʔalʔawla:du<1+2> raʔu: [NP Suwarata baʕDihim ʔalbaʕD<1↔2>]

The boys.NOM saw pictures some.mpl.GEN some.def.GEN

'The boys<1+2> saw each other's<1↔2> pictures

The sentences in (26) and (27) are asymmetrical in both 'reflexives and reciprocals' in MSA. This distributional difference between MSA reflexives and reciprocals needs to be accounted for. Reuland (2011, pp.167-169) observes that there is an interesting correlation between definiteness marking and the availability of a dedicated reflexive possessor in a language. He classifies languages into two groups:

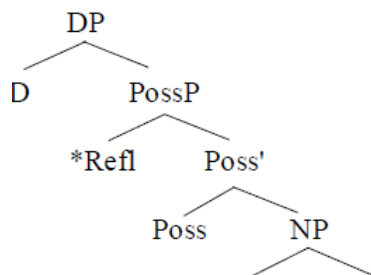
(i) Languages having reflexive possessives either lack definiteness marking or encode definiteness post nominally, such as Czech, Danish, Icelandic, Norwegian, Polish, Romanian, Swedish, Russian, and other Slavic languages.

(ii) Languages lacking reflexive possessives mark definiteness by using a prenominal article, such as Dutch, English, French, German, Italian, and Modern Greek.

MSA patterns up with English in having prenominal definite articles /ʔal/ 'the', thus lacking dedicated reflexive possessors. Despić (2015) takes the classification of the two different groups of languages just given as a point of departure in order to account for the ungrammaticality of reflexive possessives versus the grammaticality of reciprocal possessives in English. Despić's account rests on the following three assumptions: (i) binding domains are phase-based, (ii) DP's are phases, and (iii) the DP is not universal (see, among others, Bošković (2005, 2014)).

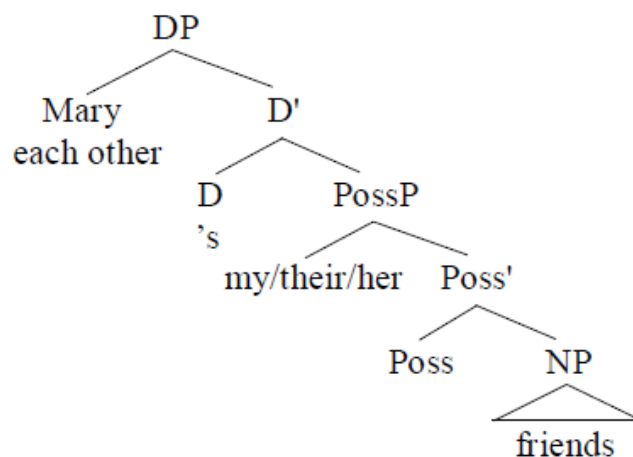
MSA and English have a DP layer in the possessive noun phrase. D is a phase head when taking PossP as its complement and thus constitutes a binding domain, just like vP and CP (Despić 2015, p. 211).

(28)



Since DP constitutes its binding domain in DP languages, the reflexive anaphor in Spec of PossP cannot be bound in its binding domain. The dependency between the possessive pronoun and its antecedent is not local therefore, and, for the same reason, no special anaphoric reflexive possessor is licensed. In contrast, reciprocal anaphors can occur within DP, as illustrated in (42) below. ((42a-d) are from Despić 2015: 213).

(29)



- (30) a. Mary's friends.
 b. each other's friends.
 c. *their's friends.

As seen above, reflexive pronouns and reciprocals are licensed in different structural positions; namely, the reflexive occupying Spec of PossP, while the reciprocal occupying Spec of DP. That possessive lexical DPs (non-pronominal DPs) and possessive reciprocals pattern together in English as they are both licensed in a structural position higher than the position occupied by pronominal possessors, as seen in (29). Since non-pronominal possessive DPs possessive reciprocals are positioned at the leftmost edge of DP phase, unlike reflexive possessives that are positioned lower than the D head as in (28), reciprocals can then be bound within the vP domain containing this DP, an analysis which accounts for the grammaticality of reciprocal possessives and the ungrammaticality of reflexive possessives in English-type languages.

Based on Despić's (2015) assumption concerning English reflexive and reciprocal possessives, the reflexive reciprocal possessive asymmetry in MSA can be accounted for as such since MSA patterns with English in this regard, as illustrated by the following examples.

- (31) Suwara baʕDihim ʔalbaʕDi
 pictures some.mpl.GEN some.def.GEN
 'each others' pictures'

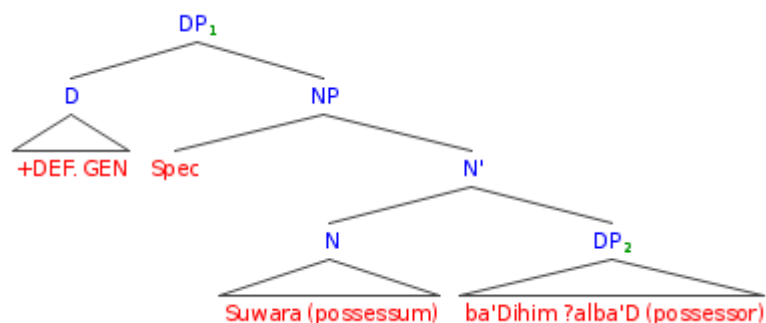
- (32) each other's pictures

Given that the possessor-possessum hierarchical relation in MSA is different from that in English, there is still another independent issue in MSA that requires explanation and needs to be worked out. In MSA, possessive constructions, the possessum precedes the possessor as in (44), whereas in English the possessum follows the possessor as in (45) above. The question arising here is how the structure in (44) can be explained; i.e., how can we account for the grammaticality of reciprocal possessives versus the ungrammaticality of reflexive possessives in MSA.

In MSA, there is a noun phrase called a construct-state in which there is a noun raising to D which, like INFL, may assign a genitive Case to the subject of the construct-state (Carnie, 2012) as illustrated in the following tree diagram:

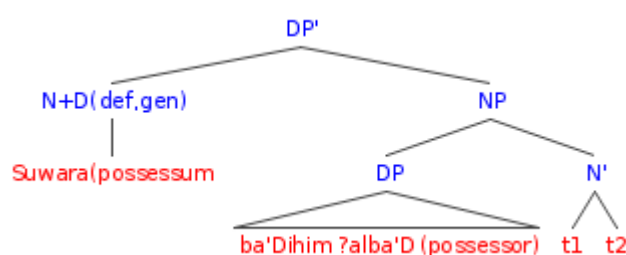
(33) a.

Pre-movement



b.

Post movement



The D in (33a) contains two morphemes: definiteness (DEF) and a Case assigner (GEN); the DP is definite whenever D is [+DEF]. Given that, since /Suwara/ 'pictures' is not a Case assigner, the complement /baʕDihim ?albaʕD/ 'each other' cannot be assigned structural Case in situ and therefore moves to Spec of NP in order to be Case-marked with GEN. Since the Case-assigner needs to be supported morphologically, a movement of the N head to the D head is also required (Ritter 1988: 922), as indicated in (33b). This structure provides a syntactic analysis for construct-states in MSA.

VII. LOCATIVE POSSESSIVES

In MSA, reflexives and reciprocals can both be an object of preposition, as illustrated before. However, this is not the case if these two types are preceded by locative prepositions, as exemplified below:

- (34) a. ?alwaladu₁ waDaʔa Suwaran [^{PP}?ama:mahu₁- xalfahu₁-tahta-hu₁]

The boy.NOM put pictures in front of-behind-under him
'The boy put pictures in front of-behind-under him'.

- b. ?alwaladu₁ waDaʔa Suwaran [*?ama:ma *xalfa *tahta **nafsihi**₁].

The boy.NOM put pictures in front of-behind-under himself.GEN
'The boy put pictures in front of-behind-under himself.'

- (35) a. ?alʔawal:du_{1<1+2>} waDaʔu: Suwaran [PPʔama:mahum₁- xalfahum₁- tahtahum₁]

the boys.NOM put pictures [in front of- behind- under them].
'The boys put pictures in front of-behind-under them'.

- b. ?alʔawal:du_{1<1+2>} waDaʔu: Suwaran [ʔama:ma- xalfa- tahta **baʕDihim ?albaʕD**_{<1+2>}].

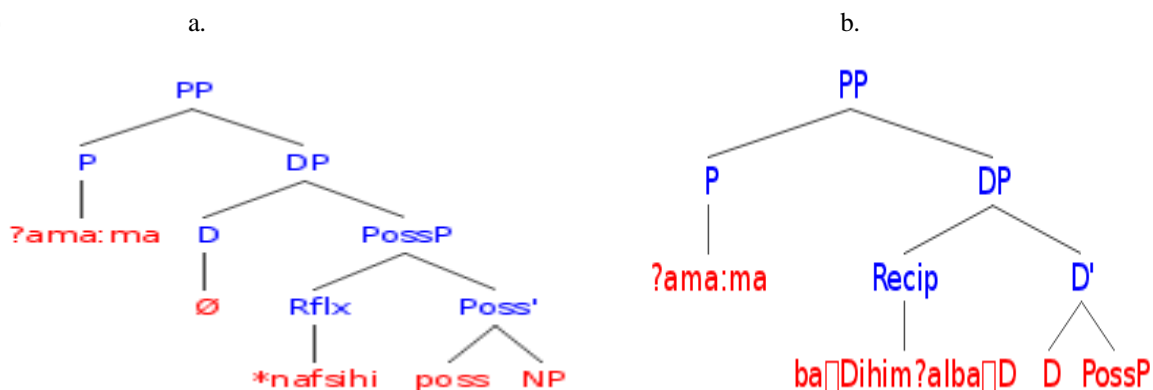
The boys.NOM put pictures in front of some.mpl.GEN some.def.GEN
'The boys put pictures in front of- behind- under each other.'

The sentences in (34) and (35) exhibit asymmetry between MSA reflexives and reciprocals in locative prepositional phrases. In English, on the other hand, both reflexives and reciprocals are permitted in all constructions as the English translations of the MSA examples indicate. There are two intriguing questions arising here: why do we get this asymmetry in locative preposition, but not in regular prepositional phrases? And why is MSA different from English?

In MSA regular prepositional phrases, there is no PossP under DP to begin with and the DP does not count as a phase. Both reflexives and reciprocals are bound by an antecedent within vp.

The matter is different with locative possessives. We notice that possessive locatives are ungrammatical with the reflexives, and grammatical with reciprocals. Based on Despić (2015), I propose that there is a PossP within the DP under PP, which results in this asymmetry. In other words, locative prepositions in MSA form a possessive construction with their DP-complements, as the case in construct-state possessive constructions.

(36)



The tree diagram in (36 a) explains why the sentence in (34b) is ungrammatical. The reflexive /nafsihi/ 'himself' is positioned lower than D head within the complement of D. Therefore, it must be bound within its phase and hence binding domain; namely the DP. In (35b), the reciprocal /baʕDihim ʔalbaʕD/ 'some.mpl.GEN some.def.GEN' is located as a spec of the DP complement of the locative. It is higher than D head and it can seek an antecedent outside of the DP. Therefore, The DP is considered a phase. The PP here therefore is parallel to NP containing PossP.

The similarity between locative possessives and construct-state is evidenced-based. Locative prepositional phrases and its DP complement form a construct-state and hence a possessive construction, parallel to construct-states consisting of N and its DP-complement. In both constructions, the possesum assigns a genitive case to the possessor. The second is that the definite article has to be lowered to adjoin the closest maximal projection if the D is [+Def] (Ritter, 1988). Moreover; these locative prepositions can be object of true prepositions and can be adverbials (Ryding, 2005) as illustrated below:

TABLE 3
FEATURES OF LOCATIVE PREPOSITIONS

Part of Speech	Bearing the definite article	Possessive	Object of preposition	Adverbial
Locative Preposition	✓	✓	✓	✓
Example	/ʔalxalf/ 'the behind'	/xalf ʔalba:b/ 'behind the door'	/min /xalf ʔalba:b/ 'From behind the door'	/xalfiyyan/ 'behind'

The above table shows that locative prepositions share all features with nouns, which explains why both categories (nouns and locatives) cannot co-occur with reflexive anaphors because the noun or locative plus a Self anaphor forms a reflexive possessive which is ungrammatical in MSA, as seen earlier. Concerning the second question (why is MSA different from English in this respect?), the answer to this question is that MSA locative prepositional phrases, unlike their English counterparts, constitute possessive constructions when paired with their DP complements. Consequently, English PPs like 'in front of himself' and 'in front of each other' are symmetrical and both allowable, while MSA PPs like */ʔamaʔma nafsihi/ 'himself's front' (in front of himself) and /ʔama:ma baʕDihim ʔal-baʕ/ 'each other's front' (in front of each other) are asymmetrical and only the reciprocal is allowable.

To sum up, the distribution of reflexive anaphors in MSA is much more restricted than that of reciprocal anaphors; the latter, unlike the former, may occur in possessive constructions such as the construct-state, whether it be a noun phrase or a locative prepositional phrase. This variation is attributed to the assumption that reflexive and reciprocal anaphors occupy different structural positions in possessive constructions (phases) and only the reciprocals can be bound by an NP from a higher phase, whereas reflexives occupy a position lower than the D head and thus must be bound within their DP phase.

VIII. CONCLUSION

In MSA, reflexives and reciprocals rely more on the syntactic and morphological encoding than on lexical encoding. Morphologically encoded reflexives in MSA, unlike syntactically encoded ones, are not subject to Principle A since they do not project any anaphoric objects to begin with. Syntactically encoded reflexive verbs and reflexive pronouns generally allow short-, medium- and long-distance binding. However, long-distance binding is only possible if the NP subject in the subordinate nominal clause is an expletive. MSA overrides reflexives, unlike their English counterparts, cannot be free.

There are two types of reciprocal constructions in MSA: constructions involving syntactically encoded verbs which project an overt reciprocal anaphor and those involving morphologically encoded verbs which project either a covert or an overt reciprocal anaphor. As far as binding domains are concerned, reciprocal anaphors in MSA are subject to short, medium-and long-distance binding, on par with reflexive anaphors. MSA reciprocal anaphors may also be used as overrides, just like their reflexive counterparts, as long as Principle A is not violated. Morphologically encoded reflexives and reciprocals exhibit asymmetries with respect to the number of arguments syntactically projected and the

function of the morphological marker. The former verbs do not syntactically project an anaphor at all and their morphological marker semantically has as a reflexivizing function, while the latter do project an anaphor syntactically, whether covertly or overtly.

As far as reflexive and reciprocal anaphors are concerned, the former, unlike the latter, cannot be used in any possessive constructions, whether they involve nouns or locative prepositions. This discrepancy between reflexive and reciprocal possessives is ascribed to the assumption that reflexive and reciprocal anaphors occupy different structural positions in possessive constructions (phases) and only the reciprocals can be bound by an NP from a higher phase.

APPENDIX A. READING CONVENTIONS

The transcription used in this Paper is largely phonemic in nature. The following symbols used to transcribe Arabic examples are basically adapted from IPA with slight modification for typing reasons.

(1) Consonants

Sound Phonological Descriptions			
		Example	Translation
ب/b/	Voiced bilabial stop	/ba:b/	door
ت/t/	Voiceless alveolar stop	/tamr/	date
ط/T/	Voiceless alveolar emphatic stop	/Tari:q/	road
د/d/	Voiced alveolar stop	/di:n/	religion
ض/D/	Voiced alveolar emphatic stop	/Da:biT/	Police officer
ك/k/	Voiceless velar stop	/kita:b/	book
ق/q/	Voiced uvular stop	/qalam/	pen
ء/ʔ/	Voiced glottal stop	/ʔasad/	lion
م/m/	Voiced bilabial nasal	/mu:zah/	banana
ن/n/	Voiced alveolar nasal	/nahlah/	bee
ل/l/	Voiced alveolar lateral	/laymu:nah/	lemon
ر/r/	Voiced dental trill	/rajul/	man
ف/f/	Voiceless labiodental fricative	/fara:fah/	butterfly
ث/θ/	Voiceless dental fricative	/θawb/	cloth

ذ/ð/	Voiced dental fricative	/ðayl/	tail
ظ/ðʔ/	Voiced inter-dental emphatic fricative	/ðarʔ/	envelope
س/s/	Voiceless alveolar fricative	/sa:ʃah/	watch
ص/S/	Voiceless alveolar emphatic fricative	/Sahn/	plate
ز/z/	Voiced alveolar fricative	/zara:fah/	giraffe
ش/ʃ/	Voiceless palatal fricative	/ʃajarah/	tree
ج/ʒ/	Voiced palatal affricate	/ʒamal/	camel
خ/x/	Voiceless velar fricative	/xaru:f/	sheep
غ/ɣ/	Voiced uvular fricative	/ɣura:b/	crow

ع/ʕ/	Voiced pharyngeal fricative	/ʕayn/	eye
ه/h/	Voiceless glottal fricative	/haram/	pyramid
ح/h/	Voiceless pharyngeal fricative	/hama:mah/	pigeon
و/w/	Voiced bilabial glide	/wardah/	flower
ي/y/	Voiced palatal glide	/yad/	hand

(2)Vowels

Sound	Phonological Description	Example	
/a/	Short open, front, unrounded vowel	/katab/	write
/a:/	Long open, front, unrounded vowel	/kita:b/	book
/ɑ/	Short open back unrounded vowel	/Sabr/	patience
/ɑ:/	long open back unrounded vowel	/Sa:bir/	patient
/i/	Short close front unrounded vowel	/ʔibn/	son
/i:/	long close front unrounded vowel	/ʔi:Θa:r/	altruism
/u/	Short close back rounded vowel	/ʔusa:mah/	Osama
/u:/	Long close back rounded vowel	/funu:n/	arts

APPENDIX B. NOTES ON READING CONVENTIONS

-Phonemic transcription will occur between two slashes / /.

-Allophones of /a/ include /ɑ/, which is a short low back vowel, before emphatic consonants and /q/, /r/ /ʕ/ and /x/ (Al-Ani, 2008, p. 595).

-Elision concerns the omission under certain conditions of the short vowels /a/, /i/, /u/, on the one hand, and of /ʔ/ (with or without accompanying vowel), on the other. Where elision of a vowel with /ʔ/ occurs at the junction of a particle and a word, the feature has been marked in the writing by a hyphen (-). For example, /mana:hij ʔaltaʕli:m/ becomes /mana:hij ʔat-taʕli:m/.

-Geminates are regularly transcribed as identical double consonants, e.g. , tt, dd, ss, etc.

List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Term
1,2,3	First, second and third person
ACC	Accusative case
CP	Complementizer Phrase
DP	Determiner Phrase
F	Feminine
GEN	Genitive case
M	Masculine
MSA	Modern Standard Arabic
NOM	Nominative case
NP	Noun Phrase
PL	plural
POSSP	Possessive phrase
PP	Prepositional Phrase
T	Tense
TP	Tense Phrase
<1+2>	dual or plural subjects
<1↔2>	a reciprocal relation holding between the individual participants, indexed with ₁ and ₂ , respectively.

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How Is Meaning Constructed Multimodally?—A Case Study of PowerPoint Presentations in an MA Thesis Defense

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Abstract—Taking the theory of multimodal analysis as the theoretical basis and 7 ppt in an MA thesis defense as the research data, this paper uses a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to analyze the distribution and realizations of types and modalities of PPTs in this MA thesis defense. The results show that the analyzing type accounts for the highest proportion to make sure the PPT defense presentation is academic and serious. The use of connecting, persuading, and prompting types has a strong personal tendency, varying from person to person. The visualizing type takes up the lowest proportion among them, indicating that pictures are the last modality that demonstrators tend to use. The paper further explores how meanings of MA thesis defense are constructed multimodally, and investigates the characteristics of PPT as a thesis defense genre, aiming to give some suggestions and instruction on ppt presentation for thesis defenses.

Index Terms—multimodality, ppt presentation, MA thesis defense, genre

I. INTRODUCTION

In today's era, the ways of communication are featured by timeliness, variety, multimodality. Though natural language remains the main method of communication, meanings are increasingly conveyed by other non-verbal semiotic resources, such as pictures, images, colors, sound and technologies, etc. (Kress & Van, 2001). In this sense, PowerPoint presentation is an effective method of communication, realized by text, picture, chart, music, video, animation, etc., and it is featured by various multimodalities.

“PowerPoint itself has transcended mere software status to become a cultural icon of contemporary communication. More than 400 million copies of the program are currently in circulation, and somewhere between 20 and 30 million PowerPoint-based presentations are given around the globe each day” (Simons, 2005). In this respect, PPT, as a widely used presentation method, has become the dominant visual-aid medium, especially preferred by merchants, educators, and trainers, etc. While, many voices criticize PPT vehemently for its commercial use, the incoherence (Tuffe, 2003), obnoxious animation, lousy contrast, stupid sounds, and using and abusing photos (Altman, 2004).

According to Hu (2007), part of the reasons why there are two completely divergent opinions lies in the different understanding towards the concept of PPT. Yates and Orlikowski (2007, p.67-92) proposed that PPT can be defined from three perspectives, a tool of a presentation, a text of a presentation, and the genre of a presentation. PPT, as a tool, is software used to make intuitive content, such as images, animation, and audio, etc. It can express information to the audiences, while it cannot convey meaning. PPT, as a text, refers to the content on it, presented by different modalities, including visual, pictorial, audio forms. PPT, as a genre, is regarded as a socially recognized type of communicative action. Knoblauch (2007) clarifies the often-mixed meaning of PowerPoint and powerpoint. In his view, PowerPoint refers to the presentation software, usually being synonymous with Microsoft office. However, the latter refers to “a communicative action by a presenter, attended by an audience, involving technologies, such as a computer screen, a projector, or a slide, as well as activities performed in relation to both audiences and technologies”. Knoblauch's view about powerpoint happens to coincide with Yates and Orlikowski's. The PPT presentation, as a genre, has become pervasive in various domains of communication. This paper will mainly adopt the notions of PPT as a text, more accurately a multimodal discourse, in the context of MA thesis defense, then an analysis will be given to explore the defense meaning constructed through different modalities, some improvement on the quality of PPT production. The characteristics of PPT as a thesis defense genre will also be discussed.

As an important part of graduate education, the thesis defense is the summative achievement of graduate education. It reflects the theoretical foundation, professional knowledge, academic level, and innovation ability of postgraduates. The thesis defense is also an important part of graduate education. Researches have been conducted to explore the skills (Zhou et al., 2008), conversation characteristics of thesis defense (Recski, 2005; Ke, 2010), and identity construction in

thesis defense (Gu, 2017; Li & Jing, 2019). However, none of them approach the perspective of PPT. Thus, this paper will focus on how the defense meaning is constructed multimodally, based on the PPT thesis defense genre.

II. THEORETICAL BASIS

A. Modality and Multimodality

Kress and Van Leeuwen (2001) propose that mode is the meaning potential formed by material media after long-term social shaping, and it is a social symbol resource used to represent and communicate meaning. Zhu (2007) believes that modality includes language, image, color, music, animation, and other symbolic systems, and it is the channel and medium of communication. Gu (2007) believes that modality refers to the interaction between human beings and the external environment through the sensory system (such as vision, hearing, etc.). Although the definition of modality is not completely unified, it is basically around a few keywords, namely "symbol system", "communication channel", "meaning potential". In this paper, modality is regarded as various symbol resources, including text, picture, chart, animation, color, etc. Interaction of different modalities can convey the discourse meaning, and the repeated types of discourse constitute a genre confined in the scope of the thesis defense.

B. Multimodal Discourse Analysis

Since the American linguist Harris put forward the research direction of discourse analysis in the early 1950s, Discourse analysts around the world have made great efforts in it. Various theories and methods of discourse analysis have been proposed. With the development of the times, the text constructed by literal symbols alone cannot meet the needs of meaning expression and communication. Since the 1990s, a group of researchers began to turn their attention to multimodal discourse analysis. Nowadays, the theory of multimodal discourse analysis has become a hot topic. Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) believe that multimodal discourse is a discourse that contains voice, text, image, and other communication modes to convey information. Zhu (2007) points out that multimodal discourse analysis can integrate language and other related meaning resources. It can be seen that language system and other non-verbal symbol systems such as image, music, and color together play a role in the process of meaning exchange to make the interpretation of discourse meaning more comprehensive and accurate and to help people understand how to use multimodality to achieve the purpose of social communication. Zhang (2009) believes that multimodal discourse refers to the use of auditory, visual, tactile, and other senses to communicate through language, image, sound, action, and other means and symbol resources. To sum up, we can see that multimodal discourse analysis is no longer a single analysis of language symbols, but combined with the text, music, images, animation, etc., to analyze different effects of multi-modes on the meaning of the text.

C. Stylistics Characteristics of PowerPoint Genre

Yates and Orlikowski (2007) hold that genre possesses some discursive norms that are understood as entailing expectations about the following aspects of communication: purpose, content, form, participant, time, and place. More details are presented in the following table.

TABLE 1
YATES AND ORLIKOWSKI'S CLASSIFICATION OF NORMS OF PPT GENRE

Norms of genre	Detailed description
purpose	Genre always enables people to anticipate the socially recognized intention. As far as PPT presentation is concerned, it is always typically used to inform, explain, or persuade the audience.
content	Genre can make people expect the content of a presentation, and the typical structure of PPT presentation can help people make or understand the content of the presentation.
form	Genre provides the anticipation of its form, including the medium, methods of construction, and linguistic elements. The standard form of PPT presentation is when one person stands in front of a group of people and gives a speech, while showing slides. The turn of the slide depends on the progress of the presentation.
participant	Genre can make an expected estimate of the participants and their roles involved in the interaction of information transmission. Sometimes a PowerPoint presentation is done collaboratively by several people, either in a way that each person is responsible for part of the presentation or one person.
time	Genre can often be expected at specific times, although these estimates are not necessarily apparent, generally in the morning, afternoon, and evening, a period conducive to group and activity.
place	Genre can also anticipate the choice of place, but these expectations are always obvious, such as in a large room or a hall with electronic projection.

As for the categorization of PPT as a genre, Hu (2007) divided it into four types according to its different functions usually performed, namely, prompting type, visualizing type, analyzing type, and persuading type. The main function of

the prompting type is to help the demonstrator organize thoughts with a clear hierarchy, prominent points, and orderly speech. Thus, this function is mainly realized by the modality of bullet points. Visualizing type presents ideas intuitively, by means of the modality of pictures. Analyzing type aims to explore the operating system, internal relationship, or development of something, using the modality of charts. The persuading type is employed to make the audience feel the beauty of PPT to achieve the goal of persuading, with the help of color, animation, and music modalities. It should be noted that these four types are prototypes, and combining some functions with some modalities can produce different styles.

In this paper, 7 PPTs are regarded as 7 multimodal discourses realized by multimodalities, including bullet point, text-only, text and pictures, text and chart, and animation. When these multimodal discourses are considered in the context of the thesis defense, PPTs as a whole are given meanings as a genre, embodying its conventional meanings. Hu's (2007) classification of PPT as a genre will be adopted as the theoretical framework.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Data

7 PPTs in an MA thesis defense, presented by 7 masters who majored in Foreign and Applied Linguistics are taken as the research data. Each PPT is numbered from 1 to 7. These 7 masters are required to give a presentation to their thesis using PPT, no more than 20 minutes. There are 152 slides in the 7 PPTs. The longest one consists of 38 slides, and the shortest one includes 12 slides. The average length of all PPT presentations is about 22 slides. The content of these PPTs covers the following aspects, research background, research significance, literature review, research questions, methodology, results, discussions, findings, and limitations.

B. Research Questions

Using the theory of multimodal analysis as the theoretical basis and 7 PPTs in an MA thesis defense as the research data, this paper uses a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods to mainly answer the following questions:

- 1) What are the distributions and realizations of genres and modalities of PPTs in this MA Thesis Defense?
- 2) How is the meaning of MA thesis defense constructed multimodally?
- 3) What are the characteristics of PPT as a thesis defense genre?

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Before presenting the research results, something vital needs to be clarified first. Guided by the categorization of PPT's functions proposed by Hu (2007), this paper makes some adjustments to serve this research better. Firstly, the analyzing type can be achieved not only by the modality of text and chart but also by text-only modality. Secondly, in the context of the specific research data, some slides that are difficult to be classified into any of these four types (prompting type, visualizing type, analyzing type, and persuading type) fall into the connecting type according to the author's judgment of PPT's function. Thirdly, according to Hu (2007), the persuading type can be realized using the animation modality. Given that animation modality can also be applied to the other three types, it is hard to identify its category. Thus, the author will make a careful, cautious, and precise classification of them in line with the principle of PPT's function. The classification results will be examined by another person to make sure the reliability of the classification. To be honest, these types are interacted and intertwined with each other, while they will be treated as distinct for analytic purposes.

A. Overall Distribution of Types of PPT

According to statistics, the above four types have been used in 7 PPT and 152 slides. Among all the PPTs, the overall distribution of types of PPT are as followed: it is obvious to see that the occurrence of analyzing type own the highest frequency, that is 72, followed by connecting type, 30; prompting type, 28; persuading type, 21; and at last visualizing type, just 1. The detailed distribution of types of PPT in each PPT is presented in Table 2.

TABLE. 2
OVERALL DISTRIBUTION OF TYPES OF PPT AS A GENRE

type	No.1	No.2	No.3	No.4	No.5	No.6	No.7	Total number
Prompting type	1	4	1	3	2	11	6	28
Visualizing type	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Analyzing type	11	1	12	7	17	13	10	72
Persuading type	1	4	0	6	9	1	1	21
Connecting type	2	2	2	2	10	6	6	30
Total number	15	12	15	18	38	31	23	152

The proportion of each kind is displayed directly and clearly in the following figure 1:

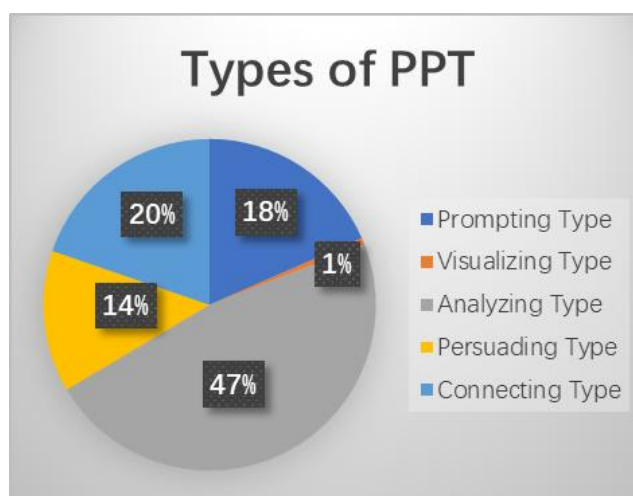


Fig. 1: Proportion of Each Type of PPT in the Data

Among all the categories, prompting type takes up 47% of the total occurrence frequency of 7 PPTs for the MA thesis defense, which is in the first place. This shows that analyzing type is commonly employed in PPTs for MA thesis defense. The occurrence frequency numbers of the connecting type and the prompting are nearly the same, which are 20% and 18% respectively, and both bear a similar function that helps the demonstrator organize thoughts clearly and orderly. The persuading type accounts for 14%, whose function of persuading and inducing. While the visualizing type takes up the least proportion of these 4 types, indicating that these masters' mere willingness toward this intuitive function. Maybe the academic nature of PPT for thesis defense is the main factor that can explain the extremely low proportion. Then, each type of PPT for the MA thesis will be expounded in detail, regarding how various modalities function in these types.

B. Prompting Type

The main function of the prompting type is to help the demonstrator organize thoughts with a clear hierarchy, prominent points, and orderly speech. This type is mainly realized by using bullet point, a typographical symbol used to introduce items in a list. This type is employed by these masters to introduce the contents, research questions, research findings, and suggestions and limitations of their thesis. Some examples are presented below:

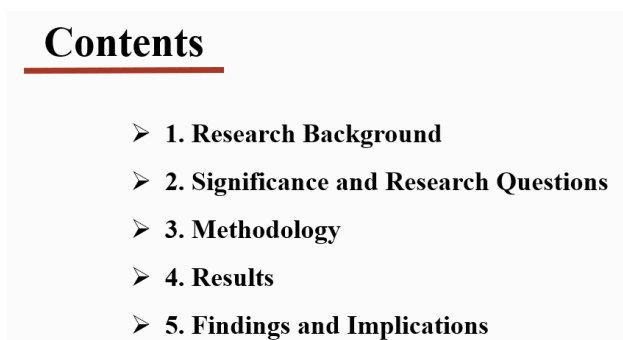
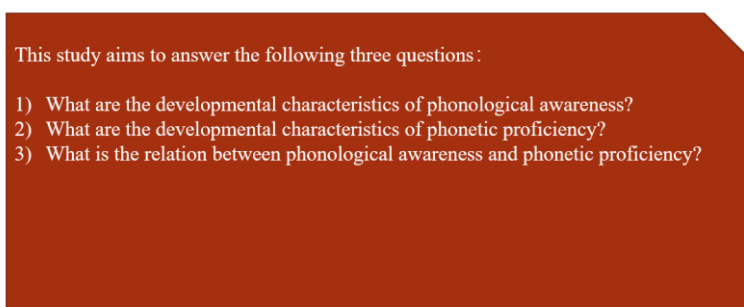
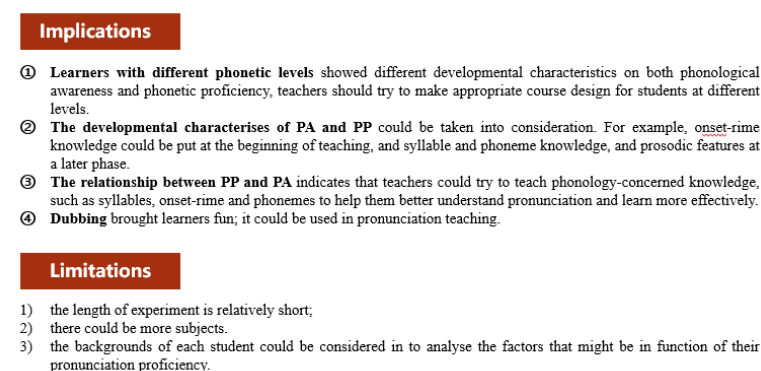


Fig. 2: The Second Slide from No.5 PPT

Fig. 3: The 13th Slide from No. 6 PPTFig. 4: The 30th Slide from No. 6 PPT

The characteristics of these parts are simple and short, suitable to be displayed in the form of bullet points. When presenting the defense PPT, the principle of conciseness and indication should be abided by. Especially for the content part, as the beginning of the presentation, it should be avoided that using a whole text to explain the content of the thesis, resulting in an impression of being lengthy and boring. Figure 2 represents that this defense presentation will be given from these aspects, research background, significance and research questions, methodology, results, and findings and implications. It is explicit and clear to be listed by means of bullet point. It is interesting that all the 7 masters use prompting type to demonstrate the content part of their theses.

The significance of the research question part cannot be overstated, being the most interesting and attractive part of the defense teachers. Research questions are the core of the whole research work and the starting point of research design, affecting all aspects of research. Listing research questions clearly and directly in the PPT is necessary and important, helping the defense teachers grasp the core of the research, and arousing their interest.

When it comes to the research finding, suggestion, and limitation part, it is impressive to see they belong to disparate types, including the prompting type, analyzing type, or persuading type, performing different functions, and it indicates demonstrators' various purposes. In this part, the defense meaning conveyed by the prompting type is chiefly concentrated on. By using the prompting type, the demonstrator intends to highlight the contributions and limitations of the thesis logically, making the defense teachers grasp the key points promptly.

Besides, the use of prompting type has a strong personal inclination. The owner of No. 6 PPT prefers using prompting type to present her thoughts, while as for the demonstrators of No. 1 and No. 3, they rarely express their content with the help of prompting type.

All in all, using prompting type can help the demonstrator organize their thought logically and clearly, and emphasize what they most want to express, and help defense teachers get the main point of their presentation.

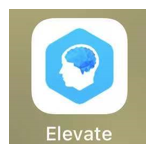
C. Visualizing Type

Visualizing type presents ideas intuitively, by means of the modality of pictures. At most times, the picture is not used casually; instead, it will be selected scrupulously to fulfill its function of intuitiveness. The relationship between the picture and the text should be closed and content-related. In this paper's data, visualizing type is only used once, which appears in the No. 2 PPT.



Research Methods

- 55 sophomores from BISU
- Two groups:
the experimental group (EG)
the control group (CG)
- Received:
gamification & traditional lectures
traditional lectures
- Gamification software:
the *Elevate* app



Questionnaires

Instructional
experiment

Reflective
journal

Semi- structure
interview

Fig. 5: The 6th Slide from No.2 PPT

For this slide, the demonstrator is presenting her research methods, including the participant, software *Elevate*, and the instruments for data collection. Since *Elevate* will be used as the main teaching instrument in her research, occupying a core position; thus, it is out of necessity and importance to show defense teachers what this software looks like. However, it would have been better to display the operating interface to make the audience have a basic understanding of this software and deepen the impression.

On the one hand, given the seriousness and scholarship of the thesis defense, it will be inappropriate to use many pictures in the PPT presentation of the thesis defense, which is part of the reasons why this type is employed rarely. On the other hand, seriousness and scholarship should not become the obstacles to using visualizing type; realistic necessity comes first.

D. Analyzing Type

Analyzing type aims to explore the operating system, internal relationship, or development of something, using the modality of text only, and chart and text. Analyzing type is the most used type in the data, and so is in almost every PPT. It is widely used in academic discourse. In these 7 PPTs, analyzing type can be mainly seen in the part of research background, research design, and results and discussion.



2. Research Design

2.3 Framework of the Experiment

Writing tasks	The experimental group	The control group
Pre-test	Questionnaire/Writing task 1	Questionnaire/Writing task 1
Writing task 2	Brainstorm (CT-oriented worksheet)/first draft/peer review(CT-oriented worksheet)/final draft	Brainstorm/first draft/peer review/final draft
Writing task 3	Brainstorm(CT-oriented worksheet)/first draft/peer review(CT-oriented worksheet)/final draft	Brainstorm/first draft/peer review/final draft
Writing task 4	Brainstorm(CT-oriented worksheet)/first draft/peer review(CT-oriented worksheet)/final draft	Brainstorm/first draft/peer review/final draft
Writing task 5	Brainstorm(CT-oriented worksheet)/first draft/peer review(CT-oriented worksheet)/final draft	Brainstorm/first draft/peer review/final draft
Post-test	Questionnaire/Writing task 6	Questionnaire/Writing task 6

Fig. 6: The 9th Slide from No.1 PPT

Methodology						
Overview of the Research: Online G-DA of Speaking						
Schedule	Procedure	Task Description	Time Duration	Environment	Mediation	Development
Week 1	Survey	Profile questionnaire	5 minutes	Offline class	No	Independent performance
Week 2	Pretest SA1	IELTS speaking test: A special day	12 minutes	Tencent meeting	No	
Week 3	Online G-DA class DA	Speaking strategy questionnaire	5 minutes	Offline class	Concurrent Interaction at mediation	Movement in group's ZPD & individual's ZPD
		Online IE 1	45 minutes	Tencent meeting		
Week 4	Online G-DA class DA	Online G-DA class DA: Daily task: A family member who has greatly influenced you	45 minutes	Tencent meeting		
Week 5	Online G-DA class DA	Online G-DA class DA: Daily task: A great change that you would like to make in the future	45 minutes	Tencent meeting		
		Online IE 2	45 minutes	Tencent meeting		
Week 6	Online G-DA class DA	Online G-DA class DA: Daily task: The certificate exams you would take	45 minutes	Tencent meeting		
		Online IE3	45 minutes	Tencent meeting		
Week 7	Online G-DA class DA	Online G-DA class DA: Daily task: The most memorable voluntary experience	45 minutes	Tencent meeting		
		Online IE 4	45 minutes	Tencent meeting		
Week 7	Posttest SA2	IELTS speaking test: Good friend	12 minutes	Tencent meeting	No	Internalization of learning
Week 10	Delayed SA 3	Speaking strategy questionnaire	5 minutes	Offline class		
		IELTS speaking task: Busy time	12 minutes	Tencent meeting		
Semi-structured interview			30 minutes	Offline class		
Online G-DA of speaking survey			5 minutes	Offline class		

Fig. 7: The 7th Slide from No.4 PPT

➤ 4 Results and Discussion

4.2 Analysis on Writing Proficiency of Participants

Table 4.2 Independent Sample T-test of EG & CG in posttest

Groups	N	M±SD	Std. Error Mean	F	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	MD
EG	30	15.38±1.30	.238	7.180	2.429	55	.019*	.680
CG	27	14.70±0.76	.147					

P<0.05

Table 4.3 Descriptive Statistics and Paired Sample T-test of EG

Data Type	Group Statistics		Paired Sample T-test			
	M±SD	Std. Error Mean	M±SD	Std. Error Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
1 st round	14.05±1.66	.303	-1.33±2.01	.368	-3.626	.001*
3 rd round	15.38±1.30	.238				

N=30

P<0.05

Fig. 8: The 9th Slide from No.3 PPT

For example, figure 6 displays the framework of the research experiment, including the information of writing tasks for both the experimental group and the control group. It will be much lengthy and redundant to express the task distribution by text only. However, when the information is put into a table, it would be much explicit and straightforward, and the purpose of analyzing can be achieved by the demonstrator's speech. Figure 7 presents the overview of the research in time order, full of memorable information, such as procedures, tasks, time duration, environment, mediation and development. Figure 8 is the result part of the thesis, usually the quantitative data. Using a table to display a great deal of information is a labor-saving and visual way; however, it should be noted that there is an essential difference between the visualizing type that use picture modality as the realization method and the analyzing type that use chart modality as the realization method, that is whether a detailed and complementary illustration will be needed. It is not enough to merely put the chart on the slide; the demonstrator needs to give a comprehensive explanation and analysis of it to fulfill the function of analyzing.



1. Research Background and Significance

1.1 Research background

The critical thinking (CT) ability development of undergraduates has been put on national agenda as illustrated in the *National Standard for Undergraduate Specialty Teaching Quality in Ordinary Institutions of Higher Education*. Writing course exerts the most significant influence on students' critical thinking skills (Tsui, 1999).

Fig. 9: The 3rd Slide from No.1 PPT

The analyzing type, achieved by the text modality only, can be found in the part of research background and discussion of the thesis, where the information can be difficult to be displayed by a chart. Slides with text modality only are not very common. It is common sense that putting text only in one slide without anything is tedious; thus, 7 masters try to avoid this type. The analyzing function for analyzing type is mainly achieved by text and chart modality, conveying the defense meaning that the research is professional and the analysis is both intuitive and comprehensive.

E. Persuading Type

The persuading type is employed to achieve the goal of persuading with the help of color, animation, and music modalities. In the data, the persuading function is mainly realized by color and animation modalities. This type is the most difficult one to be identified since the color and animation modalities can also be used in another 4 types. The standard of whether a slide should fall into the persuading type lies in the actual function it performs.

➤ 1. Research Background

② Assessing tools:

Instruments: Discourse Completion Task (DCT) composed of MDCT and WDCT, Discourse Role-play Tasks (DPPT), Discourse Self-assessment Tasks (DSAT) and Role-play Self-assessment (RPSA).

Contextual variables: Power, Social distance and Imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Among those instruments, MDCT and WDCT are widely employed in studies (e.g., Farhady, 1980; Shimazu, 1989; Hudson et al., 1995; Roever, 2005, 2006; Liu, 2006, 2007). The reliability and validity of two tools have been justified.

(Advantages: rating based on appropriateness, time saving, easy collection and more control of data)

Fig. 10: The 6th Slide from No.5 PPT

2.4 Data analysis

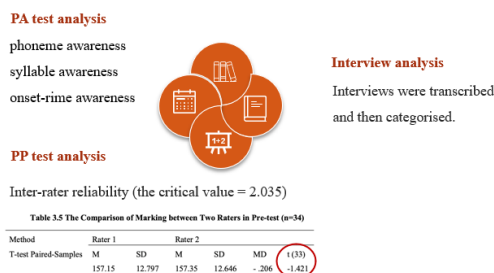


Fig. 11: The 16th Slide from No.6 PPT

In figure 10, important information or something that the demonstrator wants to highlight is featured by red color, for example, the contents of contextual variables, assessing tools, and the advantages. By doing this, the demonstrator tries to emphasize the authority and the advantages of the assessing tool in her thesis. In figure 11, the red circle is animated, making it conspicuous in the slide. The demonstrator wants to prove that there is a balance and no significant difference between the two raters; inter-rater reliability was measured by using t-test Paired-Samples. Scores from the pre-test were used to examine the agreement. Furthermore, the results are presented in the slide. The t value is circled, indicating that no significant difference between scores marked by two raters. Hence, the average score by two raters for each student in each test round can be used as the final score.

➤ I Background information

Pragmatic competence refers to the competence to comprehend and produce correct and appropriate utterance in specific communicative context. As a crucial element of communicative ability, it is getting growing attention in a wide range of disciplines, including pragmatics, second language acquisition, applied linguistics (Chen 2014; Taguchi, 2009). Baker (2011), considering the equivalence issue of translation, attached importance to pragmatics in translation- the pragmatic equivalence. Translation, as a special phenomenon of language use, is of significance in translation study.

Fig. 12: The 4th Slide from No.7 PPT

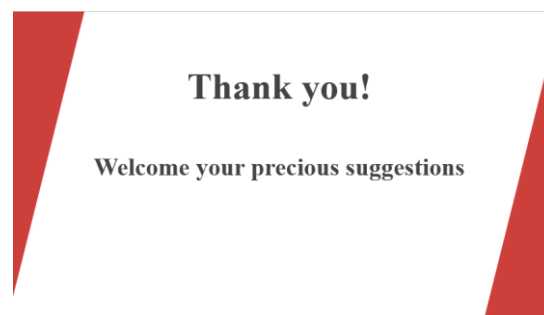
However, not all animation modalities can fulfill the function of the persuading type. Taking figure 12 as an example, although the text is animated, there exists no persuading function. There is no point in animating the whole content in one slide. Thus, this slide should be classified into the analyzing type, not the persuading type. When the persuading type of PPT is adopted, the defense meaning is focused on suggesting and persuading the defense teachers; thus, this type is usually used to convey some personal thoughts, distinct findings, and contributions of the thesis to support the demonstrator's point of view.

F. Connecting Type

In the context of the research data, some slides that are difficult to be classified into any of these four types (prompting type, visualizing type, analyzing type, and persuading type) fall into connecting type. The connecting type is employed to undertake a simple summary of the analysis above or lead to the following part. Both the first introducing slide and the last acknowledgment slide belong to the type.



Fig. 13: The 1st Slide from No.1 PPT

Fig. 14: The 18th Slide from No.4 PPTFig. 15: The 8th Slide from No.7 PPT

It is a type that can indicate the individual usage tendency. As common sense, the first four PPTs only adopt the connecting type in the beginning and at the end of their presentations, while the last 3 PPTs use the connecting type with a high frequency. It is hard to give a conclusion which choice is better. On the one hand, the connecting type can give the audience a response time, and get ready to welcome the next information. On the other hand, an over-used this type can make the PPT seem loose and incoherent. Thus, Proper use is the key.

V. CONCLUSION

According to the results and discussions above, it can be seen that five types of PPT are all adopted in the thesis defense, with different occurrence frequencies. The main purpose of a thesis defense is to explain and interpret it; thus, the analyzing function is the primary concern. The use of connecting, persuading, and prompting type has a strong personal tendency, varying from person to person. However, the demonstrator's purpose should be the principle and standard of choosing. Besides, the misuse of the persuading type should be taken notice of, avoiding being counterproductive. The visualizing type takes up the lowest proportion among them, indicating that pictures are the last modality that demonstrators tend to use, making sure the PPT defense presentation is academic and serious. All in all, the demonstrators need to know different types of PPT, the characteristics, and modalities that can achieve different functions in order to present the thesis in an effective and appropriate way.

Based on the analysis and discussion above, the characteristics of PPT as a thesis defense genre can be summarized as followed:

First, the purpose of PPT as a thesis defense genre is to present the respondent's thesis comprehensively and logically, explaining to and persuading the defense teachers the worth of the respondent's thesis.

Second, the content of PPT as a thesis defense genre typically contains research background, research significance, literature review, research questions, methodology, results, discussions, findings, and limitations of the thesis, with an introducing slide and a acknowledge slide at the beginning and the end of PPT respectively. You do not have to deal with all the elements above, while some core information has to be included, such as research questions, methodology, research results, and research findings.

Third, the standard form of PPT as a thesis defense genre is when one respondent stands in front of a group of defense teachers and gives a speech to their theses while showing slides. In most cases, manual operation of the turn of the slide is adopted, which is convenient to control and adjust the time and pace of the presentation.

At last, according to reality, time and space vary among different schools. At most times, the place is in a large room or hall with electronic projection. However, because of the prevalence of COVID-19, online defense is gradually accepted.

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The Efficacy of Syllabi of General English Courses at Undergraduate Level in Bangladesh: An Evaluation

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Abstract—A good syllabus contributes to achieving better learning outcomes. Academic institutions often invest huge amounts in preparing the so-called 'panacea' of a syllabus hoping they could meet the demand of the highly competitive world. Now, however, educationists often get divided on what is instrumental to gaining a higher level of learning outcomes: Is it the quality of syllabus, or the kind of teaching approaches, or quality of teachers and learners, or good academic environment with a proper support system or a combination of all the above? While the academic process around the globe continues amidst these unresolved questions, teaching and learning English in Bangladeshi tertiary institutions for undergraduate students is no exception. Although almost all the students at undergraduate level take some sort of English language course like general English language (GEL), or foundation English (FE) course, they fail to function when it comes to using the language in a real-life situation. This paper strives to trace out why the students cannot communicate in English properly even after 10 plus years of exposure to the language – 1/2 years at the tertiary level and 8 to 10 years at the primary and secondary levels. The research has adopted both quantitative and qualitative research methods and used two different questionnaires to collect data for the study. Delving into a thorough analysis of the existing syllabuses, the study contends that the syllabus cannot quite prepare the students to be able to function in English in a real-world scenario and, therefore, recommends a revamping of the syllabuses is necessary to produce pragmatic and pedagogical efficacy.

Index Terms—syllabi, English Language Teaching (ELT), General English Language (GEL) courses, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background of the Study

English, considered as the lingua franca of the modern world, has become the pathway of global communication and global access to knowledge. All branches of human knowledge are now available in English. It is an important promoter of socio-economic advancement and is highly required for those seeking higher opportunities in all spheres of life. In Bangladesh, as per the constitution, English is still a foreign language (The Constitution of the People's Republic of Bangladesh, 2021). Nevertheless, the actual usage of English at all levels across the country implies more than that. People use English in their everyday life to cope with the outer world, achieve higher education, and obviously, to attain national progress and prosperity. Communicative competence and proficiency in English at the global stage as well as in the context of Bangladesh have been working as an indicator of success (Rahman et.al, 2019; Farooqui, 2014; Hamid, 2010). Therefore, communicative competence especially in all four skills i.e. reading, writing, listening, and speaking with a high premium on speaking should be the focal point of GEL courses at undergraduate level in Bangladesh. Besides, at undergraduate level, students are not empty vessels rather they have sufficient prior grammatical knowledge acquired from their secondary and higher secondary levels of education (Sultana, 2021). Therefore, English should be taught in perspective of promoting and consolidating communication skills to enhance student communicative competence. The syllabus should state clearly the aims and objectives of teaching English at undergraduate level. Therefore, a critical evaluation of the syllabuses of GEL courses is highly required and this study aims to figure out the strengths and shortcomings in light of pragmatic and pedagogic effectiveness.

B. Objective of the Study

The objective of this study is to assess the strengths and relative drawbacks of existing syllabuses of GEL courses at undergraduate level in Bangladesh.

C. Rationale of the Study

A complete and organized syllabus is the overall plan for the learning process, a description or specification of content to be covered and evaluated through examination (Stern, 1984; Yalden 1984), an important source of information and reassurance for teachers as well as learners, especially, in situations where the target language is not used predominantly outside the classroom. A syllabus is the framework of teaching-learning activities that should fulfill all sorts of practical needs (Widdoson, 1978). Language Teaching Syllabus (LTS) addresses the aims and objectives of ELT. Therefore, the ELT teachers and learners should have a clear understanding of their practicing syllabuses.

At undergraduate level in Bangladesh, the existing syllabuses help students become linguistically competent and ignore functional activities and eventually students acquire the rules of linguistic usage, but cannot use the language fluently and communicatively in a real-life situation (Wali 2018). A thorough study in this regard is therefore required and hence this research will scrutinize how realistic, pragmatic, and pedagogical the prevailing syllabuses are to manifest the goal of ELT at Undergraduate level. In addition, this study might be a reliable source of information for educationists to peer into the GEL syllabuses at undergraduate level for the improvement of ELT in Bangladesh.

D. Hypothesis of the Study

The current GEL syllabuses are purely grammatical, which primarily focus on learning the rules of grammar, vocabulary and developing reading and writing skills. It helps the students become linguistically competent but cannot help them master the actual manifestation of that knowledge. Therefore, the undergraduate students fail to acquire communicative competence to cope up in the present context.

E. Limitations of the Study

This study is a critical evaluation of GEL syllabuses at undergraduate level in Bangladesh. Critical evaluation requires data from a different perspective. However, the study has collected data through questionnaires and written comments from teachers and students. It could have been comprehensive if we had collected more information through interviews, class observation, etc. At present, there are 45 public and 103 private universities in Bangladesh (UGC 2021) and this study has selected only one university. Due to time constraints, we could not include and examine all the syllabuses across the country.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

To evaluate syllabi of general English courses at undergraduate level in Bangladesh, it is necessary to review past researches related to the current study to carry out this research more comprehensively. To date, no researchers have conducted in-depth research on GEL or FE courses of undergraduate students in Bangladesh though we have found out numerous foreign researchers have conducted research relating to EFL syllabuses in their context. Therefore, this area demands an in-depth study to improve English language teaching at undergraduate level in Bangladesh.

Sultana et.al (2019) in evaluating the fundamental English language courses at public engineering universities in Bangladesh find the existing syllabus is more structural than functional. Therefore, students cannot communicate properly due to their lack of adequate practices of language during the courses. Alongside other recommendations, they also suggest that students need to be competent in all 4-skill to accomplish communication purposes.

According to Rahman & Jelane 2021, the current English courses at tertiary level in Bangladesh could not help students attain communicative competence especially in speaking as it neglects the notional and functional aspects of language learning and teaching. Speaking and listening skills have got less importance whereas instructors spend most of the time in teaching grammar, reading, and writing. Therefore, GEL courses could not reach to satisfactory level at tertiary level in Bangladesh (Khan, 2010; Sudha, 2017). The current GEL syllabuses at undergraduate level do not focus on 4-skill with equal importance and listening-speaking are neglected to a greater extend. Students are good at reading & writing but lack presentation skills as well as interpersonal skills (Wali 2018, Mamun 2015).

Gautam (1988) gives an account of a survey that he conducted at the college level in Haryana state, India and the primary aim of his study was to make a critical assessment of the principal trends and features of English teaching program at the college level. He found the pedagogical implications of the new changes (teaching the skills of communication) had yet to be examined in detail and the outcome of this critical examination had to be formulated in terms of certain guidelines to the teacher regarding his classroom methods of instruction.

Teaching and learning a language is more effective when students involve themselves in interaction especially in a socio-cultural context and when learning content solves practical issues in everyday life. Social interactions such as how to start and close a conversation, turn-taking, accepting and declining invitation require communicative competence more than linguistic competence contradicts Chomsky's theory of linguistics competence (Chomsky, 1965). That is why, the use of language in context is essential and learners should know the appropriate use of language in a certain situation (Larsen-Freeman 2004, Wilkins 1976, Hymes 1971).

Brown (1994) focuses on CLT and finds several countries across the world prioritize learning and teaching English for communicative purposes rather than academic activities or passing a test only due to its global demand in the current situation. The goal of CLT is to establish a convenient route for worldwide communication.

Nagaraj (1996) gives a detailed description of ELT methods with a target to educate teachers of ELT. He suggests that from the light of this information teachers have to make the final choice about what they do and how they want to

do it. He only says that the insight that has shaped the recent trends in language teaching—that 'being structurally correct' is only a part of what is involved in language ability. Therefore, emphasis has gone on CLT that recognizes the teaching of 'communicative competence'.

O'Neill (2000) notes that communicative language teaching has enormous intuitive appeal. Language means interaction, to exchange views to each other meaningfully. The main target of learning a language is to perform communication. He emphasizes accuracy as a vital part of fluency and therefore assumes grammar plays a pivotal role in CLT. He also observes many teachers and learners could not understand grammar effectively especially its morphology and syntax that govern language as per the structural syllabus. However, morphology and syntax are only two components of grammar. On the other hand, CLT has emphasized the role of semantics in language learning. As CLT focuses on making meaning in the language, the learner's goal of language learning in the communicative classroom is to acquire the grammar and to understand them to transform them into meaning.

As a teacher working with international groups, Belchamber (2008) gives an overview of CLT and shows them ways to prepare course materials to make lessons more communicative or interactive. CLT suggests preparing lessons to be student-centered but it does not mean they are ungrammatical. The instructors play a very important role in the process of setting up activities so that communication takes place.

In her article, Thuleen (1996) states some drawbacks of GTM that it spends little time on oral practice. Besides, the rigidity and the type of error correction that this method suggests can hamper student's learning processes. Despite having all these negative traits, GTM possesses some positive aspects also. She suggests the GT method can be tempered with other approaches to create a more flexible and conductive methodology (02). Indeed, GTM is appropriate for primary and high school levels where students require knowing the basics about the target language. However, at a tertiary level, they need the practical use of that language, that is, "communicative competence".

Marks (2008) learned two foreign languages at school through GTM and acquired linguistics competence but at the time of speaking in different socio-linguistics contexts he could not transform his knowledge to speak fluently and faced that there were lots of essential everyday words and expressions that he simply did not know. Marks speaks for GTM at the elementary level where ELT teachers formulate the foundation of the fellows. However, at tertiary level, they need not repeat that knowledge; rather they should motivate students to the practical use of that knowledge.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) mention GTM emphasizes mastering reading and writing and "ignores speaking or listening skills (3)". It focuses on grammar rules, vocabulary, and translation. However, structural competence is important for learning a language but it is not inclusive, does not cover all aspects of teaching and learning processes. Having mastery of linguistic competence does not necessarily mean that one may formulate that knowledge into meaningful communication (Richards 2006, Altun, 2015)". "Communicative competence consists of two components: the first part is linguistic competence, and the knowledge of grammar rules and their meaning. The second element is knowledge of the functions language is used for (Larsen-Freeman, 2004)". Learners do not need all the grammatical rules for communication and over-emphasis on mastering rules neglects the basic function of language (Wilkins 1979:82 as cited in Abdallah 2001)

Teaching and learning the English language especially 4-skill in some Arab universities are still bound in the academic institution only (Abdalla (2001). The contemporary English language teachers hold the notion that the effective way is to learn a language by using that language instead of memorizing forms in isolation. A language learner's performance depends more on performance than linguistic competence. The grammatical syllabus is form-based and demands accurate use of rules rather than performance. The actual use of language is more important than knowledge of linguistic competence (Willy 1990). Japanese students have developed a tendency to interact, communicate with others in English without imposing a heavy burden of memorizing rules of grammar. They want to be fluent in speaking, want to communicate more naturally in different language contexts rather than focusing on grammar. (Rabbini 2002)

The ability to communicate is the goal of foreign language learning that cannot be achieved only by mastering structures (grammar and vocabulary). Learners also need functional aspects of language to cope with the everyday situation and CLT incorporates both structural and functional aspects of language to enable communication successfully (Littlewood, 1981).

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study has followed both the qualitative and quantitative approaches. This is qualitative in the sense that it has collected the personal comments of the strengths and weaknesses of the syllabuses from the undergraduate English language teachers and the students of Bangladesh. It has also reviewed literature, made various analyses, drawn a final recommendation and conclusion. It is a quantitative analysis because it has calculated the percentage of data provided by the respondents. Two separate questionnaires were prepared for collecting primary data.

A. Study Area

For the study, the existing syllabuses of several disciplines of Khulna University have been selected. As this is a pilot project, the study has selected syllabuses of five disciplines and they are almost of the same category.

B. Sample Design

Simple random sampling has been applied for this study. According to Dornyei (2010), "samples are supposed to be the representative participants that are selected from a larger community or population" (as cited in Sultana et al 2019). In this study, 50 samples have been selected randomly. Of the 50 respondents, 10 were English language teachers from the English discipline, and 40 students participated from different disciplines. Among the 10 faculties, 57% were lecturers, 35% were Assistant professors and the rest of the 8% were associate professors and professors, and age ranged from 28 to 55. The students who participated in this study were from the first year to 2nd year of Bachelor's degrees in different disciplines.

C. Data Collection

As the primary data is the main source of information for this study, the data collection method is chosen to collect accurate information. For the quantitative study, two separate questionnaires were used to collect data from both the teachers and students. For the qualitative study, the authors requested participating teachers and students to provide their opinions in writing.

D. Data Processing and Analysis

The study has revised the collected data and information meticulously using the following two steps: (I) Data compilation: The collected data has been grouped, categorized, and finally compiled systematically according to the objectives. (II) Data Editing: Data has been edited to ensure that all type of information has been collected from the field survey and to eliminate the possible errors and omissions. Finally, the data has been presented through figures followed by a short analysis.

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS

A. Analysis and Evaluation of Teacher's Data

1. The Nature and Scope of Current GEL Syllabuses:

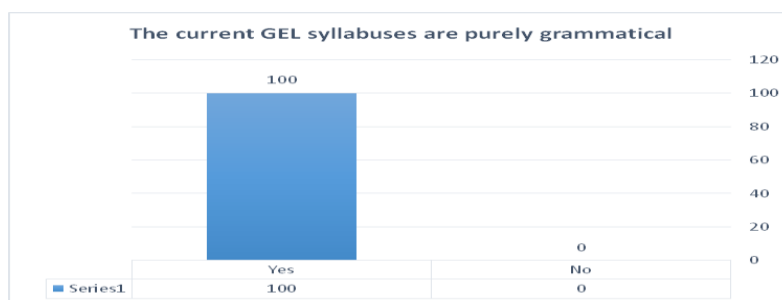


Figure 1. The current GEL syllabuses are grammatical

Figure 1 shows all the participant teachers agree with the opinion that the existing GEL syllabuses of undergraduate students in Bangladesh enhance student's grammatical knowledge and develop their reading and writing skills. Therefore, the syllabuses are purely grammatical.

2. The Status of CLT in the Existing GEL Syllabuses:

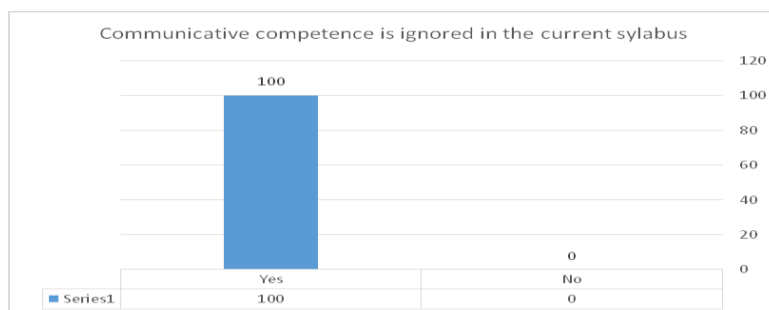


Figure 2. Communicative competence is ignored in the current syllabus

The results show 100% of respondents (figure 2) agree that the current undergraduate syllabuses are mainly grammatical and teaching and learning of English for communicative purposes is ignored.

3. The Demand of Communicative Syllabuses in the Present Context:

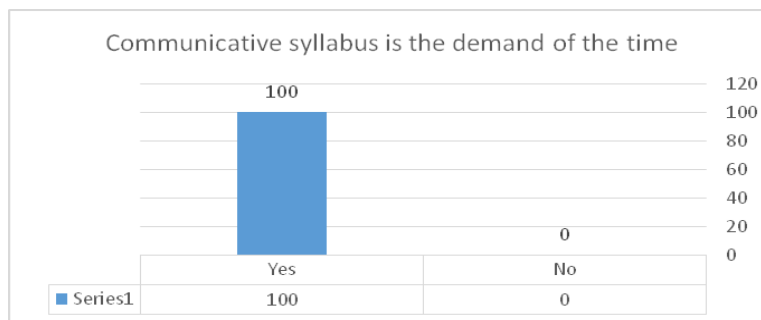


Figure 3. The demand of communicative competence

Again, everyone who participated (figure 3) strongly suggests that communicative syllabus which covers all the "four dimensions- grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence (Canale, 1983)" should be the guiding principle for general English courses of undergraduate level in Bangladesh.

4. Shortcomings of Present English Language Testing System:

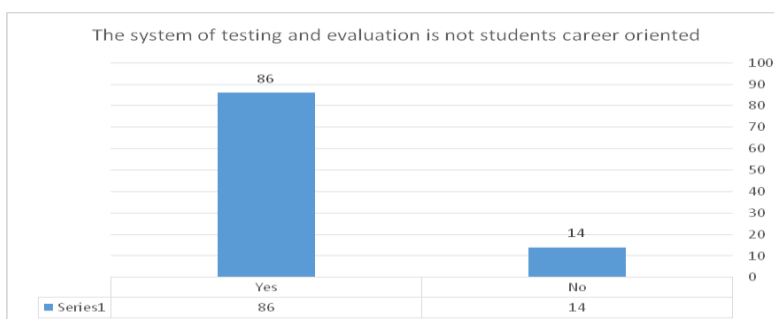


Figure 4. The system of testing and evaluation is not student career oriented

Figure 4 shows 86% of teachers think the existing testing and evaluation system needs to be modified. The traditional testing system does not emphasize oral communication and mostly ignores listening and speaking.

B. Analysis and Evaluation of Student's Data

Scope of student-questionnaire:

- Students' interest in learning English, their needs, and requirements.
- Their attitude to learning English at the Undergraduate level.
- Their assessment of the existing syllabuses.
- Their evaluation of their classroom activities.
- Their attitude toward the present testing system.
- Their suggestions to make the GEL Courses more purposeful and career-oriented.

1. Student's Interest and Disinterest in Learning English:

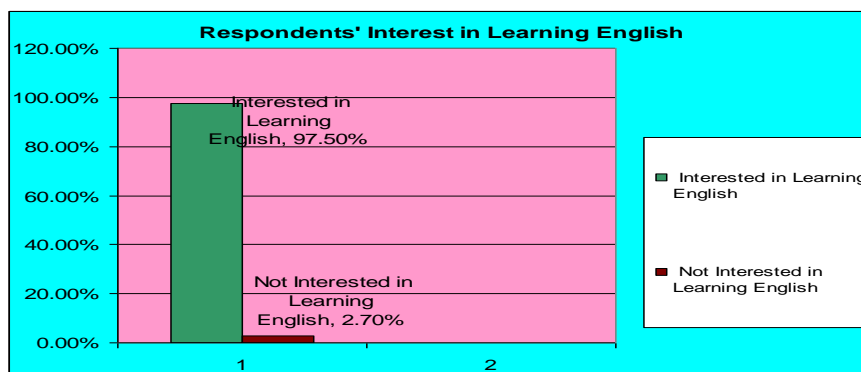


Figure 5. Student's interest and disinterest in learning English

Figure 5 indicates that 97.5% of respondents are interested in learning English, even though English is their optional course in the syllabus whereas only 2.5 % are disinterested.

2. Speaking is the Most Neglected Part in the Existing Syllabuses:

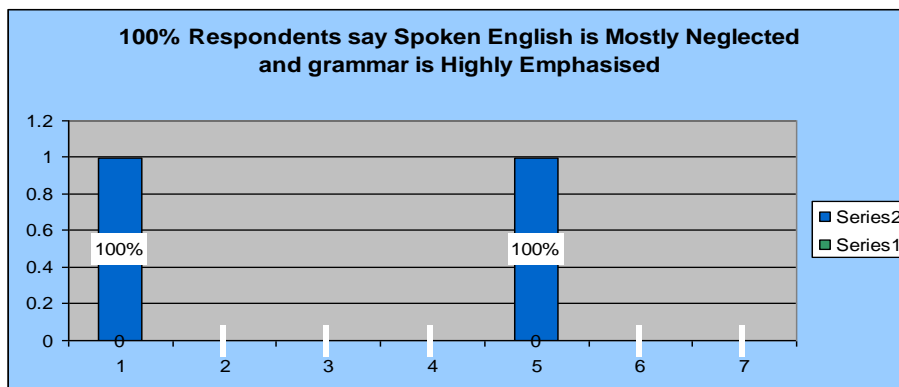


Figure 6. The most neglected part in the syllabuses is spoken English

Figure 6 shows 100% of respondents agree that grammar gets the supreme importance in the courses and spoken English is the most neglected skill. As a result, their knowledge of grammar develops, but their fluency in speaking remains poor.

3. The Position and Function of Listening Skill in the Syllabuses:

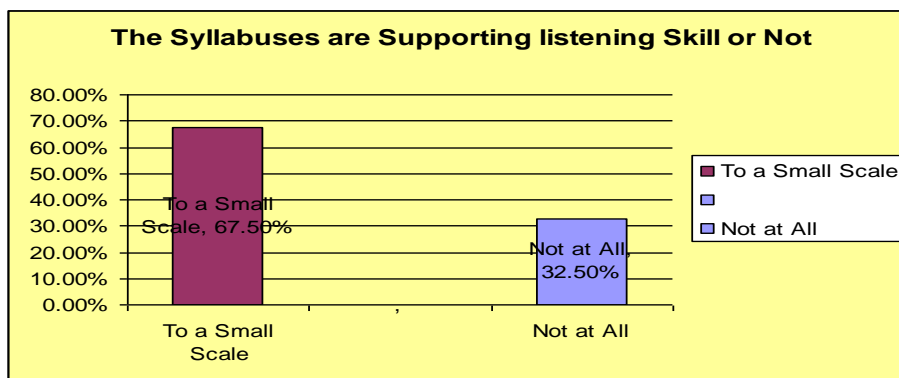


Figure 7. The position and function of listening skill in the syllabuses

Figure 7 shows that 67.5% of respondents think they receive the very least supports from their existing syllabuses to develop their listening skills and that is not sufficient. Moreover, 32.5% of students believe that their syllabuses do not prompt them to develop their listening skills at all.

4. Student's Role in the Classroom:

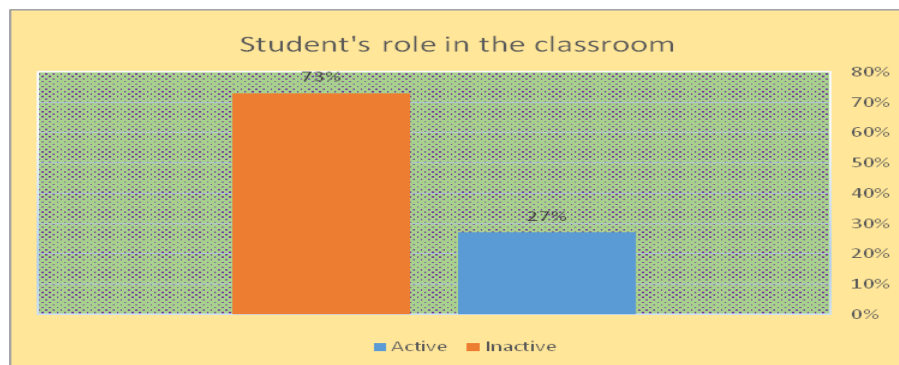


Figure 8. Student's role in the classroom

Figure 8 indicates that 73% of students remain passive in the classroom. They only listen to the instructors whereas the instructor follows the traditional lecture mode and dominates the whole class. Only 27% of respondents assume that they sometimes respond and ask a question to the teacher.

5. Effectiveness of the Present Syllabuses:

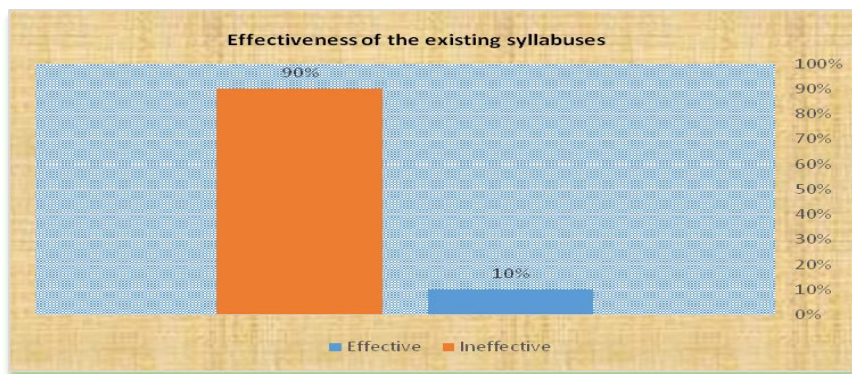


Figure 9. Effectiveness of the present syllabuses

According to Figure 9, 90% of respondents acknowledge that they have a lacking in successful communication. They have acquired linguistics competence, can read, and write more or less correctly but they have difficulties mainly in their speaking. They cannot speak fluently in social context appropriately; they are hesitant while communicating with others.

6. Communicative Competence should be the Goal for Learning English in the Present Context:

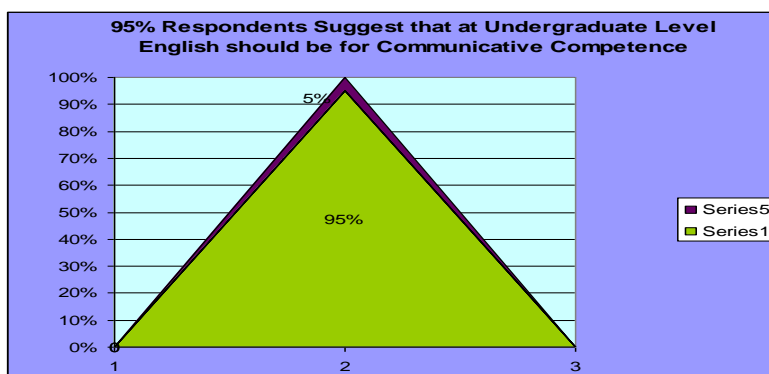


Figure 10. Communicative competence should be the goal for learning English

Figure 10 clarifies that 95% of respondents suggest that at the undergraduate level, English should be learned to enhance their communicative competence. They hold the notion they have enough grammatical knowledge from their S.S.C and H.S.C level of education. Therefore, at the undergraduate level, as they have prior grammatical knowledge, they should emphasize on communicative competence.

7. Student's Evaluation of Present Syllabuses:

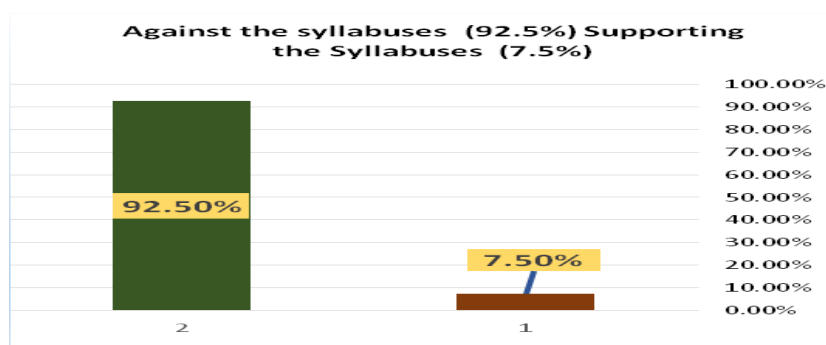


Figure 11. Student's evaluation of present syllabuses

Figure 11 clarifies that 92.5% of students are against the existing syllabuses. They think that their syllabuses need to be designed based on CLT. Only 7.5% of respondents assume the existing grammatical syllabuses are doing good to meet their needs.

8. Existing Testing System should be Modified:

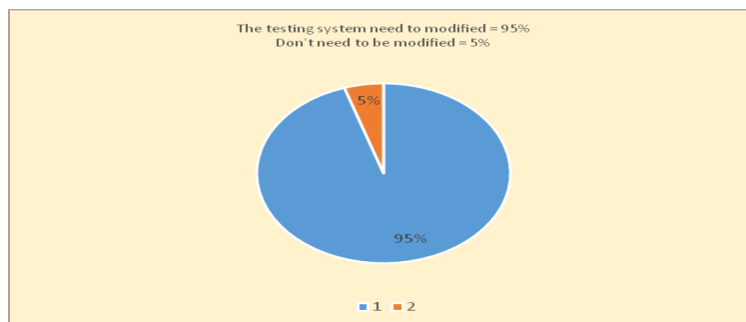
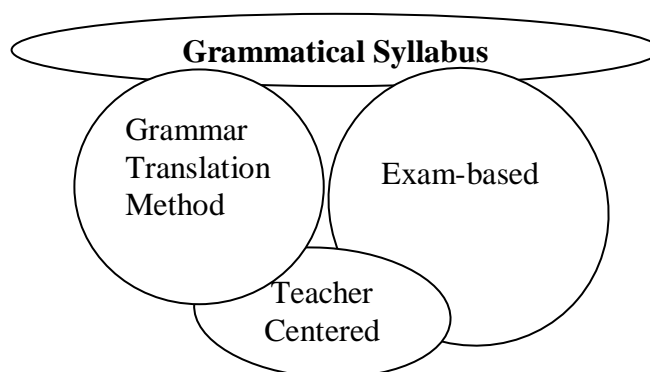


Figure 12. Existing Testing System should be modified

Figure 12 shows that 95% of respondents think the preset testing and evaluation system cannot help them reach their goal and therefore need to be modified. The current testing system improves their writing skill, but cannot improve their fluency in speaking. They assume that instead of emphasizing on written tests more attention can be paid to active performance, group work, pair work, class presentation, viva-voce, etc. to attain communicative competence.

V. DISCUSSION

The study has provided a great chance to peer into the GEL syllabuses of undergraduate students, their strengths, and shortcomings. The study finds that the current GEL syllabuses of undergraduate level are grammar-based, teacher-centered, and mostly based on written tests, which is shown in the following diagram.



The Present GEL syllabuses at undergraduate level.

All the teachers who participate in the study consider the existing GEL syllabuses of undergraduate students are purely grammatical, and learning English for communicative purposes is ignored. Finally, they strongly support and recommend communicative competence as the dire need of undergraduate students in the global context and it should be the prime goal at the undergraduate level. Most of the teachers (85.72%) think the current syllabus and its testing system cannot fulfill the student's needs required for professional life. All the participants strongly suggest communicative syllabus, which covers all the four dimensions: "grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence" (Canale, 1983), should be the guiding principle for GEL courses at the undergraduate level in Bangladesh.

On the other hand, 92.5% of students respond against the existing syllabuses. In the current syllabuses only grammatical aspects, reading and writing comprehensions get the focus whereas speaking and listening are the most neglected skills. They suggest at the undergraduate level students have enough prior grammatical knowledge acquired from their secondary and higher secondary levels. Therefore, at this level students are more enthusiastic to master a high level of accuracy and fluency, i.e. "communicative competence". At the same time, 90% of respondents point out that at the undergraduate level students have a lacking of successful communication and the main difficulty lies in their speaking. They cannot speak fluently; they hesitate and are nervous and shy while speaking with others. 67.5% respondents assume their existing syllabus allow them for listening comprehension to a small scale which is not sufficient for developing listening skill successfully. Again, 95% of respondents recommend GEL courses for more than one term in their four-year graduation course to improve ELT. All the participants think the existing testing system needs to be changed and instead written tests, active performance, presentation; role-play, pair-work, group-work, etc. can get priority.

A. Strengths of the Existing Undergraduate GEL Syllabuses

The data collected from teachers and students (both quantitative and qualitative data) finds the current GEL syllabuses of undergraduate students are purely grammatical. Alongside its limitations, it has also some positive aspects including:

- The grammatical syllabus improves student's grammatical efficiency and the knowledge of grammar is considered as the base of any language.
- The syllabus highly focuses on writing comprehensions such as official correspondence, report writing, précis and paragraph writing, dialogue and letter writing, etc. Therefore, students can improve reading and writing skills whereas they face difficulty in listening and speaking.
- The syllabus trains the students to be the master of parts of speech, phrases and clauses, tense and voice, affixes, synonyms, and antonyms, etc. Hence the students' knowledge of grammar rules and vocabulary develops.

B. Drawbacks of the Undergraduate GEL Syllabuses

- Despite having some positive features, the existing syllabuses have failed to reach the goal and expectations of undergraduate students in Bangladesh. For example:
- The syllabuses do not allow students for classroom activities required to acquire a reasonable degree of communicative competence for various purposes outside the classroom.
- Little attention is paid to enhancing speaking and listening skills in the syllabuses although both the teachers and students have emphasized it.
- The students learn the rules of grammar rather than the fluency of expression in English. The syllabus does not pay equal attention to all four skills.
- The current syllabus does not provide any chance for drill in the aural-oral skills.
- The syllabus stresses knowing the rules and vocabulary but ignores the actual manifestation of that competence i.e. form is more important than meaning.
- It views language as a system of grammatical and vocabulary items and offers language samples excluding their social and cultural contexts. Thus, the communicative aspect of the language is neglected.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

As per the findings of the field study and the existing language teaching and learning theories, methodologies, and syllabuses, the following recommendations can be taken into consideration to prompt ELT at the undergraduate level in Bangladesh.

Syllabuses are the overall plan for the learning process and it is a cardinal factor for the success or failure of English language courses at undergraduate level. To prompt and to produce pragmatic and pedagogical effectiveness of English language teaching at undergraduate level of Bangladesh, the study proposes the following recommendations: Communicative syllabus, which is based on communicative language teaching method, can be designed for GEL courses.

- To develop communicative efficiency in English emphasis should be given on free handwriting, conversation, presentation, group work, pair work, role-play, etc.
- The classroom teaching should be reciprocal where students will play an active role.
- The traditional lecture mood system should be replaced by CLT theories and practices.
- The GEL courses should be prescribed more than one term/ semester in four years graduation courses.
- The present testing system also needs to be developed. Instead of testing linguistic competence i.e. writing a paragraph, essay, letter, or comprehension, priority should be given for class presentation or public speaking.
- Alongside other skill tests, speaking and listening should be evaluated and tested.
- To achieve a higher level of proficiency in English, students have to take responsibility for their learning and at the same time, the teachers should be sincere, professional, and committed to intended the goal in the syllabi.
- The majority of the instructors and students who participated in this study agree that despite having some positive aspects, the existing structural syllabuses fall short of the student's expectations because of multifaceted problems. The current syllabuses are grammatical, the focus is naturally on the forms, and all grammar rules are taught throughout the courses. Nevertheless, language is not mastered when all grammatical forms have been learned. The focus on forms only serves to divorce learning from meaning and context. Actually, alongside grammar rules, other aspects of language learning are required to use the language successfully for meaningful communication. Linguistics competence is one of the parts of the communicative syllabus along with other aspects of meanings and functions. Therefore, it is inclusive and covers all aspects and activities required to acquire communicative competence. The basic assumption of this syllabus is that learning is facilitated by activities, which include real communication. This syllabus aims at teaching communication through language i.e. language *as* communication, rather than language *for* communication. It enables students to use the language actively outside the classroom. It is a learner-centered, semantic base syllabus, which focuses on doing something through language. It emphasizes on effectiveness, fluency, and

appropriateness in learner performance over formal accuracy. Therefore, a communicative syllabus can be a very authentic, pragmatic, and dynamic syllabus for the undergraduate students of Bangladesh.

VII. CONCLUSION

A grammatical/structural syllabus is a product-oriented, content-based syllabus, which emphasizes on knowledge of language structures that learners can acquire through formal instructions. It assumes that the form and the meaning of language have one-to-one relation, ignores the functional aspect of meaning, and focuses only on one aspect of language, i.e., formal grammar. It hardly helps learners enhance communicative ability in the language. On the contrary, a communicative syllabus is based on the communicative language teaching (CLT) method that emphasizes communication or interaction as the means and the ultimate goal of learning a foreign language. It covers all the dimensions of language learning and engages the learners to use language for meaningful purposes in an everyday situation. In the contemporary global world, English language proficiency is just not a fashion; rather it is a requirement and tool of communication around the world. It is a top-ranking language by population and is known as a bridge language, common language, or trade language. For the economic growth and devolvement of Bangladesh as a whole, English undoubtedly plays a vital role and, therefore, an appropriate syllabus for GEL courses at undergraduate level in Bangladesh is a crying need in the present-day perspective.

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Chinese EFL Teachers' Perception and Practice of Phonics Instruction

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Abstract—Phonics was introduced to Chinese mainland two decades ago. To gain an empirical insight into teachers' perception in teaching phonics to EFL students, this study draws upon data from a survey among 213 primary school EFL teachers in two Chinese provinces. The findings indicate that most teachers hold positive attitudes towards phonics, regarding it more as a word-attack skill. The improvement of teachers' educational background predicts better phonics teaching effect, yet they need systematic phonics knowledge. Besides, teaching material and teaching strategies are greatly correlated with the teaching effect. It concludes that phonics should be integrated into regular textbooks and effective teacher training is significant for better improvement of phonics instruction.

Index Terms—primary EFL teacher, phonics perception, teaching strategy, teaching effect

I. INTRODUCTION

In English-speaking countries, phonics instruction has been a component in teaching beginning readers for over 150 years (Sprague, 2008), alongside phonemic awareness, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. It has long been thought as a teaching strategy; today it is seen more as “content” within an overall teaching strategy (Sprague, 2008). In beginning reading instruction, students should understand a wide range of complex, informative texts as quickly as possible (NGA Center & CCSSO, 2010). Phonics is an effective strategy to achieve this goal by helping students acquire the prerequisite skills to decode unfamiliar words encountered in increasingly complex texts (Norman & Calfee, 2004). Without phonics knowledge and skills, it is difficult for young students to learn to read alphabetic language (Zipke, Ehri, & Cairns, 2009). Many researchers have verified through experiments that phonics has a positive effect on learners' literacy, spelling, and phonemic awareness (Flesch, 1981; Gwendolyn, 1998; NRP, 2000; Buckland & Fraser, 2008). McArthur et al. (2018) stated that phonics could help improve the accuracy of word reading, non-word reading accuracy, fluency, reading comprehension, spelling, letter-sound knowledge, and speech output of students with reading difficulties. Compared with the native learners, Chinese students as EFL learners are more struggling with reading while phonics enables them to develop reading skills (Wright C. & Wright J., 2016).

Phonics was introduced to Chinese mainland at the beginning of the 21st century when children started formal English learning at 6 or 8 years old, a lower age than that before National English Curriculum Standards for Compulsory Education (Trial version) was issued by Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2001. Its new version (2011) states that pupils should be able to “understand basic spelling rules, and decode simple words accordingly” since vocabulary is the basic building block of reading. Furthermore, it lists the amount of reading and level of reading comprehension that pupils should achieve at different grades. Therefore, students need to develop their decoding ability including script, phonemic awareness, and blending skills (Wang & Chen, 2016).

However, unlike native English teachers in North America, EFL teachers in China tend to consider phonics comprehensively (CERA, 2021). Phonics is viewed not only as knowledge about the letter-sound correspondence relationship, but also as an integral part of teaching pronunciation (Feng, 2010). Regarding phonics as a way of word identification, educators often compare phonics with International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) which has been universally used to teach junior high school students (Grade 7-9) in China, resulting in debates about their respective pros and cons (Ye, 2013; Cao, 2017). It is proposed that lower graders learn phonics first, and then IPA as they move to higher grades, so as to adapt to secondary school English learning more easily (Liang and Meng, 2010).

As phonics is gradually adopted for primary English literacy improvement (Huang, 2013; Gao, Wang, & Lee, 2020), a growing number of researchers studied phonics teaching principle and application in China's EFL class, and found that problems still exist (Hou, 2019) due to inefficient phonics knowledge and inaccurate language processing (Moats & Foorman, 2003; Rayner, et al., 2001). Hence, it is necessary to explore EFL teachers' perceptions and practices of phonics, and the reasons behind them.

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II. THE RESEARCH ON SYSTEMATIC PHONICS INSTRUCTION AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTION

Some English-speaking countries have clarified the content of early reading and the type of knowledge teachers must teach. In Australia, National Inquiry into the Teaching of Literacy (2005) emphasizes the importance of explicit synthetic phonics. In the United Kingdom, the Rose Report (2006) recommends that early reading teaching incorporate phonics into the primary school literacy curriculum. In the United States, the National Reading Panel (2000) advocates teaching systematic phonics based on research findings through meta-analysis (Ehri, et al., 2001) and statistical support (De Graff, et al., 2009). Systematic phonics includes two key elements (NRP, 2000). One is explicit teaching content (usually referring to a complete set of phonological correspondence knowledge) and the systematic implementation of phonics instruction; the other is a clear teaching procedure to train students' spelling ability. The basic phonographic correspondence training which is mixed randomly in other reading programs is regarded as unsystematic phonics instruction. A decoding text is also necessary to practice the phonic rules (Kang & Chen, 2012).

Teachers' perception refers to their understanding of the teaching essence, reflecting their teaching attitudes and expectations (Borg, 2003). As teaching is a cognitive activity, teachers' perception will greatly impact their classroom decisions (Shavelson & Stern, 1981; Tillema, 2000). Teachers' knowledge (Carlisle, et al., 2009; McCutchen, et al., 2009), on the other hand, will affect students' reading performance. Thus, the result of systematic phonics instruction depends to a large extent on teachers' phonics knowledge and perceptions (Piasta, et al., 2009).

The flourishing researches on phonics in China since 2010 mainly explored its function, effect, and strategies in teaching reading and vocabulary (Hou, 2019), but few studies have examined teachers' knowledge and perception of phonics (Lin, 2018). Zhao et al. (2016) compared Chinese primary school teachers' language knowledge and skills, indicating that they were less capable in explicit knowledge of sub-lexical items (phonemes, morphemes, and phonological awareness) than implicit skills (syllables). Tu and Su (2011) gathered data from primary school teachers in Tainan of China through a questionnaire, concluding that teachers' beliefs and practices of phonics were consistent, but their research didn't cover the influential factors of phonics teaching.

In practice, Chinese EFL teachers tend to teach phonics without careful plan and continuity, some even misunderstand phonics (Cao, 2017). Given that teachers' insufficient and unsystematic phonics knowledge would produce a negative impact on students (Piasta, et al., 2009; Yi, 2013; Chen, Ja, & Seng, 2020), it is important to explore teachers' phonics preparations for further refinement and pertinence. Teachers' perception is an established term used to describe the personal, invisible aspects of teacher work. Hence, research on phonics cognition should not only state what teachers know and believe, but also examine the impact of invisible factors on what teachers do (Borg, 2003). Target at in-service primary EFL teachers in two programs in Ningxia and Shannxi provinces, China (See Kang & Liang 2018, for details), this paper aims to answer the following two questions:

- 1) What is the status quo of Chinese EFL teachers' perception and practice?
- 2) How is the effect of phonics teaching and what are the influential factors?

III. METHOD

A. Survey and Procedure

1. The Questionnaire

To answer the research questions, a questionnaire (in Chinese) was designed with reference to that of Tu and Su (2011). Section 1 was about participants' general information in the form of single choice and multiple choices; Section 2 contained four constructs: phonics perception (9 items), phonics practice (12 items), phonics teaching effect (6 items), and difficulty of phonics teaching (7 items) in the form of a 5-point Likert-Scale from 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Data were collected through an anonymous online survey hosted on Wenjuanxing (a popular website for questionnaire in China).

2. Pilot Testing

To ensure the quality of the scale, a pilot testing was conducted in June 2020 and a total of 101 questionnaires were returned. According to the data processed by SPSS 24.0, the Cronbach α reached 0.897, greater than 0.8; the KMO value reached 0.753, indicating the structure of the scale was eligible.

3. Data Collection

A formal survey was conducted in July 2020 and a total of 282 questionnaires were returned, including those in the pilot testing. Among them, 69 questionnaires were deleted for insufficient answer time, highly consistent answers or reverse data questions, and 213 valid questionnaires ($n=213$) were finally obtained with an effective retention rate of 73.7%.

4. Data Analysis

SPSS 24.0 was used to analyze the data. Enumeration data were described by frequency and constituent ratio, and measurement data were described by mean \pm standard deviation. Exploratory factor analysis was used to evaluate the construct validity of the scale. Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to evaluate the reliability of the questionnaire, and

the correlation between different variables was analyzed by linear regression.

B. Participants

The majority of participants were in-service primary EFL teachers from Ningxia Hui Autonomous Region and Shannxi province where one of the authors of this paper conducted Phonics-Oriented Training-of-teachers Program and Phonics-oriented Training-of-trainers Program during 2005-2010 (See Kang & Liang, 2018 for details).

Among 213 participants, half of them (50.2%) are 26-35 years old; 82.6% have bachelor's degrees (71.4% major in English); less than half (47%) have over 10-year English teaching experience. Most teachers obtained their first degree in English language (including English education), but a few entered the teaching career from other majors such as Chinese, human resources, information technology, etc. 31.5% teachers work in rural schools, (27.7%) at county, and 28.6% at urban public schools. Most schools (83.6%) start English courses from Grade 3 (8 years old), while a few from Grade 1 (6 years old).

Most participants teach different grades concurrently with workload of 3-4 periods per grade each week. In regards to the textbooks, more than half of schools (56%) use Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press (FLTRP edition), 23.47% People's Education Press (PEP edition), 19.25% the Shaanxi Travel Edition, 4.2% Tsinghua University Press, and some use multiple versions of textbooks. Though some respond they use phonics textbooks, the specific titles are not mentioned.

In terms of phonics training, half of them (50.7%) have received phonics training, among whom, 41.7% received provincial training, 40.7% at county level, 29.6% at districts, and 15.7% at school level. The training time is largely different, but 71.3% lasted 1-2 weeks. Training methods include school-based training (47.2%), amateur training (38.9%), off-the-job training (20.4%) and online Training (26.8%).

TABLE 1
THE PERCENTAGE OF PHONICS TRAINING

	Items	Frequency	Percentage
The frequency of phonics training	A. 0 times	105	49.3
	B. 1~5 times	101	47.4
	C. 6~10 times	4	1.9
	D. more than 10 times	3	1.4
The level of phonics training (optional)	A. Provincial level	45	21.1
	B. District level	32	15.0
	C. Country level	44	20.7
	D. School level	17	8.0
	E. Others	5	2.3
The form of phonics training(optional)	A. Off-the-job training	22	10.3
	B. Amateur	42	19.7
	C. School-based	51	23.9
	D. Online	29	13.6
	E. Others	6	2.8
The duration of phonics training	A.1-2 weeks	77	36.2
	B.3-4 weeks	9	4.2
	C.5-8 weeks	5	2.3
	D.8+ weeks	17	8.0

IV. RESULTS

A. Reliability and Validity of the Questionnaire

1. Exploratory Factor Analysis

The exploratory factor analysis showed that the KMO value was 0.847 and Bartlett's spherical test result $R^2 = 3374.427$ ($P < 0.001$), suitable for factor analysis. Principal component analysis and maximum variation method were used for orthogonal rotation to extract common factors with eigenvalues > 1 . Items that did not meet the following conditions were removed (Wu 2010): the load factor was ≥ 0.40 on each factor; difference between the load factors was ≥ 0.15 on both factors.

After the 1st exploratory factor analysis, a total of 8 common factors were extracted and the cumulative contribution rate of variance was 63.219%. Since the load coefficient of item 28 was < 0.4 , it was deleted consequently. Meanwhile, the eighth factor was deleted for it only contained one item (Item 11). The 2nd factor analysis (KMO=0.849) was performed on the retained 32 items, showing that the cumulative contribution rate of variance was 62.115%, and a total of 7 common factors were extracted. The load coefficient of Item 8 was deleted for it was < 0.40 . A 3rd factor analysis (KMO=0.850) was done on the retained 31 items, and a total of 7 common factors were extracted. As a result, the cumulative contribution rate of variance was 63.293%. The loading of Item 29 was distributed into two common factors, so it was removed from the factor structure. The 4th exploratory factor analysis (KMO=0.850) was done on the retained 30 items, and 7 common factors were extracted. It indicated that the cumulative contribution rate of variance was 64.027%. Normally, each factor should involve at least 3 items, so Item 7 and Item 9 were deleted. The 5th exploratory factor analysis (KMO=0.861) was done on 28 items, and 6 factors were extracted. After the above exploratory factor

analysis, the measurement items contained in the seven common factors were approximately the same as the preliminary set, and the lithotripsy diagram showed that the slope appeared flat after the 6th common factor. The loading coefficient of each item factor was > 0.45 , and the loading range was $0.513 \sim 0.846$.

The KMO value was 0.850, greater than 0.800. After deleting the 6 items “7, 8, 9, 11, 28 and 29”, 6 common factors among the retained 28 items variables remained. As a result, the scale items were all suitable for factor analysis.

2. Analysis of Final Questionnaire Reliability

Generally, Cronbach alpha coefficients > 0.8 in total demonstrated good reliability of the questionnaire. Meanwhile, Cronbach alpha coefficients of each dimension should reach above 0.5. In this study, the total Cronbach α coefficient of the questionnaire was 0.896, and the Cronbach α coefficients of the 6 sub-constructs ranged from 0.685 to 0.898, indicating that the questionnaire had good internal consistency (Table 2).

TABLE 2
CONSTRUCTS OF THE SCALE

Construct	Sub-construct	Items	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Perception	Phonics concept	1,2,3	3	0.685
	Phonics function	4, 5, 6	3	0.817
Practice	Teaching materials	10, 12, 13	3	0.766
	Teaching strategy	14-21	8	0.866
Teaching Effect	Teaching effect	22-27	6	0.898
Teaching difficulty	Teaching difficulty	30-34	5	0.760
Total			28	0.896

B. Descriptive Analysis

Mean and deviation reflect the status quo of teachers' perception and practice of phonics, with smaller scores for all test variables, indicating teachers' greater awareness or mastery of phonics.

1. Teachers' Perception of Phonics Instruction

In Table 3, the score of phonics perception is 1.8247 ± 0.54011 , showing that participants hold positive views about the role of phonics instruction in general. It also shows the majority of teachers understand the function of phonics (1.5055 ± 0.49589), and the significance of decoding and encoding skills through building phonemic awareness. It is surprising that Grapheme-Phoneme Correspondence (GPC) is not strongly agreed by most participants given that GPC is actually the core of phonics.

TABLE 3
TEACHERS' PHONICS PERCEPTION

Phonics perception	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. Phonics is a way to teach letter-sound correspondence.	1	5	1.76	0.805
2. Students will identify new words in primary textbooks automatically with certain letter-sound correspondence.	1	5	2.32	1.016
3. Phonics is a common way to teach reading comprehension.	1	5	2.35	1.092
4. Discrimination of phonemes is helpful for phonics (/g/ and /k/).	1	3	1.49	0.563
5. Phonics is to develop students' decoding skill.	1	3	1.5	0.572
6. Phonics is helpful for encoding skills.	1	4	1.53	0.603
Total	1	3.33	1.8247	0.54011

In terms of different types of GPC (see Table 4), participants prioritize short vowels (89.7%), vowel clusters (85.4%), long vowels ending in e (80.3%), single consonants (76.1%), two consecutive consonants make one sound together (63.8%), and consonant cluster (53.1%). The GPC of the semi-vowel (46.5%) and silent consonants are the least favorable or even ignored by participants (24.4%), possibly because of their low frequency in the primary textbooks. This acts as an indicator that participants select the content of phonics rationally and effectively to avoid wasting time on those less-frequent phonograms (Hua, 2016a).

TABLE 4
TEACHERS' RESPONSE TO DIFFERENT TYPES OF GPC

Types of GPC	Frequency	Percent (%)
Single consonants, such as b, c, d, f, g.	162	76.1
Short vowels, such as a/æ/, e/e/, i/i/, o/o/, u/u/.	191	89.7
Long vowels ending with silent e (a_e, e_e, i_e, o_e, u_e), such as cake.	171	80.3
Consonant cluster, such as br, cl, st, etc.	113	53.1
Vowel clusters, such as -ai, -ay, -ea-, -ee-, -oa-, -ow.	182	85.4
The pronunciation of the semi-vowel y, such as my, by, fly.	99	46.5
Vowels with r, such as ar, er, ir, or, etc.	115	54
Two consecutive consonants make one sound together, such as ch, sh, wh, ph, etc.	136	63.8
Silent consonants, such as m and b together, b is silent.	52	24.4

Note: These are multiple-choice items. The sum is more than 100%.

Similarly, the higher score of Item 3 (2.35 ± 1.092) in Table 3 indicates that some teachers perceive phonics more as a word identification or spelling skill than a reading approach, very different from native English teachers in North America.

2. Teachers' Practice of Phonics

TABLE 5
SEQUENCE OF GPC INSTRUCTION

	Frequency	Percent (%)
letter-sound→letter cluster→word→sentence	167	78.4
word→letter cluster→letter-sound	112	52.6
content and order of ordinary textbooks	74	34.7
letter-name first, then letter-sound	113	53.1
consonants first, then vowels	50	23.5
short vowels (i /i/) first, then long vowels (i /ai/)	69	32.4

Note. These are multiple-choice items. The sum is more than 100%.

Regarding the sequence of teaching phonics (Table 5), participants apply more synthetic phonics (78.4%) than analytical phonics (52.6%), partly because EFL learners have little vocabulary before they learn English at school.

Over half (53.1%) of teachers teach letter-name earlier than letter-sound in the belief that students should be able to differentiate the morpheme of each letter before they learn their sounds. Although researchers recommend teaching consonants and short vowels first, the survey does not favor their view (31.4% and 23.5% respectively). Participants may observe regular routine without sufficient procedural knowledge of phonics to ensure teaching phonic clearly, systematically and orderly.

For phonics practice (See Table 6), the score is 2.3715 ± 0.70411 , which indicates that most participants teach phonics in an unsystematic manner. Teachers' cognition of phonics affects their teaching practice, including how they select and use materials (2.7042 ± 0.98503). The survey shows that the score of "Teaching phonics explicitly with special phonics textbook (Item 10)" is the highest (3.05 ± 1.288), given that schools might not provide specialized teaching materials to students. The rest items also have high scores, revealing that only a few teachers are aware that phonics learning would be better, if combined with GPC rules or high-frequency word in passage.

Considering the teaching strategies (2.0387 ± 0.65728), the most frequent activities are "separating words into syllables (ham-bur-ger)" (Item 15, 1.77 ± 0.794) and "teaching phonics in activities like nurseries and chants" (Item 20, 1.89 ± 0.808), which are in accord with pupils' psychological characteristics and the principle of teaching phonics in fun ways (Hua, 2016b). However, participants seldom teach sound of consonants with positive transfer of L1(Chinese), provide English language input for students' listening and speaking, or assess students' phonics ability through decoding and encoding test (Cao, 2017).

TABLE 6
TEACHERS' PHONICS PRACTICE

Phonics practice	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
10.Teaching phonics explicitly with special phonics textbook	1	5	3.05	1.288
12.Teaching phonics systematically and then practice blending and decoding with high-frequency GPC or words in the textbook	1	5	2.54	1.168
13.Providing short passages with high proportion of GPC, allowing students to apply phonics rules in authentic reading materials	1	5	2.53	1.118
14. Phoneme blending and segment (v, a, n→van; van→v, a, n)	1	5	2.06	0.972
15. Separate words into syllables (ham-bur-ger)	1	5	1.77	0.794
16. Onset-rime discrimination (cat and kid; fan and van)	1	5	1.98	0.924
17. Practice rules in sentences or passages(-at, A fat cat sat on a hat.)	1	5	1.98	0.901
18. Teach sound of consonants with positive transfer of L1(Chinese)	1	5	2.25	1.004
19. Provide English language input for students' listening and speaking	1	5	2.27	0.977
20. Teach phonics in activities (nurseries and chants)	1	5	1.89	0.808
21. Assess students' phonics ability through decoding and encoding test	1	5	2.11	0.912
Phonics practice	1	4.75	2.37	0.704

3. Teaching Effect and Teaching Difficulty

Table 7 presents the unsatisfactory teaching effect with the total score of teaching effect (2.41 ± 0.755), with high score of each item. Among all the teaching difficulties (2.24 ± 0.688), "insufficient reading materials for students to use phonics rules (Item 32)" scored the lowest (1.90 ± 0.857). Thus, it is not surprising that students have difficulties reading texts with decodable words. Similarly, the rest items have no significant influence on phonics instruction. Consequently, phonics teaching lacks consistency and continuity, and teachers may teach phonics unnaturally.

TABLE 7
EFFECT AND DIFFICULTY OF PHONICS TEACHING

Effect and Teaching difficulty	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
22.Decode words with phonics rules	1	5	2.32	0.875
23.Spell words with phonics rules	1	5	2.47	0.924
24.Divide words into syllables (ba-na-na)	1	5	2.26	0.871
25.Discriminate onset-rime(fun and fur, map and cap)	1	5	2.34	0.91
26.Read decodable text	1	5	2.65	1.019
27.Assess one's own phonics ability appropriately	1	5	2.44	0.953
Teaching effect	1	5	2.41	0.755
30. Fast teaching speed	1	5	2.31	0.931
31.Mechanical drills demotivate students	1	5	2.37	1.018
32.Insufficient reading materials for students to use phonics rules	1	5	1.9	0.857
33.Less attention on blending practice	1	5	2.34	0.99
34.Teachers' unsystematic phonics knowledge and skills	1	5	2.3	1.01
Teaching difficulty	1	4	2.24	0.688

C. Variation Analysis

Independent sample T-test and ANOVA indicate that participants' workplace, ages, and teaching ages have no significant difference in their phonics teaching. However, teachers' diverse educational backgrounds have great effect on their teaching strategies and teaching effect ($P < 0.05$). Those with master degrees tend to perform better in phonics teaching (Table 8).

TABLE 8
ONE-WAY ANOVA ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS' ACADEMIC DEGREE

	Associate	Bachelor	Master	F
Teaching strategies	2.813 \pm 0.882	2.721 \pm 1.019	2.222 \pm 0.434	5.701**
Teaching effect	2.773 \pm 0.863	2.377 \pm 0.733	2.194 \pm 0.662	3.644*

* Represents $p < 0.05$, and ** represents $p < 0.01$.

The frequency of teacher training ($P < 0.05$) also influences the selection of teaching materials, phonics teaching and its effect (Table 9). Teachers who received 6~10 times of training, especially off-the-job training (1.7879 ± 0.64689 , $T = 2.162$, $P < 0.05$), perform better in phonics practice.

TABLE 9
ONE-WAY ANOVA ANALYSIS OF THE FREQUENCY OF PHONICS TRAINING

	A. 0	B. 1~5	C. 6~10	D. More than 10 times	F
Teaching effect	2.586 \pm 0.725	2.284 \pm 0.747	1.5 \pm 0.577	1.944 \pm 0.419	5.486**
Teaching material	2.844 \pm 0.941	2.627 \pm 1.001	1.500 \pm 0.577	2.000 \pm 0.577	3.543*
Practice	2.490 \pm 0.67113	2.2974 \pm 0.71651	1.5313 \pm 0.54127	1.8125 \pm 0.34422	4.074**

* Represents $p < 0.05$, and ** represents $p < 0.01$.

D. Linear Regression

There is a statistically significant correlation among teachers' perception, practice and teaching effect ($P < 0.01$, see Table 10). The positive correlation shows that the teaching effect becomes more satisfactory, as teachers better understand phonics and put it into practice. Given that not all the factors are equally significant, linear regression was conducted for further analysis.

TABLE 10
PEARSON CORRELATION MATRIX

	Phonics concept	Phonics function	Teaching material	Teaching strategy	Teaching effect
Phonics concept	1				
Phonics function	.439**	1			
Teaching material	.171*	0.106	1		
Teaching strategy	.280**	.418**	.449**	1	
Teaching effect	.292**	.271**	.522**	.604**	1

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The linear regression reaches $R^2 = 0.463 > 0.4$, showing that the results of this operation truly reflect the impact of teachers' knowledge and phonics practice on its teaching effect. There is no multicollinearity among the six independent variables. The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) is all less than 5, and the regression equation was significant. With $F = 29.556$, and $P < 0.001$, it means that at least one of the five independent variables significantly affects the dependent variable, teaching effect. Table 10 shows that teachers' usage of teaching materials ($\beta = 0.298 > 0$, $P < 0.05$),

and phonics teaching strategies and activities ($\beta = 0.423$, $P < 0.05$) significantly affect the teaching effect; while phonics concept ($P = 0.112 > 0.05$), phonics function ($P = 0.867 > 0.05$), and teaching difficulty ($P = 0.516 > 0.05$) do not significantly affect the teaching effect. Finally, the following regression equation is derived between variables:

$$\text{Teaching effect} = 0.390 + 0.228 * \text{teaching materials} + 0.485 * \text{teaching strategies}$$

V. DISCUSSION

A. The EFL Teachers' Overall Improvement Predicts Better Phonics Teaching Quality

EFL teaching in China has varied greatly from over a decade ago when the phonics programs were conducted in the two provinces, in aspect of numbers, scale, educational backgrounds, as reflected in the great changes of participants. Most participants entered English teaching profession at younger age after formal college education, implying that they are well-prepared with systematic knowledge of English content and pedagogies. It is noted that a small number of participants entered English teaching profession from non-English sources but with English teaching certificates. This group of teachers increase the diversity in English teaching, and face greater challenges as well in terms of pedagogical knowledge and child development theories, since they receive no teacher education at college. In regards to phonics, a specific domain, they have insufficient knowledge and strategy. Hence, to teach phonics effectively, they need more systematic knowledge and guidance.

B. Phonics Is More Perceived as a Word-Attack Skill Due to EFL Learners' Actual Needs

The participants usually use phonics to teach phonetics and word recognition via separate encoding and decoding, other than put them in meaningful reading, very different from primary schoolteachers in English-speaking countries (James, et al, 2018). Two reasons might account for this phenomenon. One is that teachers adapt this "borrowed" method in appropriate way to meet EFL learners' actual needs, namely, pronunciation and vocabulary. The other is that teachers have little systematic phonics knowledge and teaching strategies. That is, they don't have the whole picture of phonics in their mind, but some useful pieces. Therefore, they tend to favour the rules or principles that support their teaching selectively. It is good to select the content based on students' needs, but it is more vital to build up a whole picture first and then make selections, rationally and practically.

C. Appropriate Selection of Teaching Material Is Key to Effective Phonics Instruction

Phonics practice is greatly affected by the phonics content and design of different textbooks. However, phonics knowledge is deficient in most ordinary textbooks (Zhang, 2016), for example, two commonly used textbooks in the surveyed provinces. FLTPR version provides basic GPC rules and exercises, yet it is far away from sufficiency (Xie, 2012). PEP version includes a section of Let's Spell with phonetic knowledge in each unit, however, its phonics exercises are fewer and monotonous, which is not conducive to students' interest in learning phonics (Chen, 2018).

Given that most primary teachers are accustomed of "teaching the textbook", it is not easy for them to integrate additional phonics knowledge into textbooks. Consequently, they teach phonics randomly and implicitly without specific plans. Though they make great efforts to teach high-frequency GPC within limited class periods, they are less capable in designing authentic and meaningful reading activities. Their improper and mechanical drills may demotivate students from learning phonics. As teachers provide less reading materials, it is not surprising that students have difficulties reading texts with decodable words. Thus, it is necessary to advocate teachers or local institution to design teaching materials with systematic phonics knowledge.

D. Optimal Teaching Strategies Will Improve the Effect of Teaching

The results demonstrate that appropriate teaching strategies will greatly influence the teaching effect, among which, using English as teaching language is quite important. However, some teachers are unable to make it due to improper teacher talk. Before they entered the profession, they have learned complex language as advanced learners at college. So, when they teach beginning learners, they need to adapt their language input to suit learners' needs, allowing learners more opportunities to listen and distinguish, spell and write phonemes, and practice more to improve their spelling ability.

Thus, teachers need to optimize their strategies to improve teaching effect. For example, they can integrate phonics into such interesting activities as chanting and singing, since they are more in line with pupils' characteristics of learning for fun. Also, it is suggested that student use Chinese Pinyin to memory English words and learn sounds of consonants, transferring their L1 learning ability to L2 phonics rules through comparison (Shang, 2015).

E. Appropriate Phonics Training Is the Key to Successful Phonics Teaching

The result shown in Table 10 seems to break the stereotype (DeMonte, 2013) that teacher training is an effective way to improve teaching. Several reasons may account for this result.

Firstly, previous phonics training program might not meet teachers' demands. With unclear purpose, duplicate content, and insufficient guidance, teachers might flog a dead horse, failing to build up systematic phonics (Ehri & Flugman, 2018). Secondly, developing and integrating new strategies into daily teaching, often referred to as deliberate practice (Hambrick, et al., 2014), require considerable time to become routine. Besides, the integration of new strategies

might result in deterioration of performance until higher levels of competence are reached (Breckwoldt, et al., 2014). As a consequence, the training may lead to detrimental effects during an intermediate time (Britten, 1988), and teachers may have no idea how to rectify their instruction. Thirdly, unlike English-speaking countries where there are “phonics screening” to evaluate learners’ outcomes, there’s no such guideline for EFL teachers in China to assess students. Finally, the upgrade of teaching concepts may cause teachers’ impatience or job burnout sense (CERA, 2021), as it is less challenging to imitate how to be a teacher based on their learning experience (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2011).

Therefore, to popularize phonics, joint-efforts should be made toward effective training that combines phonics theory and practice (Xu, 2014), thus directing schools on how to teach word reading (Flynn, et al., 2020). For instance, guide teachers to make micro-courses about phonics teaching or use online phonics games to motivate students (Hou, 2019). In addition, higher institutions are suggested to set up a phonics course to provide pre-service EFL teachers with systematic phonics knowledge.

VI. CONCLUSION

In sum, this study reveals that appropriate use of teaching material and teaching strategy would predict good teaching effect. To achieve this goal, Chinese EFL teachers need professional support from well-designed training programs. The scale in the study shows high reliability and validity, yet its construction validity was tested only once and needs further testing. Further study would combine data from class observation and teacher interview, to explore how teachers apply phonics knowledge and strategy for better teaching effect.

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On Linguistic Landscape in Language Service at Da Li Ancient City, China

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Abstract—This study aims to research the language service of the linguistic landscape in Da Li ancient city, China. In order to achieve research goal, the research questions are put forward. (1) What kind of language service does the linguistic landscape provide in the study area? (2) How does the linguistic landscape provide the language service in the study area? The data sources are collected from most densely populated places with large population flow and the uncertain source of the people to make the study more reliability and validity. The methods of data collection mainly are observation and interview. The techniques of data analysis combined descriptive quantitative and qualitative analysis. The result showed that the linguistic landscape in Da Li mainly belongs to the text service, which took the language written on public signs as a carrier to implement language service. The linguistic landscape in the study area provides double-sided language service to both sign owners and readers.

Index Terms—language service, linguistic landscape, language economics, Da Li ancient city

I. INTRODUCTION

In a commercialized society, as a special commodity, language is endowed with certain economic value while carrying culture and transmitting information, thus forming a language industry. In addition to economic value, the language industry also has social value, which is mainly reflected in "serving language life and assisting language policy" (Ripei Zhang, 2018). The language industry provides language products and language services for people. In a narrow sense, they refer to language textbooks, audio products, language training and language translation services. With the development of language industry, the conceptual scope of language products and language services has broadened.

Language product forms that take language as the core element or dominant element to meet certain needs, including language publishing, language training, language translation, language testing, language information processing, language arts, language rehabilitation, language exhibitions, etc (Latupeirissa et al., 2019). Products are classified as language products (Yan Li, 2017). Language services have also broadened the scope of definition. In a broad sense, language services refer to services that use language (including text), language knowledge, language art, language technology, language standards, language data, language products and other language derivatives to meet the needs of the government, society, families, and individuals (Yuming Li, 2014; Dan & Sepevany, 2020).

This research takes the linguistic landscape from center area of Da Li ancient city tourist attractions, China as the investigation object. Based on the language service theory, a theoretical framework is proposed to deeply explore the language service consciousness on public signs in tourist attractions by emphasizing the tool effectiveness and economic effectiveness of the language landscape.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As early as 1986, the Chinese Language and Writing Conference mentioned that it is necessary to strengthen the basic and applied research of language, and do a good job in social surveys and social consultation and service. This can be regarded as China's first request for language work from the perspective of language service. At that time, the definition of the concept of language service has been limited to only language training and language translation service. With the growing awareness of interdisciplinary research and the in-depth development of linguistic research itself, it is not until the last decade that Chinese scholars have gradually broadened the scope of language service

research. Yuming Li first proposed a specific language service concept in 2010, and then Shaobing Qu also sorted out and thought about language service issues and achieved certain research results.

Raymond Boudon's (2008) "good-reasons" explains the public's behavior. The main contribution to contemporary methodological debates is his definition of methodological individualism as logic of explanation. In his opinion, social phenomena must be explained in terms of intentional and particularly unintentional consequences of the aggregation of human actions dictated by "good reasons". Boudon's approach can be divided into two complementary stages: the explanation of action, and the explanation of its consequences. The relevance is that it studied the behavior by linguistic landscape research and took the public needs into consideration. He mainly explained the people's behavior which is a different and new perspective to study linguistic landscape. However he ignored to take the consideration of language policy or the binding force of the official regulation or maybe economic factor, which all could have an influence on the behavior.

Spolsky, B. (2009) argues that linguistic landscape is a valuable tool for exploring and embodying urban multilingual ecology and for studying language choices. He believes written language is more suitable for communication in public area than spoken language. He mainly introduced the use of advertising language in public places. The range of linguistic landscape in the study of Spolsky, B. (2009) is much broader than the general understanding. He enriched the scope of linguistic landscape research but the theoretical explanation is not sufficient because the whole article mainly focuses on language management rather than outdoor media. The relevance with this study is that it emphasizes on the language choice on linguistic landscape, which mentioned as code preference in this study. The strength is that he explained the multilingual was the representative of urban language ecology demonstrated a more important role for linguistic landscape research. However he ignored to explore the economic function of language on the public signs, which is also an important part for the study.

E. Shohamy and D. Gorter (2009) take a different approach to the study of the linguistic landscape by applying one of the methods used in the economic study of biodiversity. This approach does not go against other approaches taken so far but it is an additional contribution to understanding the nature of language signs. The economic approach focuses on the market and non-market value of the linguistic landscape. According to the research, they boldly speculate that another possibility for future research is to ask different groups of people about their willingness to pay for the use of specific languages in the linguistic landscape or for maintaining and promoting linguistic diversity. E. Shohamy & D. Gorter is the first who attempt to define the non-market value of the linguistic landscape in the study of LL. It's not like Claus (2002) does in the research of LL with the market value by looking at the number of exposures, the value of the location and the revenues of language signs in the linguistic landscape. The measurement of the non-market value is made by looking at the use and non-use value of the language signs. However, this method is still in the primary stage and there isn't a lot of empirical research, so the stability and universality remains to be seen.

Elana Shohamy, Eliezer Ben-Rafael, Monica Barni (2010) used sociological related theories to study linguistic landscape. Ben-Rafael sums up the four principles of language construction, namely the "presentation of self" first proposed by Goffman. The relevance with this study is Ben-Rafael and Shohamy used linguistic landscape theory to explain the overall language distribution of the place and the local language distribution of each study and top-down, in the linguistic landscape as a symbolic construction of the Israeli public space, which is used also in this paper in studying the tool function of linguistic landscape in Da Li. The strength was Shohamy analyzed social life from the perspective of actors using their established words to show others their favorable image. And in the textual framework of Ben-Rafael the linguistic order phenomenon with unofficial logos. The characteristics of language are used in the linguistic landscape in the bottom-up and different active areas. The weakness is their study paid much attention on tool and meaning function of urban settings, which lack consider the economic function of linguistic landscape. They aspire to delve into linguistic landscape beyond its appearance as a jungle of jumbled and irregular items by focusing on the variations in linguistic landscape configurations and recognizing that it is but one more field of the shaping of social reality under diverse, uncoordinated and possibly incongruent structuration principles.

Shaobing Qu (2016) defined the concept of language service. Language service can be divided into different sections such as text, voice, vocabulary, and grammar. Each section can be independently associated with language service. This association can occur at various levels and links of language service from planning to practice. For the reference, it provides the general theory to this study and the language service is a comprehensive concept including any service aspects language-related. However, this study as a research on linguistic landscape can broaden the scope of application of language service theory, and provide new perspectives and ideas for linguistic landscape research.

During last ten years linguistic landscape research has developed quite significantly with the efforts of linguists and scholars. Signage in the public space was at first investigated as a curiosity, later as an additional perspective in other studies. Gradually researchers started to explore issues specifically related to the LL. The emerging methodological issues led to the development of some sort of methodology for the field (Chrismi-Rinda Loth, 2016). Although there is no unified research standard in the academia on stipulating how to conduct a linguistic landscape survey in a certain area. However, at least some consensus has been reached in academia.

In recent years, besides studying the language structure, multilingual situation, language translation of public signs, and the use of minority languages, the linguistic landscape itself, and many Chinese scholars have paid more attention to the economic function, service function, and social function of the linguistic landscape. These research results enrich

the functionality of linguistic landscape research, broaden the boundaries of linguistic landscape research, and provide more theoretical support and available data for related research but almost no one mentioned to study the linguistic landscape with the perspective of language service. Therefore, applying language service theory provides linguistic landscape research a new way.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research mainly adopts quantitative and qualitative combined method to study the language service effectiveness system. Quantitative analysis mainly studies the linguistic landscapes been collected in the study area and qualitative analysis is mainly used in interview research. Qualitative research aims to introduce the original intention of language service providers to make language signs in the language environment.

A. Sample and Participants

The sampling area are located in densely populated places with the biggest feature of the area is the large population flow, the source of these people is uncertain, and signs of high density can usually be found there. Based on these characteristics, the linguistic landscape of these regions must be more representative, and research based on data collection must be more convincing. The participants are the linguistic landscape users in the research area. This study obtains permission to interview 136 public signs owners, including 5 official managers and 131 shop owners. Record and analyze the content of interviews to examine the tool effectiveness and economic effectiveness of language service. In order to collect a more comprehensive and extensive opinions, this study does not distinguish the participants' identity, gender, age, nationality, etc.

B. Instruments

The equipment used in this study is a digital camera and a digital voice recorder. The data of this study is photos and recordings of interview. The quantitative analysis mainly studies the photos and the qualitative analysis is the study of interviews.

C. Data collection and Analysis

The data collecting of this study is not confined to any particular type of signs. In order to get the diversity of linguistic landscape, a wide range of signs are selected rather than a specific sign, which would enhance the reliability. Backhaus (2007) also supports this point of view, as he stated that: If we only focus on one kind of sign, we cannot get the characteristic of the whole city. The method of data collecting is the comprehensive photographing of signs in various shops, hotels restaurants at the streets of survey area.

In order to understand the type of language service and the way linguistic landscape proving in the study area, the data analysis is carried out under the framework of language service theory. Quantitative analysis began by calculating the ratio of different types of signs in the survey area. The functions of the language service are carried out, which is a qualitative analysis and includes the research method of language economics. In the last, according to the observation and interview the research questions are answered. If there is any problem or advantage, it would also put forward into discussion.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

After delineating the scope of data collection, a digital camera is used to photograph and record all public signs in the area, and a total of 1722 linguistic landscapes were counted. According to the classification methods commonly used in linguistic landscape research, the collected samples can be divided into official signs (top-down) and private signs (bottom-up).

In this research, a special type of sign is also found to be a combination which is private signs set up on official signs. This is special because it belongs to the government, but the theme and code preference is private.

TABLE 1
CLASSIFICATION AND QUANTITY STATISTICS

Linguistic landscape	Amount
Top-down	235
Bottom-up	1185
Combined	302

(1) A total of 235 official signs are counted, which refer to signs of an official nature established by the government, such as street signs, street names, building names, etc., which are also often called top-down signs. Since the creators of such signs are generally organizations that implement local or central policies, the language of signs represents the government's position and behaviour.

(2) A total of 1185 private signs are counted. They are signs set up by private individuals or companies for commercial or information introduction, such as store names, billboards, posters, etc., which are usually called bottom-

up signs or unofficial signs. Since private sign is subject to relatively few restrictions and language usage is relatively free, it can more truly reflect the social language composition of a region.

(3) There are a total of 302 official and private combined signs. The official selects the location and presentation method of the sign, and private individuals apply for the use or rent it to provide language service. This form appears in the location of trash cans and road signs in the tourist area, which combines the unity of official signs and the diversity of private signs.



Photo 1. Combined sign



Photo 2. Official sign

Linguistic landscape research mainly studies the symbols (both language and non-verbal resources) used on public signs. And the language service theory believes all the services provide by language must including two parts the tool effectiveness and the economic effectiveness. As language itself is a communication instrument, the tool effectiveness is the fundamental of language service and all of the services could create benefits the economic effectiveness is the purpose of language service.

A. Tool Effectiveness of Linguistic Landscape

Basically, linguistic landscape is one of the easiest and most effective ways of spreading because it's text-based and not restricted by time and space for information dissemination. The diversity of information gives different communication functions to the linguistic landscape, thereby providing language service based on different purposes. The tool effectiveness of linguistic landscape is mainly reflected in the following three points: 1. A tool of information transmission. 2. A tool of interpersonal interaction. 3. A tool of cultural display.

1. Information Transmission

The public signs always combine the needs of the target audience and sign owners based on different construction principles to form a proprietary industry language. If a sign wants to find the best balance between the target audience and its own purpose, it must choose the language used, which is the first problem for sign owners to solve. Introducing services and providing information are also the most important and intuitive functions of signs.

The official sign provides a non-profit information service. By interviewing the official sign managers, it can be seen that the language orientation of this type mainly considers the service object. Signs set up for the purpose of serving tourists who visit Da Li are generally at least bilingual (Chinese and English). Signs serving local residents use monolingual, with more eye-catching and meaningful pictures to enrich the information expression of the signs. All official signs present the signs of cities and scenic spots in different ways, in order to realize the branding of the city, which can leave a deep impression on people and create a unique city image.

For the private sign owners, regardless of the type the owner regards the sign of their stores as a tool to promote the store and attract customers. Nevertheless, due to the strong subjectivity of private sign language code selection, there are different manifestations of information. The first commonly used on the signs are brand logos which serve the shop owners to promote the brand, then the service information serve the sign readers to find the service they are looking for, last the photo or phone numbers for the purpose of providing the eye-catching service. The combined sign has the "appearance" of the official sign and the "content" of the private sign. The emplacement and inscription are inclined to be as same as official sign but the code preference are more likely consistent with private sign.

2. Interpersonal Interaction

The interactivity is the process of realizing the interaction and connection between the subject and the object based on psychology and physics. The service object of private sign is consumers, and the purpose is to realize direct communication with consumers through the presentation of language, thereby promoting consumption, which is completely consistent with the object and purpose of commercial advertising services. However, the service target and purpose of official sign may not be like that, because some official signs have the nature of voluntary service, such as road name signs and bus stop signs; some official signs are set up for non-profit purposes, such as public service billboards, etc. Therefore, more attention is paid to the accuracy and authority of information, and the interactivity of

language is relatively less. There are also some indication signs that are officially set up to serve as reminders, warnings, prohibitions, and help functions. The choice of language codes for these signs is relatively more interactive.



Photo 3. Interactive signs with “you, I, my, etc.” instead of the objective codes

Most of the interactive signs are official signs (public service billboards) and part of combined signs, and the private signs account for the smallest proportion. According to the interview records, the sign users mainly choose the language by determining the purpose of sign service, and carry out the overall design. Signs mainly serving information transmission are generally not interactive. The purpose of general service of interactive signs is to guide readers to conduct personal norms or provide audio-visual services. The audio-visual services include introductions to scenic spots, cultural introductions, etc., which are spread to readers in the form of voice, video or pictures. This new type of service provided by linguistic landscape is due to the popularity and application of QR codes.

3. Culture Display

It is found that the linguistic landscape in the study area also used as cultural expressions and it can be divided into three types after analyzing the recording of interviews with sign owners.

(1) Cultural identity. It refers to the affirmation of the most significant things of the nation formed by people living together for a long time in a national community. The core is the identity of the basic values of a nation. It is the spiritual bond that unites this national community and the spiritual foundation for the continuation of the life of this national community. Cultural identity is an important foundation of national identity and it is the deepest foundation.

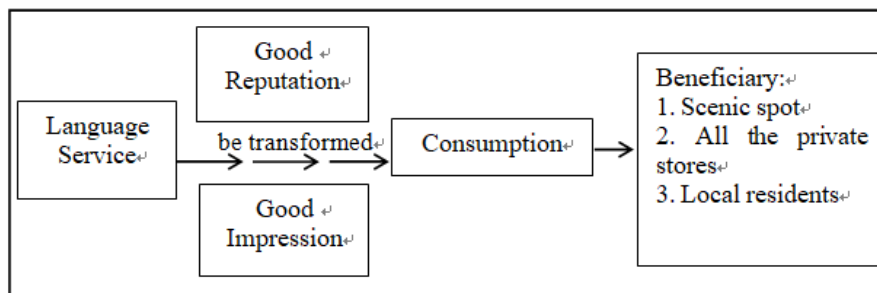
(2) National aesthetics. It refers to the unique structure of a nation's aesthetic taste, aesthetic ability, and aesthetic ideals that distinguish it from other nations. Due to factors such as specific living conditions, lifestyle, natural environment and ancestry inheritance, all classes, groups and individuals of a nation have a common and relatively stable aesthetic consciousness and national character. This commonality is often presented in the aesthetic practice of ethnic members as the overall function of the system. In the linguistic landscape, the font size, code preference, the material of the sign, and the brightness of the color tone on the signs all directly or laterally reflect the aesthetic characteristics of the local peoples.

(3) Regional image. It refers to the overall impression and overall evaluation of a region in the minds of the public. Linguistic landscape is a manifestation of soft image. The language, code sequence, and representative regional logo appearing on the signs are all cultural symbols that display the regional image.

B. Economic Effectiveness of Linguistic Landscape

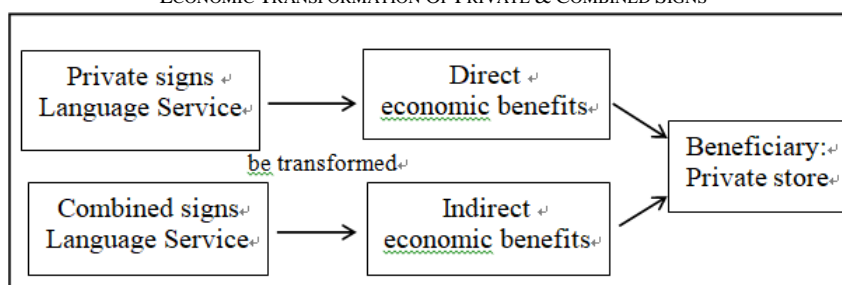
All the linguistic landscape can produce certain economic effects, but the process and methods of converting language service into economic benefits are different. The official sign does not aim at profit gains, but during its language service, it has a wide range of influences, thereby indirectly and laterally promoting economic. Such economic benefits may not be immediate, and the beneficiaries are not the government that set up language signs, but may be shops or residents in this area. The good reputation of this city brought by the linguistic landscape is also a kind of economic benefit in disguise, and it is sustainable. The specific performance can be represented by the following:

TABLE 2
ECONOMIC TRANSFORMATION OF OFFICIAL SIGNS



Different from the economic transformation process of the official signs, the private signs and combined signs are essentially realize economic benefits through the information transmitted on the public signs. Private signs have direct economic benefits due to the advantages of placement context, while combined signs help owners achieve economic benefits in an indirect way. The specific performance is shown below:

TABLE 3
ECONOMIC TRANSFORMATION OF PRIVATE & COMBINED SIGNS



It is clear that the economic beneficiaries of official signs are not the government itself, and such signs are not established for the purpose of economic gain. Due to the limitation of the placement context, the combined signs cannot achieve direct economic benefits, and can only be used as one of the influencing factors to achieve economic behavior. Therefore, it is not included in the scope of discussion. The following analyzes the economic effectiveness of the language signs from the costs and benefits, supply and demand, efficiency and fairness of language signs.

1. Costs and Benefits

For any language-related investment, maximizing returns and minimizing costs are the goals pursued by investors. The language of the official signs in Da Li is mainly Chinese, with English, Japanese, and Korean. This government behavior demonstrates the official language could of official signs, and the purpose of language selection is to strengthen the dominant position and discourse power of the country's dominant language.

Private signs are mostly for the purpose of economic efficiency in terms of language selection: merchants use one or several languages on the signs to convey product or service information to attract customers to consume and obtain economic benefits. Da Li has clear sign specifications in the design of private signs, emphasizing the color and size. This mandatory policy reduces the autonomy of enterprises and stores in sign selection. Private owners who ignore this policy may incur penalties from the regulatory authorities and damage their own interests, which will invisibly increase the investment costs.

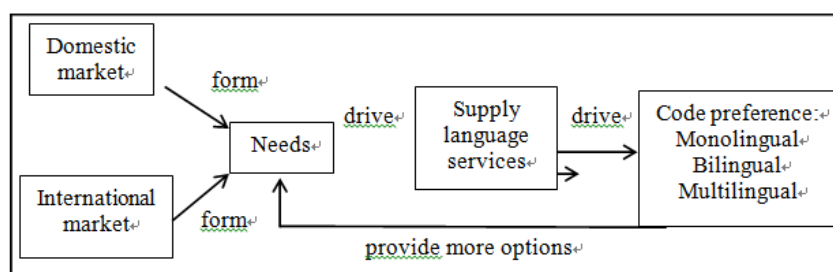
Nevertheless, the government adopts an implicit signage policy in terms of language selection, and does not intervene in the language selection on signs of enterprises and stores. The private sign owners have full autonomy in the deployment of language resources, which is conducive to businessmen's realization of economic benefits and non-economic goals (Such as emotional needs, identity recognition, etc.) through language selection and creativity, and provides a guarantee for businesses to pursue maximum benefits. And the government has also adopted encouraging economic intervention, and given certain economic subsidies to merchants who use the sign in a uniform style according to regulations and requirements. This intervention also dazzled the study area, and the various private signs that do not match the theme of "Ancient City" formed a unified style. It brings consumers a more comfortable and more appropriate sightseeing experience, thereby promoting tourism consumption in the city, realizing the purpose of language services, and obtaining certain economic benefits at the same time.

The establishment of combined signs must first be applied by private shops to the city management department, after approved, and then paid for a certain service fee and sign production fee before it can be put into use. Relatively speaking, the cost is higher, but the audience's radiation surface is wider than that of private signs that only appear in shops.

2. Supply and Demand

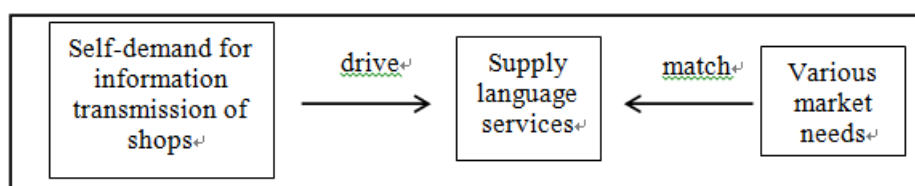
In order to cater to the international market, the official signs of Da Li linguistic landscape tend to adopt at least bilingual supply in Chinese and English to enhance the competitiveness of the city. Some signs of special service demand also adopt the supply of Chinese, English, Japanese, and Korean. However, Chinese has an absolute advantage, and the writing of Chinese characters uses modern standard simplified characters. This multilingual supply mode is typically set up driven by consumer demand, especially Japanese and Korean can be selected as the code displayed on official signs among many foreign languages. It is also calculated by the government based on the big data on the number of foreign tourists in the past ten years. For government departments, the ratio of supply cost to utility is acceptable within a certain range. Demand drives supply, and supply provides more options for demand. The specific performance is shown below:

TABLE 4
LANGUAGE SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF OFFICIAL SIGNS



Compared to the official sign demand-oriented language service supply consciousness, in terms of private sign, the supply of language is slightly monotonous. The main reason is that the language of private shops is not oriented by market demand, but from the perspective of the needs of the merchants to transmit information. Through interviews, many shop owners believe that signage is one of the ways to promote products and provide service information, not the only way. Consumers can get the necessary product information through the open space environment of the store or the audio and video advertisements played in a loop by the store. They believe that no matter what language uses, it cannot fully meet the needs and choices of all consumers with different purposes and backgrounds. Using sign as a tool to assist shops in introducing products or services can instead attract consumers with corresponding consumer willingness. The specific performance is shown below:

TABLE 5
LANGUAGE SUPPLY AND DEMAND OF PRIVATE SIGN AND COMBINED SIGN



3. Efficiency and Fairness

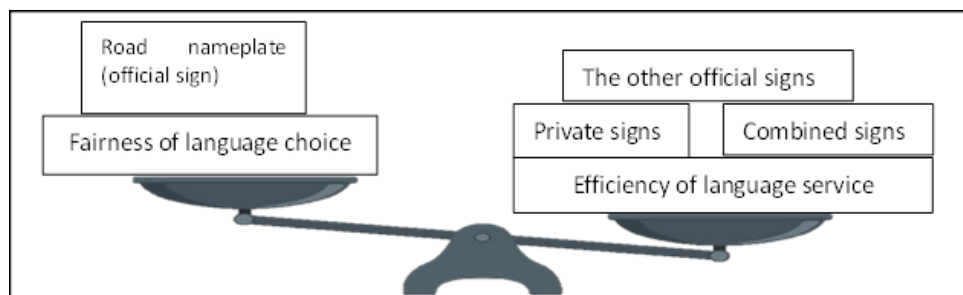
On the official signs of the tourist attractions in Da Li Ancient City, especially the road signs with the highest concentration of multilingual phenomena, for fairness, both Chinese and foreign languages appear together at the same time. In order to reflect the efficiency of language services, two boards are used to indicate the four Languages. Although Chinese has a certain code priority on one of the signs, the foreign language on the other sign also enjoys the same priority as Chinese. This approach is to achieve the efficiency of language services while ensuring fairness as much as possible. However, due to the cost, this fairness is also limited. It does not cover all the official signs and has not been adopted in signs for other language service purposes.

Using a country's dominant language or a combination of "national language or official language + service target language" can meet the needs of most people. Although this is unfair for minority language users, it is an efficient choice. In addition, even if several languages are placed side by side, the arrangement of languages will reflect the difference in order of importance according to the relationship of power. It can be seen that, like language power, complete equality is difficult to achieve in the construction of linguistic landscape. In the construction of private signs, most signs are at least bilingual.

However, it is not difficult to find that the status of Chinese and English languages on many signs can be described by the disparity. Due to the relevant laws and regulations and the physical environment of these linguistic landscapes, the power relationship and code order of Chinese are in the most conspicuous position in most cases, while English is like an embellishment and foil, in a marginal and inconspicuous position. Some don't even have pictures or logos that

are clearly positioned. This also reflects that in order to ensure efficiency, the private signs in the city cannot fully take into account fairness. Combined signs are based on the requirements of official signs, while taking into account the information transmission of private signs. Generally speaking, efficiency is more important than fairness. The performance is shown below:

TABLE 6
COMPARISON OF EFFICIENCY AND FAIRNESS OF LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE IN DA LI



It is worth discussing that the service value of non-verbal resources should not be ignored. Sometimes they act more roles than language itself in language service of linguistic landscape. During the study, QR code and city logos are found in the official signs and combined signs, which provide convenient information accessing and formed a unique city image. The color used on both the signs and languages is also a special cultural symbol which better publicized the local cultural characteristics.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the language service theory, the tool effectiveness and economic effectiveness of linguistic landscape in Da Li ancient city tourist attractions are studied and concluded as below. (1) According to the language form and characteristics, language service theory believes the language resources are composed by text, phonetics, vocabulary, and grammar. For the service of linguistic landscape in Da Li, it mainly belongs to the text service, which took the text or language written on public signs as a carrier to implement language service.

The dominant language is Chinese because of the Law of the People's Republic of China on the National Standard Language (2003) and Signboard Advertising Plan for Upgrading and Renovating Storefronts in Dali Ancient City (2018). English is used as a second language on any signs (official, private or combined) is also stipulated by the local regulations. The local government is in the hope of creating Da Li as an internationalization and regionalization tourist destination. Although the sign owners and governors had the language service awareness in the construction of public sign, in the way of realization there are still many details worth noting. The wide use of Chinese and English is also out of economic considerations.

(2) The linguistic landscape in the study area provides double-sided language service to both sign owners and readers. On one hand, it provides information to the readers who are in need of the corresponding service. On the other hand, it provides economic profits to the sign owners whose ultimate purpose is to achieve profitability. The choice of colour, style, material and language of official signs provides service from a more far-sighted and overall perspective. However, the private signs and combined signs are mainly for personal economic interests, but complying with government and official regulations is the premise.

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Correlation Between English Major Sophomores' Critical Thinking Disposition and Their Listening Comprehension Performance*

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Abstract—Critical thinking has drawn the attention of western researchers and domestic researchers as well. The study aims to explore whether there exists correlation between sophomore English majors' critical thinking disposition and their listening comprehension performance, and any significant difference between critical thinking disposition and listening comprehension performance in different proficiency levels. Based on the analysis of the data collected from listening comprehension tests and critical thinking disposition questionnaire, the following findings are obtained: 1) there exists significant correlation between participants' critical thinking disposition and their listening comprehension performance in general, with truth-seeking, analyticity and systematicity at the significant level of 0.01 and inquisitiveness, maturity, self-confidence and open-mindedness at the level of 0.05 in particular; 2) critical thinking disposition is significantly correlated with conversations and news broadcasts at the level of 0.01, and with passages at the level of 0.05.; 3) there also exist differences between critical thinking disposition and listening comprehension performance at different proficiency levels, with the correlations stronger in higher groups than those of lower groups. This study indicates that English major sophomores' critical thinking needs fostering, and there is a necessity to utilize different types of listening materials to cultivate their critical thinking dispositions.

Index Terms—critical thinking disposition, English listening comprehension performance, correlation

I. INTRODUCTION

With the explosion of information nowadays, how to judge the information authenticity, analyze the information effectiveness, evaluate the information, and finally to adopt and discard the information, has been the main problem facing human beings. Critical Thinking ability is an answer to the problem.

Given this status quo, the cultivation of critical thinking has become a main purpose and feature of higher education in the field of talents cultivation at home and abroad. In fact, for the past three decades or more, the Critical Thinking movement has become an upsurge in the higher education in the United States, Britain, Canada and other countries. The interrelationship between Critical Thinking and logic, education, medical care, foreign language teaching and psychology as well as the influencing factors of Critical Thinking and its cultivation approaches have appealed to the domestic scholars.

Specifically, in the 1990s, scholars have paid close attention to the development of foreign language students' critical thinking ability. Huang Yuanshen (1998) first applied the term "dialectic absence" to describe English majors, such as lack of analysis, synthesis, judgment, reasoning, thinking and analysis abilities. He et al. (1999) also clearly pointed out that the ability to analyze the problems and provide independent advices is a long-term problem for English majors. Hence, according to Teaching Syllabus for English Majors, universities will no longer teach students what to think but to teach students how to think. However, a large number of studies (He et al., 1999; Li, 2010; Ma, 2011; Luo, 2000; Huang, 2010, etc.) have shown that, English majors' Critical Thinking ability is relatively inadequate. Some scholars condemn the restrictions of English professional skill training courses on the cultivation of critical thinking, while some others attempted different approaches to solve the problem, like applying different teaching methods in the instruction of English reading, English writing, English speaking, English debate and translation. However, researchers rarely involved English listening teaching and its relationship with critical thinking.

Following the critical thinking affective dispositions of Delphi Report (1990), the present study endeavors to find the correlation between critical thinking disposition and listening comprehension performance in general, critical thinking disposition subscales and different listening comprehension item types, and critical thinking disposition and students with different listening comprehension proficiency levels in particular.

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II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Critical Thinking Definitions

John Dewey defined critical thinking in 1933, but critical thinking did not draw scholars' attention until the 1980s, because of hot debates about the future direction of education (Facione, 1992). Although more and more researches have been carried out in this field, consensus on the definition of critical thinking remains elusive.

Ennis (1987) viewed critical thinking as a reasonable thinking and reflection process which mainly concentrate on the decision and behavior with underlying belief. McPeck (1981) contended that the essence of critical thinking is "an aptness and skill involved in an activity with reflective skepticism". Paul et al (2005) viewed it as a reflection upon your own thinking process because you're thinking how to make your thinking better which allows a thinker to move beyond the separate analysis to comprehend the issue from the different perspectives and handle the problem on the whole. Paul and Elder (2005) holds the belief that critical thinking is self-disciplined, self-guided thinking which attempts to judge and reason at the highest level of thinking in a fair-minded way. Halpern (1997, p.4) defined critical thinking as "the formation of logical inferences and a mental activity useful for a particular cognitive task".

In many definitions, critical thinking is characterized by various skills such as interpretation, analysis and ability to integrate. Critical thinking is not just about having the right skills, there is also a need to recognize the attitudes or dispositions involved when using critical thinking skills. Disposition is about recognizing that a particular skill is needed and a willingness to exert the mental effort needed to apply it (Halpern, 1997).

In order to explore critical thinking thoroughly, Facione (1990) employed a powerful qualitative research methodology known as Delphi Report to develop the theoretical framework which is used in this study. In his report, they elaborate a good thinker as "habitually inquisitive, well-formed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, willing to consider, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection of criteria, focused on inquiry" (Facione, 1990, p.3). His report firstly added the affective dispositions into critical thinking to perfect it and considered that a good thinker should possess these affective dispositions.

So after reviewing the definitions mentioned above, one of the most widely accepted definitions has been adopted by the researcher for further study, which is provided by Facione (1990) as the working definition of this study.

B. Structural Models and Contents of Critical Thinking

Definitions of critical thinking don't only refer to what it is, but its contents and subscales. In order to define its subscales, Ennis, Delphi team, Paul and Elder proposed three structural models to interpret the subscales of critical thinking.

Ennis (1987) previously considered that critical thinking ability only refers to a series of skills which are logical induction oriented. Since this opinion is questioned by other researchers, in 1990, Ennis also took critical thinking Dispositions into the content of critical thinking. But FRISCO Model still mainly focused on the critical thinking skills, including six subscales: focus, reasons, inference, situation, clarity and overview.

According to Delphi Report (1990) critical thinking should consist of two scales: affective dispositions and cognitive skills. For the cognitive skills, it can be divided into six subscales: interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and self-regulation, with analysis, evaluation and inference as the key three skills. As for the affective dispositions, it can be divided into seven subscales, truth-seeking, open-mindedness, analyticity, systematicity, self-confidence, inquisitiveness and maturity.

Following Delphi Report components of critical thinking skills include:

1) Interpretation refers to the ability to comprehend and express the meaning or significance of a large number of data, events, experiences, situations, conventions, beliefs, principles, procedures and judgments. It can be divided into three categories: classification, comprehension of the significance and accurate meaning clarification.

2) Analysis is defined to identify the intended and actual inferential relationships among descriptions, concepts, questions, and other representations that intend to express beliefs, judgments, experience, reasons, opinions or information. Its subcategories consist of censoring ideas or opinions, detecting arguments and analyzing arguments.

3) Evaluation means evaluating the creditability of the statements or other descriptions concerned about personal perceptions, experience, circumstances, judgments, beliefs or opinions; and assessing the logical strength of the actual or intended inferential relationships among the statements, descriptions, questions or other representations. This scale includes two subcategories: evaluating opinions and evaluating arguments.

4) Inference indicates the ability to identify and preserve the elements needed for drawing logical conclusions; to form reasonable conjectures and hypothesis; to ponder some relevant information and generalize logical consequences on the basis of data, statements, principles, beliefs, conceptions, judgments, evidence, descriptions, perspectives and other representations. Its three subcategories are the ability to query evidence, propose alternative hypothesis and draw logical conclusions.

5) Explanation refers to the ability to state or present the results of conjectures; to justify that inference with the application of evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological and contextual forms; and to state the demonstration with potent and convincing arguments. Three subcategories include stating results, justifying the legitimacy of the inference and presenting the arguments.

6) Self-regulation refers to the ability of self-consciously monitoring one's own cognitive activities, the elements applied in these activities, and the results deduced, particularly by the application of skills in the analysis and assessment to one's own inferential judgments. It includes two subcategories: self-evaluation and self-correction.

And the components of critical thinking affective dispositions are defined as follows:

1) Truth-seeking scale: representing those who tend to seek the truth rather than win the argument, even if the findings or results do not support one's presupposed opinions. People, who are truth-seekers, are courageous about asking questions and objective about pursuing inquiry.

2) Open-mindedness scale: representing those who are open-minded and tolerant of divergent opinions. The open-minded persons are sensitive to the possibility of one's own bias.

3) Analyticity scale: referring to the disposition of being alert to the need of intervene, comprehending the potentially problematic situations, predicting possible consequences, and applying reasoning and evidence to resolve problems.

4) Systematicity scale: representing the disposition of being organized, orderly, focused and diligent in inquiry.

5) Self-confidence scale: referring to the level of trust that one places in one's own reasoning process. Persons who are self-confident trust themselves to make good judgments, resolve problems and bring reasonable closure to inquiry.

6) Inquisitiveness scale, representing the disposition of being curious about how things work and desiring to be well informed even if the immediate payoff is not directly evident.

7) Maturity scale: targeting the disposition of being judicious of one's cognitive maturity when making decisions.

Paul and Elder (2005) proposed the three-core structural model of critical thinking. They consider that the thinking process should consist of eight elements: purpose, points of view, information, basic concepts, questions, assumptions, inferences and implications. For the eight elements, each should be measured and checked with ten standards, namely those of explicitness, veracity, relativeness, logicity, breadth, accuracy, importance, completeness, motivation and profundity. As for the intellectual traits, it can be divided into eight subscales: modesty, independence, integrity, bravery, persistence, confidence, sympathy and fairness.

C. Instruments Measuring Critical Thinking

The research and development on measurements of critical thinking can be traced back to 1980s in the western countries. And the western scholars have accumulated abundant experience in this field. Actually there are about thirty kinds of measurements in the literatures abroad. For example: California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI) and California Critical Thinking Skills (CCTST), the two insight assessment developed by the Delphi Report in America. These two tests are verified with high validity and reliability after a four years' examination. Another alternative assessment, Cambridge Thinking Skills Assessment (CTSA) was developed by the Cambridge Assessment group and has been applied in Cambridge University since 2001, and the number of its application has increased year by year. Table 1 is a brief introduction of some main measurements of critical thinking which is summarized by the researcher in this study.

TABLE 1
INSTRUMENTS MEASURING CRITICAL THINKING

Instrument	Developer	Year	Target populations	Test contents	Question types
California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI)	P. Facione, N.C. Facione	1992	Advanced high school students, University and college students	To measure the scales of truth-seeking, open-mindedness, analyticity, systematicity, confidence, cognitive maturity and inquisitiveness	Likert rating scales (objective items)
California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST)	Peter Facione	1990 1992 2000	Advanced high school students, University and college students	To measure students skills of analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and deduction	Multiple choice (objective items)
Cambridge Thinking Skills Assessment (CTSA)	University of Cambridge	2003	University and college students	To measure the problem solving and thinking ability: summarizing conclusions, identifying assumptions, evaluating the influence of related information on the arguments, identifying inferential errors, matching similar reasoning, and utilizing potential rules	Multiple choice (objective items)
Ennis-Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test (EWCTET)	R. H. Ennis, Eric Weir	1985	University and college students, secondary school students	To measure the ability of extracting key points of the passage, comprehending the reasons and assumptions, stating the key points, making reasonable inferences, and the comprehension of other possibilities	Reading comprehension and writing (subjective items)
Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (WGCTA)	G. Watson, E.M. Glaser	1980 1994	Students in 9th grade and above, adults	To measure the ability of making inferences, identifying assumptions, deducting, judging the reliability of the inferences and evaluating the arguments	Reading comprehension and multiple choice (objective items)
Cornell Critical Thinking Test, Level Z(CCTT-Z)	R. H. Ennis, J. Millman	1985	Advanced high school students, University and college students, adults	To measure the ability of inducting, deducting, observation, judging the reliability of other people's reports	Multiple choice (objective items)

From the table above, one can observe that, different measurement tools have different focuses when they are applied to estimate people's critical thinking. Some focuses on the disposition or tendency of one's critical thinking (CCTDI), some on the reasoning skills (CCTST, CRA), and others concentrate on the evaluative aspects of critical thinking (CCTT-Z), etc. However, since the thinking activity is a dynamic, continuous, complicated psychological phenomenon, there is a certain correlation among thinking skills, such as analysis, reasoning, evaluation, etc. They are mutually dependent on each other in the thinking process, so thinking activity is not a simple linear process, and without one of these skills, the other skills are not effective.

In this paper, the test to measure students' critical thinking dispositions is the Chinese version of CCTDI, namely the CTDI-CV edited by Peng Meici et al. (2004), because it has three modifications. First, the item wordings were selected from the focus interview verbatim transcriptions. This was to ensure that the language used was comprehensible for students at high school level. Second, 16 items were contextualized by adding a hypothetical situation or by accommodating the Chinese cultural norms that took modesty as a virtue in the item descriptions. Third, CTDI-CV simplified the scoring formula of CCTDI, but retained the same subscale and total scoring points.

D. Studies on Critical Thinking

In the last 30 years, studies on critical thinking have received more and more attention at home and abroad.

Many researchers have proposed some basic definitions of critical thinking (Ennis, 1987; Facione 1990; Halpern, 1997); structural models to interpret the subscales of critical thinking (Ennis1987; Delphi team, 1990). Researches have been on whether critical thinking abilities can be taught and how critical thinking abilities are embodied in all subjects, such as medicine, biological science, accountancy and nursing. Pithers and Soden (2000) summarized the research circumstances of this area in British higher educational field, and pointed out several problems of this area in higher education.

Critical thinking appealed to Chinese researchers as well. Most scholars agree that critical thinking includes both cognitive and affective dimensions. Analysis, evaluation and reasoning constitute the core skills in cognitive dimension, while curiosity, self-confidence, openness, flexibility, honesty, and tolerance the affective dimension (Liu, 2000; Luo, 2000). Some scholars concerned the lack of critical thinking abilities. For example, Huang Yuanshen (2010) dealt with the absence of critical thinking and pointed out that the situation did not changed much after about a decade and teachers and students of foreign language department were still confused by it.

At the same time, scholars in the area of TEFL have already noted the importance of fostering critical thinking in teaching and have been conducting research in critical thinking techniques in an EFL context. For example, He (1999) pointed out the importance of training English majors to think critically and to develop their creative abilities. Many Chinese scholars analyzed critical thinking in the context of speech, reading, spoken English and writing. Gao Yihong (1999) attended to critical thinking in the context of speech. Wen Qiufang et al (2006) introduced the correlation of critical thinking and English writing.

Empirical researches on critical thinking disposition at home just made its appearance in recent years and took on an increasing tendency. Based on the retrieval of relevant papers in China's Wanfang Thesis Database from 1994 to 2009, there are no empirical studies on critical thinking from 1994 to 2001, with only 55 available from 2003 to 2009. Among them, four theses relate critical thinking with second language acquisition, with only one concerning critical thinking disposition and second language acquisition (Zhang, 2018). More researches have been done on the cultivation of critical thinking ability (Han et al, 2009; Li, 2010; Yan, 2012; Wang, 2013; Sun, 2015; Zhang, 2018; Li et al, 2018; Liu et al, 2019; Lin, 2020)

As mentioned above scholars made attempts to research on the relationship between language teaching and critical thinking as well as how to foster critical thinking by language teaching, but few of them dealt with listening and critical thinking, thus this study endeavors to find the correlation between critical thinking and listening comprehension in order to enhance the integration of critical thinking in the process of listening and finally to strengthen the comprehensive developments of English majors.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

To investigate the correlation between critical thinking and listening comprehension among English-major sophomore, the study mainly addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there any correlation between English majors' critical thinking disposition and listening comprehension performance?
2. Is there any correlation between the subscales of English majors' critical thinking disposition and their performance in each listening comprehension item types? And to what extent do they correlate with each other?
3. Is there any difference in the correlations between English majors' critical thinking disposition and their listening comprehension performance for different listening proficiency groups?

B. Participants

78 sophomores, including 69 girl students and 9 boy students majoring in English in the school of English in Hunan University are recruited as the subjects of this study. The participants are selected according to their student ID, from NO.1 to NO.78. Their average age is about 20 and they have already received about 1.5 years' English professional education and will participate in TEM-4 2015. Based on the performance in part two of the listening comprehension test of TEM-4 tests in 2013 and 2014, which requires students to analyze the intention, purpose as well as the attitude and mood of the speakers and thus better represent students' listening comprehension proficiency, the participants are divided into 2 groups. Those who scored 24 or above are considered as the higher listening proficiency group, and those 21 and lower than 21 as lower proficiency group, with those who scored between 20 and 23 excluded from the research to show the differentiation of higher and lower proficiency groups.

C. Instruments

The instruments employed in this study include the Chinese version of Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CTDI-CV), two pieces of English Listening Proficiency Test selected from TEM-4 tests in 2013 and 2014 as well as SPSS 18.0.

CTDI-CV is applied to investigate English majors' critical thinking disposition. Two pieces of listening proficiency test is used to get the average score of each participant's listening comprehension proficiency to assure that the division of groups is objective.

SPSS 18.0 is employed to analyze the data collected from the CTDI-CV, and the two listening proficiency tests.

D. Materials

CTDI-CV is adopted as the instrument to measure participants' Critical Thinking Disposition. CTDI-CV is a Chinese version modified from the CCTDI by Peng Meici (2004), which includes seven dimensions: truth-seeking, open-mindedness, analyticity, systematicity, self-confidence, inquisitiveness and maturity.

The questionnaire is composed of the demographic information and CTDI-CV survey. CTDI-CV consists of 70 Likert-type questions that represent seven critical thinking disposition subscales with 10 items in each subscale, and the total 70 questions are spread randomly as in the table below. Participants tick their choices according to a six-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree" (strongly agree=1, pretty agree=2, agree=3, undecided=4, pretty disagree=5, strongly disagree=6). Total scores range from 70 to 420, with each subscales' score

from 10~60. The overall Cronbach Alpha reliability was 0.90. Subscale alphas ranged between 0.54 and 0.77. These readings show satisfactory content validity and internal consistency (Peng, 2004).

TABLE 2
ITEMS DISTRIBUTION OF CRITICAL THINKING DISPOSITION

Subscales	Items	Total
Truth-seeking	2, 5, 10, 14, 33, 35, 43, 48, 53, 56	10
Open-mindedness	1, 8, 15, 21, 22, 34, 40, 44, 61, 67	10
Analyticity	4, 6, 27, 28, 30, 38, 41, 50, 58, 69	10
Systematicity	3, 9, 11, 16, 37, 45, 49, 62, 65, 66	10
CT confidence	7, 12, 17, 24, 31, 36, 47, 51, 64, 68	10
Inquisitiveness	13, 18, 20, 39, 42, 46, 52, 54, 55, 60	10
Maturity	19, 23, 25, 26, 29, 32, 57, 59, 63, 70	10

Part two of listening comprehension test in 2013 and 2014 is used to examine students listening proficiency. Part two consists of 30 objective items. Each item has only one proper answer. In this part, item 1-10 are based on some short dialogues, item 11-20 on short passages, and the rest on some pieces of news. The listening materials of these two tests are selected from the authentic TEM-4 test in 2013 and 2014. Passages and conversations are closely connected with students' daily life, and news items include news, lectures and comments broadcasted by VOA and BBC.

Rating sticks to the requirements of TEM-4 syllabus and the official answer of TEM-4 in 2013 and 2014. Each item is 1 mark and there are 30 items in total, so the total score of each test is 30. The testing materials can be shown in the following table.

TABLE 3
ITEMS DISTRIBUTION OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION TEST

Categories	Items	Total
Conversations	1~3, 4~7, 8~10	10
Passages	11~13, 14~17, 18~20	10
News broadcasts	21~22, 23~24, 25~26, 27~28, 29, 30	10

E. Procedures

Procedures in this study mainly consist of three parts. Part one is the pilot test in order to identify the understanding of expressions of test and to confirm testing time. 10 sophomores majoring in English participate in the pilot test of the survey. After the pilot test, test takers can understand most of the questionnaire items, only very slight revisions need to be made. And the results of pilot study show that the CCTDI-CV survey will need 20-25 minutes.

The second part is the data-collection part, including the listening comprehension proficiency tests and CTDI-CV. The relevant teachers are contacted in advance. Participants are kept blind to the purpose of critical thinking survey. The data collection is completed in two weeks.

After data collection, SPSS was employed to analyze the data to explore the correlation between CTD and LCP.

IV. RESULTS

Among the 78 participants involved in the tests and survey, 7 questionnaire responses are deemed invalid and outliers because of the missing values. Thus, the study results will be obtained and analyzed from the abovementioned 71 sophomores (64 girls and 7 boys).

A. Correlation between Critical Thinking Disposition and Listening Comprehension

This section mainly explores the correlation between overall critical thinking disposition and listening comprehension and critical thinking disposition subscales and listening comprehension, as shown in the table below.

TABLE 4
CORRELATION BETWEEN CTD AND LC

		LC total score
Truth-seeking	Pearson Correlation	.512**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	71
Open-mindedness	Pearson Correlation	.270*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.048
	N	71
Analyticity	Pearson Correlation	.368**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	N	71
Systematicity	Pearson Correlation	.476**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002
	N	71
Self-confidence	Pearson Correlation	.273*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.046
	N	71
Inquisitiveness	Pearson Correlation	.415*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019
	N	71
Maturity	Pearson Correlation	.292*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.039
	N	71
Total score	Pearson Correlation	.505**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007
	N	71

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

It can be found that there is a significant correlation between participants' critical thinking disposition and their listening comprehension performance ($r=0.505$, $\text{sig.}=0.007$). The overall correlation is strong because they are significantly correlated at the 0.01 level.

As for the correlation between critical thinking disposition subscales and listening comprehension performance, there exist significant correlations between listening comprehension performance and subscales like truth-seeking ($r=0.512$; $\text{sig.}<0.01$), analyticity ($r=0.368$; $\text{sig.}<0.01$), and systematicity ($r=0.476$; $\text{sig.}<0.01$). Besides, the correlations are also positive between listening comprehension performance and subscales such as inquisitiveness ($r=0.415$; $\text{sig.}<0.05$), maturity ($r=0.292$, $\text{sig.}<0.05$), self-confidence ($r=0.273$, $\text{sig.}<0.05$) and open-mindedness ($r=0.270$, $\text{sig.}<0.05$). This indicates that English listening comprehension has a 99% possibility to be correlated with truth-seeking, analyticity and systematicity while it has a 95% chance to be correlated with inquisitiveness, maturity, self-confidence and open-mindedness.

B. Correlation between Critical thinking Disposition Subscales and Listening Comprehension Item Types

The correlation between critical thinking disposition and subscales and the listening comprehension item types are shown in the following table.

TABLE 5
CORRELATION BETWEEN CTD AND LC ITEM TYPES

		Conversations	Passages	News broadcasts
Truth-seeking	Pearson Correlation	.303*	.523**	.506**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.011	.009	.006
	N	71	71	71
Open-mindedness	Pearson Correlation	-.072	.213	.245*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.988	.075	.039
	N	71	71	71
Analyticity	Pearson Correlation	.358**	.273*	.201
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.041	.092
	N	71	71	71
Systematicity	Pearson Correlation	.444**	.351**	.237*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.003	.047
	N	71	71	71
Self-confidence	Pearson Correlation	.245*	-.012	.140
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.049	.921	.244
	N	71	71	71
Inquisitiveness	Pearson Correlation	.406**	.236	.247*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.058	.038
	N	71	71	71
Maturity	Pearson Correlation	.271*	.111	-.091
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.048	.357	.873
	N	71	71	71
Total score	Pearson Correlation	.408**	.247*	.340**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.024	.009
	N	71	71	71

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

Generally the table shows significant correlations between critical thinking disposition and Conversations ($r=0.408$, $\text{sig}.<0.01$), followed by critical thinking disposition and News Broadcasts ($r=0.340$; $\text{sig}.<0.01$), and critical thinking disposition and Passages ($r=0.247$; $\text{sig}.<0.05$).

As for the correlation between listening comprehension item types and critical thinking disposition subscales, there exist correlations. Firstly conversations are significantly correlated with analyticity, systematicity and inquisitiveness ($r=0.358$, 0.444 , 0.406 ; $\text{sig}.<0.01$) at the 0.01 level, with truth-taking, self-confidence and maturity ($r=0.303$, 0.245 , 0.271 ; $\text{sig}.<0.05$) significantly correlated at the 0.05 level. Secondly, passages are also strongly correlated with truth-taking and systematicity ($r=0.523$, 0.351 ; $\text{sig}.<0.01$) at the level of 0.01 and analyticity ($r=0.273$; $\text{sig}.<0.05$) at the level of 0.05. Finally, news broadcasts are significantly correlated with truth-taking ($r=0.506$; $\text{sig}.<0.01$) at the level of 0.01, and with open-mindedness, systematicity and inquisitiveness ($r=0.245$, 0.237 , 0.247 ; $\text{sig}.<0.05$) at the level of 0.05.

C. Correlation between Critical Thinking Disposition and Listening Comprehension of Two Different Listening Proficiency Groups

In this section, the correlation between critical thinking disposition and listening comprehension proficiency at two different levels is explored. Based on the two listening comprehension tests, there are 15 students who scored 24 and more and thus constitute the higher proficiency group, and 17 students who scored 21 and less comprises the lower proficiency group. The table below presents the overall and specific correlation differences in higher and lower proficiency groups respectively.

TABLE 6
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN CTD SUBSCALES AND DIFFERENT LCP GROUPS

		Higher group			Lower group		
		conversations	passages	news broadcasts	Conversations	passages	news broadcasts
Truth-seeking	Pearson	.318*	.588**	.540**	.105	.081	.077
	Correlation						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.024	.004	.002	.122	.879	.885
Open-mindedness	N	15	15	15	17	17	17
	Pearson	-.017	.208	.250*	.405	.329	.317*
	Correlation						
Analyticity	Sig. (2-tailed)	.900	.097	.045	.427	.524	.042
	N	15	15	15	17	17	17
	Pearson	.397**	.251*	.241	.181	.319*	.299*
Systematicity	Correlation						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.015	.054	.731	.047	.049
	N	15	15	15	17	17	17
Self-confidence	Pearson	.472**	.358**	.253*	.258	.243	.288*
	Correlation						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	.042	.721	.152	.048
Inquisitiveness	N	15	15	15	17	17	17
	Pearson	.278*	.322*	.278	.314*	.327*	.103
	Correlation						
Maturity	Sig. (2-tailed)	.048	.032	.017	.045	.040	.205
	N	15	15	15	17	17	17
	Pearson	.414**	.225	.272*	.184	.510	.298*
Total	Correlation						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.071	.029	.727	.301	.037
	N	15	15	15	17	17	17
	Pearson	.315*	.307*	.125	.293*	-.178	-.239
	Correlation						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.019	.014	.321	.015	.249	.158
	N	15	15	15	17	17	17
	Pearson	.324**			.245*		
	Correlation						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009			.047		
	N	15			17		

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

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

It can be found from the table that although both higher and lower listening proficiency groups show positive correlation between critical thinking disposition and listening comprehension, there still exists a difference, with the correlation of higher proficiency group strongly significant at 0.01 level ($r=0.324$, $\text{sig}.<0.01$), and that of the lower proficiency group significant only at the 0.05 level ($r=0.245$, $\text{sig}.<0.05$). Thus, the correlation between critical thinking disposition and higher proficiency group is stronger than that between critical thinking disposition and lower proficiency group.

The table also shows clear difference in terms of the correlation between critical thinking subscales and three listening comprehension item types for two different proficiency groups. In terms of the higher proficiency group, some subscales tends to be strongly significantly correlated, such as truth-seeking with passages and news broadcasts ($r=0.588$, $r=0.540$, $\text{sig}.<0.01$); analyticity with conversations ($r=0.397$, $\text{sig}.<0.01$); systematicity with conversations and passages ($r=.472$, $r=.358$, $\text{sig}.<0.01$); inquisitiveness with conversations ($r=0.414$, $\text{sig}.<0.01$). There are some other subscales which are correlated at the 0.05 level, for example, truth-seeking, self-evidence and maturity with conversations ($r=0.318$, ($r=0.278$, $r=0.315$; $\text{sig}.<0.05$); analyticity, self-evidence and maturity with passages ($r=0.251$, ($r=0.322$, $r=0.307$; $\text{sig}.<0.05$); open-mindedness, systematicity and inquisitiveness with news broadcasts ($r=0.250$, $r=0.253$, $r=0.272$; $\text{sig}.<0.05$).

As for the lower proficiency group, there are no subscales which are significantly correlated with listening comprehension item types at the level of 0.01, with only several subscales correlated at the level of 0.05. For example self-evidence and maturity are correlated with conversations ($r=.314$, $r=.293$; $\text{sig}.<0.05$); analyticity and self-evidence with passages ($r=0.319$, $r=0.327$; $\text{sig}.<0.05$); open-mindedness, analyticity, systematicity and inquisitiveness with news broadcasts ($r=0.317$, $r=0.299$, $r=0.288$, $r=0.298$; $\text{sig}.<0.05$).

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the analysis of the results above, some major findings concerning the three research questions can be obtained, and some pedagogical implications can be suggested.

A. Major Findings

Firstly, there exists significant correlation between participants' critical thinking disposition and their listening comprehension performance in general, with truth-seeking, analyticity and systematicity at the significant level of 0.01 and inquisitiveness, maturity, self-confidence and open-mindedness at the level of 0.05 in particular.

Secondly, critical thinking disposition is significantly correlated with conversations and news broadcasts at the level of 0.01, and with passages at the level of 0.05. In terms of the correlation between listening comprehension item types and critical thinking disposition subscales, conversations are significantly correlated with analyticity, systematicity and inquisitiveness at the 0.01 level, with truth-taking, self-confidence and maturity significantly correlated at the 0.05 level; passages with truth-taking and systematicity at the level of 0.01 and analyticity at the level of 0.05; news broadcasts with truth-taking at the level of 0.01, and with open-mindedness, systematicity and inquisitiveness at the level of 0.05.

Thirdly, generally there exist differences in the correlation between critical thinking disposition and listening comprehension performance for both the higher and lower proficiency groups. However, the correlation for higher proficiency group tends to be significant at the level of 0.01, while that for the lower proficiency group significant at the level of 0.05. As for the correlations between critical thinking disposition subscales and three listening comprehension item performance for two different proficiency groups, clear differences can also be obtained. For the higher proficiency group, 99% possibility of Truth-seeking is correlated with passages and news broadcasts; analyticity with conversations; systematicity with conversations and passages; inquisitiveness with conversations. 95% chance of truth-seeking, self-evidence and maturity is correlated with conversations; analyticity, self-evidence and maturity with passages; open-mindedness, systematicity and inquisitiveness with news broadcasts. However, for the lower proficiency group, there are only a few subscales correlated with listening comprehension item type performance at the level of 0.05, with self-evidence and maturity with conversations; analyticity and self-evidence with passages; open-mindedness, analyticity, systematicity and inquisitiveness with news broadcasts.

B. Pedagogical Implications

Some implications for language teaching and learning in EFL context can be generalized from the findings above.

Firstly, since it is shown that critical thinking is closely correlated with students' listening comprehension performance, teachers should take critical thinking into consideration in their English listening teaching, raising students' awareness of the importance in building up their critical thinking ability and providing students more chances to become independent critical thinkers.

Secondly, teachers should be good at preparing listening teaching materials and design appropriate comprehension item types, taking critical thinking cultivation as one of the important teaching goals. For example, the selection of materials should be diverse in terms of subject areas, genres etc. Lectures, speeches, daily conversations and situational dialogues, passages, BBC, VOA and CCTV programs should all be included in listening instruction materials. In this way, it can stimulate students' learning enthusiasm, and broaden their horizon, as well as cultivate their ability to critically accept knowledge and information.

Lastly, as there exist differences in terms of the correlation between critical thinking and listening comprehension performance for students at different proficiency levels, teachers should be sensitive to these individual differences in their listening teaching. They should allow for the difference in the choice of listening materials and the speed of listening. In addition, the evaluation of students' listening comprehension performance should take various forms, with simple and mechanical testing methods least adopted.

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Textbook Evaluation: A Case Study of Cutting Edge

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Abstract—This paper, in deviation from the traditional practices of textbook evaluation, reports the faculty members' evaluation of Cutting Edge, Student Book, KSA Third Edition Intermediate Level, by Sarah Cunningham & Peter Moor, published by Pearson 2013 in terms of Language Development Skills, in general, and, Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, Grammar & Vocabulary, and Style & Appropriacy in particular. 20 EFL teachers participated in this mixed method approach of study who work at the Department of English Skills, Preparatory Year, Najran University, Saudi Arabia. A google form questionnaire, consisted of 57 numerically rated items & open-ended questions under 7 domains, was created to elicit faculty members' responses. The validity of the questionnaire was examined by a group of experts in the textbook evaluation and content analysis. The analysis indicates that the respondents evaluated the textbook contents positively and the majority viewed them mostly suitable in terms of language skills, usage, and appropriacy. However, the researcher, based on the adverse comments like video material for listening, lack of specific strategies for conversation or other spoken activities, and hardly distinction between active and passive vocabulary under listening, speaking and grammar & vocabulary domains, suggests that a latest EFL commercial textbook or series be reviewed which, potentially, will cover the space. To conclude, the researcher recommends developing authentic materials that are tailored to the needs and interests of the learners.

Index Terms—cutting edge, EFL teachers, textbook evaluation etc

I. INTRODUCTION

Textbooks guide teachers and students alike and have been a great resource in teaching and learning contexts. However, if not carefully analyzed, a textbook can have an adverse influence on teaching and learning environment. Crawford (2002) stated that when choosing classroom resources, practitioners should consider the concepts that underlying them to ensure that they contribute positively to the learning environment. When a textbook is first introduced, it should be thoroughly scrutinized to ensure that the content is appropriate for the classroom (Fredriksson and Olsson 2006). Textbook evaluation is not an easy task and therefore, evaluators must make several decisions while doing textbook evaluation (Abbasian & Khajavi, 2011). Textbook selection can be approached in a variety of ways, although it is frequently done based on the educators' personal preferences and may be influenced by factors unrelated to education (Garinger, 2002). In EFL/ESL contexts, textbook evaluation is essential to evaluate the content of the textbook and to associate it with the teaching/learning conditions (Ahour, Towhidiyan, and Saeidi, 2014). Nunan (1991) points out that, "The way materials are organized and presented, as well as the types of content and activities, will help to shape the learner's view of language." Sheldon (1988) argues that the book should have an optimum density and mix of text and graphical material on each page. Good textbooks should be supplied with various activities and tasks that engage learners in the use of skills and processes related to specific language teaching objectives. Also, they should include variety of exercises that give students opportunities to practice and extend their language skills. Tomlinson (1998) relates tasks with learners' self-confidence. Richards (2001) elaborates that the tasks in the textbooks should be flexible and appeal to different styles and strategies and should not favor one type of learner over another. McDonough and Shaw (2003) argue that materials should enable the learners to see how the four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) can be used effectively in appropriate contexts. This study evaluates Cutting Edge, Student Book, KSA Third Edition Intermediate Level, written by Sarah Cunningham & Peter Moor, published by Pearson 2013. In doing so, the researcher employed a questionnaire inspired by various checklists (Daoud, A.M., and Celce-Murcia, M. 1979; Byrd, 2001; Byrd & Schuemann, 2014; Cunninghamworth, 1995; Littlejohn, 1998; Mann & Copland, 2015; Mukundan & Ahour, 2010), which is based on a set of general attributes that not only meet this research criteria, but also have enough flexibility to be used universally with some further modifications.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Many studies on textbook evaluation have been conducted around the world. In 2013, Sarem, Hamidi, and Mahmoudie evaluated a book of English for International Tourism adapting Daoud and Celce-Murcia checklist, conclude that the current book can be used as an acceptable textbook to teach to students who are interested in studying tourism. Birjandi and Alizadeh (2012) investigated the extent to which the Top Notch, Interchange, and English File

series include critical thinking skills. Using a checklist based on Bloom's taxonomy, they opined that the books primarily tapped knowledge, comprehension, application, and the ability to form a community of thinkers.

Yasemin (2009) evaluates three English textbooks. Teachers and students took part in a 37-item textbook evaluation scheme to convey their thoughts on various aspects of the textbooks. In addition, interviews were done to understand more about how the textbooks were used. The data suggested that the three textbooks used by young learners were adequate to a certain level. The study advises that textbooks for young English learners be revised and/or designed. Riasati and Zare (2010) assessed the Interchange textbooks' overall instructional value and appropriateness from the perspective of Iranian EFL teachers. The findings revealed that most teachers agreed that the textbooks were useful and acceptable. Despite these benefits, several shortcomings were identified in this series, including a lack of supporting teaching resources, too many testing activities, and an insufficient number of teacher's handbooks among many. Rashidi and Kehtarfard (2014) use a needs analysis framework to report on the outcomes of a study that employed a needs analysis framework to evaluate an English textbook (the third-grade high school English book) that is used in all Iranian state high schools. The textbook evaluation found that, while all language skills and components were virtually equally significant to the majority of students, the textbook could not adequately support all of them at the same time. Hussin, Nimehchisalem, Kalajahi, and Yunus (2016) assessed how new vocabulary items are presented in three English language textbooks used in Malaysian secondary schools. The presentation of vocabulary items in the textbook was evaluated using a checklist by a group of carefully selected instructors ($n = 5$). The research revealed that the vocabulary presentation in the textbook lacks many aspects. The new vocabulary was taught using no specific approach. At the end of the textbook, there was no index to the new terminology. The results though indicated implications for all stakeholders including learners, teachers as well as textbook developers.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

For this study, 20 teachers who were teaching *Cutting Edge* participated in this study. The teachers had taught (at the intermediate level) this textbook for 2 years.

Instrument

For data collection from the participants, a google form questionnaire was used. The questionnaire had 57 numerically rated items & open-ended questions under 7 domains.

Data Collection and Analysis

The researcher held a meeting and explained the nature and purpose of the study. After the meeting the google form questionnaire was emailed to the participants to respond electronically. The responses were downloaded, analyzed, and discussed.

IV. ANALYSIS & DISCUSSION

To report the outcome of the textbook evaluation, this paper analyzed the responses and comments. Following are the discussions and analysis at length. This is also to note that the researcher, in open ended questions, had selected only distinct comments/responses, both positive and adverse. Similar and repetitive comments/contexts had been deleted.

Language Development Skills (scale Q1)

- i) Are all four skills adequately covered, keeping the course objectives and syllabus requirements in mind?

Language Development Skills

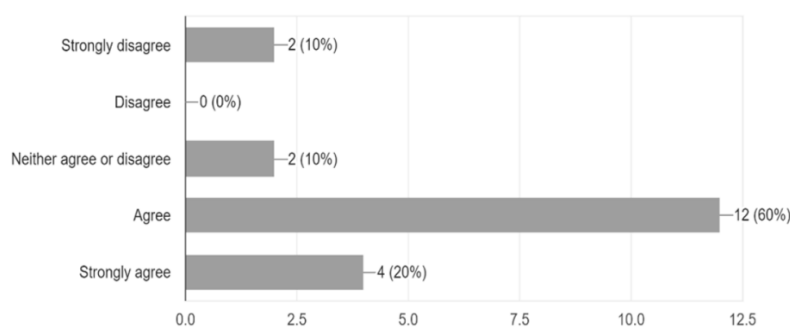


Figure1

Figure 1 indicates that most of the participants (80%) responded positively. Only 2 respondents (10%) chose the adverse response followed by the same number (10%) who decided to remain neutral.

Language Development Skills (Open ended Qs 2-4)

TABLE 1

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
ii) Is practice in all four skills included? If so, is it balanced? If not, which skills are omitted, and why?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> practice in all four skills is included and balanced. in every skill, examples and different activities are given. yes, writing, listening tasks, speaking and pronunciation and reading skills are included. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> it is included but the materials are vague and obscure.
Analysis: The above responses revealed that the majority (80%) responded in support of the motion. Only (20%) reacted adversely.		
iii) Does the material progress in terms of complexity and difficulty, in line with the grammatical and lexical progression of the course? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "unit 4 page 40 - vocab and language focus ex 1 grammar, chapter 4 page 40 ch#2 page 19 ch#3 page 30" yes. eg ch-2 is more upgraded in terms of complexity and difficulty than ch 1 and the pattern continues. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no, the objectives are not clear.
Analysis: The above responses revealed that the majority (70%) support the material progression. 6 participants (30%) responded adversely too.		
iv) Do the presentation and practice activities include the integration of skills in realistic contexts? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "unit 4 p.36 3- page 37 2.b unit 5 p49 .2 unit 9 p 89 "yes. e.g. Jamal's party, ch 1, pg 8." yes, ch#4,36,37,38, and 39. grammar, reading, L/S are integrated. yes. there are practice activities catering to all the 4 skills. eg. all practice activities of the chapters. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> the integration is not clearly understood. not that much
Analysis: The above data showed that the majority (85%) support the material progression. Only (15%) responded adversely.		

Additional comments: Table 1 implies that most of the respondents perceived language development skills components positively. Only a few respondents chose to comment adversely.

Listening (Open ended Qs 1-7)

TABLE 2

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
i) Are listening materials well recorded, as authentic as possible, accompanied by background information, questions and activities which help comprehension? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> unit 4 p.40 language focus 2 1,2 yes, ch#1, page.8 .ch#4 page 36. eg. pg 47 (ch 5) .pg 53 etc yes. unit 2- page 18/ ex.2.1 "yes. ex: students' book, chapter 2, pages 18, 19 and 22 students' book, chapter 3, pages 27, 30, 31 and 32 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not at all. there are different versions of same recordings as well. no, some listening tracks do not match with the script. chapter 1 and 2. the listening material is well recorded, but it is fast so students cannot understand.
Analysis: The above responses revealed that the majority (75%) responded in support of the audio recordings authenticity. Only (25%) commented adversely or hesitantly.		
ii) What kind of listening material is contained in the course? Does listening form part of dialogue conversation work? Are there specific listening passages? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a true story (ch 2, pg 19) personal experience (ch 2, pg 22) conversation (ch 3, pg 30, 3.5) conversations (ch 1, pg 6, 1.1) etc." "it's both dialogue and monologue. ch#4 page.42" it includes conversations, students book page 16,35 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no. there aren't different types of listening exercises and most of them are not clear. no, all the chapters.
Analysis: The above responses showed that the majority (90%) named the kind of listening materials. Only (10%) responded had adverse comments.		
iii) If there are specific listening passages, what kind of activities are based on them: comprehension questions, extracting specific information, etc.? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> comprehension questions and taking notes "comprehension questions, true and false, comprehension questions as well as specific information, eg , pg -6 , 7,13 (ch 1), pg-18,19,23 (ch 2), pg -37,41 (ch 4) etc. extracting specific information/ unit 3 / page 27 ex. 3.2" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> some of them are based on reading exercises but most of them are taken from here and there.
Analysis: The above responses showed that the majority (95%) specified the listening passages areas. The only (5%) comment even does show no specifications.		
iv) Is the listening material set in a meaningful context? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> chapter 4, page 37 yes, ch#1 page 8 ch#5 page 47 eg. pg. 47, 53, 37, 41 etc. yes, chapter three page 31. yes, chapter 1, page number 7, chapter 2, page number 19 and 22. chapter 3, page number 31 and 32. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> it is not separated from the content of the unit. yes, the listening exercises fit the grammar and speaking parts, but it is not separated from the content of the unit.
Analysis: The above comments revealed that the majority (75%) viewed the listening material set in a meaningful context. However, some respondents (25%) countered the majority as well.		

v) Are there pre-listening tasks, questions, etc.? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes.ch#3 page 26,32 ch#12,13 yes chapter 2 page 19. yes chapter 4 , page number 42 "yes. ex: students' book, chapter 4, page 42 ""preparation" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no, there aren't any. but teachers provide them the background of the listening task.
Analysis: The above comments revealed that the majority (65%) confirmed to have pre-listening tasks in the textbook. However, some respondents (35%) countered the claim with a straight "no" in addition to the adverse comments.		
vi) What is the recorded material on audio-tracks like in terms of sound quality, speed of delivery, accent, and authenticity? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ex 1c, page 7, chapter 1 ch#1 page 8 ch#2 page 18 sound quality, chapter 1, page number 7, chapter 2, page number 19, "overall, it is good, clear and comprehensive. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> most of them are obscure and vague for the Arab students in terms of quality and speed. the accent is difficult, the same dialogues and conversations are fast.
Analysis: The above observations showed that the majority (85%) responded highlighted the audio-tracks sound quality, speed of delivery, accent, and authenticity. Only few, some respondents (15%) countered the claim and highlighted the issues with audio-tracks.		
vii) Is there any video material for listening? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes. world culture: flashbulb memories (ch 2, pg 24)" yes, chapter 4 world culture page 44 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> maybe, but not in use, nor we have any equipment for it. there's not any video material for listening.
Analysis: The above remarks are very critical and revealed that only a very limited number of respondents (20%) stated to have video material for listening. However, this claim finds no space when we look at the majority of the respondents (80%) who countered their peers.		

Additional comments: Table 2 indicates that most of the respondents identified listening components positively except for the last question in the domain where responses are upside down.

Speaking (scale Q1)

i) How much emphasis is there on spoken English in the textbook?

Speaking

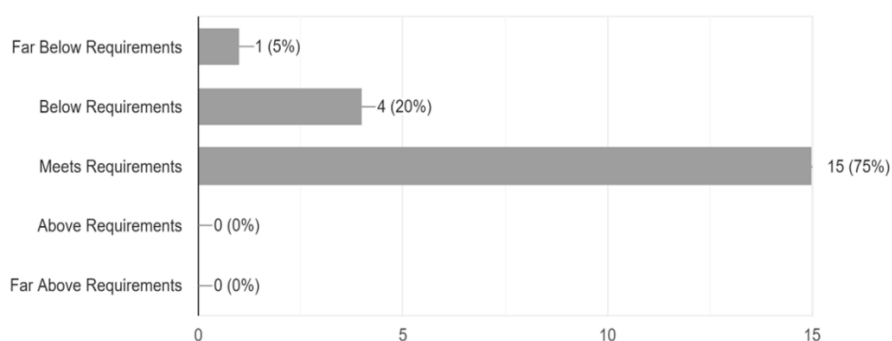


Figure 2

Figure 2 indicates that most of the participants (75%) observed the emphasis on spoken English in the textbook and checked the "meets requirements" option. However, 5 respondents (25%) decided to go with "below/far below requirements".

Speaking (Open ended Qs 2-5)

TABLE 3

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
ii) What kind of material for speaking is contained in the course? This may include: oral presentation and practice of language items, dialogues, role-plays, communication activities (information gap) write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> mostly group work, oral, communication activities telling stories/memories (ch 2, pg 23. 1a) Role play, communicative activities, dialogues, chapter3, 23 "communication activities: chapter 2, page number 17. chapter 1, page 14. Oral presentation: chapter 2, page number 22." 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "actually, speaking activities are very limited. only a little.
Analysis: The above statements showed that the majority (90%) named the types of material for speaking. Only 2 respondents (10%) didn't specify anything with adverse comments.		
iii) Are there any specific strategies for conversation or other spoken activities, eg debating, giving talks? If yes, write chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> elicitation u5 p35 task 1a,b "yes. argument (ch 4, pg 43, 1,2,3, 4)" yes, ch# 5 page 53 ch#7 page 68 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> almost no

or write No.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> talking about topics and conversation on specific topics of interest. eg- pg 10,17, 38 etc giving talks/ unit 3 / p. 34/ ex. 1.a giving talks and debate. chapter 4, page 43 	
Analysis: The above responses show that only (45%) responded named specific strategies for conversation or other spoken activities. While majority (55%) found no specific strategy in the textbook as claimed by their colleagues.		
iv) Is any practice material included to help learners to cope with unpredictability in spoken discourse? If yes, write chapter/s and page numbers or write No.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> u7 p 68 speaking 1.2 "yes, chapter 2 useful language" yes chapter 4 page 38 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Yes, there are but all of them are not useful for Arab students. have not come across so far.
Analysis: The above responses reveal that only (30%) found practice material included to help learners to cope with unpredictability in spoken discourse. While majority (70%) discovered no materials that could help learners.		
v) Is material for spoken English (dialogues, role plays, etc.) well designed to equip learners for real-life interactions? If yes, write chapter/s and page numbers or write No.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes, chapter 3. 34 yes, chapter -2, page-20 yes, ch#7 page #68 ch #9 page 92 yes . eg - pages - 38 , 17 , 10 etc yes/ role-plays/ unit 3/ page 34/ ex. 1.a 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no role play and dialogue is given. actually a few speaking activities are given. I can say no.
Analysis: The above comments revealed that a big number of respondents (65%) viewed dialogues, role plays, etc. as well designed and can assist learners for real-life interactions. However, some respondents (35%) countered the claim with "no" and adverse comments.		
Additional comments: Table 3 shows the mixed reactions to speaking domain's questions. Questions like 3 & 4 had most adverse comments where respondents countered their colleagues.		

Reading (Open ended Qs 1-6)

TABLE 4

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
i) Are reading passages and associated activities suitable for your students' levels, interests, etc.? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes.ch# 2 page 16 ch#4 page 38,39 yes/ unit 1/ p. 10/ ex. 1a-4a yes, chapter 4, page 39 "yes they are associated with students level , interest. the examples are chapter 1, page number 10 . chapter 2 , page number 16 chapter 3 , page number 29 chapter 4 , page number 39" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> level is a little bit higher than the students level no, not at all. the students do not take any interests in reading skill at all.
Analysis: The above comments revealed that the majority (85%) viewed reading passages and associated activities suitable for your students' levels and interests. However, the minority (15%) felt contrary and commented adversely.		
ii) Is there sufficient reading material? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes, the secret of memory chapter 2, page 16 yes , there are . eg - pages - 46, 13 , 17 , 38 etc. yes chapter 5 page 46. "yes. chapter 1 , page number 10. chapter 2 , page number 16 chapter 3 , page number 29 chapter 4 , page number 39 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no
Analysis: The above responses for this question revealed that the majority (95%) felt the materials provided in the textbook are sufficient. However, interestingly, 1 response (5%) is registered as "no".		
iii) Is the reading text used for introducing new language items (grammar and vocabulary), consolidating language work, etc.? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes, , eg , pages - 17 , 13 , 10 , 38 etc "yes the reading texts contains new terms and vocabulary in unit 2+4+5+6+7" "yes, sure. ex: students' book, chapter 4, page 39 to introduce present perfect, past simple and present perfect continuous. students' book, chapter 1, page 10 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> all the skills in one unit meet the goals of the unit not just reading.
Analysis: The above comments revealed that the majority (85%) considered reading texts used for introducing new language items consolidate language work. However, very few (15%) still felt otherwise, not completely adverse though.		
iv) Is there a focus on the development of reading skills and strategies? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes, chapter 2, 16 yes, chapter-4, page-39, ex 1/ page 54 /unit 5 yes ch #1 page 10 ch# 8 page 50 yes , there is . eg - pages 10, 13 , 38 , 17 etc "yes, page 17" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not much no, not at all. somewhat
Analysis: The above comments revealed that a big number of respondents (60%) viewed the development of reading skills and strategies as positive aspect of the textbook. However, 8 respondents (40%) countered their peers with "no, not much, not at all, & somewhat.		
v) Is the reading material linked to other skills work? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes to, speaking and writing and reading such as in unit 4 p39 "yes. e.g. reading and speaking (good at/bad at) e.g. listening and reading (ch 1, pg 18, 1a,b, etc)" "yes, they are linked to grammar unit 2+4+5+6 also related to vocabulary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> somehow sometimes no
Analysis: The above responses revealed that majority (80%) viewed a compatibility between the reading materials and other skills. However, some respondents (20%) countered their peers with their adverse observations.		
vi) How many reading texts are there, and how frequently do they occur?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> average 2 in every chapter in each unit 3 to 4 as unit 5 	--

write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "all the chapters have one or two reading texts. chapter 3 , page number 35 chapter 5 , page number 48" "for each chapter, there is one reading text. ex: students' book, chapter 1, page 10 students' book, chapter 4, page 39" 	
Analysis: The above data revealed that all (100%) responded positively. Interestingly, none of them provides the number of the text (as the first half of the question asks exclusively).		

Additional comments: Table 4 indicates the positive reactions to reading domain's questions. Contrary to other questions analysis, last question recorded no adverse comments.

Reading (scale Qs 7-8)

vii) How authentic/appropriate are the texts?

Reading

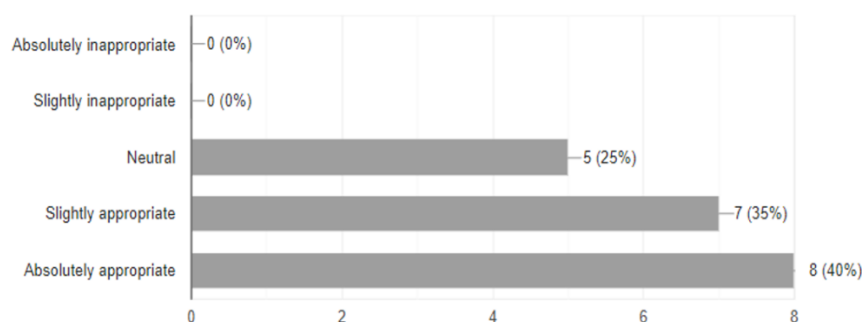


Figure 3

Figure 3 reveals that the majority (75%) viewed the reading texts as "absolutely/slightly appropriate". While 5 respondents (25%) decided to remain neutral and didn't go for any adverse choice.

viii) Is the subject matter appropriate (interesting, challenging, topical, varied, culturally acceptable, etc.)?

Reading

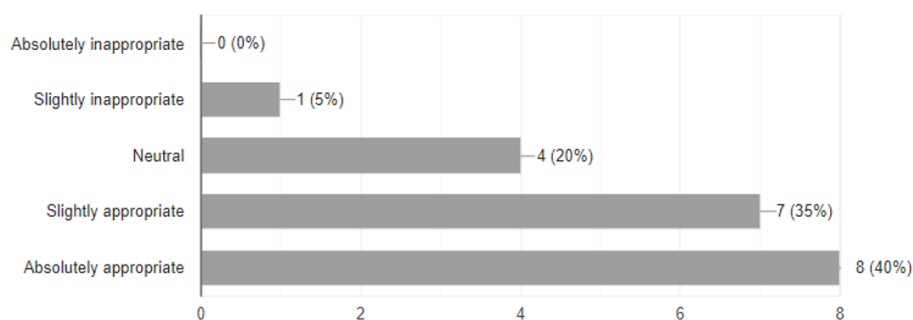


Figure 4

Figure 4 reveals that the majority (75%) perceived the subject matter as "absolutely/slightly appropriate". However, 4 respondents (20%) decided to remain neutral followed by 1 (5%) who hit "slightly inappropriate".

Reading (Open ended Qs 9-10)

TABLE 5

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
ix) Does the material help comprehension by, for example, setting the scene, providing background information, giving pre-reading questions? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> u8 p 76 yes, chapter2, 16 yes.ch# 9 page 86 yes/ unit 1/ p. 10/ ex. 1.a-4.a/ "yes, chapter 3 page 28 activity 1,2,3,4" "giving pre reading questions and providing background chapter 4, page number 38 "yes. ex: students' book, chapter 4, page 38 students' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no sometimes

	book, chapter 3, page 28	
Analysis: The above answers revealed that majority (90%) viewed reading materials help comprehension. However, 2 respondents (10%) felt differently as evident from their observations.		
x) What kinds of comprehension questions are asked: literal (surface) questions, discourse-processing questions, inference questions?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> literal, interference, processing questions literal (surface) questions, discourse-processing questions, and inference questions are asked in different chapters. 	--
Analysis: The above data revealed that all (100%) responded exclusively i.e. list various kinds of comprehension questions. However, some responses may be names as 'ambiguous' (positive though).		
Additional comments: Table 5 demonstrates the high positive responses to reading domain's questions. Interestingly, again, last question witnessed no adverse comment.		

Reading (scale Q11)

xi) To what extent does the material connect learners with knowledge (knowledge of the world)?

Reading

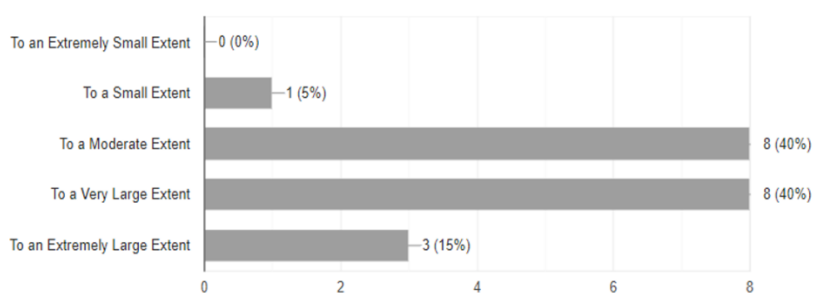


Figure 5

Figure 5 shows that the majority (95%) perceived the materials connect (to a greater extent) learners with the knowledge of the world. However, the lone respondent (5%) felt differently.

Writing (Open ended Qs 1-5)

TABLE 6

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
i) How does the material handle controlled writing, guided writing and free or semi-free writing? Explain.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> starts from controlled to free writing u5 "guided writing (ch 1, pg 14, 5a, b, 6, 7a b) "controlled writing: correcting sentences, completion of grammatical items, etc. guided writing: filling the gaps, completing a paragraph according to the given information. free writing: writing about any topic." free and semi free writing. students are asked to write an informal email (page 14), a group task of writing a cv on page 54 etc. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> there isn't any format or guideline on how to write.
Analysis: The (95%) respondents for the above question stated the ways the textbook handled controlled writing, guided writing and free or semi-free writing. However, very interestingly, 1 respondent (5%) felt "otherwise".		
ii) Is there appropriate progression and variety of task? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> u6.p59 vocab.1.2.3 yes, chapter 3, 35 yes, ch #1 page 13 ch# 2 page 23 "yes, chapter 5 page 55" yes/ write a travel blog/ unit 3/ p. 35/ ex. 4.a 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no variety of task
Analysis: The above comments revealed that a big number of respondents (65%) viewed the textbook appropriate as far as progression and variety of writing tasks are concerned. However, some respondents (35%) countered their peers with adverse comments.		
iii) Are the conventions of different sorts of writing taught? If so, which ones, and how are they presented? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "yes, informal letters (ch 1, pg 14) blog writing (ch 3, pg 35) story writing (ch 2, pg 15, wb)" "yes. guided and controlled writing .group and individual writing ch#1 page 13 ch# 2 page 23" "yes email writing chapter 1, page number 14 blog writing chapter 2 , page number 35 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to some extent
Analysis: The above responses reveal that the majority (75%) spotted the instances of the conventions of writings i.e. different sorts. However, 5 respondents (25%) countered with adverse comments.		
iv) Is there emphasis on the style of written English? At an appropriate level, is there attention to different styles according to text type? write examples: chapter/s and	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes. formal, informal, written and spoken styles. yes, chapter-9 thank-you message page 95 "yes email writing chapter 1, page number 14 blog writing chapter 2 , page number 35 paragraph writing chapter , page number 23 "yes. different styles are presented. ex: students' book, chapter 2, page 23 ""memory"". this paragraph writing. students' book, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not too much attention to different styles of writing

page numbers	chapter 1, page 14 ""informal e-mail".	
Analysis: The comments revealed that a big number of respondents (65%) responded positively and cited the references to make their claim evident. However, some respondents (35%) countered their peers with "no".		
v) Is attention given to the language resources specific to the written form, such as punctuation, spelling, layout, etc.? If yes, explain how...?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • yes, students' pre-knowledge of sentence structure is utilized. help is also taken from technical report writing course • yes. students attention are drawn to the fact that sentences must begin with capitals and to end with periods. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "in the book, there is nothing about punctuation, spelling or layout. • no, not at all.
Analysis: The comments for the first time reveal that the opinion is equally divided. Half of the claims cited the references to make their claim evident while a similar number (50%) countered their peers with adverse commentary and straight "no's".		

Additional comments: Table 6 demonstrates the responses to writing domain's questions a mixed opinion, positive though. Interestingly, last question witnessed claims divided among respondents as 50%-50% when asked a question: **Is attention given to the language resources specific to the written form, such as punctuation, spelling, layout, etc.?**

Writing (scale Q6)

vi) How much emphasis is there on accuracy?

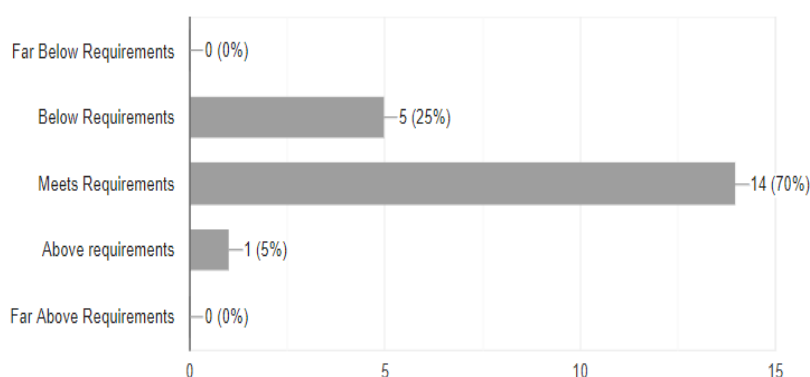


Figure 6

Figure 6 reveals that the majority (75%) perceived the emphasis on accuracy under the category "meets requirements". However, 5 respondents (25%) felt differently and decided to choose "below requirements".

Writing (Open ended Qs 7-9)

TABLE 7

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
vii) Are learners encouraged to review and edit their written work? If yes, explain the process...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • yes, they exchange their writings and make a self-review of the tasks. the teacher also reviews it . • yes/ to give the students writing task in each chapter then to review their writing together • yes, they are encouraged and to review and edit their written work, after writing task they are asked to review and correct the mistakes. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no (4 times)
Analysis: The above responses reveal that the majority (80%) agreed the claim that learners are encouraged to review and edit their written tasks. However, 4 respondents (20%) countered with straight negatives.		
viii) Is a readership identified for writing activities? If yes, explain how...?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • yes, the students are advised to read magazines, books, newspapers, internet sites and the like to enrich their knowledge about different subjects. • yes, a reading passage is used to collect and gather information to be used for writing activities. • somewhat yes, like letter to future boss 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no (10 times) • not much
Analysis: This question's responses should be taken into consideration critically because 8 respondents (40%) commented positively and cited references. While the majority (60%) decided to refute and viewed no such instances in the textbook.		
ix) Are writing activities suitable in terms of amount of guidance/control, degree of accuracy, organization of longer pieces of writing (eg paragraphing) and use of appropriate styles? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "yes. guided writing (ch 1, pg 14, 5a, b, 6, 7a b) • yes, chapter 3, 35 • language live /page 54/unit 5 • yes ch# 1 page 13 ch# 5 page 544 • yes, chapter 2 page 23 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • yes, but students are not asked to write longer pieces of writing. • no (7 times)
Analysis: The comments here reveal that the opinion is almost equally divided. 55% respondents commented and cited the references		

to make their claim evident while a very close number (45%) countered their peers with adverse commentary and straight "no's".

Additional comments: Table 7 demonstrates the responses to writing domain's questions a mixed opinion. Two out of 3 questions, a critical instance in this evaluation, were perceived "adverse" as apparent from the comments.

Grammar & Vocabulary (Open ended Qs 1-2)

TABLE 8

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
i) What grammar items are included? Do they correspond to students' language needs? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> tenses reported speech comparison active and passive countable and uncountable relative clauses" "tenses, degrees of adjectives, future clauses, ch#1 page 9 ch#2 page 18,19 ch# 5 page 31" formation of question, present simple, present continuous in chapter 1, past simple, past continuous, used to and would chapter 2. Yes, they correspond to each other. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no
Analysis: The respondents (95%) for this question named grammar items included in the textbook and viewed that they correspond to students' language needs. However, very interestingly, 1 respondent (5%) commented "otherwise".		
ii) How are new grammar items presented and practiced? Explain.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> through inductive and discovery methods then drills on them in a cohesive manner in a pragmatic way (eg page 18, page 6 etc) drills/discussed form they are presented implicitly or explicitly, and it is taught inductively or deductively. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no new grammar items. all grammar items were presented in level 1.
Analysis: The majority (85%) named the ways new grammar items presented and practiced. However, very few, 3 respondent (15%) countered the majority's claim with adverse commentary.		

Additional comments: Table 8 categorizes grammar & vocabulary domain's questions as high positive. All comments were positive followed by some adverse.

Grammar & Vocabulary (scale Q3)

iii) To what extent is the presentation and practice: related to what learners, already know and to what has already been taught, appropriately controlled & organized, representative of the grammar rule to be learned, relevant to learners' needs and interests?

Grammar & Vocabulary

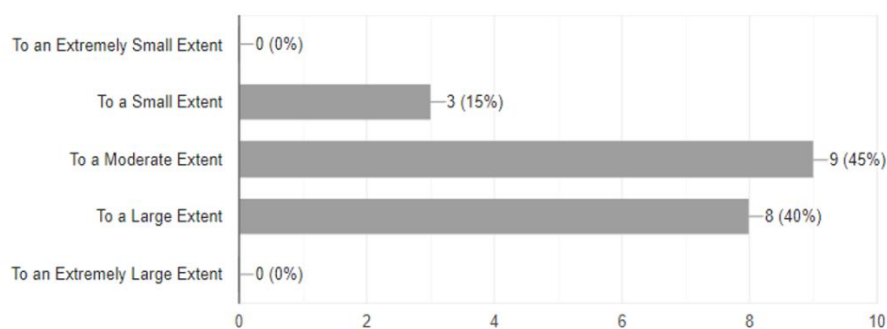


Figure 7

Figure 7 reveals that the majority (85%) perceived the presentation and practice relevant to learners' needs and interests. However, 3 respondents (15%) felt differently and chose "to a small extent".

Grammar & Vocabulary (Open ended Qs 4-6)

TABLE 9

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
iv) Are they (grammar items) presented in small units for easy learning? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> unit 5 p43 grammar 1.2 yes, chapter 2, 18 ex 1,2 (grammar page 49) unit 5 yes, ch#1 page 6,9 ch#2 page 18,19 yes . eg - pages - 6 , 18 etc. "yes, chapter 1 page 9" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> they are presented in a small and confusing manner without adequate explanations of the grammar rule. small units, but scanty.
Analysis: The majority (80%) cited the references for grammar items presented in small units for easy learning. However, 4 respondent (20%) countered the majority's claim with adverse comments.		
v) Is there an emphasis on language form? write examples: chapter/s and	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> yes, chapter 1, 6 ex 1 (practice) unit 5 ,page 49 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not much sometimes

page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • yes.ch#5 page 53 • "yes. unit-4/ p. 41/ ex. 1/ • yes , chapter two page 20. • "yes chapter 1 , page 6 chapter 3 , page 18 • "yes. ex: students' book, chapter 1, page 6 students' book, chapter 2, page 18 	
Analysis: The majority (85%) cited the references to support their views i.e. emphasis on language form as evident from the comments. However, 3 respondent (15%), as per the comments, didn't find any such instances.		
vi) Is there an emphasis on language use (meaning)? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • yes, chapter 3, 35 • unit 5 page 23 ex 3 workbook • yes ch# 9 page 87 • yes. unit 1/ p. 9/ ex. b/ present simple and present continuous • "yes chapter 2 pages 20, 21" • yes, chapter three page 35. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no (3 times) • not much
Analysis: The majority of the respondents (80%) referenced their views i.e. emphasis on language use as evident from their comments. However, 4 responses (20%), as evident from the comments, viewed the question adversely.		

Additional comments: Table 9 categorizes grammar & vocabulary domain's questions as high positive. All comments were positive followed by some negatives.

Grammar & Vocabulary (scale Q7)

vii) How balanced is the treatment of form and use?

Grammar & Vocabulary

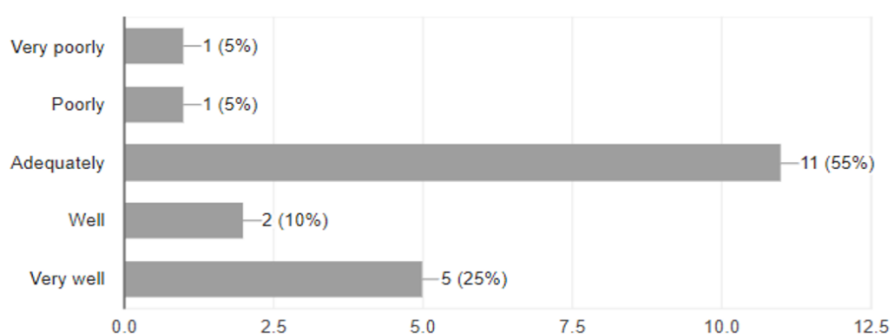


Figure 8

Figure 8 shows that the majority (90%) perceived the treatment of form and use as balanced. However, 2 respondents (10%) felt differently and viewed as "poorly/very poorly".

Grammar & Vocabulary (Open ended Qs 8-16)

TABLE 10

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
viii) Are newly introduced items related to and contrasted with items already familiar to the learners? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unit 4 page 42 ex 2a • yes, ch#1 page 6,9 ch#2 page 18,21 • yes , they move from the familiar to the unknown. • "yes, chapter 4 page " • yes, chapter 1,2,3 4,5 and 6 • "yes they are related to the students pre knowledge unit 1 present simple page 9 unit 2 past forms page 18 " 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "actually, there are no new items. students are familiar with the given items because they have been taught these items in level 1. • to some extent • somewhat as matter of opinion
Analysis: The comments revealed that majority (60%) cited the references in terms of newly introduced items related to and contrasted with items already familiar to the learners. However, a good number of respondents (40%) countered their peers with no and adverse comments.		
ix) Where one grammatical form has more than one meaning, are all relevant meanings taught (not necessarily together)? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "future forms u5 p49 grammar 1.2" • "yes. use of present continuous for actions happening at this moment, in the present period, as temporary, for gradual changing) ch 1,pg 9 " • "i used to play football. i would play football. chapter 2, 20" • yes, unit 3 page 30 • "yes, chapter 1 page 9" • chapter five e.g present continuous for future. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No (2 times) • not (so far)
Analysis: Most of the respondents (80%) referenced their views and commented positively. However, 4 responses (20%), as evident from the responses, commented adversely.		

x) Is material for vocabulary teaching adequate in terms of quantity and range of vocabulary, emphasis placed on vocabulary development, strategies for individual learning? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • yes, chapter 2, 21 • unit 1, page 11, 3 and 1a • yes, ch# 4 page 40 ch# 5 page 49 • yes . for eg pages - 21 , 40 , 8 , 47 etc • yes, chapter 1, 2, 3 and 4. • "yes. ex: students' book, chapter 2, page 16 and 21 students' book, chapter 3, page 26 and 28 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • not much • higher in level for most students
Analysis: Most of the respondents (70%) commented positively in support of materials for teaching vocabulary. However, 6 responses (30%), as evident from the comments, countered negatively.		
xi) How is new vocabulary presented? List.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • in word list and in text • nicely presented • word lists, in context, with visuals • in numerous ways. • different techniques are used • in context 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ruthless egotistical
Analysis: The respondents (95%) for this question enlisted the new vocabulary presented in the textbook. However, very interestingly, 1 respondent (5%) commented with "ruthless egotistical", which, for the researcher, remains a "puzzle".		
xii) How is the meaning of new vocabulary taught? Explain...	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • drills and in context • giving the students short definition, remind them to situations and pictures relate to vocabulary. • Eliciting and inference. • through word-family and structure • Through giving sentences in different context • In a table of words, text, guessing meanings etc • to understand the meaning from the context/ using English-English dictionary. • By explanation in context, miming, pictures • in text and in listening, by playing the audio and giving exercise which answers are the main words in a unit. 	--
Analysis: The responses reveal that all respondents (100%) commented the ways, as evident from the comments, in which the meaning of new vocabulary taught.		
xiii) Is there any distinction between active and passive vocabulary? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • unit 5, page 59, ex2 • yes, ch#7 page 69 • "yes, chapter 1 page 11" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "not all verbs used in active can be used with the passive u.7 p 69 grammar " • not aware of that
Analysis: The above remarks are very critical and revealed that only a very limited number of respondents (35%) viewed any distinction between active and passive vocabulary. However, this claim struggles when we look at the respondents who contribute as majority (65%) and adversely commented as evident from the responses .		
xiv) Is vocabulary presented in a structured, purposeful way? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • page 59 say and tell ex 1a /unit 5 • yes, ch# 8 work book ,page 49 • yes/ unit-3/ page 28/ ex. 1.a (features and sights) • "yes chapter 1 page 11" • "yes chapter 1 , page number 11 • "yes unit 5 vocabulary unit 4 vocabulary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • not much • sometimes
Analysis: Most of the respondents (85%) referenced the instances where the vocabulary presented in a structured, purposeful way. However, 3 responses (15%), as evident from the responses, commented adversely.		
xv) Are learners sensitized to the structure of the lexicon through vocabulary-learning exercises based on semantic relationships, formal relationships, collocations or situation-based word groups? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • chapter, 3, work, 17 • unit 5/word group ex1 page 28 • yes, ch# 5 page 49 • yes . eg pages - 8 , 21 , 40 , 47 etc 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no (6 times) • not much
Analysis: Most of the respondents (65%) agreed that the learners sensitized to the structure of the lexicon through vocabulary-learning exercises. However, 7 responses (35%), as evident from the comments, countered negatively.		
xvi) Does the material enable students to expand their own vocabulary independently by helping them to develop their own learning strategies? If yes, explain the process....	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • yes u5 p 49 vocab.2a • "yes chapter 1 page 11" • yes , chapter four page 40. • 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • no. they don't use the new vocabulary in speaking or writing. they use limited and easier vocabulary. • not so often
Analysis: Most of the respondents (70%) agreed that the materials enable students to expand their own vocabulary independently. However, some responses (30%), as evident from the comments, do not support the former claim.		

Additional comments: Table 10 categorizes grammar & vocabulary domain's questions as high-mixed responses. The responses witness a range i.e. 100%-60% for positive comments and 5%-65% as adverse ones.

Style & Appropriacy (Open ended Qs 1-5)

TABLE 11

Questions	Responses	
	positive	adverse
i) Are style and appropriacy dealt with? If so, is language style matched to social situation? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> u5 p32 ,11a yes, chapter 3, 30 unit 2, page 22 ex 2,3 ch# 4 page 40 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no (5 times) not much (2 times)
<i>Analysis: Most of the respondents (65%) agreed the question's framework and cited the references where they felt that style and appropriacy go hand-in-hand. However, 7 responses (35%), as evident from the comments, countered negatively.</i>		
ii) Is appropriacy taught with reference to choice of grammar, vocabulary, discourse structure or pronunciation? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> u6 p 56 a twist of fate:2 unit 2 page 19,20 yes, ch# 2 page 19 "yes, chapter 2 , page 22 and 23" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no (3 times) sometimes
<i>Analysis: Most of the respondents (80%) cited the references where they felt that appropriacy taught with reference to grammar, vocabulary, discourse structure or pronunciation. However, some comments (20%), as evident from the responses, countered negatively.</i>		
iii) Does the textbook identify situations or areas of language use where learners should be particularly sensitive to using appropriate styles, e.g. when requesting/complaining? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> u5 p53 useful language unit 3, task page 34 ,ex 2,3,4 yes, ch#4 page 39 "yes, chapter 4 page 41" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> not much no, not at all.
<i>Analysis: Most of the respondents (60%) agreed the question's idea and cited the references where learners should be particularly sensitive to using appropriate styles. However, 8 responses (40%), as evident from the comments, countered the former group with a straight "no".</i>		
iv) Are learners led towards an understanding of why some forms in English are more formal than others? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> "u5 p53 useful language u5 p33 writing 12a" yes, chapter 2, 21 yes (2 times) ex 2 b /page 54 /unit 5 yes ch#5 work book pages 32,33 yes, for example we teach them how to write a cv in unit 5, and which is why there is a need to teach formal and informal language forms. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> to some extent. not much no, not at all.
<i>Analysis: The comments for the first the second time in this study reveal that the opinion is equally divided. Half of the claims (50%) cited the references and commented to make their claim evident while a similar percentage (50%) countered their peers with adverse responses.</i>		
v) Are any other aspects of style other than formal/informal included (e.g. register – the language used within a particular activity or occupation)? write examples: chapter/s and page numbers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> blogs u3 p 35 unit 1,page 10 ,ex 2a yes, ch#7 page 68 yes. there are various ESP specific segments in the text which caters to activity or occupation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> no (11 times) not much
<i>Analysis: The remarks are very critical and revealed that only 6 respondents (30%) viewed other aspects of style other than formal/informal included in the textbook. However, this claim battles when we glance the respondents who contribute as majority (70%) and commented in negatives as evident from the responses.</i>		

Additional comments: Table 11 categorizes style & appropriacy domain's questions as mixed responses. All comments were ranged between 80%-30% for the positive end and swung between 20%-70% to the adverse end.

V. CONCLUSION

This study evaluated the contents of Cutting Edge. It looked at the textbook's positive and adverse attributes and discovered that the positive aspects vastly exceeded the negative ones. Despite some flaws in the textbook like lack of video material, lack of specific strategies for conversation, and almost no distinction between active and passive vocabulary, the teachers (for the most parts) thought that the textbook contents were appropriate. However, the researcher, based on the adverse comments, suggests that a latest EFL commercial textbook or series be reviewed which, potentially, will cover the space. It is hoped that EFL teachers will discover more on how to examine a textbook in terms of language development skills, listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar & vocabulary, and style & appropriacy.

VI. RECOMMENDATION

This study recommends developing authentic materials that are tailored to the needs and interests of the learners. To meet the learning outcomes, the social and cultural context must be considered when developing materials. The materials should be tested for at least one semester to get input from teachers and students, then reviewed by the professionals in the field of syllabus design and materials development. Before the execution, incorporate the feedback and expert comments.

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On the Causes and Countermeasures of Chinese Learners' English Reading Anxiety

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Abstract—Based on Humanistic Psychology and Krashen's Affective Filtering Hypothesis, this study explores the effects on English reading anxiety among Chinese students, and corresponding countermeasures are put forward to it. English reading anxiety, one of the emotional factors that have a great effect on foreign language learning, mainly refers to the feeling of not being able to achieve desired goal or overcome a mental obstacle. The results indicate that Chinese English learners suffer English reading anxiety in text comprehension, and the psychological, cultural and text factors are the main causes leading to it. Based upon the findings, its advisable to lower the learners' affective filter and promote their self-confidence as well as cultivate their cross-cultural awareness in future English reading teaching.

Index Terms—anxiety, reading anxiety, affective filtering hypothesis, cross-cultural awareness

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading used to be regarded as an individual activity and intrapersonal problem-solving task which happens within a person's brain, and it did not involve the interaction like speaking did (Bernhardt, 1991). Consequently, affective factors in second language reading, such as anxiety, were neglected. Actually, reading was an active meaning constructing process from a sociocognitive perspective (Bernhardt, 1991) in that readers played an important role in reading comprehension. For instance, readers interacted with texts which may bring about different interpretations of the text based on the readers' background knowledge and language knowledge itself. With the development of humanistic psychology, more and more attention has been paid to the affective factors in education. Language learning is a complex process which involves many factors, such as motivation, emotion, cognition, personality, and so on (Arnold, 2005, p.80). Anxiety, as one of the critical emotional factors in language learning, has become one of the hottest topics in the study of second language acquisition at home and abroad since 1970s. Most of the studies only focus on foreign language learning anxiety in a broad sense. Saito and his partners (1990) first put forward the concept of "Foreign Language Reading Anxiety" and illustrated the differences and relations between "Foreign Language Learning Anxiety" and "Foreign Language Reading Anxiety", and designed the "Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale"(FLRAS) to test the reading anxiety levels of the participants.

In China, the researches on foreign language anxiety mainly focus on the general English learning anxiety. Foreign language reading anxiety, as a kind of negative emotion in the process of foreign language reading, is a psychological phenomenon of discomfort, anxiety or even fear caused by readers' failure to reach the expected goal or overcome the obstacles in the process of reading (Zhao Yunli, 2009). The main research result is that there is a negative correlation between foreign language anxiety and reading performance. The researches on the relationship between affective factors and English teaching in China, however, started relatively late, and it doesn't get due attention by domestic scholars. This paper aims to explore the causes of English reading anxiety among Chinese learners, and attempt to put forward the corresponding countermeasures according to the results of the research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Anxiety is the tension and anxiety caused by an individual's failure to achieve a certain goal. According to Spielberger (1976), "anxiety is the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry that are experienced by an individual," and the "heightened activity of the autonomic nervous system that accompanies these feelings". From the psychological perspective, anxiety is explained as "an unpleasant, complex and emotional state of tension and worry caused by the possible imminent danger or threat, which is a kind of fear of fear and worry of worry" (Huang Xiting, 2003). Horvitz (1986) sees anxiety as a subjective feeling of tension and anxiety. Anxiety is an emotional state in which an individual's self-esteem and self-confidence are frustrated, or the sense of failure and guilt increase due to the failure or inability to overcome the threat of obstacles.

Although most studies have shown that foreign language anxiety has a negative influence on the learning process and performance (Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989; Phillips, 1992; Young, 1991), the relation between foreign language reading anxiety and foreign language reading performance is not so clear cut. Some studies demonstrate that foreign language reading anxiety negatively influences reading performance (Sellers, 2000; Shi & Liu,

2006) while some others show no significance in such a relationship (Brantemier, 2005; Mills, Pajares & Herron, 2006; Zhao, 2009)."

A. *Affective Filter Hypothesis*

For different individuals, their language learning speed and efficiency vary diversely, hence the final language levels are different accordingly. According to Krashen's Affective Filtering Hypothesis, "understandable language input is only a necessary condition for language acquisition, not a sufficient one." To explain the differences in language learning results, language input should not be considered as a single factor. The different amount of language input is one possible explanation for this. Another possible one is the learners' different emotional factors.

According to Krashen, learning purpose, learning motivation, self-confidence, anxiety and so on are collectively called "affective filtering" factors. Once having clear purpose, high learning motivation, strong self-confidence and moderate anxiety, then the "affective filtering" for learners is weak, and vice versa. Krashen points out that only through the emotional filter can all the language input reach the language acquisition mechanism and be absorbed by the brain. In the process of language acquisition, if the "affective filtering" is too strong, obstacles are likely to be formed in the brain, and language input will be filtered. Consequently, language acquisition will not occur.

B. *Foreign Language Reading Anxiety*

The concept of "Foreign Language Anxiety" was first proposed by Horwitz (1986). He holds that foreign language learning anxiety is a unique synthesis of self-perception, belief, emotion and behavior arising from the processes of foreign language learning. Scholars have a variety of classifications for foreign language anxiety. For example, it can be classified into Test Anxiety, Negative Evaluation Anxiety, State anxiety and so on. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1994), "foreign language anxiety is a feeling of tension and fear that has a special relationship with the foreign language context."

Saito et al. (1999) defined foreign language reading anxiety as: "the anxiety that learners experience in reading a foreign language. It is related to but distinguishable from foreign language anxiety" (Saito, Y., Horwitz, E. 1999). English reading anxiety is a negative emotion of readers in English reading, which is omnipresent in English reading (Saito et al., 1999). When it is difficult for individuals in the English reading situation to achieve expectations or when they encounter obstacles in reading, English reading anxiety caused by a kind of nervous fear arise, resulting in students' dissatisfactory performance in reading correspondingly.

C. *The Effect of Foreign Language Anxiety on Performance*

The effect of anxiety on learners' all aspects of academic performance has been examined for it is a common problem among foreign language learners. Comprehensively, early studies related to the relationship of foreign language anxiety and foreign language performance have generated mixed results, which showed that the relationship is a complex one. (Zhao, 2009). The relation of anxiety and foreign language performance is mediated by task difficulty and the intensity of anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a; Williams, 1991). The different opinions might also be due to the inconsistent measurement or some unclear definitions of foreign language anxiety. According to Zhao (2009), most of the early studies in foreign language anxiety have a focus on speaking, and some studies have also drawn readers' attention to the anxiety that foreign language students might experience in the less examined skills of listening, writing and reading (Cheng, 2002; Cheng et al., 1999; Vogely, 1998). Foreign language reading anxiety, foreign language listening anxiety and foreign language writing anxiety are related to but distinct from foreign language anxiety (Zhao, 2009).

Although most studies (Huang, 2001; Saito et al., 1999; Shi & Liu, 2006; Zhang, 2002) have showed that foreign language reading anxiety exists among foreign language learners, some other studies show that foreign language reading anxiety is not much of a concern to advanced language learners and foreign language reading anxiety level is related to the perceived difficulty level of the reading material and following reading tasks (Brantmeier, 2005). Generally speaking, while some studies showed that foreign language reading anxiety negatively affects foreign language reading process and also foreign language reading performance (Sellers, 2000; Shi & Liu, 2006), some found no significant relationship (Brantemier, 2005; Milles, Pajares & Herron, 2006, Zhao, 2009).

In English acquisition, reading, as an important means of language input, can measure English learners' language ability, so to improve their reading proficiency is super significant in English teaching. Therefore, it's essential to study the main barrier, reading anxiety, in English reading comprehension.

III. METHODOLOGY AND RESULTS

Reading is a complex activity, which involves multidimensional skills that includes a variety of linguistic, cognitive, and non-linguistic factors. Attempts to investigate the situation of English reading anxiety among Chinese college learners, this study aims to analyse the causes of English reading anxiety and put forward the some corresponding countermeasures to it .

A. *Research Design*

The participants involved are 89 college students from a southwest university in Sichuan province. All the students are selected randomly from 257 freshmen and sophomores. Table 1 shows the basic information of the participants.

TABLE 1
THE BASIC INFORMATION OF THE SUBJECTS

Gender	Male	35
	Female	54
Grade	freshmen	43
	sophomores	46

B. Results

As it shows in Table 2, about 47.73% of the students feel frustrated while they're reading English articles which are sort of challenge for them, and only 40.04% students deny it. From the result it can be concluded that the participants are with fear, rejection and burden in English reading comprehension, which will generate negative influence in their reading performance correspondingly. This finding conforms to the result obtained by Shi and Liu (2006), in which they found the foreign language reading anxiety was negatively correlated to the reading performance scores among the college EFL students in China.

TABLE 2
PSYCHOLOGICAL EFFECTS ON ENGLISH READING ANXIETY

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
5.34%	28.7%	18.23%	36.92%	10.81%

During the process of reading, English learners sometimes cannot fully comprehend the meaning of the article even if they can identify most of the words in it. The possible reason lies in the different cultural background. Language, as a carrier of language, contains distinctive cultural connotations from social and cultural systems at a macroscopic level to the origins of specific words. This is the main cause why English learners have difficulty in understanding the text even though they know exactly the specific meaning of the words. Usually the cultural differences make it difficult for Chinese English learners to understand the true intention or connotation of the original text accurately, which tends to cause dysfunction and anxiety in them.

TABLE 3
EFFECTS OF CULTURAL BACKGROUND ON ENGLISH READING ANXIETY

Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
4.9%	18.63%	19.7%	41.3%	15.47%

We can see from Table 3 that 56.77% of the Chinese English learners regard that cultural as well as historical knowledge of English-speaking countries are especially significant for reading comprehension. Comparatively, only 23.53% of the students among the participants have doubt about the significance of the cultural and historical effects on English reading anxiety.

TABLE 4
EFFECTS OF TEXTS ON ENGLISH READING ANXIETY

Questions	Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	agree	Strongly agree
Difficulty	4.2%	12.7%	7.8%	34.6%	40.7%
Type of tasks	6.9%	15.5%	14.7%	30.8%	32.1%
Genre	5.8%	17.2%	13.9%	28.5%	34.6%

The text, as one of the external factors on reading anxiety, exerts effects on learners reading comprehension performance greatly. The results in table 4 indicate that among the options causing anxiety in reading, 62.9% of the students chose the question types and 63.1% chose the article genre. As for the article genre, explanatory and narrative essays are involved. It is shown that most participants consider that multiple-choice questions are easier than essay questions. At the same time, they are likely to get more anxious when deal with much more difficult texts which contains more unknown vocabularies, more complex syntactic or grammatical structures. Hence it can be inferred that the difficulty of texts, the type of tasks and the article genre generally cause English reading anxiety to a certain extent.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Affective Factors

Affective filtering hypothesis, which consumes that learning a second language well or not is influenced by learners' emotion, is an important component of second language acquisition. Based on it, it's critical to filter emotions while learn a foreign language. Krashen's Second Language Acquisition theory emphasize that a large amount of appropriate language input cannot, definitely, enable students to learn a second language well, so the affective factors must be taken into account. Therefore during English reading, which is a key point in learning English, affective filtering should be adopted to stimulate students' enthusiasm so as to improve their confidence, clarify their reading purpose, reduce their stress and anxiety. Affective factors are the key elements in English reading.

English reading anxiety mainly refers to the feeling of not being able to achieve desired goal or overcome a mental obstacle. The nervous mood, such as psychological abnormality, belongs to the category of psychology, and closely related with the lack of self-confidence in reading, which tends to arouse boredom and upset in learners. From the perspective of self-emotional experience, the score of English reading anxiety in Chinese college students is slightly high, which indicates that there is a certain level of anxiety in the process of English reading among them. The reason is that college students are likely to have a low sense of self-efficacy, which presents negative correlation with reading anxiety. That's to say, the higher it is, the lower their reading anxiety will be, and vice versa.

It is easy for the English learners to fall into anxiety due to psychological factors if they have low ambiguity tolerance during reading. The results indicate that Chinese English learners suffer English reading anxiety in text comprehension, which is probably caused by their low ambiguity tolerance. Lacking ambiguity tolerance of potential challenges may result in learners' seeking of clearly-defined solutions to ambiguous objects or information in task performance. According to Arnold (2005), learners who lack of ambiguity tolerance are more likely to encounter a lot of difficulties in foreign language learning. Therefore, learners with higher degree of ambiguity tolerance are usually less over-obsessed with the accuracy of reading. They can, whereas, adjust their thinking and mind according to the text during the process of reading without being influenced too much psychologically, then they can gradually grasp the thoughts of the article in the subsequent comprehension. Therefore, the teacher should help students build higher ambiguity of tolerance, and train them how to avoid emotional volatility to the maximum. In addition, teachers should infuse students with confidence and try to stimulate their inner motivations.

In the process of English learning, reading is one of the most vital ways of language input. So the negative emotions should get filtered in order to stimulate the enthusiasm of learners, improve their self-confidence, make clear their reading purpose and reduce their reading anxiety. It can be said that the affective factor is the key point to the successful training of reading ability.

B. Cultural Differences

This survey shows that the lack of necessary cultural background and confidence are the main causes to English reading anxiety. Saito et al. (1999) pointed out that unfamiliar cultural concepts rank only second to words and writing systems as triggers of reading anxiety because anxiety tends to arouse when a reader cannot comprehend the contextual meaning of the words due to a lack of cultural knowledge.

The English course in China mainly focus on the ability cultivation of listening, speaking, reading and writing, while not specialize in English cultural knowledge. Consequently, it leads to big gap between Chinese and Western cultures among Chinese students. It's well known that the receiving and decoding speed of verbal signal is determined by the foreign language experiences stored in brains, such as a certain number of perceptible vocabulary, some grammatical rules and the knowledge of related cultural background. The more experience is stored, the faster the speed of signal receiving and decoding is. Similarly, the fewer obstacles encountered in reading, the anxiety reduced in return. And vice versa.

As the carrier of culture, language and culture are inseparable from each other. To help Chinese students' reduce their anxiety in English reading and improve their reading ability, its vital to cover cultural knowledge in college English teaching. That's to say, English teachers should deepen students' understanding of cultural differences and try to bridge the gap between Western and Chinese cultures.

In fact, identifying with another kind of culture is not easy. At present, students have relatively little understanding of profound cultural knowledge, such as literature, art, history, values, ways of thinking, etc. When students read the original texts due to the "cultural conflict", their understanding and the author's original intention are different greatly, thus affecting the effect of reading and understanding, which may result in anxiety. Therefore, students should be appropriately exposed to more cultural background knowledge.

English, as a language subject, has rich cultural connotations. It is a vital communication tool as well as cultural carrier. Language knowledge and skills are the foundation of language competence, while intercultural awareness is guarantee of proper use of language. Therefore, more focus should be shifted to the cultivation of language competence and cultural consciousness in English teaching, so as to promote the all-round development of students and their humanities education. For instance, in the pre-reading or lead-in process, the students can be guided to have in-depth discussion about the background reflected in the reading materials, such as emotions, religious tradition and ways of life. To have a certain cross-cultural awareness, in return, will also be conducive to the deep comprehension of the articles.

Teachers should break the traditional teaching mode, such as the limitations of the teaching materials to include some classic literary works and some films popular among students. Meanwhile, some current affairs and the BBC and VOA broadcast can be favorable materials to rich students' cultural knowledge. How to effectively help the learners to broaden the knowledge in cultures, and lower their reading anxiety and ultimately improve their reading ability are still worthwhile for further study in English teaching and research.

V. CONCLUSION

Anxiety is one of the emotional factors that have a great effect on foreign language learning, which is a construct that is related to but distinct from general foreign language anxiety. It related to speaking a foreign language is usually more

easily detected by instructors. However, anxiety related to reading is not easily noticed compared with spoken, since reading does not require the spontaneous interaction that speaking does. According to the sociocognitive perspective of reading (Bernhardt, 1991), reading is a meaning-reconstruction process where readers interact with not only the text-based components but also the extra-text components of a reading passage. Text-based components are such as word recognition, phonemic or graphemic decoding, and syntactic features. Most early studies on foreign language anxiety have focused on speaking, and foreign language reading anxiety research did not begin until recently (Saito et al., 1999). Many fundamental questions concerning foreign language reading anxiety such as the source of foreign language reading anxiety, the relation between foreign language reading anxiety and foreign language reading performance, and the relation between background variables and foreign language reading anxiety are still waiting for answers.

Language knowledge as well as skills is the basis of language proficiency, and cross-cultural awareness is the guarantee of appropriate language using. Therefore, more attention should be paid to the cultivation of cultural awareness in English teaching. Through this study, we explored the factors on Chinese students' English reading anxiety, which are psychological, cultural and text effects and provide some pedagogical implications to English teaching. It suggests that in the future teaching, some strategies to reduce anxiety should be designed and the difficulty of English reading corpus should be strictly controlled. At the same time, we should take into consideration of the different levels of reading anxiety between male and female students, so as to achieve the purpose of improving the effectiveness of reading teaching. Hopefully, case study and classroom observation would be applied to investigate reading anxiety in future studies.

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Language Teaching for Specific Purposes: A Case Study of the Degree of Accuracy in Describing the Character of Mental Disabilities in Modern Arabic Drama (Egyptian Film *Toot-Toot* as an Example)

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Abstract—The study aims at investigating the degree of accuracy in describing the character of mental disabilities in modern Arabic drama. The study takes the Egyptian Film *Toot-Toot* as an example. *Toot -Toot* is a film about a mentally handicapped heroine, “*Kareema*”, who was sexually abused by a wealthy man, and she was also socially harassed by the people of her community. The study tries to prove that there is an accurate stereotypical representation of the mentally up-normal characters in Arabic n drama and cinema. To achieve the objectives of the study, the descriptive analytical approach was adopted. The sincerity and consistency of the study tool were confirmed the study summarized the film into eight scenes, then they were analyzed and discussed in light of the degree of accuracy of the general characteristics of mental disabilities which include the following: cognitive, physical, linguistic, the social and psychological characteristics. Also, the role of social institutions towards the mentally disabled is discussed. The results revealed that the purpose is to make the audience to be sympathized rather than empathized by the dramatic representation of the disabled character for the sake of increasing the cash revenue of the film. To sum up, the mentally-handicapped characters were misrepresented; they were so far from the scientific and medical diagnosis.

Index Terms—Arabic television drama and cinema, Egyptian cinema, the representation of disabilities in Arabic cinema and drama, the stereotype of mentally handicapped people in cinema, *Toot-Toot*

I. INTRODUCTION

Toot-toot is an Egyptian that was produced in the nineties of the twentieth century. This film is about a mentally handicapped woman “*Kareema*” who was sexually abused by a wealthy man from her district, and she was also socially harassed by the people of her own community. The film was selected because it focuses on how the Egyptian drama represented the attitude of the modern Egyptian society towards the people of special needs in general and those who suffer from a mental illness in particular.

Media representation whether in Cinema or T.V drama is significant because it is an influential medium that can either create or shatter the way people think about disabled handicapped people. From this perspective, the study explores the degree of accuracy in describing the character of mental disabilities in modern Arabic drama. In this study, the researchers take the Egyptian Film *Toot-Toot* as an example.

It is worth noting that the idea of how people of the mental illness were characterized in the dramatic T.V. episodes or Cinematic production is a very sensitive issue. In other words, the presentation is varied; mostly it shows a negative presentation by hinting that these people are dangerous and harmful! However, even when they were fairly presented, they are misrepresented by having extreme exaggeration of the behavior. This reveals a contradiction to the medical diagnosis of these particular mental handicapped people.

A. The Problem of the Study

Most Arabic movies and dramatic productions tend to give a mistaken stereotype to the mentally handicapped characters. Therefore; many films present a sympathetic attitude toward the image of the people who suffer from handicapped problems, but the majority of the features that are presented in the films are in-accurate and highly exaggerated for film marketing aiming at urging the audience to sympathize rather than empathize. The features of the handicapped protagonists are far away from the true medical diagnosis. This kind of treatment is not real and distorts the truth by presenting a sequence of an intentionally false stereotypical image of the disabled in general and the

mentally handicapped heroes in particular. Hence; this fact stimulates the researchers to explore the image of the handicapped characters in The Egyptian film *Toot-Toot* to trace the degree of the accuracy of such representations.

B. *The Questions of the Study*

The study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What is the validity of the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the cognitive domain
2. How correct is the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the social field?
3. How correct is the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the motor field?
4. What is the validity of the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the emotional field?
5. Which is the validity of the information provided on mental disability in the linguistic field?
6. What is the role of social institutions in the field of mental disability?

C. *The Objectives of the Study*

The study aims at investigating the degree of accuracy in describing the character of mental disabilities in modern Arabic drama. The study takes the Egyptian Film *Toot-Toot* as an example. The study tries to prove that there is an accurate stereotypical representation of the mentally up-normal characters in Arabic drama. Some of the characteristics that are attributed to the mentally handicapped characters are true, but the majority of the features that are presented in the film are accurate and highly exaggerated for film marketing, to create a kind of influence to increase the turnout of the audience

D. *The Significance of the Study*

The choice of this film *Toot -Toot* came because the main character in the film is a girl who suffers from a mental disability. The film was shown for an hour and a half. The girl's character took over most of the film's scenes and was valuable material for the current study. Therefore, studying this film will enable us to check the degree of accuracy of the presentation of the disabled character in light of the medical and scientific diagnosis.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Many studies tackled the cinematic representation of the disabled characters in general and the mentally handicapped characters in particular. For instance, Romanska (2020) points out the hidden link between the handicapped character and the negative association of it. The stereotype of the evil cripple is "rooted in mythologies full of half-man half-beasts who possess pathological and sadistic desire" (Romanska, 2020).

Also, Molly Horan (2016) states that Cinema and T.V drama has a "history of being less than exemplary when it comes to ...characters with disabilities", some films have often "sentimentalized, frequently misinformed and at best-encouraged filmgoers to sympathies rather than empathized"(Horan, The Gurdian, 2016). Horan explored films and T.V shows that present characters with disabilities, he finds out that "Films tend to favor true stories that are dramatized. While they can tend to be maudlin or condescending, some of these films have proven to be sensitive portrayals of men and women struggling with disabilities"(Horan, 2016).

In addition, Winter et.al (2015), state that characters with disabilities are revealed to have cognitive incompetence and emotional conflict. The most important symptom is that their reaction to situations is slower than other normal characters. This could be seen in the character's reaction to verbal communication with others. The reaction applies to all types of words whether they have positive, neutral, or even negative associations (Winter et.al, 2015). Hence, Lin Meijun (2013) states that the source of drama is "the people's own experience", Lin Meijun discussed the important role that drama can play in forming a general impression on the viewers; he states that by embodying human action in the creative drama in both theory and practice, drama plays an important role in presenting human experience by focusing on tiny details of characterization of the major character. Lin Meijun highlights "spontaneity" as a major distinctive feature of the dramatic and cinematic production. In other words, drama plays an important function which is mainly an artistic function, still it "educates experience" (Meijun, 2013).

In "Disability in Film: Is Cinema finally moving with the Times?", David Cox argues that the importance of this type of film is not because they present disabled heroes and heroines, but it lies in the way the film treats these protagonists. He states this leads to a focus on the "untouchable centers on the parallels" between the caregiver and his disabled accusation". The major feature in such films is the "sense of exclusion" (Cox, 2012).

Taking such cinematic presentation of the disabled in mind, there is an indirect hint at the idea that disability was a "divine punishment, and that disabled people are a threat". Long more goes even further to claim that they were presented either as embittered, or by their fate, or even worse out of control, "eager to avenge themselves on the able-bodied"(Long more, 2003).

In "On screen and stage, disability continues to be depicted in outdated, clichéd ways", Misha Ketchell draws attention to the "increased sensitivity to gender and race representation in popular culture, disabled Americans are still awaiting their national (and international) movement" (Romanska, 2020). Furthermore, Romanska adds that the

disabled characters are limited to four types: the "magical cripple," the "evil cripple," the "inspirational cripple" and the "redemptive cripple" (2020). Magical cripples exceed the boundaries of man's strength and are nearly supernatural they make miraculous things happen for able-bodied characters.

Shannon Kelly in her article "What do you think of how people with disabilities are portrayed in films and on TV?" discussed the negative representation of disability in films on TV. She says Hollywood portrayals of disabled people aren't great because most movies are about dramatized stereotypes, far away from reality (Kelly, 2018).

Abd al-Rahim referred to the mentally handicapped child who is characterized by some of the characteristics that are reflected in his mental abilities, namely withdrawal, hesitation, repetitive behavior, excessive movement, his inability to control his emotions, the inability to establish effective social relationships with others and tends to participate with the younger than him (Abd al-Rahim, 2012).

Shash (2002) states that individuals with severe disabilities suffer from good conditions, self-medication, difficulty in the soul, difficulty in the soul, and difficulty in love, how much they cannot help in protecting themselves, or their peers, throughout their whole life (Shakhs 2002).

As Al-Ajami indicated, people with disabilities are predominantly affected by emotional and social maladjustment that appears informing negative perceptions of themselves that lead to poor self-confidence and a low sense of security, in addition to feelings of helplessness and inferiority, severe dependence on others, and a sense of shyness, so the disabled individual tries to distance himself from others and introversion, which leads to some problems in the processes of social growth, and the acquisition of social skills necessary to achieve independence and a sense of self-sufficiency, and this may arise from limited movement and the inability to notice the behavior of others (Al-Ajami, 2020).

III. METHOD AND PROCEDURES

a. Methodology: The study uses the descriptive and analytical method for its relevance to the nature of the study, which adopts the interpretation of data logically and narratively.

b. Study population: The study population consisted of Arab dramas, films, and TV series that dealt with persons with disabilities.

c. Study sample: The study sample consisted of the movie *Toot-Toot*, an Egyptian film produced in 1993 by director Atef Salem.

IV. RESULTS

To answer the first question, what is the validity of the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the cognitive domain? The eight scenes that contained the general characteristics of mental disabilities will be shown as follows:

Results of the analysis of the film "*Toot-Toot*" in the field of cognitive characteristics of mental disability

TABLE NO. (1)
ANALYSIS OF THE SCENES OF THE MOVIE IN WHICH THE FOCUS IS ON THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE STUDY

Scene Number (1)

SCENE CONTENT	NOTES
The girl, Karima, mentally handicapped, ran in the market wearing torn clothes, followed by several children throwing stones at her and saying in one voice, Karima, the crazy woman, and everyone looked at her and laughed and did not find help from anyone, and she insulted the children with single words (your mother, your father). And she tries to defend herself by hitting the children who insult her	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. A girl with low mental capabilities 2. According to the opinion of the law, at the end of the film, the girl suffers from a severe mental disability

Scene Number (2)

SCENE CONTENT :	NOTES
Karima entering hajj's shop (Helmy) Noticing people pounding through large pistils asking for Hajj Helmy to work, charging it precisely through a medium-sized paddle, while she is working, she hears the voice of the girls' hair seller (Salama), and takes girls' hair (sugar Sweet), and then the shopkeeper's attempt to harass her, and then ask her to deliver the gas cylinders to the house of al-Hajjah (and she is the one who cares for Karima	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Attention: She pays attention to the voice of the candy seller "Salama" and takes the sweets from him.

Scene Number (3)

SCENE CONTENT	NOTES
The features of celebrating weddings appear as part of the popular rituals. When the child reaches the seventh day, the parents cleanse and make a celebration so that Karima participates in all the details of the celebration from its beginning to its end.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Attention: Pay attention to the girl who is adorned, and ask for the same 2. Selective attention: Watching the baby's rash and asking about it 3. Memory: She wants the word "Shami and Rose", a phrase that I heard from the shopkeeper (Helmy) to get sweets and return them to get sweets

	4. Awareness: When she said to me that a kidney with your teeth approached you, she said (them) a word for eating.
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Scene Number (4)

SCENE CONTENT	NOTES
In the celebration, Karima meets a wealthy man (his name is Mahrous). The scene moves to Karima washing her clothes, singing, Mahrous and Hajj Helmy look at her immorally. Then the scene moves to children throwing Karima with stones and trying to defend herself and beating Sambo and taking off her clothes while children assault her and the neighborhood people look at her and a guarded desire increased Out after seeing it like this	1. Memory: At the celebration, Karima raises her dress and says (Smell and his rose is Hajj), a phrase that the pilgrimage said to her in his shop a short time ago 2. Thinking: When she heard the call to supplication, she arose and responded to the supplication

Scene Number (5)

SCENE CONTENT:	NOTES
He leaves her unguarded and gets lost in the streets of the capital Cairo, she keeps walking until she reaches a place on the railway, she finds a place to go inside the railway	1. Memory: a. She sees <i>Mahrous</i> entering the hotel, you remember him and follow him b. She hears a <i>Salama's</i> beep, remembering him, and goes to him to buy basbousa. c. She wanders around the city and returns to its place on the railway without getting lost. 2. Reflection: She smartly evades hotel workers 3. Understanding: She used the elevator correctly and appropriately 4. Attention: a. She asks for an image, according to the opinion of the shopkeeper, that represents the Virgin and Christ b. She watches the sugarcane squeezing process imitating what you saw

Scene Number (6)

SCENE CONTENT	NOTES
<i>Mahrous</i> comes to the place where lives, which is a group of iron on top of each other in the form of a very small room next to the mosque, and he brings her the "basbousa" and lures it into his car, and he takes it with him to his home, in his house he orders the servants to take care of her from the physical side, and after it is prepared he rapes her.	Understanding: 1. (<i>Mahrous</i> says, "Clean it" in the car. "Beeb says is an expression of the car 2. When <i>Mahrous</i> tried to play the dog, she said, "No dog, where is the tail." 3. Understanding and realizing (feeling sad and crying over what happened with her 4. Understanding: responding to instructions when asked to wait for him

Scene Number (7)

SCENE CONTENT :	NOTES
The scene of decent birth, receiving help from the railway worker's wife, after childbirth she puts her son on her lap and the railway worker tries to help her expels him and leaves her with her newborn, she tries to perform the rituals that she witnessed when the children were born, she tries to feed what she eats and then, her feelings direct her to breastfeed	1. Memory: a. Performing the rituals that she witnessed when the birth of a child with her son b. She covered herself up when she breastfed her son in front of the security official. 2. Understanding: a. When she asks: Why is <i>Fanoos</i> ?) <i>Fanoos</i> is the owner of the juice shop when he asked her not to breastfeed her baby in front of people. b. <i>Sambo</i> asked her where is this child? She said, <i>Karima's</i> son, her son, my womb. 3. Perception: the child's temperature rises, you realize that the child is sick 4. Realization: When a bystander told her that the child should go to the hospital, she said (death), meaning he could die 5. Attention: When she follows up with the child while he is receiving treatment.

Scene Number (8)

SCENE CONTENT	NOTES
<i>Karima</i> returns to the neighborhood bearing her son. Meeting <i>Mahroos</i> , <i>Karima</i> strikes him, and the people of the neighborhood kick him out of the neighborhood.	1. Understanding: a. When she says a man in Military uniform Takes <i>Sambo</i> and gets <i>Karima</i> home. 2. Memory: Mahrous Bey, Jeb Basbousa, a car

	3. Attention: a. the perception you see the purification of children asking the argument to purify her so b. Mahrous, Jeb Basbousa, in a car, house, on a mattress 4. Understanding: When she asks "what dish?" and when she describes what happened with her "he guarded ...door lock, on a bed"
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To answer the first question: How correct is the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the cognitive domain? The results are as follows:

TABLE NO. (2)

Mental characteristics				
SCENES	Attention	Memory	Comprehension	Thinking
SCENE (1) Karima the heroine of the movie is a low mental capacity girl.				X
SCENE (2): She pays attention: to the voice of the candy seller (Salama) and takes the sweets from him	x			
SCENE (3) She pays attention to the girl who adorns and asks to adorn herself			x	
Watching the baby's circumcision and asking about this matter				x
Watching the boy's circumcision and asking about this matter			x	
SCENE (4) the celebration scene,			X	
SCENE (5) Mahrous says, "Kill it with his bus," the car says. "Beeb says," is an expression of the sound of the car			X	
SCENE (6) Asking about an image, according to the owner of the shop, that represents the Virgin and Christ				X
Seeing the process of squeezing sugar cane imitate what you saw			X	
Evading hotel workers cleverly		x	X	X
SCENE (7) Follow-up of the child while receiving treatment	x			
Doing the rituals that she witnessed when the birth of a child, with her son and repeating the same phrases		X		
covering herself when she breastfeeds her son in front of the security Responsible, and this request them (lantern)	x			
Scene(8) she asks about the child's circumcision and expressed her wish to get her circumcised			x	X
She was able to remember and identify Mr. Mahrous saying "Mahrous Bay, give me Basbousa, car"		X		
Asking questions " what dish?" trying to explain what happened to her "guarded door lock, on a bed"	X			

To answer the second question: How correct is the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the social field? The results are as follows:

TABLE NO. (3)

Social Characteristics						
SCENES	Daily-living skills	self-care skills General appearance	Self-independence skills	cash handling skills	general safety skills	adaptation skills
SCENE (1) Untidy, dirty, torn clothes The relationship with others: the mockery and laughter of everyone at the disabled girl	x					
SCENE (2) Eating skill: eat sweets with her hand	x					
SCENE (3) She carries and distributes a basket of sandwiches Eating: She eats food normally by hand and alone			x			
to attack or slap anyone who tried to harass her					x	

The old woman demanding her to strike everyone who approaches her badly					x	
SCENE (4) Karima washes her clothes and puts them in a place to dry on her own without assistance	x					
She verbally assaulted anyone who assaulted her.					x	
SCENE (5) Eating skill:	x					
SCENE (6) Street Crossing Skills: She alone crosses the busy street, helping a child cross the street	X					
SCENE (7) feeding herself and taking care of the baby			X			
SCENE (8) Take responsibility: fear for the child from strangers					X	

To answer the third question: How correct is the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the motor field? The results are as follows:

TABLE NO. (4)

Physical and kinetic properties					
SCENES	Physical health	Visible deformities	Movement consistency	Visual kinesthetic synergy	great and minute kinesthetic skills
SCENE (1) Physical form: beautiful and adorable, there are no distortions		x			
Health condition: very good	x				
The presence of deformities: the right leg is obstructed, the palm of the right leg is bent inward		x			
She hurls stones that are thrown at her with the left leg					X
She raises her foot and takes off her shoes to hit the children			X		
SCENE (2) The way to walk with the feet inside Hajj Helmy's shop					X
She holds gas cylinders one on the head and one rolling by the foot					X
She pounded some materials in a medium-sized iron pestle			x		
She eats the sweets with her hand					X
SCENE (3) She dances with the melodies of the music			x		X
She carries a basket of sandwiches and distributing them			x		X
SCENE (4) She eats alone and feeds the dog				X	X
SCENE (5) Good eating skill			X		
When entering the bathroom, she walked straight, and the shape of the foot was not a proper curve			X		X
She sat cross-legged by the bathroom sink, without falling and balanced					X
Mahrous's resistance when he tried to rape her, and verbal and physical aggression against him					X
SCENE (6) Street crossing skills and helping a child to cross the street					X
Pick up the ax and try to work					X
she runs over a narrow area in a straight line			X		X
SCENE (7) She Cooperated with the lady who helped her in the birth process					X
She Properly carries and breastfeeds the child			X		
SCENE (8) he hit Mahrous on the head directly, wounding him after taking the candy stick from Salama					X

To answer the fourth question, which is the validity of the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the emotional field? The results are as follows

TABLE NO. (5)

Scene	Aggression	excessive movement	stereotyped behavior	routine behavior	empathy
Scene(1) hitting children and insulting them "your father, your mother"	X		X		
Scene(2) The transformation from sadness and crying to a state of happiness when she worked in the Hajj shop			X		
She hit several people when distributing sandwiches	X	X			
when the child tried to dance with her, she pushed the child back	X				
Scene(4) she responds to the spiritual call with supplication by taking a candle, lighting it, and making supplication	X			X	
Scene(5) Feeling sad and crying because of what happened with her				X	X
Scene(6) The feeling of being pregnant			X		
Scene(7) Fear of the child from the railroad worker and trying to expel him Breastfeed the child from her without any previous knowledge					X
Scene(8) Feelings of anxiety and intense fear for the child in the hospital Aggression hit Mahrous after remembering what happened to her	X				X

To answer the fifth question, which is the validity of the information provided on mental disability in the linguistic field? The results are as follows:

TABLE (6)

Linguistic characteristics		
Scene	receptive language	expressive language
Scene 1 insulting them "your father, your mother"		X
Scene 2 The use of one word for the expression "Hajjah tube, ring Hajj, Ace Haj, Bush, safety."		X
Scene 3 She used the word "beggars" to describe those who to take the sandwiches from her.		X
She used the word "Walk you little girl", to the little girl who did the dance		X
She used the word "Sweet Hajjah" to describe the good woman and ask her to put Kohl "eyeliner" for her	X	
She used the word "In the name of Allah, Masha Allah" to express gratitude		X
She used the word (what's that ?) in the scenes of circumcision)		X
She used the word Smell a rose	X	
Scene (4) She Prays to god with the sentence: (O Lord, let Kareema until morning to strike Sambo, and hit the soldier"		X
Karima says to Mahrous: "Basbousa, red, large"	X	
she verbally assaulted a man saying fragments, some phrases "your father, your mother, says " O Lord, take you, O Lord, death"		X
She said full sentences: 1. "No, I will go home to Hajj" she 2." Hajj, Helmy, is also sweet"		X
Some fragmentary sentences: "Sambo man, ski man, guarded man".	X	

And to answer the sixth question, which is what is the role of social institutions in the field of mental disability? The results are as follows:

TABLE (7)

The role of social institutions in the field of mental disability	
Religious institutions: The Mosque & Church	Neither the mosque nor the church show any role in protecting the disabled girl
Law & order Institution	When Karima entered the police center for investigation the knowledge of, the man of charge in the security center realized that she suffers from a mental disability and is carrying a child, he did not make any recommendation for assistance, but only paid the bill for her as an expression of compassion and left her with her child without communicating with any party to protect the girl and the child. There is no official role for human rights centers to defend the rights of mentally disabled people.
Health care institutions: hospitals and medical centers	When Karima entered the hospital to treat the child and with the doctor knowing that the girl suffers from a mental disability and cannot take care of the child at all, he spoke with her as if she was a normal person and did not communicate with any party to provide care for the child first and the mother secondly, although this is the core of professional ethics of Medicine.
Social institutions	Care and rehabilitation centers: There is no reference in the film for the existence of any institution for the care and rehabilitation of the mentally disabled

V. DISCUSSION

After reviewing the results of the study, the researchers found a set of general observations about the dramatic film, the focus of the research, and these observations are:

The film did not address the issue of diagnosing mental disability, it presented a completely different picture of society, especially since the film's heroine is a disabled girl who is present in the street and is open to abuse by everyone, and this never exists in Arab society, as we may find the disabled male individual in the street, but we never find that for girls with disabilities due to the cultural and ethical dimension And the moral one who considers approaching the girl an honor crime punishable by society before the law.

The results will be discussed according to the opinion of the law, which described Karima's condition as suffering from a severe mental disability.

Definition of severe mental disability according to IQ (they are individuals whose IQ score on IQ tests is from (25-40). definition of severe mental disability according to the educational dimension (classified into dependents)

To answer the first question, which is: How correct is the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the cognitive domain? The results were as follows: Concerning the first cognitive characteristics and the foundation stone for all other cognitive abilities:

1. **(Attention)** Attention is the first cognitive process we practice when dealing with environmental sensory stimuli before perception (Muhanna, 2018). Also, in another situation in which Karima was in the neighborhood and the neighborhood was full of attitudes and views and all kinds of external stimuli, where the scene represented a state of holding weddings and events. Karima left all the signs of joy, joy, and adornment that are supposed to be the focus of her attention due to the colors and sound, as they are considered to attract attention and focus only on The ritual (purification) did not stop the matter at this point, but also asked what is this thing?

And in a later situation, after a year of witnessing her purification, she returns and focuses the same way and the idea on the purification of children. She showed high attention and focus in most situations, especially selective attention. Therefore, this attention requires great energy and effort from the individual because the distracting factors are often high and the motivation for continuing attention may not be high, and this matter is completely inconsistent and does not apply definitively to the characteristics of severe mental disability in the area of attention (Abdullah, 2010). Al-Azza ensures that the lack of attention of the mentally handicapped is due to their inability to use appropriate visual stimuli (Al-Azza, 2000).

As well as Ahmed and Badr indicated that poor attention and a high vulnerability to distraction are among the characteristics of the mentally handicapped (Ahmed and Badr, 2005). However, the film dealt with this characteristic opposite to the characteristics of the mentally disabled in the field of attention.

2. **(Memory):** a cognitive process concerned with storing what has been acquired from information, to retrieve it when needed after a period that may be lengthened or shortened (Jaber, 2021). In the scenes of the film, the remarks in the field of memory were as follows: In the situation in which Hajj, Helmy, tried to harass a cream, he asked her to lift her dress using the word "Smell a Rose" and after some time, during the celebration, Also, memory is weak and remembering slow it is accompanied by difficulties in retrieving information and memories are usually inaccurate (Adel, 2014).

Likewise, mentally handicapped individuals are characterized by their weak ability to retain information, the difficulty of recalling information when needed, and memory problems increase with the increase in the severity of the disability, and it becomes its lowest in cases of severe mental disability (Jaber, 2021). Deficiency in the field of memory is a natural thing because attention is the first cognitive process, then memory (Al-Failakawi, 2007). If the individual, suffers from a lack of attention, he will, accordingly, suffer from memory deficiencies

3. **(Recognition):** a mental, psychological process that helps any person to know his external world and reach the meanings and connotations of things, by organizing sensory stimuli, to interpret and formulate them into meaningful faculties. In the film, a group of scenes was observed in which Karima's cognitive ability was

evident, for instance; when he asked not to breastfeed her son in front of people, and in the situation where the child's temperature rises, she realizes that the child is sick when it rose His temperature, and when a bystander told her to take the child to the hospital, she said (death). This is what he indicated (Al Shakhes, 2008) who said that the difficulty of perception varies according to the degree of mental disability, as it is difficult for people with severe mental disabilities to distinguish between shapes, colors, sizes, weights, smell, and taste. And the ability to perceive is affected by the level of the functioning of the senses (Al Shakhes, 2008).

4. **(Thinking):** It is the process by which information and experiences that the individual had previously learned and reorganized to face the new situations (i.e. the ability to solve problems) appeared in the film a group of scenes that showed a certain level of thinking in Karima, among which, when she heard the call to prayer, she rose and responded She called for simple words and sentences, and even took candles with her, meaning she was able to make a decision and take a procedure indicative of good thinking abilities. Through these scenes, it was found that *Karima* possesses thinking abilities that ranged from high, as in the hotel, to medium and normal, and this matter does not apply definitively to the thinking characteristic of people with severe disabilities which include:
 1. Deficiencies in the attention process
 2. Deficiencies in memory
 3. Failure to form disparate mental images
 4. Weakness in the syntax

And to answer the second question, which is to what extent the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the social field is correct? The movie scenes are analyzed and discussed as follows:

Mercer introduced the definition of social skills or adaptive behavior as that social role expected of the individual compared to his counterparts from the same age group to which he belongs, and this concept includes the social roles expected of the individual, especially his ability to social responsibility and the social skills expected of him (Khatib, Hadidi, 2009).

The adaptive behavior test has been adopted as a basic criterion in the diagnosis of mental disability. The basis for mental disability is a disorder in two or more aspects of adaptive behavior, and the more severe the mental disability, the lower the adaptive behavior skills.

At the beginning of the film, *Karima* appeared untidy and unclean, and torn clothes and everyone was mocking her and laughing at her and she could not defend herself at all, but in the scene in which the Hajj bought her sweets, she ate sweets with her hand without any help, and in another scene she eats at the dining table in a very organized manner in a guarded house and another scene she buys food from the seller alone and eats it Without any anomalous appearance of eating, the film presented two opposing positions at the same time the position of total impotence and the position of the other, mastering the skill of eating.

To answer the third question: How correct is the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the motor field? After analyzing the scenes, they are discussed as follows:

Karima's physical shape: *Karima* appeared beautifully and lusciously. There are no abnormalities in the organs responsible for movement and she did not suffer from any health problem at all. At the beginning of the film, the film showed that *Karima's* right foot was bent inward so that the way of walking was inconsistent due to that curve. But when I entered the Hajj shop, my dream walked normally, and when I carried gas cylinders on her head and rolled one with her foot, and this matter requires strength, physical, balance, and coordination of a psychomotor and skeletal system. Likewise, in two scenes from the film, *Karima* was dancing to music with the rhythm of the music, and her auditory-kinesthetic perception was very high.

Karima showed in many scenes great coordination of movement. However, she did not suffer from any imbalance in the process. When entering the bathroom, she walked straight and the shape of the foot was not a proper curve, and she squatted at the bathtub without falling and balanced. All this while she suffers from a curvature of the foot to the origin of this poses a problem for her in all these skills.

As Al-Maghazi (2004) indicated that the most important physical characteristics that distinguish mental disability are less weight and smaller than the ordinary, deficiencies in motor functions and nervous coordination, more susceptible to disease than others. He pointed out (Al-Qamish, 2007), the rate of physical and mental development of the mentally handicapped tends to decrease in general. The degree of decline increases with the increase in the severity of the disability. Especially in the head and face, and sometimes in the upper and lower extremities.

And to answer the fourth question, which is to what extent the information provided about the characteristics of mental disability in the emotional field is correct? The results are discussed as follows:

Kirk and Al-Sartawi et al defined the behavioral problem as is a deviation from age-appropriate behavior that affects the individual's growth and development and affects the lives of others (Kirk; Gallagher & Anastasiow, 2003). Social and emotional adjustment is highly correlated with mental ability (Al-Sartawi et al., 2012), and those with mental disabilities show a clear decline in social adjustment and a lack of tendencies.

Al-Khatib (2003) indicated that the mentally handicapped are among the most people who suffer from behavioral problems due to their inability to define socially acceptable aspects of behavior. Also Al-Rousan (2001) indicated a set of common behavioral characteristics of mentally handicapped individuals that make them more susceptible to

behavioral problems compared to others. Among the most important of these characteristics: the apparent lack of ability to learn, problems of poor attention and concentration, frustration and a sense of failure, the problem of remembering, and the apparent lack of transmission of the impact of learning.

To answer the fifth question, which is the validity of the information provided on mental disability in the linguistic field? The film displayed the following linguistic characteristics:

Communication is the process that is circulated in the exchange of ideas and information and the expression of needs and desires among the participants in the communication process, and it is the purpose and function of the language. Al-Amayrah, Al-Natour (2012), Al-Rousan (2000), and Kitishat and Al Omar Al Omar (2021) defined it as a method of social communication, a method of mental and emotional development. They look different from each other.

The linguistic use of Karima in the scenes of the film was as follows: Karima used a group of single words and the use of the single word was correct, such as cursing with one word, (your father, your mother) (tube, Salama, sheathing, sweet, cream, eye, Hamra, large) all of these The vocabulary was spelled correctly by Karima and they were single words

In other situations, sentences said, and these sentences are considered according to linguistic development within the telegraphic language level (i.e. the language that contains words without prepositions or nouns or a sign such as (Doki Aj, means more accurate oh Hajj) (Ace Hajj, meaning what Hajj) (Walk a bit, I mean, walk, girl. I mean, a red and large basboush),

Al-Rousan (2000) indicated that the most important manifestations of language disorders among the disabled are:

First: Speech disorders. It includes deletion, substitution, addition, distortion)

Second: Voice disturbances, which include: the pitch of the voice in terms of its intensity, loudness, low, or quality

Third: Speech disorders, including stuttering, standing up while speaking, and excessive speed of speech

Fourth: Language disorders, including a delay in the emergence of language, loss of the ability to understand and produce the language, difficulty writing, difficulty remembering, difficulty understanding a word or sentences.

Al-Batayneh and Al-Jarrah (2009) indicated linguistic development does not develop in isolation from cognitive abilities, it is natural that we find people with mental disabilities suffering from difficulties in the linguistic aspect, and in performing tasks dependent on the verbal and linguistic side.

And to answer the sixth question, which is: What is the role of social institutions in the field of mental disability?

What was noticed during the screening of the film was as follows:

First: The role of religious institutions (the mosque and the church): The film did not show any role for either of them, but rather it showed a decent living in a very simple place next to the mosque and supporting herself, and no one would help her or extend a helping hand to her.

No role appeared for the church because the film represents the Muslim community. This contradicts everything known about the role of religious institutions in providing protection and cares for the mentally handicapped since the beginning of dealing with mental disability, as the church was the first to provide care, including protection, shelter, clothing, and food for the mentally handicapped, in Islam, which provided all the rights for this group.

Second: The legal institutions (security centers, human rights centers): The film did not show any party responsible for defending the rights of persons with disabilities, as Egyptian society has shown that it is a society of chaos Kitishat and Al Kayed (2021). About the legal aspect, when Karima was arrested on charges of begging and presented to the legal official an order to release her. Finally, the protection, care, and follow-up of individuals with disabilities, even though they are the executive authority for the laws and legislations that provide for the protection and rights of people with disabilities.

Third: Health institutions (hospitals): When Karima's baby became ill and he was taken to the hospital and the doctor examined him, he spoke with *Karima* as a normal person and reassured her and asked her to take care of the child, with the doctor knowing that she suffers from a mental disability and is completely unable to care and care for the child and this What is confirmed by medicine in the field of medical diagnosis of mental disability, the film showed the role of hospitals as superficial, irrational and irrational in the field of mental disability.

Fourth: Social Institutions (Care and Rehabilitation Centers): The film did not deal with this dimension definitively, and it seems that the society in which *Karima* grew up was within a society in which there are no institutions that care for the special needs and handicapped people.

All of this passive presentation was presented in this movie that was watched by millions of people. This eludes to a clear failure on the part of the competent authorities regarding the rights of the mentally handicapped in particular, or those who have special needs.

VI. CONCLUSION

Drama in this field stands at the forefront of that media, where life emerges - drama after it contained in its special form the objective laws that control its existence and progress. Hence the increasing importance of studying drama in a detailed, in-depth study that does not stop at the task of purely academic studies, but rather as a conscious, methodical answer that expresses the extent to which our contemporary world can be portrayed, and the criterion for this possibility is the extent to which this drama embodies the values and cultural phenomena that people create through their

experiences and the strength of their work. Having in mind the important role of drama and cinema in communication, the researchers highlight the significant role cinema could play in correcting the attitudes of the people to the character of the mentally- handicapped person, by directing an accurate image about this category of handicapped people who were misrepresented in both drama and cinema.

The visual drama has real power in conveying images from people and societies and informing the minds due to its widespread and its ability to dazzle and take over the times of viewers. It also builds images accumulated in their minds, which makes them link between these images presented in the drama and the reality around them, as well as the reality of people. The ideas presented and their repetitions almost continuously, enable them to create a stereotype and formulate it among the masses, the mental images and social reality presented by the means of communication regarding the issue of people with disabilities, make the public believe that this is the actual reality of PWD. If television portrays them in a negative and distorted way in some movies and series, then when television viewers meet an individual with a disability in front of them, they will bring up the negative images they saw, and they will deal with the disabled on this basis. Thus, it confirms the importance of transmitting real images of persons with disabilities because this will contribute to enhance positive mental images among the mass media, especially television and drama.

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The Effectiveness of Xi Jinping's Metaphorical Discourse in Cross-Cultural Communication

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Abstract—Metaphor is not only a linguistic and rhetorical phenomenon, but also an important cognitive and thinking mode, which plays an important role in the formation of human conceptual system. Conceptual metaphor theory holds that metaphor is the foundation of human conceptual system and the essence of metaphor is the mental mapping from source domain to target domain on the basis of similarities. In recent years, more and more metaphorical expressions can be found in Chinese President Xi Jinping's speeches, which have attracted wide attention of the researchers. This paper aims at exploring the effectiveness of Xi Jinping's metaphorical discourse from the perspective of cross-cultural communication. The study shows that the use of metaphor in political discourse helps to bring about novelty, break cultural barriers, enhance cultural identity, so as to enhance cross-cultural understanding and promote the effectiveness of cross-cultural communication. Conceptual metaphor provides an effective perspective for the study of political discourse, and also provides a new perspective for constructing China's communication discourse system to the foreign countries in the world.

Index Terms—political discourse, metaphor, effectiveness, cross-cultural communication

I. INTRODUCTION

International communication is not only a kind of stylized propaganda, but also a kind of discourse communication behavior with specific purpose and specific information. For a long time, China has developed a formulaic pattern of communication discourse to foreign countries, which ignores the special context and cross-cultural characteristics of international communication, and it is difficult to resonate with foreign audience, thus greatly reducing the effectiveness of communication.

However, in recent years, Xi Jinping, the General Secretary of the Communist Party of China (CPC) has improved this situation by using metaphors frequently in his speeches, which blows fresh wind into the field of political communication. Metaphor, as a way of rhetoric and cognition, is a means to construct the discourse of political speeches, which reflects the subjective consciousness of the speaker and guides the value judgment and behavior of the listeners. Xi's metaphorical discourses are very vivid and also very popular among people, for example, “老虎苍蝇一起打” (“cracking down on both tigers and flies”) when talking about China's anti-corruption campaign, “照镜子、正衣冠、洗洗澡、治治病” (“Looking in the mirror, getting dressed, taking a shower and healing”) when advocating the self-purification, self-perfection, self-innovation and self-improvement among the leaders and cadres in CPC, “像石榴籽那样紧紧抱在一起” (“Clung together like pomegranate seeds”) when stressing the ethnic unity of Chinese peoples, and so on. It can be seen that metaphorical discourse has become an important part in the political discourse system of Chinese national leaders, and it is also fully proved that it plays a positive role in cross-cultural communication. The aim of this study is to explore the effectiveness of Xi Jinping's metaphorical discourse in cross-cultural communication.

II. METAPHOR: A RHETORICAL DEVICE AND COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVE

In the traditional comparison view, metaphor is treated as a desirable rhetorical means. Aristotle (1965) describes metaphor as a borrowed term, a word substituted for another word, or a form of analogy that could be used to intensify the persuasive effect of an argument.

On the basis of the harsh criticism of the traditional view of metaphor, Lakoff and Johnson (1980) proposed their cognitive view of metaphor: metaphor is not just a way of expressing ideas by means of language, but a way of thinking about things, so that metaphor should be understood as “conceptual metaphor”, which means that “our ordinary conceptual system is, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature” and it is pervasive in everyday life (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.3). Lakoff and Johnson (1980) classify metaphor into three basic types: the structural metaphor, the orientational metaphor and the ontological metaphor, and it is a specific mental mapping from source domain to target domain on the basis of similarities. For example, LIFE IS A JOURNEY is a conceptual metaphor, in which “journey” is the source domain while “life” is the target domain; the category structure of “journey” is mapped onto “life” so that the abstract category of “life” can be understood easily.

From the perspective of cognitive linguistics, metaphor is a term with a broad sense, which includes similes, synecdoches, metonymies, personifications, and even proverbs as well. “Metaphors are powerful cognitive tools for our

conceptualization of abstract categories” (Ungerer & Schmid, 1996, p.114). Taylor (1989, p.132) also thinks that metaphor is a means whereby ever more abstract and intangible areas of experience can be conceptualized in terms of the familiar and concrete.

Moreover, “conceptual metaphor” is a very general concept, which is often implicit, usually undetected by people while the metaphors ubiquitous in daily life refer to the concrete forms of conceptual metaphor in language use, i.e. metaphorical expressions. For example: *He’s gone through a lot in life. He’s without direction in his life. I’m at crossroads in my life*, and so on are the metaphorical expressions of the conceptual metaphor LIFE IS A JOURNEY, which is usually written in capital letters.

III. THE PRAGMATIC FUNCTIONS OF METAPHOR IN POLITICAL DISCOURSE

Metaphor is the lifeblood of political discourse. Without metaphor, political expression would be impossible. In general, political discourse is rather dull, and has a lot of theories and terms that are difficult to understand, so it’s hard to attract the attention of the public. Metaphor properly used in political discourse help form a unique language tone. Ren (2019) explores the pragmatic functions of metaphor in political discourse by analyzing the four types of conceptual metaphors in *Xi Jinping’s Talks on Building Clean Government and Anti-Corruption*, and summarizes the two key functions of metaphor in political discourse, i.e. textual function and ideological function. Yuan (2020) holds that metaphors in political discourse have the functions of interpretation and persuasion. On the basis of their research, this study will focus on the two pragmatic functions of political discourse: coherent function and persuasive function.

A. Coherent Function

The use of conceptual metaphor can not only make political language more impressive and vivid, but also make the discourse structure more coherent. For example, in political discourse, national leaders tend to use the conceptual metaphor of “journey” to skillfully connect national development, government work and people’s life experience, so as to inspire people’s sense of identity.

Zhang (2018) studies coherence function of conceptual metaphors in President Xi Jinping’s addresses and has found that “the systematicity and coherence of conceptual metaphor could contribute to discourse coherence. Conceptual metaphors in discourse were organized into a line that made the entire discourse complete and systematic” (p.49). A single metaphorical structure can construct textual coherence through its systematicity while the several metaphorical structures with the same source domain help construct a coherent discourse together.

B. Persuasive Function

Miller (1993) believes that the motivation for using metaphors in political discourse lies in its strong persuasive power. The use of metaphor in political discourse is of great benefit to the construction of political identity and discourse style and the exertion of its political persuasion function.

According to Schoor (2015), there are three main ways for metaphor to realize the persuasive function of political discourse, which is reason-based, emotion-based and strategy-based. In his view, metaphor in fact implies a cognitive reasoning process in political discourse, so it is easier to be understood and accepted by the audience when the speaker uses metaphor as the minor premise of discourse persuasion. The political figures, by using metaphor in the form of proverbs and common sayings in their speeches, can often achieve an effective persuasive result in political discourse.

IV. AN ANALYSIS OF XI JINPING’S METAPHORICAL DISCOURSE: A CROSS-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

In Xi Jinping’s speeches, metaphor is widely used, which functions as an effective means to promote the cross-cultural communication. The detailed analysis with examples is as follows.

A. Bring about Novelty

Metaphorical thinking ability is a kind of creative thinking ability, which is an advanced stage of cognitive development (Zhao, p.102). Lakoff and Johnson (1980, p.55) distinguish dead metaphors (or conventional metaphors) from live metaphors (or novel metaphors). The live metaphors reflect the creativity of the speaker, i.e. creating a similar connection between two seemingly unrelated things, which is the very essence of metaphor. By using metaphor, we can talk about abstract and complex thoughts with specific and simple things, which can make the political discourse accurate and concise, and make its content vivid and novel. It is well proved that metaphorical discourse helps to arouse the inner feelings of the public and promote the public understanding of government policies.

Example 1:

“鞋子合不合脚，自己穿了才知道。”一个国家的发展道路合不合适，只有这个国家的人民才最有发言权。
(2013 年 3 月 23 日，习近平在莫斯科国际关系学院的演讲)

On March 23, 2013, when Chinese President Xi Jinping delivered a speech at the Moscow Institute of International Relations, he said, “鞋子合不合脚，自己穿了才知道。” (You never know whether your shoes fit you until you wear them.), which is a common saying drawn from people’s actual life experience about shoes and feet matching problem. On such an international occasion, the purpose of Xi Jinping quoting this saying is to tell the world that Chinese people are wise enough to have their own choices and path to develop their countries. In Example 1, people’s life experience

about wearing shoes (source domain) is mapped onto China's development (target domain), which has clearly conveyed to the world our firm confidence in adhering to the path of socialism with Chinese characteristics.

Every country has its own historical and cultural background, and what suits it is the best. "You never know whether your shoes fit you until you wear them." Of course, the person standing next to you can make a comment on your shoes, but he is only an observer. We will not comment on whether other countries' "shoes" are good or not, and we also hope that others will not arbitrarily judge whether our "shoes" fit our feet. Only the Chinese people can judge the outcome of the choices made by the Chinese people and the path China has taken on its own.

Example 2

如果说创新是中国发展的新引擎，那么改革就是必不可少的点火器，要采取更加有效的措施把创新引擎全速发动起来。(2014年11月9日，习近平在亚太经合组织工商领导人峰会开幕式上的演讲)

At the opening ceremony of the APEC CEO Summit on November 9, 2014, Xi Jinping made a speech, saying that "if innovation is the new engine driving China's development, then reform is an indispensable igniter. We need to take more effective measures to kick-start the engine of innovation at full speed." In Example 2, "新引擎" (new engine) and "点火器" (igniter) indicate that the conceptual metaphor A COUNTRY IS A MACHINE is involved. The characteristics of the source domain "machine" is mapped onto the target domain "country", in which making a country get running is similar to operating a machine. We not only need to know the components of a machine (departments in a country), but also need to follow its fixed order (steps of a country's development). Therefore, by saying that reform is the igniter of the machine, Xi Jinping vividly conveys that reform is the first step of innovation.

In the above two examples, with the help of metaphor, Xi Jinping not only clarified his own views and attitudes, but also left a vivid and deep impression on the audience. It can be seen that the metaphorical discourse has achieved a rather good effect in the cross-cultural communication, and also has given the audience a sense of novelty.

B. Breaking Cultural Barriers

Conceptual metaphor helps people construct shared experience and perception, thus creating a close relationship between the government and the people and shortening the psychological distance of the audience.

In cross-cultural communication activities, the differences between Chinese and foreign cultures tend to make the audience have a sense of distance psychologically, which is not conducive to the expected communication effect of both sides. However, if the metaphorical discourse is consciously used to try to invoke the cultural images familiar to the target audience, it can effectively bridge the cultural gap, produce an affinity effect on the audience, and thus improve the effectiveness of the political discourse.

Example 3:

中国和印尼关系发展，如同美丽的梭罗河一样，越过重重山峦奔流向海，走过了很不平凡的历程。(2013年10月3日，习近平主席在印尼国会演讲)

On October 3, 2013, when addressing in the Indonesian Parliament, Xi Jinping said, "The development of China-Indonesia relations, just like the beautiful Solo River, has traversed numerous mountains and rushed to the sea, and has gone through an extraordinary journey". In Example 3, Xi Jinping borrowed a well-known Indonesian folk song "Beautiful Solo River", and successfully constructed a clever metaphor, which greatly shortened the psychological distance between the two sides, and made the audience more likely to have a sense of psychological affinity and the value of identity. In this example, the concept metaphor "RELATION DEVELOPMENT IS A RIVER" is involved — the source domain "river" is mapped onto the target domain "relation development", which indicates that the development of relationship between China and Indonesia experienced a hard time, so that the abstract political discourse can be easily understood by the local audience.

Example 4:

今天的亚洲，多样性的特点仍十分突出，不同文明、不同民族、不同宗教汇聚交融，共同组成多姿多彩的亚洲大家庭。(2019年5月15日，习近平在亚洲文明对话大会开幕式上发表主旨演讲)

On May 15, 2019, President Xi Jinping delivered a keynote speech at the opening ceremony of the Conference on Dialogue of Asian Civilizations. He said, "Today, Asia is still remarkable in its diversity. Different civilizations, different ethnic groups and different religions have come together to form a large and diverse Asian family." The concept metaphor A COUNTRY IS A FAMILY is involved in Example 4, in which "family" is the source domain and "country" is the target domain. The conceptual meaning of the source domain "family" lies in two aspects: one is geographic proximity; the other is the members in it are closely connected. The family members and close relationships in the source domain "family" are mapped onto countries and close relationships in the target domain "country", so by saying "亚洲大家庭" (Asian family), Xi Jinping wants to convey such information that the countries in Asia are friendly and closely related to each other in politics, economy and culture. The use of family metaphor helps to eliminate the alienation between countries and make them closer to each other. The use of this metaphor concretized and visualized the abstract relations of Asian countries, making it easier for the public to understand. At the same time, the metaphor of "大家庭" (big family) also reveals the long-cherished wish of the Chinese leaders to build a peaceful, harmonious and prosperous Asia, which should also be the common goal of all the countries in Asia.

C. Enhancing Cultural Identity

According to the theory of cognitive linguistics, metaphor is a common way of thinking and cognition of all human beings. People in the world have the same cognitive schemas and common cognitive structures, and they generally use familiar things to understand unfamiliar things, so that's why they can understand and recognize unknown things by mapping one cognitive domain onto another among different cultural groups.

Example 5:

拿破仑说过，中国是一头沉睡的狮子，当这头睡狮醒来时，世界都会为之发抖。中国这头狮子已经醒了，但这是一只和平的、可亲的、文明的狮子。（2014年3月27日，习近平在中法建交50周年纪念大会上的讲话）

On March 27, 2014, Chinese President Xi Jinping delivered a speech at the commemoration of the 50th anniversary of the establishment of diplomatic ties between China and France. When expounding in depth the connotation of the Chinese dream and its global significance, he said, "Napoleon once said that China is a sleeping lion, and when the lion wakes up, the whole world will tremble. China this lion has woken up, but it is a peaceful, amiable and civilized lion."

In Example 5, "中国是一头沉睡的狮子" (China is a sleeping lion) is a simile, in which China is compared to a lion — in the past China was a sleeping lion, but now although it has woken up, it is not a threat to any country either. This metaphor leaves some space for imagination and the image of a lion activates the same cognitive schema of different countries, which conforms to the general cognitive law of the target audience, so it is easily accepted, and thus promotes the cross-cultural identity.

Example 6:

新西兰有一句毛利谚语：“当你面向太阳，阴影终将消散。”我们对人类合作战胜疫情充满信心，对世界经济复苏前景充满信心，对人类共同美好的未来充满信心。（2021年7月16日，习近平在亚太经合组织领导人非正式会议上的讲话）

On July 16, 2021, Xi Jinping made a speech at the APEC Economic Leaders' Meeting which was held in New Zealand. At the end of the speech, he cited a Maori proverb in New Zealand, “当你面向太阳，阴影终将消散。” (When you face the sun, the shadows will eventually disappear). As known to all, the sun gives off light and heat, so it usually symbolizes hope while the shadows stand for the darkness.

In Example 6, two conceptual metaphors are involved: THE SUN IS HOPE and THE BAD THINGS HAPPENED ARE SHADOWS. From the above example, we can see that “shadows” metaphorically refer to the epidemic situation of COVID-19 and the declining economy that the whole world is now confronted with. The two conceptual metaphors occur in the same context, conveying that when the members of the Asia-Pacific pull together and take actions positively in times of trouble and help each other, we will surely overcome the difficulties and usher in an even brighter future for humanity. By using the shared and familiar image of the sun, Xi Jinping successfully activates the common experience and cognition of people in different countries, which not only brings the hearts of audience together, but also makes them full of confidence in defeating COVID-19 and recovering the world economy, thus achieves a good persuasive effect.

From the above examples, we can see that people from different cultures have the same cognition about “太阳” (sun) and “阴影” (shadows), which means that they have the common cognitive characteristics and patterns, so that's why such metaphorical discourse can be easily understood and accepted by the audience and can help achieve strong communication effectiveness in the cross-cultural communication.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper is intended to explore the positive role of metaphorical discourse in cross-cultural communication. By studying and analyzing some metaphorical discourses in Xi Jinping's speeches, it can be found that due to the cross-domain mapping feature of metaphor, the use of metaphor in political discourse helps to bring about novelty, break cultural barriers, enhance cultural identity, so as to promote the cross-cultural understanding and increase the effectiveness of cross-cultural communication.

It can be concluded that appropriate use of metaphorical discourse in cross-cultural context is needed and necessary, and the wide spread and popularity of Xi Jinping's metaphorical discourse has well demonstrated it. Conceptual metaphor provides an effective perspective for the study of political discourse, and also provides a new perspective for constructing China's communication discourse system to the foreign countries in the world, which is worth a further study.

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Studying the Role of Media in the Diffusion of English Words Into the Kashmiri Language: A Linguistic Overview

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Abstract—Studying the predominant occurrence and existence of English lexicon in other languages in contact with English has emerged out to be of immense interest among the researchers of sociolinguistics and theoretical linguistics. The present study is devoted to demonstrate various English-Kashmiri language contact situations and the subsequent diffusion/ flow of English words into the Kashmiri language. The study attempts to explore the significant role of media in its different forms in enhancing and determining the transport of English words into the speech of Kashmiri speakers. The study seeks to address the motivation and inspiration of Kashmiri speakers behind the English-Kashmiri linguistic shift, and the influence of the prevailing circumstances on this English-Kashmiri linguistic diffusion. The liberality of the English language in handing over such an enormously huge amount of word treasure to the Kashmiri language, and the receptivity of the Kashmiri language in accepting this vocabulary treasure from English at a very large scale has been thrown light on in the study. In the present study, an attempt has been made to display a comprehensive list of English words used in various domains of social life of the Kashmiri speech community.

Index Terms—export, import, language contact, linguistic diffusion, Print and electronic media, naturalization

I. INTRODUCTION

Linguistic amalgamation and subsequent diffusion/transport of words from one linguistic system into another is a direct outcome of language contact situation in an atmosphere of inter-lingual communication setup. When two or more languages serve different purposes in a particular social situation, they develop in an envelope of 'import' and 'export' of lexicon among themselves. The alternation and exchange of linguistic items among these languages becomes an inventive and fertile phenomenon in that situation. This process of transfer of linguistic stock from one linguistic system into another is supposed occur at any time during the course of contact the languages are in (Koka, 2015, p. 2). According to Einar Haugen (1950, p. 212) borrowing is "the attempted reproduction in one language patterns previously found in another". The most frequently encountered product and observable outcome of the cultural contact is the set of loanwords imported into the linguistic system of each language involved (Haugen 1950, p. 22 cited in Koka, 2015, p. 2).

B.L.Hoffer (2002, cited in Koka, 2015, p. 3), states that studying loanwords carefully provides an interesting insight into the history of cultures across the world. In the broadest terms, classical Chinese, Sanskrit, Arabic, Greek and Latin were the five languages that have had an overwhelming significance as carriers of culture. Bloomfield (Bloomfield, 1933, cited in Koka, 2015, p. 3), pointed out that for adults the degree of control of the other language affects the borrowing. He argues that people who know another language well can use the items from the other language at will. On the other hand, people who read the foreign forms, as opposed to learning them in conversation, interpret the foreign orthography in native terms. (Hoffer, 2002). Thus, in English "Mexico" (Spanish [mexiko]) became [mekisiko] and "Don Quixote" (Spanish [don kixote]) became [dankwIksat], as in "quixotic," which is given [kwIksatIk] as the dictionary pronunciation.

A. Factors Influencing/Determining the Linguistic Diffusion/Transport

Researchers and experts in the areas of sociolinguistics and cultural anthropology have discovered and documented various factors determining /influencing the amount and rate of linguistic diffusion which involves both import and

export of word stock among the languages in contact. Koka (2016), states that, in Europe and other countries, the languages in a close contact over centuries have resulted in extensive transfer of words from one linguistic system to another. Language and cultural contact has been intensified by the introduction and use of the modern communication tools such as radio, television, smartphones, mobile phones, iPhones, ipads, tablets etc. by the spread and exchange of huge amount of linguistic stock. Koka (2016, p. 3), mentions that the globalization of markets for products across the globe has brought about a wide range of advertisements which along with assigning the foreign names have assigned the foreign terms to these products. Another reason which has resulted in the diffusion and transfer of linguistic stock across the languages at a larger scale has been air travel.

Several scholars have identified different language contact situations which impact the process of exchange of linguistic items among the languages in contact. Commerce or incidental contact has been found to bring about relatively little diffusion, whereas side-by-side contact over decades or centuries, as in case of the *Scandinavians* in England, has resulted in diffusion of words at a large scale. Dominance of one linguistic system over the other, such as the French in England after 1066, usually has a one-way effect over time. Contact with a prestigious language, whether there are numbers of speakers in contact or not, often results in borrowing by the educated classes, which in turn may or may not diffuse the words through the general vocabulary. Latin phrases are still used in scholarly publications in the West, centuries after Latin was no longer anyone's native language. Edward Sapir (Sapir, 1921, cited in Koka, 2016, p. 3), states, how Chinese flooded Korean and Japanese with vocabulary and how English borrowed an immense number of words and productive affixes from French.

According to Robert Fine and Sam Feist (2006), the social networks are found to be flourished and developed by the use of existing tools of electronic social media, such as Facebook, Twitter, WhatsApp instant messaging systems etc. These tools have an excellent capability to intensify community involvement and participation of masses at a very large scale. Social media sites have undergone a remarkable shift to strengthen bifacial or multiracial communication in recent years (Allyn and Bacon, 2009). These sites exhibit probabilities and feasibilities for health education messaging that have yet to be completely registered, ascertained and recognized. In addition, they provide new marketplaces to ease the process of conversation, involving an extensively huge section of people. Different social media channels and devices have extraordinarily contributed to laying out of some modern techniques for commissioning fairly a large group of masses which in different circumstances was very difficult to be touched on with such closeness. (Dozier et al., 2011)

According to O'Connor (2014), presently, a fairly vast amount of vernacular communication is carried out in written form and disseminated and transmitted by modern technological devices such as smartphones and so many other social media mechanisms. It has been made obligatory for a written language to modify and adjust itself in accordance with the requirements of existing simultaneous communication, giving rise to new forms and terms for use at a very large scale. The allocation of the existing vocabulary is one of the most potential ways that makes social media to influence the English language. Vocabulary items with existing meanings have now been assigned different meanings in the social media context, which is finally reflected in oral mode of communication too. With an advancement and momentum in the use of internet, the English language has assumed a very significant role in the transmission of technology. Since the Americans are credited for inventing the internet, the entire vocabulary used on internet and other forums of technology is exclusively disseminated and spread in English because no other options were available to carry on the process of communication when the technology was flourishing (O' Conner, 2014).

B. Role of Media in the Diffusion/ Transport of English Lexicon into Kashmiri

Media is one of the most powerful and potential sources of the existing linguistic scenario in the valley of Kashmir. It has largely confirmed the existing linguistic norms as well as linguistic attitudes of Kashmiri people irrespective of their age group and educational background. It is the media in its different forms which has played a very prominent role in enhancing the social significance of the English language in the Kashmiri speech community. English has created its space not only in social setup of Kashmiri speech community, but in the psychological resilience of every individual Kashmiri speaker. When we look at the electronic media, the introduction of the cable network, DTH and other latest network systems, people are found more comfortably accessible to English channels. With the advent and emergence of this growing interest in English, the indigenous media channels have almost been pushed to the negligence. It is a common belief among the people of all age groups that learning English is a precondition for the betterment of life. The prestige of English fluency is encouraged by parents and eagerly accepted by children within and outside their peer group domain.

World's top English news channels disseminating events via the medium of television have emerged out as household names in Kashmir. These news channels include: BBC World News, Fox News Channel (FNC), Cable News Network (CNN), Sky News, MSNBC, Al-Jazeera/Jazeera Satellite Channel (JSC), Euro-news, Geo News, NDTV India (English), Star Plus, Star Movies, HBO, Voice of Germany etc. Times and Newsweek are considered as dignity and status symbol. The advent of electronic gadgets- laptops, iPods, iPads, tablets, smartphones, computers and social networking sites have extraordinarily contributed to the increasing amount of switched and mixed speech among Kashmiri people. The growing influence of English has also brought about a shift in the language for counting, naming the colors, naming days of the week and months of the year. Presently, English is predominantly used in Kashmir, and the educated sect of youth finds it difficult to use their mother tongue exclusively in various domains of their social life.

The expertise with which the Kashmiri speakers alternate with English has become quite a normal mode of communication in accordance with existing patterns in electronic media.

Print media equally presents an interesting picture of this increasing influence of English on Kashmiri speakers with more and more people preferring English newspapers. Visiting the world-class Time magazine and online newspaper sites especially those of Washington Times, New York Times, and The Economist etc. has become the routine for Kashmiri educated youth. Print media in Kashmir operates in the form of Urdu and English daily and weekly newspapers. A continuous increase in the number of English newspapers surely points to a particular linguistic scenario where a prestige language is expanding its impact range of usage at a constant speed. Till mid 90s only one daily newspaper was published from Kashmir in English, but since 1995 onwards there has been a continuous increase in the production of English newspapers. At present, about as many as 15 English newspapers are published in Kashmir which accounts for 15 fold increase in the number of English newspapers published in Kashmir in the recent past. Similarly, only one weekly English newspaper was published in Kashmir in mid 90s, but this number is also found to have risen to 12.

C. Linguistic Implications of English-Kashmiri Linguistic Diffusion/Transport

Koka (2016) confirms that upon finding the imported words in accordance with its own structure and temperament, the importing language accepts them with certain changes and modifications to expand and enrich its source of vocabulary. Since language is a complex system of systems and sub-systems, every sub-system has its own peculiar principles and patterns, which are dependent on the overall grammatical system of the language. In a language, words and expressions are formed and structured in accordance with the phonetic and morphemic principles of that language. When it imports linguistic items from other languages, these items are accepted and adapted according to these principles. Under its tremendous influence, a language naturalizes and nativizes certain sounds which make it possible for a large number of words to make their way into the importing language (Koka, 2016, p. 5).

English has ceased to be an "English language" in the sense of belonging only to the people who are ethnically English. Use of English is growing country-by-country internally and world-wide for international communication. Most people learn English for practical rather than ideological reasons. Modern English, sometimes described as the first global lingua franca, is also regarded as the first world language. Since English is the world's most widely used language in information technology, newspaper publishing, book publishing, international telecommunications, scientific publishing, international trade, mass entertainment, and diplomacy, Kashmiri speakers use a large number of English words during their intra group oral communication. Although, the number of these words is extremely large, they do not use many of them in their original form. Most of these words have experienced different changes according to phonological and phonetic build-up of the Kashmiri language. Kashmiri speakers are found to modify and nativise these imported English words according to the phonetic temperament of their mother tongue.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Einar Haugen's "the Analysis of linguistic borrowing" (1950) is generally regarded as a major reference point in the field of borrowing. The work summarizes and extends previous research and forms basis for the much of the later research in this direction. Haugen's (1950, p. 210) goal was to "define more precisely the terminology used in linguistic analysis of borrowing and to setup certain hypotheses concerning the process of borrowing" (Haugen, 1950, p. 210 cited in Koka, 2015, p. 4). Uriel Weinreich's *Languages in Contact* (Weinreich, 1953, p. 1, cited in Koka, 2015, p. 4), was the pivotal work on the study of impact of one language on other languages. The bibliography of 658 titles covered the field from its beginning to early 1950s. He treated borrowings under the topic / subject of bilingualism and as an example, at first, as that of interference, or "deviation from the norms of either language". Winfred, P. Lehman's *Historical Linguistics: an introduction* (1962), the chapter devoted to borrowing offers some suggestions for further study in areas not yet adequately explored. One of these areas which demand more research is that of Pidgins. Pidgins are specially created to serve communication among people from two or more different language speaking communities on a very simple level. Phonological and morphological systems are often stripped to essentials and words from both languages are borrowed into the new "system" (Lehman, 1962, cited in Koka, 2015, p. 4). The sophisticated work of William Labov (1966 cited in Koka, 2015, p.4) has directed research towards the rigor suggested by Lehmann. Historical linguistics continues to develop the study of borrowing, especially the theoretical bases of linguistics.

According to Heller (1988, p.15 cited in Koka, 2015, p.4), since 1950 many attempts have been made to find a diagnostic criteria which will distinguish among borrowing, transfer, interference, code switching, code mixing and language acquisition. Scotton (1988, p.160 cited in Koka, 2015, p. 4), uses the level of social significance of the item as one of the approaches to distinguish borrowing from code switching. He claims that if the non-native items carry social significance, it is considered as code switching. Poplack (1988, p. 220 cited in Koka, 2015, p. 4), suggests that the use of a borrowed item continues to be code switching until enough speakers use it and is accepted by a vast majority of native speakers into their dictionary.

As a matter of fact, language use in the world's entire cutlers is accompanied by movements of the speaker and addressee. Generally speaking, non-verbal communication deals with the non-language features of communication. According to Hall (1977 cited in Koka, 2015, p .4), the field covers gestures, gaze behavior, proxemics (the study of

distracting), hepatics (touching behavior), and many more. Hall (1977) further admits that in a language contact situation, some or all of these non-verbal features of one group may be borrowed by the other group in contact. This study of borrowing in non-verbal communication covers not only the items such as gestures, but also the effects of the misuse of every other's nonverbal features on cross-cultural or the cross-group communication.

The borrowing of non-verbal features and using them inappropriately in relation to a particular social context may cause a reaction which is much more powerful, and rather dangerous than the misuse of a loanword. The study of touching behavior shows that some groups react powerfully and rather aggressively to touching behavior by a member who is not considered to be a part of their group. Hoffer, B.L. (1997 cited in Koka, 2015, p. 4), admits that the touching of one's arm during conversation may be considered as repulsive or even immoral.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Hypotheses

For the present study, following hypotheses have to be verified and proved:

- i. Language contact situation is a prerequisite for linguistic diffusion.
- ii. Vocabulary of a language is a reliable source for analyzing the range of imported words and the extent of linguistic diffusion in a language.
- iii. Cultural synthesis and the process of linguistic amalgamation influence the linguistic scenario of speech communities in contact.

B. Objective of the Study

Koka, (2015, p. 5), admits that Kashmiri speech community offers an excellent example of English-Kashmiri language contact situation. This language contact situation provides basis for the linguistic amalgamation and thereby paving a path for the transfer of linguistic items from English into Kashmiri at a very large scale. The main objective of this study is to find out as to how, to what extent and in what circumstances/situations as well as how frequently Kashmiri speakers use English words in various domains of their social life.

The present study follows the same pattern of the research methodology as adopted by other scholars of sociolinguistics while carrying out similar sociolinguistic investigations. The study is purely data oriented, and the entire data has been collected as discussed below:

C. Data Collection

To elicit the desired data for the present study as natural as possible, we used the same techniques and tools of data collection as used in one of the main investigator's previous studies (Koka, 2015, p. 5). Since the main investigator of the present study being a native speaker of Kashmiri, for the present study the main tool for collecting the data has been his close and minute observation regarding the use of language by Kashmiri speakers in various domains of their social life. So far as the places of data collection for the present study are concerned, they have also been the same as in one of the investigator's previous studies (Koka, 2015, p. 5). These places mainly include: parks, gardens, tourist spots, hostels, schools, colleges, bus stops, markets, paddy fields, orchards, government offices, hospitals, exhibition grounds, and other similar places. These places were chosen keeping in view the situations where the frequency of occurrence of English words in the speech of Kashmiri speakers was relatively higher. As mentioned earlier, the main investigator of the present study being a native speaker of Kashmiri also visited many villages, towns, urban centers, and some other common meeting places, where the people of the Kashmiri speech community were easily available and had oral communication related to the matters of day-to-day life. The investigator also recorded the speech of various professional people while dealing with the concerned people. Moreover, the investigator very carefully observed Kashmiri speakers during their telephonic/cell phonic conversations with each other and with the speakers of other languages and recorded their speech in a quite natural way (Koka, 2015, p. 5).

D. Editing of the Data

Since the entire mass of the data collected was not useful for the purpose of the present study, the irrelevant, weak, unwanted and doubtful portions of the data were weeded out and eliminated. In the process of editing, the weaknesses found in the data were rectified and made useful for the purpose.

E. Data Analysis

With a view to arriving at the right conclusion and desired results, only the desired portion of the data was analyzed to be used for the purpose. This was done in accordance with the verification of the proposed hypotheses of the present study. Since the tabulation of data facilitated its understanding and simplified its process of study, the resultant available portion of data was tabulated for interpretation.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Kashmiri-English Language contact situation and Linguistic amalgamation

Two or more languages are said to be in contact if they are used alternatively by the same speakers. Language contact

situation is a prerequisite and precondition for linguistic borrowing. When two or more languages exist side by side and serve various purposes in a particular speech community, import and export of linguistic items among these languages becomes a prominent feature of that sociolinguistic setup (Koka, 2015).

Being a very prestigious language among Kashmiri speakers, English has emerged out to be a significant contact language among them. Since it is the main source of carrying out all official functions in the Kashmiri speech community, its speakers are bound to learn and use it. As the language of the wider communication and because of its vital role in various domains of Kashmiri speech community, English enjoys a very special status in the valley of Kashmir. Being a language of vital role among Kashmiri speakers, English has especially been very cordial, cooperative and friendly in donating a very huge stock of vocabulary to Kashmiri. Kashmiri speakers in response have equally been found to be very hospitable to receive this word stock and use it in their oral communication at a large scale particularly.

The socio-psychological attitudes of the Kashmiri people have been found to be potentially influenced by English in a very effective manner. In the valley of Kashmir, the English Language has gained a very high prestige, and this prestige can be observed in a number of ways. In the past, it was only the domain of education where English had acquired a special status, but since the last two decades, English has vastly made its entrance into almost every domain of the Kashmiri speech community, and its use in different domains has increased considerably.

English is taught as a compulsory subject in all government, semi-government and private schools (from 1st.primary to the intermediate level) of the state education system (Koka, 2015, p.7). It is also taught as an optional subject at graduate and postgraduate levels of state education system (Koka, 2015, p.7). There are full-fledged postgraduate departments of English in the University of Kashmir and in all other universities of the state which produce quite a good number of postgraduate students and PhD scholars in English every year. Consequently, there has been noticed a higher percentage of bilingualism among Kashmiri mother tongue speakers with English. Another reason for the higher incidence of Kashmiri-English bilingualism lies in the fact that quite a considerable number of average educated Kashmiri speakers have a workable access to written and spoken mode of English.

The flow of English words into Kashmiri has been so massive that the range of their occurrence has dominated and flooded each and every essential domain of social life of the Kashmiri speech community such as administration, medicine, information technology, education, language and literature, legal law and the domain of daily conversation. It is worth mentioning that the immense export of English lexicon into Kashmiri has become such an essential need that no socio-cultural domain of the Kashmiri speech community could afford to be an exception to its import.

The following is a comprehensible sample of words of the English origin used in different socio-cultural domains of Kashmiri speech community. It should be pointed out that these words have been listed on the basis of the extent of inflow of English lexicon into the Kashmiri language, and their impact on the phonetic design of the Kashmiri language. However, it is worth mentioning that during the course of usage the words of English origin, a considerable portion these words has been found to be modified and naturalized by Kashmiri speakers in accordance with the phonetic design of their mother tongue, and quite a good number of these word have been found to have retained their original form.

Words Used in Various Domains of Social Life of the Kashmiri Speakers

A. Words Used in the Domain of Administration

Although Urdu is the official language of Jammu and Kashmir, it is rapidly found to be replaced by English. On the one hand, Urdu is predominantly used to maintain court and revenue records, on the other hand, on account of the extensive use of English by the younger educated generation who find themselves more comfortable in English than Urdu, there has been a remarkable shift in the trend to use Urdu. At present, almost all written representations and formal applications in administrative offices are encouraged in English both by the applicants as well as the recipients of these applications. Kashmiri speakers are found abundantly using English words for the concepts related to the administrative domain. It is to be pointed out that Kashmir speakers have modified and naturalized a large number of these words under the tremendous influence of their mother tongue pull.

TABLE 1
WORDS USED IN THE DOMAIN OF ADMINISTRATION

Word of English origin	Naturalized in Kashmiri	Gloss
/gʌv(ə)n, m(ə)nt/	/gormnaTh/	Government
/ˈmɪnɪstə/	/məniŠtar /	minister
/a:mi/	/armi:/	army
/pəˈli:s/	/ptli: ə/	police
/ˈɒfɪs/	/a:phis/	office
/ɒfɪsə/	/aphsar/	officer
/ˈnju:z/	/nivəz/	news
/nju:z peɪpə/	/niviz pe:par/	news paper
/əˈsəmbli/	/esambali:/	assembly
/əˈsəmbli ˈmɛmbə/	/esambali: member/	assembly member
/bɪl/	/bil/	bill
/ɔ:də/	/a:Dar/	order
/vəʊt/	/voT/	vote
/ɪˈleɪʃ(ə)n/	/alekŠən/	election
/prezɪd(ə)nt/		president
/tʃe:mən/	/če:rne:n/	chairman
/ɪntəvjʊ:/	/inTarvu:/	interview
/dəpjʊti kəˈmɪʃ(ə)nə/	/DipTi: kəmiŠnar/	deputy commissioner
/dəpjʊti dɪˈrɛktə/	/DipTi: DarekTar/	deputy director
/dəpjʊti mənɪdʒə/	/DipTi: mane:jar/	deputy manager
/tʃi:f mɪnɪstə/	/či:ph məniŠtar/	chief minister
/tʃi:f ɛndʒɪˈniə/	/či:ph inji:nar/	chief engineer
/ˈgʌv(ə)nə/	/gavarnar/	governor
/sekriˈte:riət/	/sekTre:T/	secretariat
/sekri:t(ə)ri/	/sektəri:/	secretary
/tʃi:f sekri:t(ə)ri/	/či:ph sekTəri:/	chief secretary
/dʒen(ə)r(ə)l/	/janral sekTəri:/	general secretary
/apliˈkeɪʃ(ə)n/	/aplike: Šan/	application
/aplik(ə)nt/	/aplikanT/	applicant
/dʒɒb/	/ja:b/	job

B. Words Used in the Domain of Medicine

As a matter of fact, the domain of medicine is second to the domain of information technology in terms of using the huge volume of lexicon imported from English. This is because of the fact that the essential medical vocabulary/terminology is mostly readily available in English. Prescriptions, diagnoses and reports are totally written in English by doctors. The mode of conversation among the members of medical and paramedical staff is also full of English words. Moreover, even the common people are bound to use English words because of the non-availability of the exact equivalents and substitutes for these terms in Kashmiri. However, under the immense influence of their mother tongue, Kashmiri speakers tend to modify and nativise an enormous amount of these English words for the medical terminology and a huge amount of these words are found to retain the original form.

TABLE 2
WORDS USED IN THE DOMAIN OF MEDICINE

Words of Arabic origin	Naturalized in Kashmiri	Gloss
/ˈdɒktə/	/Da:kTar/	doctor /physician
/nə:s/	/nərts/	nurse
/ˈhɒspɪt(ə)l/	/haspata:l/	hospital
/ˈfi:və/	/phivar/	fever
/ˌdʌrɪəˈrɪə/	/dihe:rya:/	diarrhea
/ˌælədʒi/	/elarji:/	allergy
/ɪnˈfɛkʃ(ə)n/	/ɪnphekʃan/	infection
/ˈæmbjʊl(ə)ns/	/ambtlanəs/	ambulance
/ˈbændɪdʒ/	/bandage/	bandage
/sɪˈrɪn(d)ʒ, ˈsɪrɪn(d)ʒ/	/sire:nj/	syringe
/ɪnˈdʒɛkʃ(ə)n/	/ɪnjekʃan/	injection
/ɒpəˈreɪʃ(ə)n/	/a:ptraʃan/	operation
/ˈsə:dʒ(ə)rɪ/	/sərgəri:/	surgery
/peɪn/	/pe:n/	pain
/ɛksreɪ/	/akasre:/	x-ray
/ɛksreɪ məˈʃi:n/	/akasre:mɪʃan/	x-ray machine
/ɛksreɪ tɛkˈnɪʃ(ə)n/	/akasre:Tekni:ʃan/	x-ray technician
/ˌantɪbʌˈtʊk/	/enTibaya:Tik/	antibiotic
/kəʊld/	/kolDɪ/	cold
bləd prɛʃə/	blaDpre ʃar/	blood pressure
/bləd tɛst/	/blaDtesT/	blood test
/bækˈtɪəriəm/	/bekTi:riya:/	bacteria
/kənsə/	/kansar/	cancer
/flu:/		flue (influenza)
/fraktʃə/	/phrekčar/	fracture
/tʃɪkɪn pɒks/	/čakanpox/	chicken pox
/sɪst/		cyst
/hɑ:t əˈtak/	/ha:TaTe:k/	heart attack
/ɪˈmə:dʒ(ə)nsi/	/amarjansi:/	emergency
/dʌrɪəˈbi:ti:z/	/DalbiTi:z/	diabetes
/dɪˈlɪv(ə)rɪ/	/Delivəri:/	delivery
/ɒpəˈreɪʃ(ə)n	/apre:ʃan/	operation

C. Words Used in the Domain of Information Technology

Like many other speech communities, the Kashmiri speech community has overwhelmingly recognized and accepted English as the language of information technology. Almost 100 percent of technological terms used in Kashmiri are of the English origin when it applies to their spoken form. This is because of the fact that Kashmiri has till date not developed any substitutes and/or exact equivalents for these technical terms of its own. While using this imported technological terminology, Kashmiri speakers are found to use some of it in its original form, and modify and naturalize its huge volume under the tremendous influence of their mother tongue pull.

TABLE 3
WORDS USED IN THE DOMAIN OF INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY

Words of English origin	Naturalized in Kashmiri	Gloss
/ɪntənɛt/	/ɪnTarnɛT/	Internet
/ɪnpʊt/	_____	input
/ɪnst(ə)nt mɛsɪdʒ/	_____	instant message
ɪkɒn,	_____	icon
/ɪnfə'meɪʃ(ə)n/	/ɪnpħa:rmɛ:Šan/	information
/aksɛs/	_____	access
/ə'kaʊnt/	_____	account
/aplɪ'keɪʃ(ə)n/	_____	application
/bækʌp/	/bɛ:kʌp/	backup
/blɒg/	/blɑ:g/	blog
/blu:tu:θ/	/blu:TUθ/	bluetooth
/braʊzə/	/brovzar/	browser
/kæmkɔ:də/	/kɛ:kɑ:Dar/	camcorder
/kæm(ə)rə/	/kɛ:mtrə/	camera
/sɛl fəʊn/	/sɛlpho:n/	cell phone
/klɪk/	/kɪlɪk/	click
/kəm'pjʊ:tə/	/kæmpu:Tar/	computer
/kɒnɛk'tɪvɪti/	_____	connectivity
/kə:sə/	/kərsar/	cursor
/kraʃ/	/kre:Š/	crash
i:mɛɪl/	_____	email
/dɛsktɒp/	_____	desktop
/dɪ'spleɪ/	/Dɪspʈlɛ:/	display
/daʊn'ləʊd/	_____	download
/fɛɪsbʊk/	/pħe:sbʊk/	face book
/flɒpi/	/phʊlɑ:pi:/	floppy
/faɪl/	/phayɪl/	file
/hækə/	/hɛ:kar/	hacker
/hɑ:d dɪsk/	_____	hard disk
/həʊm peɪdʒ/	_____	homepage
/dʒʌŋk mɛɪl/	_____	junk mail
ki:bɔ:d/	_____	keyboard
/ki:pæd/	_____	keypad
/læptɒp/	_____	laptop
/lɒg ɪn/	_____	log in
/lɒg ɒf/	_____	log off
/mɛgəbaɪt/	_____	Megabyte
/mɛm(ə)ri/	/mɛmɔ:ri/	memory
/mɔdəm/	_____	modem
/mɒnɪtə/	/ma:niTar/	monitor
/maʊs/	_____	mouse
/nɛtwɜ:k/	/nɛTvɜək/	network
/ɒf lʌɪn/	_____	offline
/aʊtpʊt/	_____	output
/pɑ:swɜ:d/	_____	password
/prɔsɛsə/	/pra:sasar/	processor
/reɪdɪəʊ/	_____	radio
/ræm/	/ra:m/	ram
/seɪv/	_____	save
/sɒf(t)wɛ:/	/sa:pħtve:r/	software
/spæm/	_____	spam
/tɛlɪfəʊn/	/Te:lɛ:pho:n/	telephone
/tɛlɪvɪʒ(ə)n/	/Te:lɛ:vɪʒan/	television
/tu:l/	_____	tool
/ju:tju:b/	_____	you tube
/ʌp'detɪt/	_____	update
/ʌp'ləʊd/	_____	upload
/vɪdɪəʊ/	_____	video
/vɪdɪəʊ kɒnf(ə)r(ə)ns/	/vi:Dyo:kɑ:nphranəs/	video conference
/wɛb peɪdʒ/	_____	webpage
/wɜ:l(d)waɪd wɛb/	/vɜrɪD vɑ:yɪD vɛb/	world wide web
/wɪndəʊz/	_____	windows
/wɛb saɪt/	_____	website
/zu:m/	_____	zoom

D. Words used in the Domain of Education

At present, English is the medium of education in all government, semi-government and privately run schools of the state education system. It is taught as a compulsory subject in all the aforementioned institutions (from 1st.primary to the intermediate level) of the state education set-up. It is also taught as an optional subject at graduate and postgraduate

levels of education. There are full-fledged post graduate departments of English in the University of Kashmir and in all other universities of the state which produce quite a good number of post graduate students and research scholars in English every year. Consequent upon this, it has been noticed that there is a very high percentage of bilingualism in English among Kashmiri mother tongue speakers. Another reason for the higher incidence of Kashmiri -English bilingualism lies in the fact that quite a considerable number of average educated Kashmiri speakers have a workable access to written and spoken modes of English. Such a huge acquaintance of the people of Kashmir with English has resulted in an enormous transfer of English words into their speech. Some of the word stock imported by Kashmiri speakers from English is used in its original form and its huge amount has been found to be modified by Kashmiri speakers in accordance with the phonetic temperament of their mother tongue (Kashmiri).

TABLE 4
WORDS USED IN THE DOMAIN OF EDUCATION

Words of English origin	Naturalized in Kashmiri	Gloss
/ɛdʒu'keɪf(ə)n	/ajUke:Šan/	Education
/treɪnɪŋ/	/Tre:ning/	training
/sku:l/	/sə:ku:l/	school
/kla:s/	/kəla:s/	class
/ti:tʃə/	/Ti:čar/	teacher
/stju:d(ə)nt/	/siTu:DanT/	student
/pɛn/	_____	pen
/pɛns(ə)l/	/pensal/	pencil
/bʊk/	_____	book
/nəʊtbʊk/	_____	notebook
/ɪ'reɪzə/	_____	eraser
/ˈhəʊmwə:k/	/ho:mvərək/	homework
/ə'saɪnm(ə)nt/	_____	assignment
/ɛg'zəm/	/ekza:m/	exam
/mɑ:k/	/ma:rks/	marks
/sə'tɪfɪkət/	/səTɪphɪkəT/	certificate
/və'keɪf(ə)n/	/vake:Šan/	vacation
/ˈhɒlɪdeɪ/	/holiDe:/	holiday
/ˈkwɛstʃ(ə)n/	/koasčan/	question
/ˈɑ:nsə/	/a:nsar/	answer
/ˈkɒlɪdʒ/	/ka:lej/	college
/ju:nɪ'vɜ:sɪti/	/yu:nivarsi:Ti:/	university
/kɔ:s/	/ko:rəs/	course
/di'grɪ:/	/Digri:/	degree
/ˈlɛktʃə/	/lekčarar/	lecture
/ˈlɛktʃ(ə)rə/	/lekčarar/	lecturer
/prə'fɛsə/	/prophesar/	professor
/kəʊtʃɪŋg/	/ko:čing/	coaching
/tʃu:'tʃ(ə)n/	/Tiv Šan/	tuition
/ˈsɪləbəs/	/selebas/	syllabus
/kə'ɪrɪkjʊləm/	/keri:kyu:ləm/	curriculum
/ɪ,vəlʒu'eɪf(ə)n/	/iva:live:Šan/	evaluation
/ɪn'vɪdʒɪleɪtə/	/ɪnvɪjɪle:Tar/	invigilator
/ˈlɛs(ə)n plɑ:n/	_____	lesson plan
/ˈpraɪm(ə)ri ɛdʒu'keɪf(ə)n/	/pre:mtri: ejUke: Šan/	primary education
/ˈhaɪə ɛdʒu'keɪf(ə)n/	/hayer ejUke:Šan/	higher education
/ˈpʌblɪk sku:l/	/pablik sə:ku:l/	public school
/ˈpraɪvət sku:l/	/preyve:Th sə:ku:l/	private school
/rɪ'sə:tʃ/	/risərəč/	research
/skɒləˌʃɪp/	/sUka:larŠip/	scholarship
/ˈtɛks(t)bʊk/	/TektTbUk/	textbook
/tə:ʃ(ə)ri/ ɛdʒu'keɪf(ə)n/	/TərŠari: ajUke:Šan/	tertiary education

E. Words Used in the Domain of Language and Literature

It is again on account of very high intimacy of Kashmiri speakers with English, the domain of language and literature is found to be extraordinarily flooded with English lexicon. As far as the domain mentioned is concerned, a huge volume of English words infiltrated into the speech of Kashmiri speakers has been naturalized and nativized in Kashmiri, whereas, a considerable portion of this imported stock maintains its original form.

TABLE 5
WORDS USED IN THE DOMAIN OF LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

Words of English origin	Modified/Naturalized Kashmiri	Gloss
/lit(ə)rətʃə/	/liTre:čar/	Literature
/ˈpəʊtri/	/poyTri:/	poetry
/pəʊm/	/poyim/	poem
/pəʊt/	/poyiT/	poet
/prəʊz/		prose
/ˈparəgra:f/	/paragra:ph/	paragraph
/ˈsɛnt(ə)ns/	/senTents/	sentence
/ʃɔ:t stɔ:ri/	/Ša:TsTori:/	short story
/transˈleɪʃ(ə)n/	/Trantsle:Šan/	translation
/ɪˌmædʒɪˈneɪʃ(ə)n/	/ime:jine:Šan/	imagination
/ˈraɪtɪŋ/		writing
/pɛdæɡədʒi/	/peDaga:ji:/	pedagogy
/ˈɡramə/	/gre:mar/	grammar
/lɪŋˈɡwɪstɪks/	/lɪŋvisTikts/	linguistics
/fəˈnetɪks/	/phonaTikts/	phonetics
/fəˈnɒlədʒi/	/phona:ltji:/	phonology
/mɔ:ˈfɒlədʒi/	/ma:rpa:ltji:/	morphology
/ˈsɪntaks/	/sinTe:kts/	syntax
/sɪˈmantɪks/	/sima:nTikts/	semantics
/ænθrəˈpɒlədʒi/	/enthro:pa:lji:/	anthropology
/nɒv(ə)l/	/na:val/	novel
/nɒv(ə)list/		novelist
/rə(ʊ)ˈmæntɪsɪz(ə)m/		romanticism
/fi:lɪŋ/	/phi:liŋ/	feeling
/ɪntəˈpriːteɪʃ(ə)n/	/inTarpreTe:Šan/	interpretation
/ˈraɪtə/	/ryTar/	writer
/ˈɔ:θə/	/a:thar/	author
/ˈkɒntɛkst/		context
/ˈref(ə)r(ə)ns/	/rephrants/	reference
/ˈkrɪtɪk/		critic
/ˈkrɪtɪsɪz(ə)m/		criticism
/ɛkspləˈneɪʃ(ə)n/		explanation
/ˈtɒpɪk/		topic
/θi:m/	/thi:m/	theme
/pɔɪnt ɒv vju:/	/poyinT of viv/	point of view
/ˈkærəktə/	/karekTar/	character
/ˈdra:mə/	/Dra:ma:/	drama
/ˈmædnəs/	/me:Dnes/	madness
/(d)ʒɒnrə/	/je:nar/	genre
/kri:ɛtə/	/kriye:Tar/	creator
/ˈsʌm(ə)rɪ/	/samari:/	summary

F. Words Used in the Domain of Legal Law

Urdu was used to maintain all revenue and court records in the recent past. For the last two decades there has been a shift with regard to the use of Urdu as far as its use as a court language is concerned. A considerable replacement of Urdu by English has been observed at a very large scale for the last few years. In the domain of legal law, a bulk stock of English words has been found to make its way into the speech of Kashmiri speakers. Kashmiri speakers are found to use a major portion of these terminologies of legal law imported from English in its original form, and its considerable amount is modified and naturalized under the tremendous influence of their mother tongue.

TABLE 6
WORDS USED IN THE DOMAIN OF LEGAL LAW

Words of English origin	Naturalized in Kashmiri	Gloss
/kɔ:t/	/ko:T/	Court
/sɪv(ə)l lɔ:t/	/sival ko:T/	civil court
/leɪbə lɔ:t/	/le:bar ko:T/	labor court
/dʒʌdʒ/	/jeɟ/ jaj/	judge
/afɪ'deɪvɪt/	/aphiDe:viT/	affidavit
/'kɒntrakt/	_____	contract
/ə'pi:l/	_____	appeal
/dʒʌstɪs/	_____	justice
/steɪ/	/siTe:/	stay
/beɪl/	_____	bail
/pru:f/	/pru:ph/	proof
/keɪs /	_____	case
/tʃi:f dʒʌdʒ/	_____	chief judge
/kleɪm/	_____	claim
/kən'vɪkʃ(ə)n/	_____	conviction
/kaʊns(ə)l/	/ko:nsal/	counsel
/dɪs'mɪs/	_____	dismiss
/eɪvɪd(ə)ns/	_____	evidence
/faɪl/	/phayil/	file
/ɪʃu:/	_____	issue
/dʒʊərɪs'dɪkʃ(ə)n/	_____	jurisdiction
/mædʒɪstreɪt/	_____	magistrate
/rekɔ:d/	/rika:D/	record
/sɛnt(ə)ns/	/senTents/	sentence
/wɪtnəs/	/witness/	witness
/wɒr(ə)nt/	_____	warrant
/dʒʌstɪs/	_____	justice
/tʃi:f dʒʌstɪs/	/či:phjasTts/	chief justice
/ɪn'dʒʌstɪs/	_____	injustice
/di'vɔ:s/	/Divorts/	divorce
/pɑ:ti/	/pa:rTi:/	party
/marɪdʒ bɒnd/	/mare:j banD/	marriage bond
/haɪ 'kɔ:t/	_____	high court
/su:'pri:m kɔ:t/	_____	supreme court
/raɪt/	_____	right
/sɛʃ(ə)n dʒʌdʒ/	_____	session judge
/prɒpəti/	/pra:parTi:/	property

G. Words Used in the Domain of Daily Conversation

Like other domains, Kashmiri speakers use a huge number of English words haphazardly and randomly in the domain of their daily conversation. This enormous amount of English lexicon has been incorporated into the domain of daily speech of the Kashmiri speakers in both formal and informal forms of the language. The Kashmiri speakers tend to maintain the originality of certain amount of this imported vocabulary stock from English while using it in the domain of their daily conversation as well as modify and nativize an extensive portion of it in accordance with the phonetic influence of their mother tongue.

TABLE 7
WORDS USED IN THE DOMAIN OF DAILY CONVERSATION OF KASHMIRI SPEAKERS

Words of English origin	Naturalized in Kashmiri	Gloss
/aksɪd(ə)nt/	/eksiDanT/	accident
/fʌɪərɪŋ/	/phyriŋ/	firing
/en'kaʊntə/	/enka:~vTar/	encounter
/krakdaʊn/	/kre:kDavŋ/	crackdown
/lɒkdaʊn/	/la:kDavŋ/	lockdown
/ə'grɪ:m(ə)nt/	/agri:minaTh/	agreement
/mi:tiŋ/	/miTiŋ/	meeting
/ɪ'leɪʃ(ə)n/	/elekŠan/	election
/si:z(ə)n/	_____	season
/eksəsaɪz/	/ekzarsayiz/	exercise
/sentə/	/senTar/	center
/baʊnd(ə)ri/	_____	boundary
/famɪli/	/phe:mtli:/	family
/ju:niTi/	/u:niTi:/	unity
/mɑ:kɪt/	/ma:rkeT/	market
/ʃɒpiŋ/	_____	shopping
/pə'li:s steɪʃ(ə)n/	/ptli:s sTe:Šan/	police station
/pəʊst ɒfɪs/	/po:st a:phis/	post office
/ɑ:mi kɑmp/	/a:mi: kɑmp/	army camp
/sə:vis steɪʃ(ə)n/	/sərvɪs sTe:Šan/	service station
/sə:vis/	/sərvɪs/	service
/ləʊn/	_____	loan
/lʌɪs(ə)ns/	/la:san/	license
/kɪtʃɪn/	/kičan/	kitchen
/bɑ:θrɒm/	/ba:thru:m/	bathroom
/tɔɪlɪt/	/Ta:leT/	toilet
/bedrɒm/	_____	bedroom
/bɪldɪŋ/	_____	building
/e:pɔ:t/	/ayarpo:T/	airport
/haɪweɪ/	_____	highway
/bʌs stɒp/	_____	bus stop
/rʊmmeɪt/	_____	roommate
/gʌs sɪlɪndə/	/ge:s silenDer/	gas cylinder
/rʊm hi:tə/	/ru:m hi:Tar/	room heater
/wɜ:kʃɒp/	/vərkŠa:p/	workshop
/mætʃɪŋ/	/me:čɪŋ/	matching
/pɑ:tnəʃɪp/	/pa:TnarŠip/	partnership
/ɪntəvju:/	/inTarvu:/	interview
/mesɪdʒ/	/mase:j/	message

H. Names of the Months of the Year

In addition to the above-mentioned socio-cultural domains of Kashmiri speech community, Kashmiri speakers use purely English names for the months of the year. Although Kashmiri has developed its traditional set of names for all these months in Kashmiri, the speakers of the Kashmiri speech community extensively use English calendar names of months of the year in their speech. On account of huge amount of the impact of English on the speech of Kashmiri speakers, the younger educated generation of Kashmiri speakers are totally unfamiliar with the traditional Kashmiri names of the months of the year. As a matter of fact, they feel more comfortable to name these months in English than in Kashmiri. It should be pointed out that the names of only a few of these months are used in their original form as in English, and those of others have been modified and naturalized by Kashmiri speakers in accordance with the phonetic temperament of their mother tongue.

TABLE 8
NAMES OF THE MONTHS OF YEAR

Name of months in English	Naturalized in Kashmiri	Gloss
/dʒʌnʊ(ə)ri/	/janvəri:/	january
/febrʊəri/	/pharvəri:/	february
/mɑ:tʃ/	/ma:rtči/	march
/eɪpr(i)l/	/apre:l/	april
/meɪ/	/məyi:/	may
/dʒu:n/	/ju:n/	june
/dʒʊ' lʌɪ/	/jʊli:/	july
/ɑ: 'gʌst/	/agast/	august
/sep'tembə/	/satambar/	september
/ɒk'təʊbə/	/aktu:bar/	october
/nə(ʊ)'vembə/	/navambar/	november
/di'sembə/	/dasambar/	december

V. CONCLUSION

Being a language of wider communication and *lingua franca*, English has crossed the boundaries of its actual use and is now used in far-flung areas across the speech communities of the world. Like other speech communities of the world, Kashmiri speech community couldn't afford to be an exception to have English as one of its most significant contact languages. Since the language contact situation is a pre-requisite and for linguistic merger, the situation of linguistic amalgam in a certain social setup in turn is a remarkable trait of inter-lingual contact. Being a very prestigious language among Kashmiri speakers, English has emerged out to be a significant contact language among them. In English-Kashmiri language amalgamation situation, Kashmiri is found to be enormously filled with English lexicon. The English lexicon that has been imported by Kashmiri is tremendously used by Kashmiri speakers in various domains of their social life. Much the same Kashmiri has been cordial and congenial to receive all this vocabulary treasure from English, English in response has impartially been found to be liberal, generous, and friendly in transporting this linguistic stock to Kashmiri during the course of contact.

Speakers of the Kashmiri language encounter English lexicon in almost each and every domain of their social sphere. These domains of their social life especially include: administration, medicine, information technology, education, language and literature, legal law and the domain of daily conversation. Moreover, the names of the months of the year used by Kashmiri speakers are imported from English. The flow of English words into Kashmir has been so extensive that not a single domain of their social life could afford to be an exception to their import.

Generally, it is the dominance of one linguistic system over the other which is considered as the main factor behind the import and export of linguistic items between them. But, in case of diffusion of linguistic items from English into Kashmiri, it is basically the power of media which has been found to be a strong driving force behind this word transfer (English into Kashmiri) at such a large scale. It should be pointed out that in English-Kashmiri linguistic diffusion, a lack of equivalence in the exchange of linguistic items has been found to a large extent. English has exported an extremely huge amount of lexicon to Kashmiri, whereas, not a single Kashmiri word has been found to make its way into English in return. This import of English words and concepts related to various domains of the social life of the Kashmiri speech community became an integral lexical necessity for the survival of the Kashmiri language.

To sum up, it can be reasonably argued that Kashmiri has imported and assimilated an immensely huge number of words of the English origin. Some of these words are slightly modified, integrated, domesticated and naturalized in accordance with phonetic temperament of the Kashmiri language. As a matter of fact, this study is limited in scope in the sense that it is a very simple effort to account for the transfer of an enormous number of words of the English origin into Kashmiri that the Kashmiri speakers use only during the course of their intra-group and intergroup oral communication. Therefore, in order to take a complete account of the transfer of English lexicon as loanwords into the Kashmiri, there is of course still a vast scope for further research to be carried out in this direction.

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A Corpus-Based Study of Explicitation in Chinese-English Conference Interpreting*

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Abstract—Based on the corpora CECIC (Chinese English conference interpretation corpus) and OENC (original English news corpus), this paper studies explicitation in the Chinese-English press conference interpreting in Chinese-English news conference interpretation in order to further explore explicitation in interpretation. This paper compares the numbers of connectives so as to provide a new typology of explicitation. In addition, it also discusses the motivations of explicitation from the aspects of the characteristics of interpretation itself, the habits of different interpreters and the different linguistic norms of Chinese and English.

Index Terms—explicitation, interpreting, corpus analysis, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of “explicitation” has not been unanimously defined or patterned. Pioneered by Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) in their glossary of translation techniques, it has inspired many researchers to investigate widespread features and its category in translated texts (TT) that are likely to distinguish them systematically from their source texts (ST) and from non-translations (NT) in similar domains in the target language (TL). The definition and category of explicitation in this paper are respectively based on the German scholar--Juliane House’s models. Juliane House systematizes different types of explicitness in discourse across languages on the basis of theoretical distinctions made in literature and of the analyses of original texts and their translations. She makes a primary distinction between explicitness in translations that arises from obligatory linguistic choices a translator has to make between languages on account of typological differences between languages and explicitness that arises out of optional linguistic choices. She divides the latter into choices relating to referential content, interpersonal relations and textual coherence, using Halliday’s categories of elaboration, extension and enhancement to subdivide referential content, and distinguishes between three categories of met pragmatic instruction: model particles, frames and citation inside the category of interpersonal relations. This paper will be confined to the discussion of explicitation in Chinese-English press conference interpreting, though the general term explicitation will be used for convenience.

A corpus is the main body of data to be consulted in any corpus-based linguistic study, and corpus linguistics offers the necessary tools and methodologies for the investigation of language in actual use. This paper is devoted to retrieving information that can help determine whether or not explicitation through the use of connectives is a widespread feature in Chinese-English interpreting in the background of press conference interpreting.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Problems, Purposes and Significance of the Research

Under the research background mentioned above, three research questions are formulated below to guide the process of data analyses:

1. Does the translated English version by Chinese interpreters tend to be more explicit than the original English text in the same genre?
2. If the translated English version by Chinese interpreters is found to be more explicit, how to pattern this phenomenon?
3. What are the possible motivations for explicitation in Chinese-English press conference interpreting?

To answer the first research question, the paper puts emphasis on the connectives to establish inter-clausal or inter-sentential relationships. It aims to establish quantitatively whether English translations rely more heavily on connectives to realize a higher level of explicitation than comparable original English texts.

In answering the second research question, attention is given to the pragmatic patterning of explicitation in translated

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English version by Chinese interpreters. This part of analysis is conducted on the assumption that explicitation through the use of connectives is reflected not only in their higher overall occurrences in translations – i.e. quantitative shifts – but also in their potential for displaying distinctive syntactic patterns that depart from those found in non-translations (i.e. qualitative shifts). To realize this goal, the present paper provides a quantitative study of connectives, such as that-connective, causal connective and concession connectives.

Based on the findings obtained by using computing technology, this paper draws several motivations for explicitation in terms of linguistic and cultural differences between Chinese and English, the context in interpreting, some inherent features of interpreting and the interpreter's style.

B. Scope of Study, Theory, Methodology and Data

The present research will be held through a corpus-based study, i.e. with a comparable study of the CECIC (Chinese-English Conference Interpreting Corpus) and OENC (Original English News Corpus). The data in CECIC is selected from texts of consecutive interpreting by professional interpreters in official press conferences held by the Chinese government from 1990 to 1999, the data in OENC is selected from news of the same genre on the official website of CNN in the same period of time.

The main source of data in CECIC comes from the book *Press Conference Interpreting: Skills and Analysis* (2003) by Wang Dawei. This book collects the interpreting materials in China's official press conferences from the year 1990 to 1999 on eleven topics, namely: the Fifteenth Party Congress, government construction, market economy, financial system, state-owned enterprise reform, WTO, human rights, democratic election, military exercise, nuclear tests and foreign relations. The materials of other corpus OENC used to make a comparison come from the official website of CNN in the same period of time considering the same topics.

The CECIC consists of 25193 running words, OENC of 25429 words. The overall size of CECIC stands at 25193 tokens while the OENC stands at 25429 tokens comparatively.

TABLE I
CORPUS SIZE OF CECIC AND OENC

	CECIC	OENC
Tokens	25193	25429
Total Tokens	50622	
Content	interpreting materials in China's official press conferences from the year 1990 to 1999 on eleven topics: the Fifteenth Party Congress, government construction, market economy, financial system, state-owned enterprise reform, WTO, human rights, democratic election, military exercise, nuclear tests and foreign relations.	Original news in English of the same genre on the official website of CNN in the same period of time

III. CORPUS ANALYSIS OF EXPLICITATION IN CHINESE-ENGLISH PRESS CONFERENCE INTERPRETING

Many scholars have different opinions on the typology of explicitation so there is not a definite classification of this phenomenon. Klaudy (1998) and House (forthcoming) use different data to classify various aspects of explicitation. In Klaudy's typology, the corpus on which the classification was based consisted of two genres: academic and literary texts. The study was undertaken before electronic corpora began to be used in translation studies, although they had been widely used for at least a decade in linguistics by then. A decade later, when large machine-readable corpora had become a major source of data for translation scholars, House developed a schema of explicitation using an 800,000-word corpus of parallel texts in three genres: computer technology, popular science and business communication. Her choice of these text types reflects their growing importance in terms of translation activity across the globe.

Klaudy and House's theories on the classification of explicitation have their shortcomings respectively so this paper tries to provide another classification based on M.A.K. Halliday's systemic-functional linguistics concerning the function of language.

Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a theory of language centered around the notion of language function. While SFL accounts for the syntactic structure of language, it places the function of language as central (what language does, and how it does it), in preference to more structural approaches which place the elements of language and their combinations as central (Halliday, 2004). An *Introduction to Functional Grammar* (Third ed.). London & New York: Arnold.. Systemic semantics includes what is usually called "pragmatics". Semantics is divided into three components:

Ideational Semantics: It constructs a model of experience and constructs logical relations; to convey new information, to communicate a content that is unknown to the hearer.

Interpersonal Semantics: It enacts social relationships;

Textual Semantics: It creates relevance to context; language has mechanisms to integrate any stretch of spoken or written discourse into a coherent and unified text and make a living message different from a random list of sentences

(Kate Kearns & Chen Liping, 2015).

The Lexicon-Grammar concerns the syntactic organization of words into utterances. Even here, a functional approach is taken, involving analysis of the utterance in terms of roles such as Actor, Agent/Medium, Theme Mood, etc. (Zheng Dingou, 1999)

This paper focuses on the language's systematic metafunction so as to divide the explicitation phenomenon into three types: ideational explicitation, interpersonal explicitation and textual explicitation.

The data of Chinese-English Conference Interpretation Corpus (CECIC) compiled for the present paper is press conference interpreting texts. This part is devoted to the data analysis of explicitation in CECIC, using the Original English News Corpus (OENC) as a reference corpus of original English.

A. Ideational Explicitation

Ideational explicitation denotes that the interpreter clarifies the implicit information in the ST in order to make the listeners understand the TT information easily. This includes explicitation of cultural elements and explicitation of the subject or object of a sentence. In order to make a comparison with other types of explicitation in the interpreting process, the number of the ideational explicitation must be attained.

1. Explicitation of Cultural Elements

With the help of the tool Wordsmith, the author firstly lists the words of the original Chinese text of CECIC from which phrases denoting cultural meanings are chosen to be analyzed further. Then the author compares the corresponding translated text to analyze whether explicitation technique is adopted or not. There are 3 explicitations of cultural elements. They are listed below:

Example 1. 但是，不管前面是地雷阵还是万丈深渊，我将勇往直前，义无反顾，鞠躬尽瘁，死而后已！

But no matter what is waiting for me, in front of me, being, lying a landmine or an abyss, I would blaze my trail and I have no hesitation and no misgivings, and I will do all my best and contribute, devote all myself to the people and the country until the last day of my life.

Example 2. 我们不要忘记历史，历史上曾经有这种时代，弄得草木皆兵，人人自危。在美国有这种时代，在中国也有这种时代，那就是文化大革命。

We should never forget history. Both China and the United States once experienced such periods when people treated even the grass and the wood as the enemies, and people were so afraid of , every people would be afraid of being accused by others. And in China we had such a period, that is the Cultural Revolution.

In Example 1, the interpreter translates the four appositive Chinese idioms into a sentence "I would blaze my trail and I have no hesitation and no misgivings, and I will do all my best and contribute, devote all myself to the people and the country until the last day of my life." The interpreter interprets each Chinese idiom into a sentence and then connect them by the coordinating connective "and". Besides, the interpreter also tries to make the meaning more explicit by adding a phrase "to the people and the country".

In Example 2, the Chinese idiom "草木皆兵" is interpreted into "people treated even the grass and the wood as the enemies". Here the meaning of "兵" in this idiom is clear to Chinese listeners, however, it may sound ambiguous to English speakers. So the interpreter provides a corresponding word "enemy" to make the meaning more explicit.

Example 3. 这一点，任何外国人不应该说三道四。

On this matter, no foreign country should make irresponsible comments.

In this example, "三" and "四" in this sentence not numbers in meaning, instead, they have the abstract meaning of irresponsible comments. So the interpreter explains the term in explicit English for the sake of understanding.

2. Explicitation of the Subject or Object of a Sentence

With the help of the tool Wordsmith, the author firstly lists the words of the translated English text of CECIC from which four typical and most commonly-used pronouns are chosen to be analyzed further. Then the author compares the corresponding source text to analyze whether explicitation technique is adopted or not. Details are in table II.

TABLE II
IDEATIOAN EXPLICITATION

Pronouns	We	They	These	Those
Total number	517	60	55	35
Number of ideational explicitation	48	3	4	2
Percentage	9.28%	5.00%	7.28%	5.71%

From Table II, we can see that the personal pronoun 'we' used for explicitation asserts the highest percentage compared with the other three. This can be explained by the structure of Chinese imperative sentences. Usually, the indicated subject of a Chinese imperative sentence is first person pronoun so that the percentage of the word 'we' outweighs the other three pronouns. Here are some examples:

Example 4. 第三个到位就是政府机构的改革，也就是说，根据中央政府今年已经在政府大会上通过的方案，已经把 40 个部委简化为 29 个部委；政府机关的人数，准备分流一半。

Thirdly, that's concerning the reorganization of the government institutions. According to the program on the reorganization of the institutions of the central government adopted by the current session of the National People's Congress, the number of the ministries and commissions under the State Council has been reduced from 40 to 29, and we plan to cut half of the working staff working in the government institutions in three years' time.

Example 5. 中国由于农业政策的成功, 已经连续三年丰收。

Thanks to the success in the agriculture policy of China, we have had bumper harvests for three consecutive years.

Example 6. 中央已经决定成立国家科技教育领导小组, 我当组长, 李岚清同志当副组长, 已经得到江泽民主席批准。

The Central Committee of the CPC has decided to establish a leading group for the state science and education development. And I will be the head of the group, and Vice Premier Li Lanqing will be the deputy head. And this has got the approval of President Jiang Zemin.

In the examples above, the subjects of the Chinese imperative sentences “政府机关的人数, 准备分流一半”, “已经连续三年丰收”, “已经得到江泽民主席批准” are added as ‘we’, ‘we’ and ‘this’. In this way, the audience can understand the sentence without efforts.

B. Interpersonal Explicitation

Interpersonal explicitation means that the interpreter makes more explicit the relationship among different communicators, modal information and evaluative information. The analyzed of interpersonal explicitation is conducted manually because of the words adopted by the speaker varies a lot according to the change of attitude and evaluation. There are 4 interpersonal explicitations in the corpus CECIC. They are listed as follows:

Example 1. 我可以负责地说, 中国再遭两年大灾——自然的灾害——中国的粮食也不会缺乏。

I can say in a very responsible manner that if there were to be very serious natural disasters in the coming two years, China would not be short of grain, short of food.

In this example, the word ‘very’ is used to indicate the affirmative attitude of the speaker. Meanwhile, the subjunctive mood ‘were to be’ is adopted to show that it is impossible for China to be short of food if faced with natural disasters. It also indicates that the speaker has a positive attitude towards China’s ability to fight with natural disasters.

Example 2. 这就是中央的财政, 包括我们的银行, 都拿不出钱来支持科教兴国。把钱浪费了。

That’s the main reason why the central government and including various state banks do not have enough money to support the strategy of revitalizing the country through science and technology.

In this example, the Chinese “拿不出钱来” is just a hyperbole so the interpreter makes the meaning clearer by interpreting as “do not have enough money”. In this way, the interpreter makes easy the communication between the Chinese and the English speakers.

Example 3. 现在已经存在这种机遇, 第一是 WTO 的这些国家已经认识到没有中国参加的 WTO 是没有代表性的, 是忽视了中国这个潜在的最大的市场。

Now there are those conditions and possibilities for that. First, the WTO states have come to realize that a WTO without China would not be representative enough, or the WTO would have neglected China, the largest potential market in the world.

In fact, the interpreter here adopts a mild way (not be representative enough) to express the speaker’s evaluation of the importance of the participation of China into the WTO.

Example 4. 第二是中国的改革开放的深入和积累的经验已经使它对于 WTO、符合 WTO 条件所带来的一些问题, 已经提高了它的监督能力和承受的能力, 因此中国也准备作出最大的让步。

Second, with the deepening of the reform and opening wider to the outside world and also with accumulation of experience in this regard, China has already strengthened its supervision and regulation as well as its affordability and sustainability with regard to some problems that may arise after China joins the WTO. So, China is prepared to make the biggest concession within its ability.

In the source text, “最大的让步” may sound natural and clear to the Chinese audience but may arouse dispute in the opinion of westerners: can the concession be made in any aspect? The answer is definitely ‘no’ so the interpreter adds ‘within its ability’ to definite the boundary of the concession as well as making the words sound reasonable and easy to understand.

C. Textual Explicitation

If we take explicitation in translation to mean more words, it is reasonable to assume that, in the context of the present paper, connectives may occur more frequently in the translational CECIC than in the non-translational OENC. It is well established in corpus linguistics that a small number of words, most of them grammatical, typically account for a large proportion of total word tokens in a corpus. As shown in Kennedy (1998), 50 and 100 most frequent English words typically account for 50% of the total tokens in any text. Based on these studies, it is reasonable to assume that the most frequent words making up 50% of the total tokens in a corpus would include a number of connectives that can be considered “common”. It would be helpful, then, to establish whether common connectives are used even more frequently in the translational CECIC than in the non-translational OENC to realize a higher level of textual explicitness.

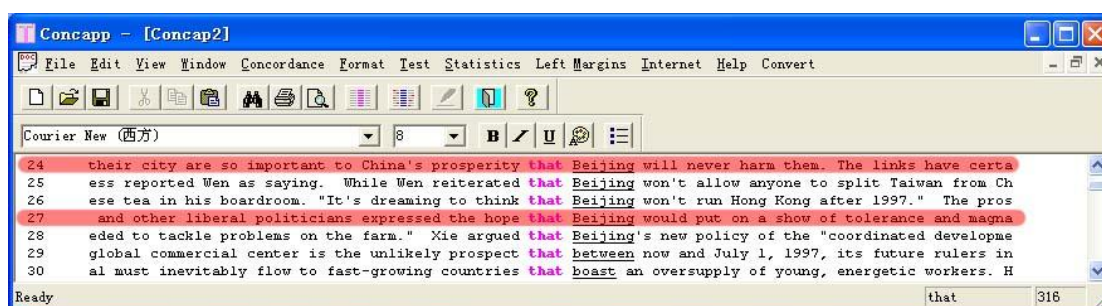
This paper chooses 4 kinds of common connectives trying to demonstrate this hypothesis. This includes the overall frequency and number of a typical connective “that”, that of causal connectives, that of concession connectives and that of conditional connectives.

In the two corpora being compared here, connectives are identified by the concordance in the Concapp device. Here the word “that” being calculated is used to introduce an objective clause or a predicative clause. The words “for”, “because” and “since” are used as causal connectives. The words “though” and “although” are used as concession connectives while “if” and “whether” are used as conditional connectives. Every sentence which includes the very connective is identified by concordance, however, not all these sentences including the word can be calculated because the function of the connective should be checked in the text manually. Then a calculation can be done to reach a final number. For example, the Concapp may identifies two sentences which include “that”:

Do that, and you’re left relatively alone.

Chrysler found that Beijing Automotive Works was again hoarding proceeds from sales of the BJ212s.

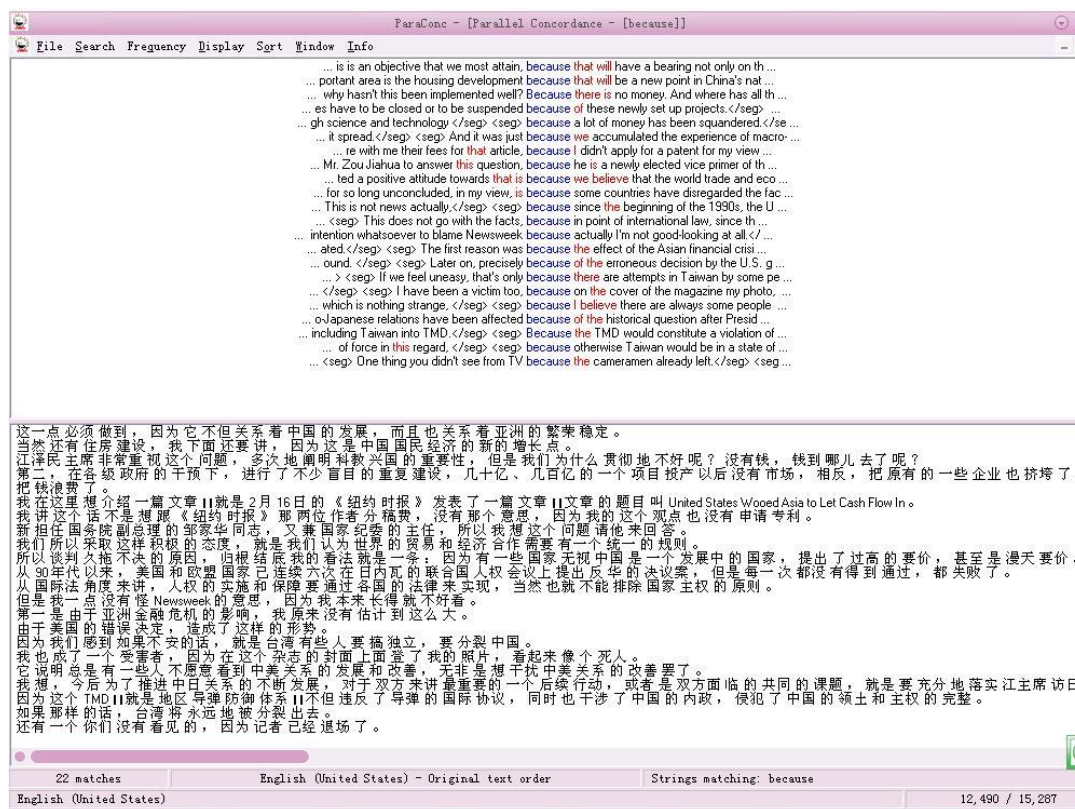
Obviously, “that” in the first sentence is used as an objective but not a connective, so this cannot be calculated. In sentence 2, “that” is used after “found” to introduce an objective clause “Beijing Automotive Works was again hoarding proceeds from sales of the BJ212s.” This “that” which is used as a connective should be calculated since it agrees with the selective standard of the paper. The process can be shown in Picture I.

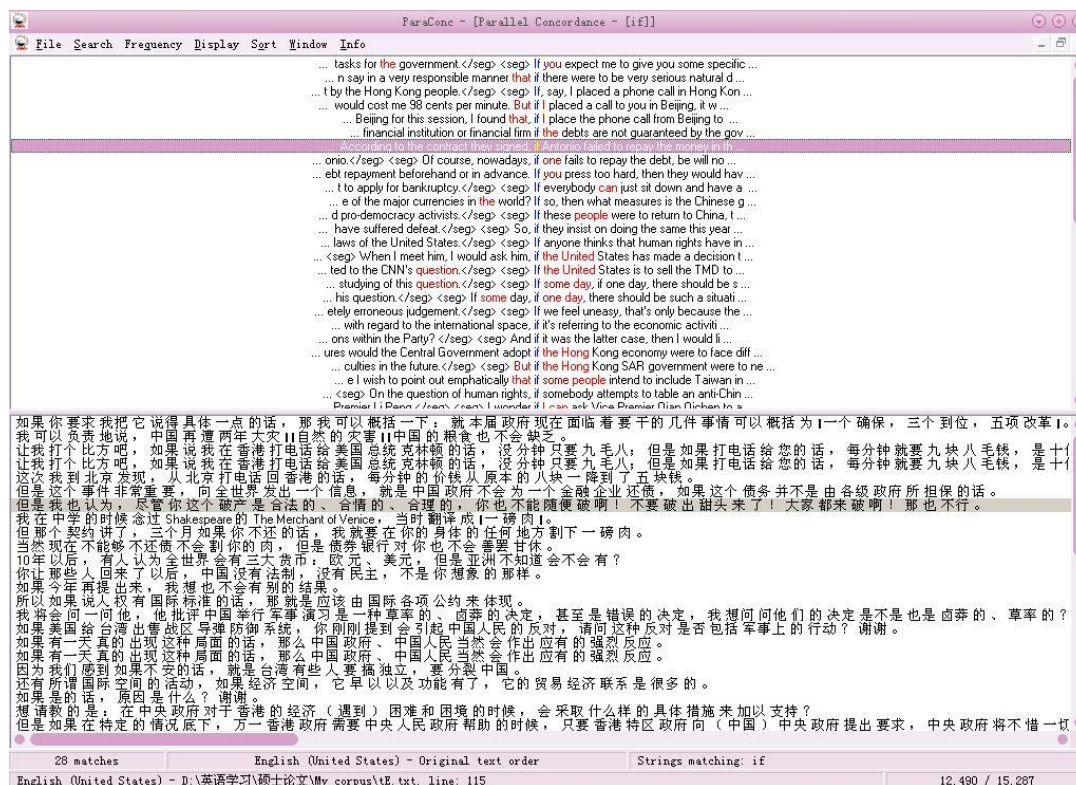


Picture I

The sentences with “that” are listed in Concapp and “that” is highlighted in pink and the numbers are listed on the left side. “that” in the sentences in shadow are not connectives so that they cannot be calculated.

With the help of the tool Paraconc, the author can identify sentences including the four kinds of common connectives and decide whether they should be calculated in the context of the original text. The process is shown in Picture II.





Picture II

In order to establish whether common connectives are used even more frequently in the translational CECIC than in the non-translational OENC to realize a higher level of textual explicitness, the author makes a table to show the results.

TABLE III
GLOBAL STATISTICS OF CONNECTIVES IN THE CECIC AND OENC CORPORA

	CECIC	OENC
Corpus size in words	25193	25429
Occurrences of connectives	282	250
Percentage	1.12%	0.98%

Overall, the translational CECIC, with a smaller size in word count terms, makes more frequent use of connectives (1.12%) than the non-translational OENC (0.98%) – an increase of 14.29%. Since the size of CECIC is almost the same as OENC, the extent of this rise in connective frequency is rather unusual. This heavy reliance on connectives in CECIC reflects a tendency to mark inter-clausal or inter-sentential relationships with explicit linking devices. The greater proportion of connectives in CECIC in Table III opens up another field of enquiry into this class of grammatical words, namely the most frequent words in translated texts are usually less varied than in non-translated texts and account for a greater proportion of the collection. This observation leads us to further study the sentences with connectives to see whether the goal of using those connectives is to make the interpreting more explicit to the audience.

In fact, in order to make himself/herself understood the interpreter often adopts some interpreting techniques many of which can be categorized as textual explicitation technique. To prove this assumption, the frequencies and percentages of the four kinds of connectives used in the two corpora are calculated in Table IV.

TABLE IV
DISTRIBUTION OF THE 4 KINDS OF COMMON CONNECTIVES IN CECIC AND OENC

	Connectives	CECIC	OENC
Causal connectives	that	168	155
	for	2	0
	because	35	22
Concession connectives	since	5	3
	although	9	4
	though	0	21
Conditional connectives	if	51	31
	whether	12	14
Total		282	250

Table IV identifies the number of the four typical common connectives in CECIC and their total number in the two corpora. From this table we can see that the numbers of these connectives in the translational CECIC is greater than

they are in the OENC except the words “though” and “whether” (in bold). It can be assumed that the translational CECIC tends to use more connectives than the original OENC to make explicit the information in the interpreting.

For causal connectives, the TT tends most to use the word “because” as 35 identified in Table III compared with “for” (2) and “since” (5). It’s also the case in the original corpus OENC, however, the numbers of the same connectives are less than they are in the translational CECIC.

For concession connectives, there exists a different case. In the translational CECIC, the interpreter never uses the word “though”, instead, he/she only uses the word “although” to indicate a concession relationship in the context. It is possibly due to the interpreting habits of the interpreter. In the original OENC, both of the two words are adopted to indicate a concession relationship. “Though” performs a higher number (21) than the number of the word “although” (4).

For conditional connectives, “if” is adopted more than the word “whether” both in the translational CECIC and the original OENC, as the number shows: 51:12, 31:14, but the total number of conditional connectives in the translational CECIC outweighs that in the original OENC.

The total number of the three common connectives shows that connectives are adopted more often in the translational CECIC than they are in the original OENC, indicating an increase of 12.8%.

IV. MOTIVATIONS FOR EXPLICITATION IN CHINESE-ENGLISH PRESS CONFERENCE INTERPRETING

It seems clear from the findings in the previous part that different English translations of the same source texts in CECIC demonstrate fairly consistent patterns in the use of connectives for realizing explicitation. In general, the original explicitation hypothesis proposed by Blum-Kulka (1986) has been supported by the present research involving translations from Chinese into English, a language pair having little in common in terms of language structure or historical development. Some of the recent explanations include the nature of translation as language mediation (Chesterman, 2004), preference of individual translators (Baker, 2004), meeting readers’ expectations for text clarity and cohesion, lack of shared references in the target culture, and level of translator’s expertise. To this list I would like to add three potential motivations related to linguistic and cultural differences between Chinese and English, inherent features of interpreting and interpreter’s style.

A. *Differences between Chinese and English in Terms of Diction and Culture*

1. *Differences in Terms of Diction*

Diction refers to the “style of speaking or writing” (World Book Dictionary). It is the preference of speakers of a language for words chosen and used for expression of ideas. Way of expression is language-specific; English and Chinese unexceptionally display tendencies in diction specific to their own. It is generally accepted that, for expression of ideas, native speakers of English tend to use abstract expressions while those of Chinese concrete ones. Tendency towards abstract diction in English is regulated by the rational tradition of the western nation that advocates analytic and abstract thinking, and is facilitated by the linguistic properties characteristic of English. Specifically, that tendency of English in diction is manifested in the frequent occurrence of abstract noun phrases formed through nominalization, and of prepositions and “empty” verbs used in collocation with abstract noun phrases. Concrete diction by native speakers of Chinese is revealed in the heavy use of verbs, adjectives and image-carrying phrases, and in the arrangement of sentential elements in parallel with temporal sequence.

A professional conference interpreter understands the differences between Chinese and English in terms of diction so that he/she always adopts different interpretive techniques to solve the comprehension problems. Explicitation is an effective technique for them. For example, if a Chinese speaker delivers a concrete diction by an image-carrying phrase, the interpreter cannot find a corresponding phrase in English so that he/she may choose to explain it in a sentence or several sentences for the sake of understanding. This way of interpreting can be considered as using the technique of explicitation.

2. *Differences in Terms of Culture*

Culture in concept is different from it is in the sense of literature, music, philosophy, art, etc. People from different countries give various definitions of culture because of different studying background, or different theories employed. This paper categorizes culture into: material culture, social culture and spiritual culture.

Material culture, as its name implies, is concrete and observable. It is reflected in buildings, clothes, food and tools. Usually material culture refers to things we can see and touch. Spiritual culture is usually embodied through the intangible things produced by people’s thinking, including ideologies, values, mode of thinking, aesthetic standards, beliefs, time and space concepts and so on. It is the product of thought (e.g., philosophy, history and literature).

Most spiritual culture is intangible, implicit, hidden or abstract. Social culture usually refers to those that are used to regulate the relationship between individuals or groups.

In press conference, as proved by practice, interpreting cannot be viewed as a merely linguistic undertaking, but should be regarded as an aspect of a larger domain namely, that of communication. The encyclopedic knowledge refers to extra-linguistic knowledge, among which “culture” is the most difficult part to interpret. The interpreter explains in English the Chinese idioms, phrases and so on that are of special meaning in Chinese thinking in order to provide a

clearer meaning in the press conference. In this paper, the cultural factors refer to the Chinese cultural elements loaded in press conferences, and the author tries to divide them into two categories:

The Chinese cultural factors containing image, descriptions and meanings identical to the cultural factors in English or containing meanings can be easily understood by target listeners.

Example 1. 以史为鉴，面向未来。

We shall take history as our guidance, and we shall look into the future.

Example 2. 比如说在不提出任何先决条件下推动两岸“三通”

For instance, without setting any pre-condition, can you think of any measure to advance the “three direct links?”

Example 3. 关于台湾问题，中国所有领导人的讲话都是明确的、一致的，也就是根据“一国两制”的原则和江泽民主席的八项主张来办事。

That is, this question should be resolved on the basis of the “one country, two systems” principle and the Eight-Point Proposal put forward by President Jiang.

In Example 1, the Chinese sentence contains the meaning similar to that in English so that the interpreter provides a literal translation without any explicitation technique. There are some descriptions in Chinese definite terms in Example 2 and 3, such as “三通”，“一国两制”，“八项主张”. These terms can be easily understood by the target listeners because the audiences attending the press conference have already had enough political knowledge. On the basis of this shared presupposition, the interpreter directly interpret them into “three direct links”, “‘one country, two systems’ principle”, and “the Eight-Point Proposal”.

The Chinese cultural factors containing image, descriptions and meanings different from the cultural factors in English or containing meanings cannot be easily understood by target listeners.

Unlike the examples above, for some Chinese idioms the interpreters always explain the idioms in phrases or sentences to make the meaning clear to the English audience.

Example 4. 不入虎穴，焉得虎子。

Nothing venture, nothing have.

In this example, the interpreter eliminates the Chinese images “虎穴” and “虎子”, instead, he/she explains the inner meaning of the sentence in more explicit language as “venture” and “have”.

Example 5. 中国起到了龙头的作用。

China is playing a leading role.

Just like the first example, the interpreter doesn't interpret “龙头作用” as “dragon head role” because foreigners may be confused about the meaning of this image. Here, explicitation technique is also adopted so that the sentence is interpreted as “China is playing a leading role.” In this way, the audience can understand the speaker in an easier way.

B. Inherent Features of Interpreting

1. The Interpretive Theory

In French the word “interpretation” can mean “interpreting (explaining) meanings”, “interpretative translation”, “extraction of meanings so as to translate”, “divorcing from the linguistic forms and interpret (explain) their implications”, “explaining the implications of the speaker's speech verbally” and “oral translation” respectively in different contexts. The interpretation of the source text (sense) is a key process of interpreting as can be seen clearly from the triangle mode of interpreting in Figure I proposed by Danica Seleskovitch. Interpreting is, in its final analysis, mainly a process of interpretation of sense in which lies “the fundamentality of the working of interpreting” (Bao Gang, 1998, p231).

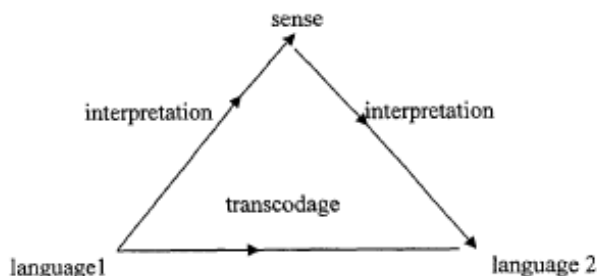


Figure I The Triangle Mode of Interpreting

In terms of the Interpretive Theory, the pragmatic meaning of a speech in practical use is just the meaning the interpreter should pay special attention to in interpreting, this kind of meaning is termed as “sense” which is different from the concept “sense” in semantics as shown from the lines above. It is at the level of text, referring to the whole meaning of a text in interpreting. It includes part of the linguistic significations, but its connotations can hardly be covered by the linguistic significations in the dictionary.

For interpreters, sense, which begins with the conceptualization of vocal speech chains and ends with the

combination of linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic knowledge, is the product of combining the non-linguistic knowledge of the text with linguistic significations. It is the pragmatic meaning of a speech and basically equivalent to what is commonly called contextual meaning. It comes from the interpretation (comprehension) of the text, from the dynamic combination of linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic knowledge, from the analysis, synthesis and reasoning of the speech. A speech consists of words, however, the sense of the speech is not the sum total of the words. When making utterances or writing texts, language users usually do not do so without any purpose.

According to the Interpretive Theory, the sense information involved in interpreting can be divided into two types, one is the explicit information and the other is the implicit information. Explicit information indicates the language used in the text, dealing with linguistic knowledge; implicit information indicates the implications of the language, dealing with non-linguistic knowledge. Sense unit consists of both explicit information and implicit information. The key points of explicit information are the trunks of the explicit information, and the organic combination of the explicit information and the implicit information forms the sense units, then the sense units combine together and the sense of the text is constructed. It can be seen clearly from Figure II that interpreting, in its final analysis, is the dynamic interpreting of the key points of explicit information and the implicit information conveyed by the key points of the text through the combination of the interpreter's linguistic knowledge and non-linguistic knowledge in interpreting.

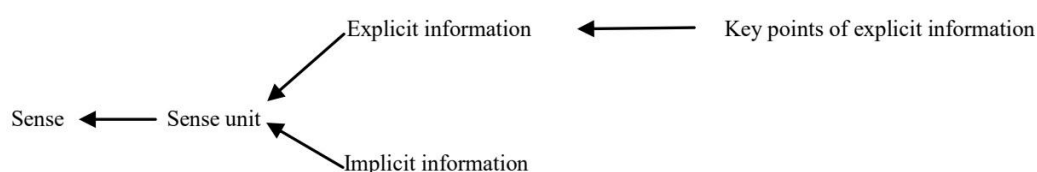


Figure II The construct of sense

All in all, actually the essence of interpreting is explaining, meanwhile, explicitation technique is always conducted as “explain the vague idea in a clear and simple way”. On this ground, this explicitation technique is often used in the process of interpreting.

2. The Language Carrier of Consecutive Interpreting: Spoken Language

Compared with written language, spoken language has the following main characteristics that bring many restrictions on consecutive interpreting:

To begin with, spoken language is transitory. The carrier of spoken language is acoustical sound waves. The transitoriness of spoken language brings some difficulties to the study and practice of consecutive interpreting.

Secondly, the releasing speed of spoken language is fast and the information conveyed by spoken language is relatively ambiguous and incompact. The average releasing speed is “14 phonemes per second, but the fastest speed may exceed 30 phonemes per second” (Bao Gang, 1998, p25). Though the releasing speed of spoken language is much faster than that of written language at the level of linguistic symbols, the important information released is relatively limited and there is much redundant information in the speech.

Thirdly, spoken language can make full use of non-linguistic information such as gesture, facial expression, mood, tone, theme, communicative situation, context, etc. Non-linguistic information is an indispensable part in speech communication.

Spoken language is the language carrier of interpreting, so it will inevitably influence the consecutive interpreting. Since spoken language is transitory and extempore, the interpreting is also transitory and extempore.

For one thing, consecutive interpreting is extempore. The speaker thinks, organizes the speech and speaks at the same time, so the object of consecutive interpreting, i.e. the source speech, is extempore. It can be seen that interpreting, whose working language is spoken language, is extempore and it is inevitable for the interpreter to commit some errors and it is also impossible for him/her to make interpreting just as precise and beautiful as written translation.

And for another, consecutive interpreting is transitory. On the one hand, due to the transitoriness, speediness of spoken language, the time for the interpreter to differentiate the speech sounds, to process the information of the source speech and to organize the expression in the target language is rather transitory, hence the impossibility for the interpreter to remember and interpret all the words and grammatical structures in the source speech. On the other hand, though the releasing speed of spoken language is very fast, the information conveyed has the characteristics of ambiguity and incompactness, thus in a relatively long period of time, a piece of important information which conveys key points can be produced, which makes it possible for the interpreter to remember and interpret the holistic sense of the source speech.

3. The Psychological Mechanism of Consecutive Interpreting: Memory Structures

Since the source speech in consecutive interpreting is transitory, memory plays a much more important role in consecutive interpreting than in translating. Structurally, memory can be divided into three categories: sensory register, sensory memory, or sensory store, short-term memory, or working memory, long-term memory, or permanent memory (see Figure III).

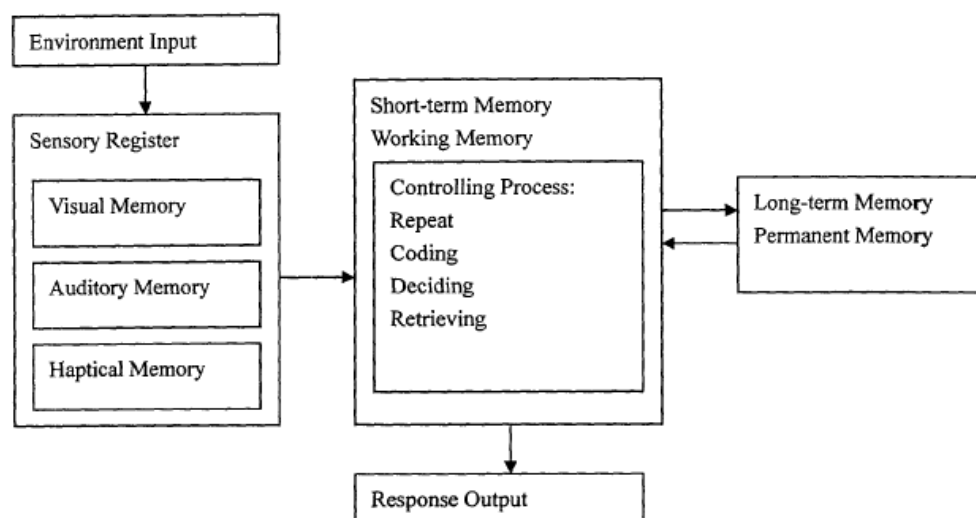


Figure III (Quoted from :Psycholinguistics, Gui Shichun, 1991, p.102)

Sensory register includes visual memory, auditory memory and haptical memory. It can keep information for a very short period of time, visual memory can keep sensory information completely for 1/5 second to 2 seconds, while auditory memory can keep information for 4 seconds. As the first step of information processing, sensory register selects and keeps the information needing further processing until short-term memory can process the information. So the function of short-term memory is obviously to process the information filtrated by sensory register. The duration of short-term memory is very short, only about ± 1 minute, and the capacity of short-term memory is very limited, that is, about 7 ± 2 units. Miller refers to this unit as "chunk", a piece of related information, part of which may help remember another part (Gui Shichun, 1991, p.105). For example, if we consider the number 13628378986 as separate figures, it is not easy chunks "13628378986", to remember them, but if we encode them into three chunks "136+2837+8986" it is much easier to remember the number. Long-term memory is the main instrument for human brain to store information. Its duration can be over one minute and even the lifetime, and its information storage capacity is very huge, even limitless. It is the repository of knowledge of human brain, including general knowledge and personal experiences, the former is named as semantic memory and the latter is episodic memory.

It is obvious that due to the restriction of memory mechanism, what the interpreter can remember in consecutive interpreting is the sense of the source speech, not the original linguistic forms, thus it is inevitable and scientific for the interpreter to interpret the sense of the source speech. He/she will only make the work even worse, because he/she may catch some redundant information at the expense of the holistic sense of the source speech. The feature of human's memory structure requires that interpreters must deliver the sense of the source speech but not the original linguistic forms due to the limited memory time. This also makes the use of explication possible.

4. The Simultaneity of Communication and Consecutive Interpreting

Due to the simultaneity of the communication and interpreting, the communication should be achieved effectively through the interpreting on the spot, thus interpreting pays much attention to the actual effect of the communication between the speaker and the listener(s). It is impossible and unnecessary for the interpreter to keep all the words as well as the grammatical structures of the source speech in the interpreting, so the only effective and possible way for the interpreter is to keep the key points in his/her memory and interpret the holistic sense of the source speech clearly to help the listeners quickly get the information sent by the speaker.

Spoken language and memory mechanism bring many difficulties not only to the interpreter but also to the listener. What the listeners actually needs during the communication in interpreting is the holistic sense of the speaker's speech, not the linguistic forms. Therefore, it is not necessary for the interpreter to render every word in the source speech. What he/she needs to do is to interpret the sense of the source speech, including the accurate comprehension and clear, intelligible expression of its sense, in order to help the listener understand the information sent by the speaker at once and achieve the communication.

Besides the influences of spoken language and memory, the information receptivity of the listeners is also affected by their non-linguistic knowledge, mostly by their professional knowledge and cultural knowledge. Non-linguistic knowledge plays an important part in the assimilation of the sense of source speech. It is through the comprehension of the information with non-linguistic knowledge that speeches produce sense, and then texts can be understood. And only after the non-linguistic information is understood can sense be produced. So non-linguistic knowledge is very important for the interpreter as well as the listeners.

C. Linguistic Habits of Interpreters

In the translational CECIC, explicitation through the use of connectives is characterized by what might be termed multiple-to-one relationships. That is, a wide variety of ST connectives in Chinese are all translated into the same English connective in TT. Translators are both readers and writers (Chesterman 2004), they read the source text following their own interpretation, and then translate with the target audience in mind, providing additional communicative clues whenever necessary. This mediating role is reflected in numerous instances in the translational CECIC, where connectives are optionally added to replace ST structures of juxtaposition and post-modification with zero connective. The statistics suggest that translators may develop a habit of connective explicitation in response to certain complex syntactic structures in an attempt to make their translations more reader-friendly.

V. CONCLUSION

The present research represents an initial attempt to apply the corpus-based approach to the study of explicitation in Chinese-English press conference interpreting. The findings of the study complement previous research, which predominantly used data from Indo-European languages. The current study further extends previous research by its inclusion of interpretations for source texts in the same topics, its adoption of a composite methodology of comparable analyses, and the investigation of a range of connectives that are shown to realize a higher level of explicitation in English translations. Based on the above comparative study of the two mini-corpora CECIC and OENC, the following generalizations can be made with regard to explicitation realized through the use of connectives: 1) connective explicitation is a recurring feature in English interpreting of political texts, with some common connectives being used much more frequently than their counterparts in non-translated English, 2) additive, objective and causal connectives are more likely to be added during the process of interpreting.

In terms of future directions in corpus-based studies of translational phenomena, the author first considers the necessity of distinguishing between process-oriented and product-oriented types of explicitation. Alongside attempts to differentiate between process- and product-oriented explicitation, there have been concerns regarding a potential overlap of definitions among some of the main features of translation proposed in the literature. To prevent corpus researchers from becoming the specter of a generation of translation scholars busy observing corpora without thinking about people, we need to conduct more studies on individual translators' voice. In this regard, Olohan (2000) proposes building corpora that include translations and the translators' original writings, in an attempt to establish their own linguistic habits and examine whether these habitual patterns feature in their translated texts. As in the field of interpreting, we may also create corpora of multiple interpretations by the same interpreter, multiple interpretations of the same text done by female and male interpreters, or interpretations carried out by professional and novice interpreters. All these different types of corpora should allow researchers to capture a wide variety of features that may not be universal, but specific to groups of individual interpreters or groups of interpreters. The findings of these proposed studies, in turn, will have implications for interpreter training and interpreting practice.

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Morpho-Semantic of Predicate in Indonesian

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Abstract—Semantically, a predicate is not always filled in by verbs. This study aims to discover and describe the predicate category and the number of arguments each predicate has in the Indonesian language. This study's data were taken from informants and the daily newspaper 'Bali Post'. The collected data were analyzed by applying deductive and inductive approaches. The result shows that Indonesian's predicate can be filled in by verb and non-verb categories: noun, adjective, preposition, and numeral. The predicate of the Indonesian sentences can be classified into the valency-one predicate, valency-two predicate, and valency-three predicate. Besides, there are several intransitive and transitive predicates in the Indonesian language, followed by a clause. Each of those finding is explained in detail in this article.

Index Terms—argument, predicate, semantic, valance, verb

I. INTRODUCTION

The syntactic and semantic aspects of a language are fascinating to study since they could show many distinct aspects of languages. A form of semantic and syntactic relations could be seen in the relation between propositions and sentences. A proposition is something or a thought in the human mind that can be realized in one or more sentences (Saeed, 1997). Each proposition expressed in a sentence(s) contains predicates, and noun phrases, often called arguments (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). Predicate as a core element of a sentence can be studied based on syntactic and semantic approaches (Dixon, 2010). For instance, the predicate in English is syntactically always filled with verbs because English has copula verbs used as the predicate of a sentence when the sentence does not contain a full verb predicate. However, in other languages such as Indonesian, the predicate can also be filled by non-verb categories. Indonesian does not require copula verbs for sentences that do not contain any full verbs. In semantic studies, each proposition realized in a sentence contains one predicate and some nouns called arguments.

Indonesian has often become the research object as the national language and Indonesia's official language (Alwi et al., 1993). The studies of Indonesian sentences still focused on the syntactic study, which includes the study of syntactic functions of sentence elements and syntactic relations of the elements that build a sentence. Arka has discussed the typological, structural, and semantic issues of the expressions of tense-aspect-modality in Indonesian. It is demonstrated that the tense-aspect-modality in Indonesian is of the morphosemantic and contextual types (Arka, 2013). Referring to this reality, semantic studies on Indonesian sentences are critical since that semantic studies emphasize the meaning and the role of sentence elements, especially predicate, as the core element of a sentence (Akanya & Omachonu, 2019).

Many studies have discussed the predicate of Indonesian sentences. However, most of the research still focused on studying predicates filled by verb categories, both intransitive and transitive verbs. In this study, Indonesian's predicate is analyzed based on a semantic theory that says predicate is filled by verbs and possibly by non-verb categories (Kreidler, 1998). Thus, this study aims to discover and describe the predicate category and the number of arguments each predicate has.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A predicate is a part of a sentence which states something about the subject and usually consists of a verb either with or without an object, complement, or adverb (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). It conveys actions, processes, and states that refer to the subject (Bussman, 2006). As the central element of a sentence, the predicate has a vital role in constructing a sentence (Demirezen, 2013). A predicate is not only filled by verbs, but it is also possibly filled by non-verb categories (Kreidler, 1998). In English and other languages such as Indonesian, predicate elements can be semantically verbs or non-verb categories, such as nouns, adjectives, prepositions, and numerals (Miozzo et al., 2014).

III. METHOD

Based on the data of the study, this research can be classified into a qualitative study. The researchers collected the

data from the Bali Post daily newspaper written in Indonesian, published in June 2020. Besides, there are several data taken from informants who use Indonesian in their daily activities. Five informants were involved in this study. They were selected using a purposive sampling technique with a set of criteria. Those criteria include: the informant is minimum graduated from high school (so that they can speak Indonesian well, fluently, and correctly), speech organs are not disabled, active, and they tend to use Indonesian in everyday life, honest, physically and mentally healthy, male or female. Data were obtained by applying the observation method for both written data and oral data. The observation method was completed by recording technique and note-taking technique as well. The application of both techniques is very appropriate and useful in obtaining the required data. Furthermore, the collected data was analyzed qualitatively by applying a deductive and inductive approach, and the results were presented descriptively.

IV. FINDING AND DISCUSSION

Indonesian sentences are broadly divided into sentences with verbal predicate and non-verbal predicate. Verbs that can be used as the predicate in Indonesian can be in basic form and derived forms. Therefore, a non-verbal predicate can be noun, adjective, preposition, adverbial, and number. The result of this study is supported by the previous study conducted by Gulö (2019) and Kartika et al. (2019), who found that the predicates in the Indonesian language can be in the form of verbs, adjectives, and nouns. Specifically, Moeljadi et al. (2016) found that there are three types of the basic copula in Indonesian, they are Noun Phrase (NP), Adjective Phrase (AP), and Prepositional Phrase (PP) that may occur without a copula verb. Verbless copula sentences with a nominal or adjectival predicate are also found in the Standard Arabic language (Alazzawie, 2016).

This study classifies the Indonesian predicates based on the number, types, and form of arguments that the predicates require or from verb valency classification (Čech et al., 2010). The Indonesian predicates can be categorized into the one-argument predicate, two-argument predicate, and three-argument predicate from the verb valency concept. This can be seen in the following analysis.

Valency-one predicate

Many sentences whose predicates require only one argument, commonly called the valency-one predicate, are found in Indonesian sentences. Semantically, the valency-one predicate sentences are classified into sentences with verbal predicate and sentences with a non-verbal predicate. This can be seen in the following examples and descriptions.

Verb is a predicate

Sentences with a one-argument predicate are generally filled with intransitive verbs (Matthews, 1981). Morphologically, intransitive verbs that function as predicates have various morphological forms. This can be seen in Table 1.

TABLE 1
EXAMPLES OF VERB AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(1)	<i>Keberadaan pasar rakyat sebagai penggerak perekonomian harus terus berjalan.</i>	The existence of the traditional market as the driver of the economy must continue.
(2)	<i>Meteran listrik itu sudah tidak berfungsi lagi.</i>	The electricity meter doesn't work anymore.
(3)	<i>Teman-temannya sudah duduk. Dia sendiri masih berdiri.</i>	His friends are already sitting. He himself is still standing.
(4)	<i>Tidak ada yang bisa memastikan kapan pandemi Covid-19 berakhir.</i>	No one can be sure when the Covid-19 pandemic ends.
(5)	<i>Berita tentang kejadian di desa itu sudah meluas.</i>	News about events in the village has spread.
(6)	<i>Airnya sudah mendidih.</i>	The water is boiling.
(7)	<i>Pesawat yang dari Surabaya belum mendarat.</i>	The aircraft from Surabaya have not yet landed.
(8)	<i>Ancaman Covid-19 masih ada.</i>	The Covid-19 threat still exists.

The data in Table 1 shows that the predicate filled by verbs *berjalan* 'to walk' in (1), *berfungsi* 'to function' in (2), *berdiri* 'to stand up' in (3), *berakhir* 'to end' in (4), *meluas* 'to spread' in (5), *mendidih* 'to boil' in (6), *mendarat* 'to land' in (7), and *ada* 'to exist' in (8) are Indonesian intransitive verbs that only require one argument. The argument syntactically functions as the subject. Morphologically, the verbs in (1-4) are intransitive verbs with prefix *ber-* with noun base *Jalan* 'road' in (1), *fungsi* 'function' in (2), *akhir* 'the end' in (3); and pre-categorical base *diri* 'self' in (4). The verbs used in (5-8) are intransitive verbs with prefix *me-* with adjective base *luas* 'wide' in (5), pre category *didih* 'boil' in (6), and noun base *darat* 'the land' in (7). In (8), the predicate is filled by the base verb *ada* 'to exist'.

Noun as Predicate

Besides verbs, many other categories can function as the predicate of sentences with a one-argument predicate. One of them is a noun. Nouns as a predicate are also found in Azerbaijani and Turkic languages (Abbasova, 2014). Unlike English, Indonesian sentences with nouns as the predicate do not obligatorily require any copula verbs to complete the structure and the meaning of the sentences. The presence of copula verbs is optional. Indonesian sentences that show the one-argument predicate filled by nouns can be seen in Table 2.

TABLE 2
EXAMPLES OF NOUN AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(9)	<i>Anak pertama saya dokter.</i>	My first daughter is a doctor.
(10)	<i>Istrinya juga dosen.</i>	His wife is a lecturer as well.
(11)	<i>Saat itu, saya masih mahasiswa.</i>	At that time, I was a university student.

Table 2 shows that the predicates are filled in by the noun *dokter* 'doctor' in (9), *dosen* 'lecturer' in (10), and *mahasiswa* 'university student' in (11). The only argument the predicate has is the subject, such as *anak pertama saya* 'my first son/daughter' in (9), *istrinya* 'his wife' in (10), and *saya* 'I' in (11).

Adjective as Predicate

In addition to verbs and nouns, adjective also often functions as a predicate. Adjective as a predicate is also found in the Korean language since adjectives can fill the verb slot and function as a predicate (Yeo, 2008). In the Indonesian language, the adjective predicate requires only one core argument. Thus, the sentence constructed by the adjective predicate is identified as a sentence with a one-argument predicate. The examples to support this reality can be seen in Table 3.

TABLE 3
EXAMPLES OF ADJECTIVE AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(12)	<i>Bisnis akomodasi juga sangat lesu.</i>	The accommodation business does not run either.
(13)	<i>Pasar Kumbasari Pagi masih buka.</i>	Kumbasari Morning Market is still open.
(14)	<i>Adiknya jangan diganggu. Dia sakit.</i>	Don't bother her sister. She is sick.
(15)	<i>Lokasi tersebut benar-benar steril.</i>	The location is really sterile.
(16)	<i>Kemana dialihkan, urgensinya harus jelas.</i>	Where it is diverted, its urgency must be clear.
(17)	<i>Adiknya takut kalau ada gempa.</i>	His sister is afraid of earthquakes.

Table 3 shows that the predicate is filled by adjective phrase *sangat lesu* 'very weak' in (12), *masih buka* 'still open' in (13), *benar-benar steril* 'completely sterile' at (15), *harus jelas* 'must be clear' in (16), and adjective *sakit* 'sick' in (14), *takut* 'scare' in (17). All the adjective predicates require one argument that functions as the subject of the sentence. Therefore, the adjectival predicate constructions (12-17) are classified as one-argument predicate sentences.

Numeral as Predicate

The semantic approach analysis of the Indonesian sentences may also admit numeral as the predicate. Data showing numeral as the predicate of sentence can be seen in Table 4.

TABLE 4
EXAMPLES OF NUMERAL AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(18)	<i>Saudaranya tiga, satu laki-laki dan dua perempuan.</i>	His siblings are three, one male and two female.
(19)	<i>Mahasiswa yang hadir hari ini tujuh puluh.</i>	Students who are present today are seventy.
(20)	<i>Bagiannya hanya setengah.</i>	His portion is only half.
(21)	<i>Tingkat Penghunian Kamar khususnya hotel berbintang di Bali pada April 2020 hanya sekitar tiga persen.</i>	Room Occupancy Rates especially star-rated hotels in Bali in April 2020 were only around three percent.

In (18), the predicate is filled in by numeral *tiga* 'three', in (19) the predicate is filled in by numeral *tujuh puluh* 'seventy', in (20), the predicate is filled in by *setengah* 'half', and in (21) the predicate is filled in by numeral *tiga persen* 'three per cent'. The predicates filled in by the numerals have a subject argument, namely *saudaranya* 'his/her sibling' in (18), *mahasiswa yang hadir hari ini* 'university students who come today' in (19), *bagiannya* 'his part' in (20), and *tingkat penghunian kamar....* 'Room occupancy rate....' in (21). Those subjects are the only argument the numeral predicates have in the construction.

Valency-Two Predicate

Many sentences whose predicate has two mandatory arguments are found in the Indonesian language. The sentence with the two-argument predicate in Indonesian is still distinguished between the verb and non-verb predicate. This can be seen in the following analysis.

Verb as the Predicate

All languages have lexical categories of nouns and verbs (Polinsky & Magyar, 2020). Verbs generally function as a predicate, while nouns function as arguments (Luuk, 2010; Matthews, 1981). In Indonesian, predicate verbs can be both intransitive and transitive verbs. The use of both verbs can be seen in the following analysis. As presented in the previous description, intransitive verb predicates have one argument functioning as a subject. However, based on the collected data, intransitive verb predicate may require two arguments, one core argument and one oblique core argument. The intransitive verb in Indonesian has various morphological forms. That is seen in Table 5.

TABLE 5
EXAMPLES OF VERB AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(22)	Kapolres berpesan kepada personelnnya agar tetap semangat menjalankan tugas-tugas mulai ini.	The police chief advised his personnel to keep the spirit of carrying out the tasks starting from this.
(23)	Bapak Kapolres sempat ngobrol dengan lansia itu.	Mr. Police Chief had a chat with the elderly.
(24)	Lebih lanjut Rai Mantra berharap beragam upaya dan keberhasilan Satgas Covid-19 Lingkungan Banjar Ujung Kesiman ini dapat menjadi contoh.	Furthermore, Rai Mantra hopes that the various efforts and successes of the Task Force for Covid-19 at Banjar Ujung Kesiman can be an example.
(25)	Pandemi Covid-19 ini terus berimbas pada penurunan kemampuan ekonomi masyarakat.	The Covid-19 pandemic continues to impact the decline in peoples economic capacity.
(26)	Kewaspadaan masyarakat merupakan suatu keharusan saat ini.	Public awareness is a must now.
(27)	Mulai 9 Juni 2020, Dandrem 163/Wira Satya berpangkat Brigjen.	Starting 9 June 2020, Dandrem 163 / Wira Satya holds the rank of Brigjen.
(28)	Orang tua itu selalu bertindak hati-hati dan perlahan-lahan dalam mengerjakan sesuatu.	The old man always acts carefully and slowly in doing something.
(29)	Efek yang ditimbulkan berdampak pada semua sektor.	The resulting effects affect all sectors.

Data above show that the predicate is filled in by intransitive verbs such as *berpesan* 'to advise' in (22), *ngobrol* 'to chat' in (23), *berharap* 'to hope' in (24), *berimbas* 'to impact' in (25), *merupakan* 'to be' in (26), *berpangkat* 'to hold the rank of' in (27), *bertindak* 'to act' in (28), and *berdampak* 'to impact' in (29). The verbs require two arguments, namely one core argument and one oblique core argument (P. R. Kroeger, 2005). The core argument is the noun phrase preceding verbs functioning as the predicate subject. Meanwhile, the oblique core argument is the argument in the form of a prepositional phrase, adverbial, and noun phrase directly following the verbs. The arguments function as the verb complement (Baker, 2003). The intransitive verbs that require oblique core argument like in (22-29) become one of this study's prominences. In other languages, this phenomenon may be rarely found.

In addition to the intransitive verbs described above, many transitive verbs are also used in Indonesian sentences. It means that the transitive verbs require two core arguments in the sentence. Therefore, transitive verbs often refer to two-argument predicates (Valin & LaPolla, 2001). This can be seen in Table 6.

TABLE 6
EXAMPLES OF VERB AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(30)	Sektor pertanian tidak pernah jenuh menyerap tenaga kerja.	The agricultural sector is never saturated in absorbing labour.
(31)	Bali harus memiliki sebuah pasar induk.	Bali must have a wholesale market.
(32)	BPD Bali mendukung komitmen Pemerintah Daerah Bali dan pelaku UMKM menuju kemandirian pangan Bali.	The local bank of Bali supports the commitment of the Bali Regional Government and the Small and Middle Economic Industry to Balis food independence.
(33)	Komisi IV DPRD Bali sudah menggelar rapat dengan Dinas Pendidikan, Kepemudaan dan Olah Raga Provinsi Bali.	Commission IV of the Bali DPRD has held a meeting with the Bali Provincial Office of Education, Youth and Sports.
(34)	Wali Kota Rai Mantra memberikan apresiasi kepada seluruh Satgas Covid-19	The Mayor, Rai Mantra gave his appreciation to the entire Covid-19 Task Force.

Table 6 shows that the predicate of the above sentences is filled in by verb *menyerap* 'to absorb' in (30), *memiliki* 'to have' in (31), *mendukung* 'to support' in (32), *menggelar* 'to carry out' in (33), and *memberikan* 'to give' in (34). The transitive verb requires two core arguments, which syntactically function as subjects and objects. Noun phrases that precede the verb, namely *sektor pertanian* 'the agricultural sector', *Bali* 'Bali', *BPD Bali* 'Local Bank of Bali', *Komisi IV DPRD Bali* 'Bali Commission IV', and *Wali Kota Rai Mantra* 'the mayor Rai Mantra' are the subject of the sentence and noun phrases that immediately follow the verb, such as *tenaga kerja* 'labor', *sebuah pasar induk* 'a wholesale market', *komitmen pemerintah daerah Bali* 'Bali Regional Government commitment', *rapat* 'meeting', and *apresiasi* 'appreciation' are the object of the verb. Meanwhile, other elements such as *menuju kemandirian pangan Bali* 'towards food independence' in (32), *dengan Dinas Pendidikan, Kepemudaan dan Olah Raga Provinsi Bali* 'with the Bali Provincial Office of Education, Youth and Sports' in (33), and *kepada seluruh Satgas Covid-19* 'to the all Covid-19 Task Force' in (34) are identified as periphery.

Preposition as Predicate

For sentences with a two-argument predicate, the predicate can also be filled in by a preposition. The examples of sentences in which the predicate is semantically filled by preposition are shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7
EXAMPLES OF PREPOSITION AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(35)	<i>Sekarang ibu di kampus</i>	'Now mother is at the campus.'
(36)	<i>Ibu saya ke pasar setiap hari minggu</i>	'My mother goes to the market every Sunday'
(37)	<i>Suaminya dari Kintamani tapi sudah lama tinggal di Denpasar.</i>	'Her husband is from Kintamani, but he has been living for many years in Denpasar'

The declarative sentences above use prepositions as the predicate. The prepositions *di* 'at' in (35), *ke* 'to' in (36), and *dari* 'from' in (37) are semantically identified as the central element of the sentences. The prepositions require two arguments that function as subject and complement. The subject arguments of the sentences are *ibu* 'mother', *ibu saya* 'my mother', and *suaminya* 'her husband', while the arguments filled in by noun *kampus* 'campus', *pasar* 'market', and *Kintamani* 'Kintamani' together with the preposition create prepositional phrases functioning as adverbial showing place. Other elements such as *setiap hari minggu* 'every Sunday' in (36) is an adverbial phrase showing time and *tapi sudah lama tinggal di Denpasar* 'but has been living in Denpasar for a long time' in (37) are adverbial phrases showing the time that are classified as periphery.

Adverbial as Predicate

Besides prepositions as in the examples (39-41), Indonesian also has adverbials as the predicate of sentences. According to Dixon (2005), adverbial elements can refer to space, time, frequency or degree, and manner of an activity or state. They can comprise a, a phrase, or a clause. Adverbial phrases are generally introduced by a preposition, although there are exceptions, e.g., last week, many times, this way. The examples of adverbial used as the predicate of the Indonesian sentences can be seen in Table 8.

TABLE 8
EXAMPLES OF ADVERBIAL AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(38)	<i>Tingkat Penghunian Kamar hotel berbintang umumnya selalu di atas 50 persen.</i>	The occupancy rate of starred hotel rooms is commonly always above 50 per cent.
(39)	<i>Dompot saya di atas meja.</i>	My wallet is on the table.
(40)	<i>Tempatnya di belakang Gedung Kesenian.</i>	The venue is behind the Arts Building.
(41)	<i>Mahasiswa sudah di dalam kelas.</i>	Students are already in class.

The predicate of the above sentences is filled in by complex preposition *di atas* 'above' in (38-39), *di belakang* 'behind' in (40), and *di dalam* 'inside' in (41). In the examples (38-41), there are two arguments, namely *Tingkat Penghunian Kamar hotel berbintang* 'The Occupancy Rate of starred hotel rooms' and *50 persen* '50 per cent' in (38), *dompot saya* 'my wallet' and *meja* 'table' in (39), *tempatnyanya* 'the venue' and *gedung kesenian* 'art building' in (40), *mahasiswa* 'university students' and *kelas* 'classroom' in (41). The two arguments in each sentence become mandatory, and the complex preposition strictly ties them.

Valency-Three Predicate

In Indonesian, there are some sentences whose predicates require three arguments, and all three arguments are direct core arguments. This can be seen in Table 9.

TABLE 9
EXAMPLES OF VALENCY-THREE PREDICATE AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(42)	Dia membelikan adiknya baju baru.	'He bought his younger brother new clothes.'
(43)	Bibinya menyewakannya pakaian untuk menari.	'Her aunt rented her clothes for dancing.'
(44)	Dia membuatkan adiknya layangan.	'He made his younger brother a kite.'

From the Table 9, it is known that the predicate is filled in by derived verbs such as *membelikan* 'to buy' in (42), *menyewakan* 'to rent' in (43), and *membuatkan* 'to make' in (44). The suffix *-kan* in Indonesian has two very different modes of operation in the grammar. These two modes can be identified by the syntactic (monotransitive vs ditransitive) and semantic (theme vs benefactive) patterns that they create (P. Kroeger, 2007). The verbs require three arguments, which syntactically function as a subject, indirect object, and direct object (S, IO, DO). The presence of the three arguments is caused by suffixes *-an*. This suffix is well-known as a suffix that can create valencies, e.g., from intransitive to transitive and transitive to bitransitive. It can be proven that if the suffix *-an* is removed, then the verbs become *membeli* 'to buy', *menyewa* 'to rent', and *membuat* 'to make', which only require two arguments so that they belong to transitive verbs. Meanwhile, the verbs like *membelikan* 'to buy', *menyewakan* 'to rent', and *membuatkan* 'to make' as in (42-44) are included in the bitransitive verbs. Thus, the suffix *-an* in Indonesian functions to increase valency- from valency two to valency three. Sentences (42-44) derives from (45-47) in Table 10 below.

TABLE 10
EXAMPLES OF VALENCY-THREE PREDICATE AS PREDICATE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(45)	Dia membeli baju untuk adiknya kemarin malam	He bought clothes for his younger brother last night.
(46)	Bibinya menyewa pakaian untuk menari untuknya.	Her aunt rented clothes for dancing for her.
(47)	Dia membuat layangan untuk adiknya.	He made a kite for his younger brother.

The verb *membeli* 'to buy' in (45), *menyewa* 'to rent' in (46), and *membuat* 'to make' in (47) only need two arguments that function as subject and object. Prepositional phrases in those sentences belong to the oblique core argument. And the oblique argument can be promoted into core argument by the suffix *-an* like in (42-44).

Verbs Followed by a Clause

Verb predicate in Indonesian can sometimes be followed by a word, a phrase, and a clause. Predicate followed by a word or a phrase has been discussed in the sub-chapter before. Based on the data, a predicate followed by a clause can be seen in Table 11.

TABLE 11
EXAMPLES OF FOLLOWED BY A CLAUSE

No	Examples	Meaning in English
(48)	Dewa Sadguna menyarankan sudah saatnya pertanian di Bali dimodernisasi.	Dewa Sadguna suggested that it was time for agriculture in Bali to be modernized.
(49)	Achmad Yurianto menambahkan bahwa untuk yang sehat ada penambahan 591 pasien sembuh sehingga totalnya menjadi 10.498 pasien.	Achmad Yurianto added that for healthy people, there were 591 additional patients recovered, bringing the total to 10,498 patients.
(50)	Pangdam IX Udayana mengatakan almarhum merupakan seorang penerbang pelatih.	Pangdam IX Udayana said the deceased was a pilot trainer.
(51)	Kepala Bappeda ini menyatakan akan mendedikasikan ilmu yang diperolehnya untuk membangun bangsa melalui kesehariannya sebagai birokrat di Pemkab Badung.	The Head of Bappeda stated that he would dedicate the knowledge he obtained to build the nation through his daily life as a bureaucrat in the Badung Regency Government.
(52)	Gung Nik menjelaskan bahwa sinergi terus dilaksanakan mulai dari Kelurahan, Desa Adat, Banjar Adat, STT, hingga PKK.	Gung Nik explained that the synergy continued to be carried out starting from the Administrative village, traditional village, youth organization, to women organization.
(53)	Dia berharap segala aturan pemerintah mesti ditaati.	He hopes that all government regulations must be obeyed.

The complex sentences (48-53) each contain one main clause and one embedded clause. The predicate of the main clause is filled by transitive verb *menyarankan* 'to suggest' in (48), *menambahkan* 'to add' in (49), *mengatakan* 'to say' in (50), *menyatakan* 'to state' in (51), *menjelaskan* 'to explain' in (52), and intransitive verb *berharap* 'to hope' in (53). All the verbs are followed by a clause that functions as an object or a complement.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the semantic analysis done in the discussion, it is known that predicate in Indonesian is divided into verbal and non-verbal predicates. Based on the number of arguments they have, the predicates are classified into the one-argument predicate, two-argument predicate, and three-argument predicate. This study is limited to the types of Indonesian predicate from the morpho-semantic theory. It means that this study is done to enrich the linguistic knowledge of the Indonesian language. Thus, the results of this study can be used in the applied linguistics field, especially in teaching English in the Indonesian context, by conducting further research that compares the Indonesian predicate to the English predicate.

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Comparative Study of Description in *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* and *The Libido for the Ugly*

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Abstract—*The Libido for the Ugly* and *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* are two important texts in Advanced English. Both of them are description. However, they show significant differences in aspect of objectivity, use of figure of speech and language features, etc. Through a comparative study of the differences between *The Libido for the Ugly* and *The Middle Eastern Bazaar*, this paper aims to help readers to improve their understanding of the two texts, so as to further help readers to deepen their appreciation of the textual features of classic descriptive texts.

Index Terms—psychological contract, English film appreciation, elective course

I. INTRODUCTION

The subjective description of *The Libido for the Ugly* and the objective description of *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* are important texts in Advanced English. Both of them are written with descriptive techniques. However, the stylistic styles of the two discourses show significant differences, which provide a model worthy of discussion and study for readers. Through a comparative study of the differences in textual characteristics between *The Libido for the Ugly* and *The Middle Eastern Bazaar*, this paper aims to help readers to improve their understanding of the thematic connotations and linguistic forms of the two works, so as to further help readers to deepen their appreciation of the textual features of classic descriptive texts.

II. DESCRIPTION

Description is painting a picture of a person, a place, an object, a scene, etc. with words (Ding et al., 2009). The purpose of a descriptive text is to involve the reader enough so he or she can actually see the things described. A descriptive essay is generally developed through sensory details, has one clear dominant impression, uses detailed words like specific adjectives, adverbs, and vivid verbs, uses figures of speech to make the description more powerful (Zhou, 2004).

The describing of a place is usually organized and developed by space order (Ding et al., 2009). Places may be described for their own sake, as in essays on visits to famous scenic places, but also for the purpose of revealing the personality and character of a person, or creating a feeling or mood (Ding et al., 2009).

A descriptive essay can be objective or subjective.

Description is objective when topic is viewed from an objective point of view; the writer paints a verbal picture of the realistic world, like a camera without the author's personal feelings involved (Mei, 2018). Description is subjective when the writer wants to share a kind of prevailing impression. When writing subjective description, the author tries to evoke in the reader his feelings about the subject; therefore he selects words rich in connotative meaning and appeals strongly to the senses (Mei, 2018).

III. INTRODUCTION OF THE MIDDLE EASTERN BAZAAR AND THE LIBIDO FOR THE UGLY

A. Introduction of *The Middle Eastern Bazaar*

This is a typically well-written and well-organized piece of description. Unlike *The Libido for the Ugly*, this text is objective and realistic. The writer is trying his best to present a vivid picture of this particular Middle Eastern Bazaar for those who have never visited such bazaar.

This passage describes all kinds of markets, colorful goods and various funny people in the Middle Eastern bazaar. It is so vivid that a picture of the Middle Eastern bazaar appears in readers' mind.

This article is arranged according to the dimensional orientation. As you can see, the author starts from the entrance of the bazaar and goes on the cloth-market, the copper-Smith's market, the carpet-market, the food-market, the dye-market, the pottery-market, the carpenters' market and so on. It seems that there is a tour guide leading us into the bazaar.

Most of the language in the text is plain, so it is not difficult for us to read. At the same time, with refined language, it not only attracts our interests in reading this article but also makes us feel that we are visiting this place when reading this essay.

B. Introduction of *The Libido for the Ugly*

The Libido for the Ugly is a piece of subjective, impressionistic or emotional description. In this essay Mencken is very subjective and personal. In this strong impressionistic or highly emotional piece of description, ugliness, as the dominant impression, stands out vividly and prominently.

Libido is a term used in psychoanalysis, meaning emotional energy or urge that in psychoanalytic theory is derived from primitive biological urges (Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary, 1997). Libido does not involve cognitive process, and this is a meaning Mencken intends for the desire for ugliness. The writer deliberately uses this technical term in the title to suggest that the love and passion for ugliness among Americans is a kind of pathological problem and that his observations have a scientific foundation.

Henry Louis Mencken is very famous American educator, author, and critic. He was a central figure in American intellectual life during the 1920's and is well-known for his exaggerated style and acid tongue. In this text he doesn't just criticize and denounce the ugliness of Westmoreland, he assails the whole American race---*a race that loves ugliness for its own sake, a race which hates beauty as it hates truth* (Zhang, 2017). In his violent attack he employs the strongest words such as *dreadfully hideous, abominable, agonizing wiliness, revolting monstrousness leprous hill*, and so on. Besides words, he uses rhetorical devices frequently to create horrible and dreadful images to highlight his verbal attack in sentences like *"so abominable that they would have disgraced a race of alley cats"* (Para. 1) (Zhang, 2017, p76); *"one blinks before them as one blinks before a man with his face shot away"* (Para. 2) (Zhang, 2017, p77); *"like gravestones in some gigantic and decaying cemetery"* (Para. 3) (Zhang, 2017, p77); *"it is the color of an egg pas tall hope or caring"* (Para. 4) (Zhang, 2017, p77), etc.

Mencken uses a lot of overstatements to exaggerate and also uses sarcasm, ridicule and irony to taunt and jeer (Zhang, 2017). While overuse of such rhetorical devices makes readers doubt the objectivity of the writer. In fact one might say Mencken employs all the force of diction, structure and rhetorical devices only to batter his readers into insensitivity (Zhang, 2017). This makes his writing very funny, at least for modern readers.

IV. CONTRAST OF THE MIDDLE EASTERN BAZAAR AND THE LIBIDO FOR UGLY

A. Order of Description in *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* and *The Libido for the Ugly*

In *The Middle Eastern Bazaar*, the writer organizes the paragraphs in a pattern of spatial development, beginning from the entrance to various markets in the bazaar. Each paragraph has a topic sentence and a central idea illustrated by relevant details. Paragraph 1 is a general description about the entrance. Here the writer describes the crowded scene and noise made by the crowds and their donkeys. From Paragraph 2 to paragraph 9, the author describes different markets in this bazaar. Paragraph 2 is a contrast to the first one in that the cloth market is muted, with the sound and noise absorbed by the earthen floor and mud vaults. Influenced by the general atmosphere, the customers speak in a soft voice. Paragraph 3 continues to describe the cloth market. The writer is attracted by the way of bargaining. And he devotes a whole paragraph to showing how the bargaining can go on for days. Then the writer turns his attention to the coppersmiths' market by using a topic sentence *"One of the most picturesque and impressive parts of the bazaar is the coppersmiths' market."* In this part, details are given to show the sound (*"As you approach it, a tinkling and banging and clashing begins to impinge on your ear."*) (Zhang, 2010, p3)) and the sight (*"until you round a corner and see a fairyland of dancing flashes, as the burnished copper catches the light of innumerable lamps and braziers."*) (Zhang, 2010, p3)) and finally the combination of sight and sound (*"a tiny apprentice blows a big charcoal fire with a huge leather bellows worked by a string attached to his big toe - the red of the live coals glowing bright and then dimming rhythmically to the strokes of the bellows."*) (Zhang, 2010, p3)). If the writer goes on describing every market in great detail, the reader may get tired. And so the writer condenses the descriptions of several markets together in Paragraph 7, each market with a striking detail: *"the carpet market, with its profusion of rich colors, varied textures and regional designs"* (Zhang, 2010, p3); *"the spice market, with its pungent and exotic smells"* (Zhang, 2010, p3); *"the food market, where you can buy everything you need for the most sumptuous dinner"* (Zhang, 2010, p3); and finally *"the dye market, the pottery market and the carpenters' market lie elsewhere in the maze of vaulted streets which honeycomb this bazaar"* (Zhang, 2010, p3)." In the last two paragraphs, the most unforgettable thing in the bazaar---linseed oil market is described.

It is clear that the writer thinks the Middle Eastern Bazaar interesting and exotic and he is trying his best to convey and share with the reader what he saw and heard at the bazaar in a realistic but effective way.

The Libido for the Ugly generally also follows the space order. The author describes what he sees from Pittsburg to Greensburg, a distance of twenty-five miles. In the first part (para1-para2), the author contrasts the great wealth of this region with the abominable human habitations seen everywhere, and emphasizes the continuous ugliness in the country to imply that ugliness is not due to poverty but to something innate in the American character. In part two (paras. 3-5), the author focuses on the ugliness of the house design and the ugliness of the color of the bricks, and he also evaluates the ugliness of this region as the top one in the world. In the third part (paras. 6-8), the author tries to trace the source of the ugliness from the foreigners, speculates on a solution for the puzzle (libido for the ugly), and attacks the whole American race which hates beauty as it hates truth. In the last part, the author finally gives an answer---pathological and etiological reason.

Although both texts follow spatial order, in *The Middle Eastern Bazaar*, the author guides the readers from one market to the other, makes the readers see, hear, smell and taste the scene in the bazaar. In *The Libido for the Ugly*, the author mainly focuses on the ugly design and color of the houses that he sees along the line from Pittsburg to Greensburg, a distance of twenty-five miles, and tries to explore the reasons for the ugly buildings.

B. Objective Description in *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* and Subjective Description in *The Libido for the Ugly*

In *The Middle East Bazaar*, the author is just like the director of a TV travel program. He keeps himself out of the picture and captures these rare shots one by one with a camera, presenting the audience with a very rich and vivid experience of tourism at close range, leading the readers to the primitive but lively market life in the ancient Oriental civilization.

The author of this text stands in the perspective of a westerner and describes it in the second person, which reflects the author's mental activity with infinite curiosity in his calm observation. He effectively unveils the mystery of this place where ancient civilization was born with a unique perspective.

Writing with the second person is rare in ordinary texts, and the author's communicative intention in writing is therefore highlighted. Specifically, the author tries to reproduce the exotic customs in his travel experience realistically in an objective and rational way, so that readers can follow his description to generate their own rational inference, so that they can avoid the interference of the writer's subjective opinions.

The Libido for the Ugly is a piece of subjective, impressionistic or emotional description. In this essay Mencken is very subjective and personal. In this strong impressionistic or highly emotional piece of description, ugliness, as the dominant impression, stands out vividly and prominently.

In *The Libido for the Ugly*, a work completed with subjective description, the author Mencken describes the content from the perspective of the first person "I", and repeated the first person "I" in the text, so as to continuously strengthen his personal views and personal feelings, thus pouring into the article a strong subjective emotional color. This style of writing is a feature for which Mencken has long been known.

In the 1920s and 1930s, Mencken was a pioneer of American literary radicals. As a critic, Mencken often embodied his prominence of personal thoughts and his publicity of his own personality with exquisite and majestic vigor in his poignant style of writing.

When commenting on Mencken, the researchers once pointed out that "he advocated that critics should improve their subjective consciousness, integrate their own feelings, inner experience and personality into the critical process, and show their individual and creative opinions."

Therefore, in *The Libido for the Ugly*, the author Mencken chooses to describe it from the perspective of the first person, and repeatedly emphasized his subjective evaluation, which is the embodiment of the author's own consistent writing style.

In short, in *The Libido for the Ugly*, with his subjective description and with its subjective strong first-person narration, the author vividly depicts the ugly appearance of industrial town, and mainly criticizes the area in the form of an invective building in aspects such as shape and color. Then it reveals the distortion and deviation of value orientation in industrialized society at that time.

On the contrary, *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* is created with objective description. The author, with an objective perspective of the second person, shows readers the lively market workshop in the ancient civilization objectively through the moving street scene.

C. Rhetorical Devices in *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* and *The Libido for the Ugly*

Rhetorical devices are the ways in which words are made to mean other than what they would normally imply, for the purpose of lending force to an idea, heightening effect, or creating certain atmosphere. Rhetorical devices exist in almost endless variety and many are closely related or intricately overlap, hence no completely satisfactory system of classification has ever been devised.

Both of *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* and *The Libido for the Ugly* use various rhetorical devices to make the description vivid and attractive.

In *The Middle Eastern Bazaar*, the author, by using metaphor, parallelism, hyperbole, contrast, onomatopoeia, transferred epithet, makes the readers see, hear, and smell the vivid scene of the bazaar. For example, in the first paragraph, the author says:

You pass from the heat and glare of a big, open square into a cool, dark cavern which extends as far as the eye can see, losing itself in the shadowy distance. Little donkeys with harmoniously tinkling bells thread their way among the throngs of people entering and leaving the bazaar. The roadway is about twelve feet wide, but it is narrowed every few yards by little stalls where goods of every conceivable kind are sold. The din of the stall-holder crying their wares, of donkey-boys and porters clearing a way for themselves by shouting vigorously, and of would-be purchasers arguing and bargaining is continuous and makes you dizzy. (Zhang, 2010, p.1)

Here by using contrast, onomatopoeia, parallelism, the author effectively makes the readers sense the contrast of the noisiness out of the bazaar and quietness in the bazaar, and hear various sounds of bells, bargaining of the customers entering and leaving the bazaar.

In paragraph five, the author describes:

As you approach it, a tinkling and banging and clashing begins to impinge on your ear. It grows louder and more distinct, until you round a corner and see a fairyland of dancing flashes, as the burnished copper catches the light of innumerable lamps and braziers. (Zhang, 2010, p.3)

By using onomatopoeia and metaphor, the reader could hear various sounds in the copper-smith market and see the light reflected by the burnished copper dance in the fire.

In paragraph seven, by reading the sentences like:

The dye-market, the pottery-market and the carpenters' market lie elsewhere in the maze of vaulted streets which honeycomb this bazaar. Every here and there, a doorway gives a glimpse of a sunlit courtyard, perhaps before a mosque or a caravanserai, where camels lie disdainfully chewing their hay, while the great bales of merchandise they have carried hundreds of miles across the desert lie beside them. (Zhang, 2010, p.3)

Metaphor and personification in them make readers see the bazaar which is like a big honeycomb and arrogant camels which are chewing their hay leisurely. The refraction of the light produced a brilliant, fairyland luster.

The whole process of oil pressing presented by the author seems to let the readers clearly see those pictures and hear those sounds. Even the linseed oil gurgling out is so bright and translucent flowing in front of his eyes.

In *The Libido for the Ugly*, the author, by using metaphor, irony, sarcasm, contrast, hyperbole, transferred epithet and understatement, highlights the ugliness of Westmoreland. In the opening paragraph, in sentences like:

Here was the very heart of industrial America, the center of its most lucrative and characteristic activity, the boast and pride of the richest and grandest nation ever seen on earth--- and here was a scene so dreadfully hideous, so intolerably bleak and forlorn that it reduced the whole aspiration of man to a macabre and depressing joke; Here was wealth beyond computation, almost beyond imagination--- and here were human habitations so abominable that they would have disgraced a race of alley cats. (Zhang, 2017, p.76)

By using metaphor, hyperbole and contrast, the author subjectively exaggerates the richness and grandeur of this region, exaggerates habitations so abominable that even homeless cats would have felt ashamed to live, contrasts the richest and grandest region with the hideous, bleak and forlorn scene, contrasts the wealth and abominable habitations.

In almost each paragraph, the author uses hyperbole to exaggerate the intolerable ugliness. For example,

What I allude to is the unbroken and agonizing ugliness, the sheer revolting monstrosity, of every house in sight; But in Westmoreland they prefer that uremic yellow, and so they have the most loathsome towns and villages ever seen by mortal eye; It is as if some titanic and aberrant genius, uncompromisingly inimical to man, had devoted all the ingenuity of Hell to the making of them, etc. (Zhang, 2017, p.76)

Apart from hyperbole, other rhetorical devices the author frequently uses are irony and sarcasm. For example,

obviously, if there were architects of any professional sense or dignity in the region, they would have perfected a chalet to hug the hillsides--a chalet with a high-pitched roof, to throw off the heavy winter snows, but still essentially a low and clinging building, wider than it was tall. (Zhang, 2017, p.77)

This sentence sarcastically emphasizes the fact that there were no architects worthy of its name and honor demanded of by its profession in this region. If there had been such architects they would naturally have built Swiss-type houses which would lie low and clinging to the hillsides. *But what brick! When it is new it is the color of a fried egg. When it has taken on the patina of the mills it is the color of an egg long past all hope or caring* (Zhang, 2017). In this sentence, "patina" generally refers to the beautiful green or greenish-blue color. Here Mencken uses "patina" ironically to describe the grime of the mills, the dirty smoke from the mills.

In paragraph five, the author says *I award this championship only after laborious research and incessant prayer* (Zhang, 2017, p.77). Here irony is used. The author implies that he had given Westmoreland the highest award for ugliness after having done a lot of hard work and research and after continuous praying. He then draws the conclusion that this area has the ugliest towns and villages after visiting and comparing many places both in U.S. and in other countries and after constantly praying to God for guidance.

Other examples are: *They are incomparable in color, and they are incomparable in design* (Zhang, 2017, p.78). Sarcasm is used in this sentence. The author sarcastically points that people can't find such terrible color and design in any other places. *It is incredible that mere ignorance should have achieved such masterpieces of horror* (Zhang, 2017, p.78). It is hard to believe that people built such horrible houses just because they did not know what beautiful houses were like. Mencken uses "masterpiece" ironically to say that the houses were so horrible that no one could build worse ones. *After painfully designing and erecting it, they made it perfect in their own sight by putting a completely impossible penthouse painted a staring yellow, on top of it* (Zhang, 2017, p.79). They made the architecture perfect in their own way by putting a completely ridiculous and staring yellow penthouse on top of it. Here ridicule is used. The author is laughing at their ignorance.

Rhetorical devices are everywhere, and they are part of human cognition. The frequency of figures of speech in certain texts may show authors' purposes in writing. To make the description vivid, impressive, imaginative and believable, the author of *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* uses more figures of speech like metaphor, personification, onomatopoeia, etc. While the author of *The Libido for the Ugly* uses more irony, sarcasm, hyperbole and ridicule to satirize and exaggerate the ugliness of houses in Westmoreland.

D. Language Features in *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* and *The Libido for the Ugly*

In the analysis of *The Libido for the Ugly*, it can be found that the author Mencken's emotional expression is strong antipathy, his judgment of the ugly buildings is that this is due to national values deviating from the routine. From the perspective of aesthetic appreciation, he thinks the local buildings both in shape and color are very ugly.

It is believed that vocabulary is also an important symbolic resource of concrete communicative meaning. It is through the frequent use of words related to "ugly" and "disease" that the author Mencken brings a huge cognitive impact on reading and achieves the purpose of discourse communication.

In this text, the author uses a peculiar writing skill, applies impression technique and uses many derogatory words and derogatory imagery, so as to outline a very thought-provoking image of pathological eccentricity.

In this text, there are about more than 20 words about "ugliness" (mainly adjectives and nouns), and about 5 words about "disease" (mainly adjectives and nouns). These words about "ugliness" and "disease" are presented in different parts of speech with profound semantic connotations, like *macabre*, *abominable*, *hideousness*; *leprous*, *eczematous*, *etiology*.

As for the words about "ugly" in *The Libido for the Ugly*, some researchers say these words are repeated by the author, let the reader feel from the beginning of shock to fear, and the distance has been extended from the visual image to the inner feelings. From an external scene, it becomes an unforgettable and lingering sensory impression that settles in the heart, and then becomes a dominant impression.

The parallel use of expressions with opposite meanings is also a typical language feature of this text. For example, *deadfully appalling desolation and industrial heart*; *intolerably hideous alley and lucrative center*; *bleak and rich boast*; *forlorn and grand pride*; *macabre and aspiration*, etc.

In conclusion, the existence of the eccentricity has its deep social roots. Through the intense contrast between *industrial America* and *Westmoreland*, *American Industrialists* and *Westmorelanders*, we can see both the prosperous industrial America and its most ugly towns and villages. On this ground, "the libido for the ugly" is not the foible of laborers, but the eccentricity of industrialists and industrial America. It is a pathological eccentricity.

In real life, people perceive things mainly by seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting and touching. When describing a scene, in order to reproduce in words the perception of an object and to make the description vivid, the author must be able to use the same senses as the real scene.

In *The Middle Eastern Bazaar*, in order to show the hustle and bustle at the entrance of the Middle Eastern bazaar, the author not only describes the picture of pedestrians, but also describes the scene of various sounds, such as *harmonious tingling bells*, the cries of *stall-holders*, the cries of *donkey-boys and porters*, the bargaining of *purchasers*.

Meanwhile, the heat and glare outside the bazaar and cool dark cavern form strong contrast; this sharp tactile contrast highlights the shade of the old bazaar.

The most powerful sensory impact of the copper market was the sound of the various pieces being hammered and the glare of the reflected light and the fire of the furnace.

Therefore, in describing this market, the author makes full use of various onomatopoeic words, such as *tinkling*, *banging and clashing* on the one hand, and on the other hand captures the ingenuity of the fire, such as *dancing flashes* and *glowing bright and then dimming rhythmically*.

As the smallest ideographic unit that can exist independently, vocabulary is the most basic tool of scene description. To make the description of the scene vivid, it is essential to use vivid vocabulary. When expressing a particular meaning, words have upper and lower meanings. The hyponyms are more abstract and general than the hyponyms, while the hyponyms are more precise and specific than the hyponyms. In order to make the description more vivid, the words should also be as specific as possible. For example, in *The Middle Eastern Bazaar*, The authors use adjectives and nouns as verbs to simplify the expressions, such as *thread*, *narrow*, *price*, *honeycomb*, *tower*, and *dwarf*. In addition, the author tries to use vivid words or expressions, such as *extend as far as the eye can see....* These scenes were made deep in a crowded market, or an oil maker *threw his weight on to a pulley* in a linseed oil market.

The author also frequently applies the technique of contrast of different connotations like brightness vs. darkness, noise vs. silence, heat vs. coolness, tiny apprentice vs. huge leather bellows, humble meal vs. luxurious dinner, a sunlit courtyard vs. a somber cavern of a room etc. to make the readers fully imagine and feel what this bazaar is like.

V. CONCLUSION

Description is a kind of literary style which reflects the basic skills of writing, and the excellent scenery description works can show the author's meticulous observation, profound language expression and rich imagination. Although both *The Middle Eastern Bazaar* and *The Libido for the Ugly* are description, due to the different purpose and writing styles of authors, they show difference in their objectivity, use of figures of speech and language features, etc.

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An Investigation of the Impact of Manipulation of Task Complexity on Cognitive Processes Into Both NS and Second Language Learners

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Abstract—This study takes as its basis a recognition that task-based learning is now recognized as having major benefits in promoting L2 learning, and how cognitive load affects speech production. In addition, there has been a recent examination of the impact of task complexity, real-world meaning, and the overall cognitive load needed to be expended by students. Different task types have been evaluated in terms of how they improve aspects of language. However, less consideration has been given to the effect on the cognitive load of different task types with the speech production processes (conceptualization, input, output identification, monitoring, and reformulations). Drawing on data collected from 112 participants (56 Native Speakers, 56 Non-Native Speakers) who completed a series of tests of varying complexity and were asked to evaluate on a rating scale, the level of mental effort expended. The results indicated that complexity increases mental effort and thus cognitive load, and that conceptualization appears to be one area where greater effort is required before being able to problems solving. Formulation comments suggest that there was a high level of hesitation, self-checking, and assessment as the level of task complexity increased. The implications for teaching and syllabus design are also considered.

Index Terms—task-based learning, cognitive load, task complexity, speech production processes

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

In today's developing multicultural society, learners of a foreign language do so to be able to apply the knowledge in everyday life (for example, work, study, holidays, or other aspects). Thus, the idea of teaching a foreign language has developed into a process that learning should not be through exercises, but through relevant, meaningful tasks. In this context, a significant volume of work has focused on teaching through task-based activities (Ellis, 2003; Doughty and Long, 2003), where pedagogical tasks are tightly related to some activities from daily routines and presented as goal-oriented real-life activity (Skehan 1998). Although these tasks seek to get as close as possible to reality, they are still elaborated for a classroom context, which requires some issues to be taken into account.

Included in prior research in this area is the issue of task complexity and how it impacts cognitive processes such as output, fluency, and accuracy for both L2 learners and native speakers (Moattarian et al, 2019). Indeed, several authors have manipulated and analyzed different types of tasks to see how they work with L2 speech production (Gilabert, 2007; Kuiken & Vedder, 2007; Ortega, 2001). On the other hand, many studies have affirmed the necessity of research in the use of tasks in L2 acquisition (Skehan & Foster, 2001; Robinson, 2007; Gilabert 2007). A series of unsolved problems have been identified, such as what kind of tasks teachers should choose, how they should organize them throughout the sessions, and importantly, how to analyze learners' progress. Thus, having admitted the need for further research into several aspects of tasks, the focus of this study will be concentrated on cognitive load and processes used in task completion, based on increasing levels of complexity. What this means is the analysis of the impact of cognitive tasks of complexity during task-based pedagogy. The use of activity-based or pedagogic tasks to encourage learning is not a new concept and indeed has been widely used in a range of teaching settings. The view is that student-centred active learning is encouraged and supported by engaging learners with tasks that focus their attention on the subject at hand.

Several studies recognise how task-based learning is more effective than the more traditional, passive, and rote learning that was the cornerstone of language learning for many years (Ellis, 2006; Shehadeh & Coombe, 2012; Pica, 2013). This suggests that language processes are supported by the use of tasks and that this in turn leads to gains in proficiency. Furthermore, evidence suggests that when learners become engaged with the process, their learning and cognitive development of understanding of the language is improved, along with their confidence and motivation (Willis, 1996; Littlewood, 2004; Viriya, 2018). At the same time, there has also been consideration of which types of tasks are more effective for achieving this desired competence and level of learning (see Van Avermaet & Gysen., 2006; Harwood, 2010; Schmidt, 2012). However, there is a lack of empirical work in the area of understanding the different elements of cognition and knowledge that may be utilized during the completion of the task. Speech production processes such as conceptualization and formulation, attention to input, output, and the depth of processing that is undertaken may all be influenced by the complexity of a task (Shehadeh, 2005; Ong & Zhang, 2013). Some researchers have taken a few steps within the area of task sequencing by forwarding principles for organizing tasks from the simple

to difficult in a syllabus (Breen, 1984; Prahbu, 1987). These early studies used the cognitive complexity of tasks as a reference, and they suggested that tasks should be manipulated in terms of +/- abstractness; +/- few elements; +/- reasoning, among others, but none of those approaches advanced a model to justify task distribution and organization along with a series of sessions.

The current study is, therefore, aimed at examining the cognitive load and processes used in task completion, based on increasing levels of complexity. What this meant in more specific terms was an examination of how manipulation of task complexity affects cognitive processes in the output, fluency, and accuracy of both Native Speakers (NS) and second language learners, or non-native speakers (NNS). In other words, this study aims to develop a foundation for a new study that examines the impact of manipulation of task complexity on the cognitive procedures of L2 learners. In this way it was anticipated that new information may come to light, highlighting new areas for research which would lead to the development of a methodological approach to examine the effect of task complexity in greater detail.

II. PEDAGOGICAL TASK AND TASK COMPLEXITY

A core facet of the work is to understand what is meant in the SLA sector by pedagogic tasks. The simplest definition is that pedagogic tasks are activities, which, as Willis (1996) indicates, can be real-world based. Real-world tasks are those may occur every day because as individuals, for example, can describe a problem to a doctor, narrate a story from pictures, write letters for university or apply for a job. In the classroom setting, tasks are more frequently gap fill, problem-solving, or mapping. One definition is that the tasks are performed that students may not do outside of a classroom, such as filling in blanks, or completing a dialogue (Viriya, 2018). However, there is a growing recognition of the value of completing real-world tasks such as writing a letter, narrating a story, or evaluating a dialogue, so that the task has meaning, context, and relevance for the students (Ozverir et al, 2017).

In other words, in SLA context, a task should involve the learner's first understanding of what they are required to do, and the goal that is to be achieved as well as the language to be used, then through manipulation, production and reformulations identify the language and grammatical features necessary to complete the set task (Viriya, 2018). At a cognitive level, this means that students have to access their existing linguistic knowledge, both lexical and grammatical, potentially discuss and negotiate meaning and form with partners, and then use this information to complete the set task and its level of complexity (Ozverir et al, 2017; Ellis, 2006).

In brief, task complexity refers to the inherent cognitive demands of a given task. In other words, how much consideration and thought (working memory) must be given over to complete the task (Shajeri & Izadpanah, 2016). These components can include increases in elements, (different grammatical structures/semantics or parts of a task), increased reasoning – for example determining what the task involves and how many stages, and also whether the task requires completion of one element (the language to be used) before completing a second or third (creating a narrative from pictures for example). Robinson (2007) suggested that the most effective way to develop viable tasks is to consider the level of intentional memory, reasoning, and information processing demands of the proposed task. Certainly, this appears to be a valid view but does not necessarily take into account the type of task and the range of cognitive demands required for each element.

However, an agreement has been reached with the idea that empirical studies need to provide more evidence regarding the role of task sequencing (Robinson, 2001, 2007, 2011; Skehan & Foster, 2001; Gilabert, 2005). To our knowledge, only one model of task sequencing has been proposed (Robinson, 2005), in which a detailed theoretical background for further empirical studies on task sequencing based on the Cognition Hypothesis has been advanced which is described below.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. *Trade-Off Hypothesis*

Skehan (1996, 1998) suggests that the development of tasks should be focused on recognizing that learners' attention may be divided, in essence, that the task demands should not create a mental load that reduces the ability to create a response in L2. From a mental load perspective, the learners should still have resources available which can be focused on the form of the language required. Van Patten (1990) supports Skehan, indicating that learners have limited resources for attention if they have to divide their attention between task demands and language forms, leading to a reduction in either meaning or fluency. In essence, tasks that are considered, from the perspective of the individual student to be too complex, will lead to sacrificing either fluency or accuracy, or sometimes both to meet the demands of a task. Moreover, Skehan and Foster (2001) suggest that when a task is perceived as complex, learners realize that simple language will not provide the required answer, but that this does not necessarily mean that they will attempt to use more complex language.

Skehan's (2001) perspective is that a learner will give priority to one aspect of language, for example meaning rather than form, even though they may not identify the impact of instruction processes or the drawing of attention to specific forms. Skehan argues that learners will give focus to pre-task planning and notes how this can draw attention to a focus on form, based on the view that a student will have a natural orientation to form as opposed to meaning or put another way to complexity over accuracy. For Skehan, the pre-task planning stage is important because the student will then be

able to conceptualize internally what they plan to say, which requires access to grammatical or lexical features. Therefore, the basis of the trade-off is during planning rather than speaking. The challenge with this hypothesis is that the trade-off has not been tested empirically and does not take into account the cognitive load under which students work. Despite this potential shortcoming, the notion of a trade-off, whether during planning or utterance, does have an impact on how to manipulate task complexity and where and how complex tasks should be placed into a syllabus.

Previous studies (Jong, 2009; Gass and Mackey, 2007) have affirmed that there may be a greater effect from the task type and how the task itself can “push” output from the learner. The pushing leads to stretching of knowledge through negotiation of meaning and attention to the form of the words they are using, which, according to Swain (1985) may occur during planning or utterance. In essence, the output provides an opportunity for learners to notice gaps in knowledge, test and reflect on knowledge, and receive feedback, offering learning moments. In other words, pushing students to produce an output through the requirements of a task moves the learner from semantic to syntactic processing according to Swain (1985). Nation & Newton (2009) confirmed this view, taking the stance that comprehension is the coding of semantics to enable the production of syntax. Nation (2011) also advocated for learners to undertake tasks of varying complexity to enable them to focus on where there are gaps, but also to become aware of the trade-off between complexity and accuracy.

This distinction may be important in understanding task manipulation and its effect on accuracy as tasks can be either simple with one goal, or more complex with multiple steps. In the view of Archard and Niemeir (2004), pushing for output supports learners’ identification of a conscious noticing of gaps in their intended versus their actual output. In other words, they notice a gap, have a greater focus on their form and meaning and ultimately there is an improvement in their language skills. This noticing and focus however do have a corresponding impact on the cognitive load under which the student will work. Recognition of this impact led to the development of the cognition hypothesis (Robinson, 2001).

B. Cognition Hypothesis

Cognitive load is defined as how much working memory uses to complete a task or carry out an action (Abeysekera & Dawson, 2015). Based on the Cognition Hypothesis, pedagogical tasks should be organized by gradually increasing cognitive complexity through different types of cognitively affecting variables (Robinson, 2001). According to cognitive load theory, there are three types: extraneous, intrinsic, and germane. The first of these is grounded in the presentation of the task, i.e. the mode of instruction, the second to the effort necessary to complete the task and the third is how much effort is required to create lasting knowledge (Kalyuga, 2011). In the context of task-based learning, therefore, these three elements refer to the type of task (written, oral, group, or individual for example), the complexity of the task, and finally how likely the task and its completion is to lead to improvement in language learning (Haidet et al, 2014).

It is important to remember that information will only be stored in long-term memory. What this means is that there is a creation of a schema or the germane stage after working memory has dealt with the issue or task. The challenge for L2 learners is that working memory is limited in capacity. When the limits of this capacity have been reached, due to the complexity of a task, or an excess of unfamiliar language, the task may be perceived as challenging (Liao, 2019).

Therefore, the level of cognitive load is crucial for task completion. Robinson’s (2001) view was that increasing cognitive load can have a negative effect on accuracy and complexity of response and at least an initial stage of learning, fluency. However, if there is an incremental increase in complexity over time, according to Robinson (2001, 2003, 2011), the learner is better able to manage the cognitive load, leading to a decrease in the effects on complexity and accuracy and ultimately fluency. This is likely to be important in understanding how to manipulate tasks to influence the cognitive load of learners during the task-based performance. In the case of a demanding task at the level of reasoning, for instance, a more complex task will require from the learner the use of syntactically more difficult target structures. Beyond task complexity, other components are likely to affect L2 acquisition, as postulated in some previous studies (Robinson, 2001; Spilsbury, Stankov & Roberts, 1990). More specifically, learners’ differences, which are external to a task, determined among others by working memory capacity as part of aptitude, may play an important role in L2 acquisition.

The result, according to Robinson (2003), is that there will be a communicative failure during the process and a failure to complete the task effectively. At the same time, and recognizing the value of interaction as a support for managing cognitive load, Robinson (2003, 2007), advised that when breakdowns occur, these incidents can be used as an opportunity to create meaningful exchanges. Through negotiation, clarification, and exploration to identify the correct form and thus meaning for the interlocutor, the cognitive load is better managed. The challenge for students however is being able to manage the cognitive load necessary to undertake this type of negotiation. In the case of beginners, and potentially some intermediate students, there may be difficulties in identifying at a semantic, lexical, or grammatical level, the appropriate language to negotiate meaning and form during tasks. This again will be dependent on the complexity and other cognitive loads of the task.

From the examination of existing perspectives, it is indicated that task complexity can be used to explain what features of a task can be manipulated to either raise or lower the overall task demands. What this means is that there is a potential that manipulating the demands of a task can be aligned with learner ability (Robinson, 2007). In a task-based learning setting, this leads to the view that understanding which aspects of a task need to be manipulated for the

reliability in both the results and how they are interpreted. As part of the process, self-ratings on the effort expended during a range of complex tasks were utilized to provide the quantitative data, whilst the qualitative data came from evaluation by the participants following the stimulated response and stimulated recall elements of the experimental stage.

A. Participants

Data were collected from 112 participants who all participated voluntarily in the study. 56 students were native English speakers (NS), and 56 were non-native speakers (NNS), who were Saudi university learners of English. Their mean age was 23. They were undergraduate students majoring in mechanical engineering. The NNS were assessed for proficiency levels using the Oxford Placement test and graded as being at level B1 to B2 CEFR. In terms of tasks, the participants completed the following tests, details of which can be found in the appendices.

B. Tasks and Procedures

Task 1 – Narrative

Students were asked to provide a short narrative about their grandparents but with a focused goal, such as the jobs their grandparents had undertaken. This allowed for longer narratives and potentially the use of greater shared interaction and checking of input/output. The exercise was assessed using the rating scales shown below and was a self-marked rating, as adopted by Gilabert et al, (2009).

Task 2: Mapping Exercise

Students were given some key vocabulary relating to giving directions, but with the adoption of a dual methodology approach. In other words, a secondary task was required to be undertaken alongside the primary task. Following the route of Cierniak et al, (2009), a visual stimulus was utilized. This involved changing the background colour of pictures on the computer screen to red and green, with students asked to respond to pictures with green backgrounds only, even though the screens retained the original questions – the primary task. Accuracy, measured in terms of counting lexical, syntactical, and phonological errors and converting these to an accuracy percentage of the overall output was counted along with eye fixations.

Task 3 – Problem Solving Task

The cohort was asked to imagine they lived in a town centre where there was a major problem with traffic. They were asked to discuss the problems and identify solutions, before deciding which would be the cheapest, which would be the most innovative, and environmentally friendly. Each solution should have both advantages and disadvantages identified in the response. Again, the students were asked to utilize the self-ratings scale on the complexity of the task. The purpose of adopting dual-task methodology was that the task was more complex than the first simple narrative, but also the recognition that the performance on the secondary task (i.e. responses to red/green) can be assessed for reaction time and is likely to mirror the level of cognitive load required to achieve the primary goal of the task (the directions) as indicated by Cierniak et al, (2009).

V. DATA ANALYSIS

The data for analysis was gathered using a range of measures:

- a) A self-completed rating scale
- b) Eye Tracking
- c) Stimulated recall

A. Task Rating Scale

The scale for assessment of the task complexity (please see figure 2 in the appendices) was used for self-assessment by all participants of the complexity of the task and led to the quantitative results. Students were also asked to give their subjective time estimation on the length of time they believed it had taken them to complete the task. This element was included as following Block et al (2010), the estimated time for completion increases in line with the perceived complexity of a task. From this rating scale, quantitative data emerged.

B. Eye Tracking

Eye-tracking as a measure can be achieved through either identification of moment-by-moment eye fixations when a participant is interacting with a visual stimulus, with the measure being either the number or duration of fixations which provides information about how a participant may allocate cognitive resources to attention (Zhai et al, 2018). Heat maps can also be used, which identify gaze duration for different stimuli, for example, whether the background of dual-task is red or green. Gaze plots are also potentially beneficial as they show the sequence or path of a participant's eye movements/fixations (Holmqvist et al, 2011). In the current study, the measure selected was the number and duration of fixations during the mapping task only, leading to quantitative data for analysis.

C. Simulated Recall

This measure is an offline procedure that aims to examine the thoughts and cognitive processes by prompting responses to recall the thoughts they may have had whilst completing a task. The view is that using a visual or aural

stimulus can create recall of the thoughts and processes. From this measure, the qualitative data was created through playing back recordings to students of their performance twice and then asking them to consider their thoughts firstly when they felt they had expended greater mental effort and secondly when the recording was stopped due to indications identified by the researcher of mental effort (pausing, self-corrections, and hesitations for example). The analysis was undertaken using Gass and Mackey (2000) and Kormos (2006) which involves coding for comments that identified conceptualization (planning) and formulation (lexical, phonological, and syntactical encoding).

VI. RESULTS

The quantitative data was input into SPSS and analyzed and in all the tests, the self-ratings indicated that the greater the complexity of the task, the greater the mental effort they felt that they had to expend. The tables below indicate the means achieved for each of the three tests on the rating scales.

TABLE 1
MEANS FOR RATING SCALES ON 3 TESTS

	Task 1 - Narrative	Task 2 - Mapping	Task 3 - Problem Solving
Mental Effort	1.813	6.11	6.58
Task Difficulty	1.786	6.3	6.446
Task Anxiety	1.25	6.3	6.089
Completion Success	5.99	4.16	2.411
Interest	6.58	1.99	7.027
Motivation	6.52	1.25	6.143

As Table 1 highlights, as the complexity of the tasks increased, there was a concurrent increase in perceptions of mental effort and task difficulty with no significant variation between NS and NNS. It is notable however that motivation and interest were much lower for the mapping exercise, and that the narrative task, which involved speaking about the experience, was rated highest for motivation. This underlines the importance of ensuring that tasks are designed to engage students as noted by Ozverir et al, (2017). It was also clear, that as anticipated there was a significant correlation between NNS and NS perceptions of task difficulty, illustrated in Tables 2 and 3 below.

TABLE 2
CORRELATION BETWEEN TASK DIFFICULTY AND NS/NNS

Pearson's Correlations		Pearson's r
Native or NNNS	- Task 1 rating task difficulty	0.656 ***
Native or NNNS	- T2 Difficulty	0.033
Native or NNNS	- T3 Difficulty	-0.046
Task 1 rating task difficulty	- T2 Difficulty	0.015
Task 1 rating task difficulty	- T3 Difficulty	0.118
T2 Difficulty	- T3 Difficulty	-0.167

Note. All tests one-tailed, for a positive correlation

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001, one-tailed

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive Statistics						
	T1 difficulty		T2 difficulty		T3 difficulty	
	NNS	NS	NNS	NS	NNS	NS
Valid	56	56	56	56	56	56
Mean	2.357	1.214	6.357	6.250	6.375	6.518
Std. Deviation	0.841	0.414	1.645	1.587	1.567	1.537
Minimum	1.000	1.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000
Maximum	4.000	2.000	9.000	9.000	9.000	9.000

What this suggests is that the cognitive load for those familiar with the language is less, which was an anticipated outcome. However, a surprising finding, concerning mental effort, was that only task one which showed meaningful variation between the two groups (see Tables 4 and 5).

TABLE 4
PEARSONS CORRELATION MENTAL EFFORT

Pearson's Correlations		Pearson's r
Native or NNNS	- T2 Mental Effort	0.018
Native or NNNS	- T3 Mental Effort	0.006
Native or NNNS	- Task 1 Rating Mental Effort	0.625 ***
T2 Mental Effort	- T3 Mental Effort	0.091
T2 Mental Effort	- Task 1 Rating Mental Effort	0.105
T3 Mental Effort	- Task 1 Rating Mental Effort	-0.070

Note. All tests one-tailed, for positive correlation

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, one-tailed

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive Statistics						
	T1 Mental Effort		T2 Mental Effort		T3 Mental Effort	
	NNS	NS	NNS	NS	NNS	NS
Valid	56	56	56	56	56	56
Mean	2.357	1.268	6.143	6.089	6.589	6.571
Std. Deviation	0.862	0.447	1.507	1.541	1.627	1.582
Minimum	1.000	1.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000
Maximum	4.000	2.000	9.000	9.000	9.000	9.000

However, examining the impact of anxiety on perceptions of mental effort, showed a significant correlation for the most complex task, as Tables 6 and 7 illustrate. In essence, it appears that when the participants were anxious about their ability to complete the task, their perception of mental effort increased whilst their view on completion success was reduced.

TABLE 6
MENTAL EFFORT VS ANXIETY
Independent Samples T-Test

	Test	Statistic	df	p
T3 Mental Effort	Student	0.059	110.000	0.953
	Welch	0.059	109.916	0.953
T3 Anxiety	Student	0.125	110.000	0.901
	Welch	0.125	109.990	0.901
T3 Completion success	Student	0.000	110.000	1.000
	Welch	0.000	110.000	1.000

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Descriptive Statistics						
	T1 Mental Effort		T2 Mental Effort		T3 Mental Effort	
	NNS	NS	NNS	NS	NNS	NS
Valid	56	56	56	56	56	56
Mean	6.589	6.571	6.375	6.518	6.107	6.071
Std. Deviation	1.627	1.582	1.567	1.537	1.510	1.524
Minimum	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000
Maximum	9.000	9.000	9.000	9.000	9.000	9.000

What this indicates that irrespective of L1, as a task increases with complexity, there is a corresponding perception of a need for increased mental effort and this has a correlating impact on anxiety and thus chances of effective completion. This aligns with both the trade-off and cognition hypothesis and their recognition of the need for a balance between complexity and accuracy, but also highlights the variable of individual perceptions and thus the potential impact of anxiety (Farrokhi & Sattarpour, 2017). No variation between NNS and NS was identified for completion success, motivation, or interest, suggesting that assessment of the test requirements is not affected by whether the participant is a learner or native speaker. This would however need confirmation with future larger samples.

Concerning anxiety, however, there was a clear correlation between NS and NNS as the Anova analysis illustrates. As shown in Table 3, there is a significant (0.925) correlation between anxiety on the three test conditions and whether the participant was a native or non-native. This is not an unexpected finding as it was hypothesized that NNS would have greater anxiety over the tests, due to the double load of the task itself and the identification of the right language to be used.

TABLE 8
ANOVA FOR ANXIETY LEVELS VS NS/NNS

ANOVA						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
H ₁	Regression	0.122	3	0.041	0.158	0.925
	Residual	27.878	108	0.258		
	Total	28.000	111			

It appears therefore that the perceptions of mental load and cognitive effort have an impact on how difficult a task is believed to be. Moreover, it was further identified that as a task increases in complexity, there is an increase in the perception of difficulty and anxiety around the tests.

The quantitative findings tie in with the cognition hypothesis and the indication that there is a trade-off between the complexity of task and mental effort indicated by Robinson (2001). In addition, recent works by Malicka and Levkina (2012) and Baralt (2010) also confirm that there is an effect in terms of time estimation with regards to the perceived complexity of a task, which was confirmed by the results of this study. However, the estimations for more complex tasks were less precise, based on the tables for completion success, suggesting that the participants were less able to identify the time needed when the task demands were more complex.

In the dual-task condition, again the complex tasks were perceived as require more mental effort, indicating a perceived increase in cognitive load, with a similar outcome concerning time estimations as seen in the narrative and problem-solving tasks, as shown in the means illustrated in Table 1. This aligns with work by Lee (2019) who noted that estimations of time on task could be divided into time on planning and time on speech and thus become a viable measure of mental effort and cognitive load when completing tasks. This distinction was not identified in the rating scale for this work, but the figures for task completion success evaluation suggest that there is a need to undertake this separation of perceived time estimations. In the dual-task, the quantitative measure used was eye fixation duration, and Table 9 shows the mean eye fixations for the three conditions, measured in ms.

TABLE 9
MEANS FOR EYE FIXATIONS

Descriptive Statistics			
	T2 Average Eye Fixations plain (ms)	T2 eye fixation green	T2 eye fixation red
Mean	160.268	247.500	282.143

As Table 3 shows, there was a longer eye fixation on the red background, suggesting that when undertaking the mapping task, a greater cognitive load was necessary to differentiate between the background colour and the demands of the task. In addition, accuracy was reduced for the red condition, due to the increased effort required to make this differentiation. There was no major variation between the NS and NNS participants for this test, with both groups having longer eye fixation on the red. This is in line with Cierniak et al, (2009) and their recognition of the effect of the split-attention factor affecting cognitive load and ultimately accuracy. Accuracy was also affected for both groups during the dual-task condition, as Table 10 indicates.

TABLE 10
SIGNIFICANCE OF DUAL-TASK CONDITION
Pearson's Correlations

		Pearson's r	p
T2 Difficulty	- Accuracy level - Plain	0.031	0.744
T2 Difficulty	- Accuracy Level Green	-0.024	0.804
T2 Difficulty	- Accuracy Level - Red	-0.033	0.727
Accuracy level - Plain	- Accuracy Level Green	0.925	*** < .001
Accuracy level - Plain	- Accuracy Level - Red	0.917	*** < .001
Accuracy Level Green	- Accuracy Level - Red	0.960	*** < .001

* p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

As the Table indicates, there was a clear correlation between levels of accuracy and the perceived task difficulty. Again, this underlines the cognitive trade-off between task complexity and accuracy. It appears that the cognitive load needed to manage the split attention needs of the task was achieved at the expense of accuracy, which again indicates that there is veracity in the trade-off and cognition hypothesis. In terms of how the accuracy was lost, the major area appeared to be in formulation, based on the stimulated recall comments.

For the stimulated recall, this was an offline process designed to tap into the perceived use of cognitive processes as self-reported by the participants, using a stimulus from the task. The anticipation from both the trade-off hypothesis and the cognition hypothesis was that the more complex tasks would lead to variations in the comments made at recall. From work by Malicka (2018), there was evidence that tasks should be sequenced from simple cognitive load to more complex as their proficiency increases. For example, one respondent indicated:

“In the town centre traffic problem task, I kept worrying about the time to do the task, and how to give the best solution. I kept second-guessing my decisions and this made me feel anxious about completing the task” (NS)

One of the NNS also indicated that time was a factor, but for different reasons, as the following comment indicates:

“I knew what I wanted to explain, but I couldn’t find the word, I was thinking of a roundabout and kept coming up with other words because I was a bit stressed about being able to give the right answer, so I stumbled on my words”. (NNS)

The first comment indicates an issue concerning conceptualizations, whilst the second appears to be a formulation problem. Other comments were similar, identifying issues with recalling a word for the NNS, and for the NS the most complex facet was to find the right solution, as illustrated by the following comments:

“I really couldn’t remember the word because I was giving my attention to the problem itself, so I think I made some grammar mistakes” (NNS)

“I kept pausing because I was trying to make sure I got the flow of information right and I think I mixed up some words” (NS).

What this appears to indicate is that for NS, the conceptualization load may be greater, whilst for NNS it is the formulation that requires the greater effort and potentially causes the higher levels of anxiety identified. The findings from Malicka (2018) align with those of this work, that a continuum from simple to complex sequencing led to higher speech rate, accuracy, and structural complexity, suggesting that when designing TBL syllabi, the cognitive load element should be taken into account.

In terms of the qualitative responses during the stimulated recall phase, both groups of participants focused on explaining their hesitations, for example, considering time factors for completion, and re-evaluation of responses and accurate answers. In other words, there was a level of self-debate about the best way forward. These processes are common in EFL learners, but also present in NS, and this was evident in this study.

There was, moreover, an indication that self-debate and thinking aloud was particularly the case in relation to the problem-solving task. This suggests that assessing a problem requires a level of conceptualization before solutions can be found. What this confirms is that a greater level of working memory load and cognitive effort is required as the task needs to be resolved in stages. In essence, where a complex task is required to be completed, there is a need for a greater level of conceptualization, which increases the overall cognitive load.

In terms of formulation, there were issues with lexical recall, and self-questioning about the right word or phrase to use, particularly during the narrative task. Again, this suggests that during the tasks, the participants were focused on the task completion but that they had to expend greater effort and thus cognitive load to ensure that they provided the correct answers which are in line with recent work by Park and Lee (2018).

In terms of variation between the NS and NNS, there was no significant variation in the time estimations required to complete the tasks, but a small disparity in the assessment of the effort expended, particularly in relation to formulations, rather than conceptualizations. This suggests that when tasks are in L2, there is an additional effort required for formulations, due to the unfamiliarity of the L2. This would however need further investigation in future research.

VII. DISCUSSION

In the previous section, the statistical results were reported in detail. In this section, the findings are reported and discussed in relation to the research questions. The focus of this study was to determine how manipulation of the complexity of a task affected the cognitive processes of NS and NNS users of English. The aim was to identify whether there was an optimal sequencing of tasks that could be introduced into the classroom for improvement in the results of EFL learners. The findings have suggested that there is veracity in the trade-off and cognition hypotheses and the relationship between the complexity of task on cognitive load and working memory (Skehan, 2011; Robinson, 2001). In addition, there is a level of self-debate and thinking aloud which increases in line with the complexity of a task, particularly those where there is a dual load requirement, such as in the mapping exercise.

Concerning the effect of manipulating task complexity for narrative tasks, we found that there is a significant impact on speech production processes, with fluency, and accuracy diminishing in direct correlation with increases in complexity (RQ1). However, the impact is less than that seen for other more complex tasks, as noted by (Shehadeh, 2005; Ong & Zhang, 2013).

With respect to the second research question, there was a clear reduction in accuracy and an increase in cognitive load. Responses from the participants suggested that the focus was on task completion rather than accuracy and fluency which had a negative effect on perceptions of task completion. In line with Cierniak et al, (2009) the split-attention aspect of this task was a factor in reducing accuracy and fluency.

The third research question identified that in problem-solving tasks, as the complexity of the problem to be resolved increased, there was a subsequent reduction in the ability to deliver fluent, accurate responses. This indicates that the

increase in cognitive load impacted directly on conceptualisation and formulation ability which aligns with work by Levkina, & Gilabert, (2012).

The results have suggested that there is a need to commence the TBL process with simple tasks that require less cognitive load and mental effort, and gradually increase this over time which aligns with Malicka, (2018) and Bowles (2018). However, there is also an indication that when learners complete one simple task (the narrative for example), they are more receptive subsequently attempting a more complex task (mapping exercise). What is less clear is whether the increased mental effort can be manipulated through changing tasks after encouraging self-reflection and evaluation of errors of the previous task. Furthermore, consideration is required regarding any potential impact from the interaction on cognitive load. From a pedagogical perspective, there are indications that a focus on different complexity levels may lead to improved mental effort and motivation in a task-based syllabus. However, the complexity should increase gradually as students become more familiar with the cognitive loads and the mental effort required to solve tasks.

It had been anticipated that in line with Levkina and Gilabert, (2012), Robinson (2001), Sasayama and Izumi (2012) that there would be a decrease in fluency when tasks had more elements, but an increase in linguistic complexity and accuracy. Despite these views, the results showed no impact on fluency when tasks had a greater level of complexity and elements. In addition, there was partial confirmation of the cognition hypothesis because an increase in task elements did lead to fewer morphosyntactic errors per AS-unit, longer clauses, and more lexical diversity.

Furthermore, and using the example of Levkina (2008), Levkina and Gilabert (2012), and Sasayama and Izumi (2012) learners were only given five minutes for strategic planning. There is a potential that if participants had been allowed additional time for planning, the effect of the pre-task stage may have been more evident. In line with Mehnert (1998) there is a potential that longer planning time (for example, ten minutes), resulted in improvement in fluency, lexical density, accuracy, and syntactic complexity). This suggests that the greater the planning time, the less the trade-off effect is seen. In other words, there were no trade-off effects because the participants had the time to prioritize form, focus their attention on formulation, and used the planning for this purpose rather than organising ideas. This means that there was a focus on conceptualization of the message.

Given that the approaches taken in this work were based on identifying variations in cognitive load and attempting to further empirically test the trade-off and cognition hypothesis in the context of TBL, the results have provided some interesting insights. The suggestion is that whilst the cognition and trade-off hypotheses frameworks retain validity new frameworks which take into account the impact on specific speech production processes may be necessary to enable application in the development of grading and scheduling tasks in a syllabus. The initial findings of this work, therefore, indicate that more work is necessary in order to be able to develop this new framework. At this stage, however, it may be the case that complexity has a strong impact on the ability to conceptualize, and formulate speech in L2, which means that developing and setting of tests need to take into account the factor of complexity before they are included in a given syllabus. These findings align with previous studies into the effect of complexity (Abdollahzadeh et al. 2012; Cierniak et al, 2009), but also point to a need for further investigation.

VIII. CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The aim of the current work was to examine what effect task complexity had on speech production processes for NS and NNS. It is important to identify the value of understanding the cognitive load, mental effort, and impact on working memory of the complexity of tasks. This work aimed to move forward from these works and identify the variations that may exist in terms of cognitive load and its impact on speech production processes such as conceptualization and formulation (lexical, semantic, syntactic). The goal was to be able to identify how to grade and sequence tasks of varying complexity for the best outcomes for L2 learners. By comparing the outcomes for NS and NNS, it was identified that there was no significant variation. Thus, further investigation is necessary in regards to the process of reformulation and lexical recall, which were cited by some NNS as the reasons for their hesitations and the extended time required to complete a task. Furthermore, future research should give greater emphasis to assessment of overall fluency and accuracy in the task conditions and compare these for NNS and NS. It is further recognized that a limitation of this work is the small sample, and larger cohorts need to be examined to verify the overall work and its findings.

In addition, one of the key facets of the TBL approach is the interaction between peers and other interlocutors. The effects of the interaction were not assessed in this work as the individual participants predominantly undertook the tests on their own, with some small level of discussion for the narrative and problem-solving tests. Future research should consider investigating and comparing individual rankings on task load/complexity/cognitive impact with the effect of group dynamics so that a clear indication of the effect of interaction can be assessed.

Furthermore, it would be of benefit to examine if there are variations in cognitive load during interaction with NNS and NS or NNS/NNS groups and what effect this has on the trade-off between cognitive load and complexity in different students. Given that NS is familiar with language, there is a potential that the cognitive load on narrative/problem-solving tasks would be less than that seen in NNS. In sum, for the cognitive impacts of task manipulation, this study has identified the importance of correctly sequencing and grading tasks in terms of complexity level, based on the perceived cognitive load, more needs to be done.

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