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The Independent Scholar as Change Agent: The Case of Foreign Language Advocacy

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Abstract—There is a foreign language deficit in the United States, and the independent scholar, with both motivation and expertise, can play a significant role as a foreign language advocate, able to bridge the gap between communities and academia, and to operate with relatively more freedom than many language stakeholders, embedded in educational institutions and business environments. The skills set, or core competencies, of the independent scholar-advocate, the importance of online communities and advocacy, and agility in effective advocacy are examined. The case of foreign language advocacy could be generalized to include many other areas where the independent scholar can play a significant role as change agent for the greater good in our society and in our world

Index Terms—foreign language learning, bilingualism, advocacy, independent scholar

I. INTRODUCTION

Independent scholars are everywhere -- around the world, and just down the street, representing a broad array of disciplinary knowledge. By definition, they are resourceful and motivated, pursuing research and scholarship outside of traditional academia (Gross, 1982). However, while independent scholars may be located anywhere and may have varied educational profiles, they are also relatively rare, with only 2% of Americans holding a doctoral degree, and only 13% holding any degree beyond the undergraduate level (Wilson, 2017; America Counts, 2019). This combination of having a level of education and expertise held only by a small minority, along with relative freedom, often confers a sense of social responsibility -- and even solidarity -- in terms of using education to make the world a better place.

The independent scholar has the education and expertise, the motivation, and -- most importantly -- the independence, or freedom, to be a change agent, or effective advocate, for an idea or cause. The independent scholar is generally also firmly embedded in the day-to-day world of work and community rather than within academia, and this supports the unique perspective of a scholar, or insider, along with that of an intentional outsider, on educational and other issues. However, there is relatively little discussion of this role of the independent scholar in scholarly or academic literature, or in the public conversation.

This may stem from the identity, or the image, of the independent scholar, in the public conversation, in the media, and on social media. It may be that the independent scholar is considered to be isolated from the world, solitary in the pursuit of research, and unconcerned about the issues of the day. However, nothing is farther from the truth. Independent scholars are often engaged with complex issues, both global and local. Many are tech-savvy, online, and passionate about their discipline and about our world.

The skills set of the independent scholar, bridging the gap between academic and scholarly research and real-world issues, can be the ideal combination for an effective change agent, comfortable with participating in data-driven research and discussions and with working either alone, or in collaborative partnerships including non-academic stakeholders.

II. EDUCATION, RESPONSIBILITY, AND SOLIDARITY

Education is often considered both a process and the body of knowledge resulting from that process (Merriam-Webster, n.d), and the educated person has often been described in terms of responsibility and solidarity. As Nelson Mandela said, "education is the most powerful weapon which you can use to change the world (Ratcliffe, 2017). As Martin Luther King wrote, "We must remember that intelligence is not enough. Intelligence plus character—that is the goal of true education. The complete education gives one not only power of concentration, but worthy objectives upon which to concentrate. The broad education will, therefore, transmit to one not only the accumulated knowledge of the race but also the accumulated experience of social living (King, 1947).

Education matters, and its importance has been highlighted in more recent years by the inclusion of education in both the United Nation's Millennium Development Goals and the Sustainable Development Goals, most recently with Quality Education as Goal 4, among the 17 Sustainable Development Goals, where it is described as "one of the most powerful and proven vehicles for sustainable development" (UNDP, 2020). In the US, then-Secretary of Education Arne Duncan urged graduating college students to use their "considerable talents and skills not just to climb the ladder of personal advancement but to make the world a better place" (USDOE, 2015).

Education has many purposes. When education is discussed, it is often in terms of the development of cognitive, academic, and pre-professional skills, and among these, critical thinking and the ability to reason and to communicate are often mentioned (NEA, web, 2019). While this is certainly true, education serves a goal that transcends the individual, bringing with it the responsibility to bring the skills, mindset, and worldview gained through education to the examination of issues both global and local, in the tradition of leaving the world a better place. Often university mission statements include concepts of the enlightenment and empowerment of education with the goals of service and social responsibility (UI&U, web, n.d.). Those who have education have responsibility to use that education through solidarity with their community, either local or global, for the greater good.

It is also important to bear in mind that in the US, relatively few have advanced degrees -- in the US, nearly 2% have a doctoral degree, and only 13.1% have a degree beyond the undergraduate level. In the OECD countries, just 1.1% have a doctoral degree (Wilson, 2017; America Counts, 2019; Hutt, 2019), making education a privilege with concurrent responsibilities. While it is possible to take education for granted and to assume that it confers no additional social responsibility, in addition to the benefits of education to the individual and to the society as a whole in terms of progress and innovation, those who are educated, in the spirit of solidarity, have a social responsibility to society as a whole.

The purpose of education is operationalized by the curriculum, but in the case of multilingualism, while approximately half of the world population is multilingual (Grosjean, 2010, 2020), not only are English-speaking Americans in the US unlikely to be able to hold a conversation in a language other than English (McComb, 2001), but US students tend to begin language study later than students in many other country (Devlin, 2015; Devlin, 2018), if at all, and the opportunity for foreign language learning is actually decreasing (AMACAD, 2017; Stein-Smith, 2019).

III. THE FREEDOM AND RESPONSIBILITY OF THE INDEPENDENT SCHOLAR

There is also the question of social responsibility for the independent scholar. While some independent scholars may simply cherish their freedom to devote themselves wholeheartedly to the pursuit of their research without the constraints of a full-time work life or tenure-track position, which can include creative constraints of publication in a specific group of scholarly peer-reviewed journals, or participation in specific academic organizations in their discipline, and presentations at the conferences and other meetings of said organizations, as well as time constraints of participation in numerous meetings and other campus activities, many are actively engaged in the public conversation as public intellectuals addressing a wide variety of issues.

Interdisciplinarity, essential to many areas of research and beneficial to many more, is often not encouraged as the department structure of the traditional US university and many others around the world, is often relatively silo-ized among traditional disciplines. Interdisciplinary collaborations, research, and publications are often not recognized in evaluations and decisions on rank and tenure, generally made in function of a specific home department. The independent scholar, on the other hand, is freer to examine complex issues through the lenses of more than one relevant disciplinary perspective and to collaborate not only with fellow academics in the same discipline, but also with scholars across the disciplines, including not only traditional academics, but also other independent scholars, experts from business and industry, as well as other thought leaders and influencers.

Publication is another area where the independent scholar can choose among scholarly peer-reviewed journals in a specific field, across the disciplines, or those with an interdisciplinary perspective. Beyond the scholarly journal, the independent scholar has a greater opportunity to publish in practitioner publications, as well as on blogs, social media, in opinion and op-ed pieces, etc., and to speak out as a public intellectual.

However, as with all freedom, this relative freedom of the independent scholar comes with responsibility. The first responsibility, shared by all who have had the privilege of education, is to make and to leave the world a better place. So, too, must the independent scholar be a research and scholar with a sense of social responsibility, and the specific research, writing, and action pathway varies for each, depending on the nature of the scholar's research and on the core values of each individual.

It is also important to consider the role and significance of the independent scholar in terms of scholarly professional engagement in both social and pragmatic terms. While the independent scholar may freely choose to participate -- or not -- in the relevant scholarly and professional associations, those who do choose to attend and to present at conferences, to serve on committees and in other leadership positions, and to publish in these association journals, need to consider not only their own research, writing, and engagement as individuals, but also the impact of their participation on the career professionals -- teachers and scholars -- in these associations. In other words, the independent scholar needs to make a contribution to the advancement of the field in alignment with their participation profile. As every leadership position, publication, presentation, or other engagement of an independent scholar inevitably fills a slot that might otherwise be occupied by a teacher/scholar embedded in an educational institution, the independent scholar needs to be mindful of the obligation to contribute and to work for the greater good, particularly in ways that career professionals may not be able to do, or that may be detrimental to their careers.

While these possibilities and potential contributions to the conversation are important, they are seldom mentioned in the literature.

IV. THE INDEPENDENT SCHOLAR AS CHANGE AGENT AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE ADVOCATE

While K-12 teachers and postsecondary faculty can certainly act in a number of important ways to advance the scholarly and public conversation and to advocate for their students and their programs, it is important to recognize that the independent scholar, with both the responsibility to act and the relative freedom to act without deleterious consequences, can play a significant role as change agent.

While often be viewed as an outsider, unaffiliated with a program or institution, the independent scholar can play a significant role both in bringing an area of research or a discipline to the scholarly and public conversation and in advocacy as a change agent, both promoting an area of interest and defending programs and entities at risk. Independent scholars can draw inspiration from, and partner with, embedded scholars and teachers and can use their professional engagement to advance their cause with fewer obligations and constraints, limited only by the imagination and creativity of each one.

The effectiveness of the independent scholar as change agent is enhanced by the fact that the advocacy of the independent scholar is generally not related in any way to job security or to professional advancement, altruistic rather than based in self-interest.

Advocacy, defined as support and *défense* (AATF, web, n.d.), is an area where the independent scholar can truly work for the greater good -- while the benefits of language learning and bilingualism have been clearly demonstrated, the opportunity for foreign language learning as diminished at all levels in the US. The need for language learning in the US, and for effective advocacy is an example of the idea-advocacy matrix, where change is driven by both the quality of the idea, and by effective advocacy and advocates (Daly, 2011).

In order to serve as an effective advocate for foreign language learning and use, the independent scholar can engage in all of the activities open to scholars and educators embedded in schools, colleges, and universities, including participation in and service to the professional associations. However, the unique role of the independent scholar transcends the classroom and the educational institution, and real contribution of the independent scholar in terms of bringing about a paradigm shift in how we think about language and languages is in the public conversation. Not embedded in a particular educational institution, the independent scholar can reach out, not only to educators and academics, but to parents, communities, the media, and the creative world of the arts and literature, with the goal of creating interest and motivation in language learning among individuals and groups for whom language learning and use may not have been an area of interest or attention.

The independent scholar is ideally situated to build bridges between foreign language education and international/global education, within heritage language communities, or in working with socio-cultural organizations in bringing events, festivals, theater, and concert performances in other languages or highlighting other cultures. The independent scholar can seek out writing and research partners across the disciplines to examine virtually any issue or question through the lens of another language or culture, or publish in an international journal or even in another language. In addition, the independent scholar can write a newspaper piece, participate in a podcast, or make a television or radio appearance in a broader variety of venues, without going through the sometimes cumbersome approval process needed by embedded teachers and scholars, or by other language professionals.

More than 60M speak a language other than English in the home, the United States is a nation of immigrants, and the demand for foreign language skills and cultural knowledge exceeds supply in the US workplace, yet paradoxically, relatively few US students -- just under 20% of K-12 students, and only 7.5% of college and university students -- study another language (New American Economy, 2017; ACTFL, 2019; Ryan, 2013; American Councils, 2017; MLA, 2019). Despite this gap between supply and demand, and just as the world is becoming more globalized and interconnected and as our society is becoming more multilingual, the opportunity to learn another language is actually decreasing, especially in our elementary schools, middle schools, and colleges and universities (AMACAD, 2017). The US foreign language deficit has long impacted not only our economic and national security and our lives as global citizens, but also our ability to better understand, appreciate, and communicate those in our society and in our communities who speak other languages (Simon, 1982).

However, despite all evidence to the contrary, foreign language programs across the country and at all levels are at risk, in danger of cuts and possible elimination for a variety of reasons, ranging from budget shortfalls, curriculum changes, and a general decline in support for the humanities in US education, to a national shortage of qualified foreign language teachers.

For these reasons, advocacy for foreign language learning is needed, now more than ever, to promote interest in and study of other languages and to strengthen, support, and defend at-risk and endangered programs.

While educators, parents, and language stakeholders in business and government play key roles in foreign language advocacy, it is interesting to consider the role of the independent scholar. Able to turn their ability to establish a framework for the discussion of the benefits of foreign language learning and cultural knowledge, the independent scholar can examine these questions beyond the confines of a particular school, program, institution, or business or government entity, bringing their education and training to the conversation without any appearance of self-interest, or possibility of criticism from an employer. Often having more freedom as to where and how they publish than tenure-track faculty, independent scholars can proactively seek out opportunities to publish research in multilingual journals, arrange for their work to be translated into other languages, and seek out research partners and co-authors from another

culture and/or who write in another language. They can also speak out in support of language learning and language use in a broader array of settings than a K-12 teacher or tenure-track faculty member.

However, the most important factor may be the very nature of the independent scholar, who has chosen scholarship over a particular specific position or workplace. Having made that critical choice, driven by a core value of commitment to a specific area of scholarship, research, and writing, the independent scholar has not only more options for professional engagement and publication than a more traditional or embedded educator or scholar, but also a broader range of available action steps, including but not limited to social and political action. In addition, the independent scholar may often have the possibility of dedicating more time to advocacy, unburdened by the responsibilities and time constraints of a typical full-time faculty position. It is, indeed, this combination of scholarly education and training, value-driven engagement and relative freedom that make the independent scholar potentially the most powerful foreign language advocate. Combined with the relative ease of use and low cost of social media and a public conversation that favors discussion of issues in a wide range of settings, the American independent scholar can be considered a potential force for good, or change agent working for the greater good.

Accepting the potential of the independent scholar as a change agent for the greater good, in the spirit of social marketing, the next question concerns the development of an action plan that can be implemented locally or globally. In order to be an effective foreign language advocate, the independent scholar across the disciplines with an interest in languages, cultures, and intercultural communication and understanding must have an interest in advocacy, and that interest is a key factor. As advocacy is the subject of relatively few scholarly articles, and is found primarily in practitioner publications, many scholars may believe that advocacy is for others only. However, nothing could be farther from the truth, as scholars have the training, skills, and knowledge needed to actually develop and implement an effective foreign language advocacy initiative. These steps toward an effective action plan are based on Livermore's model of cultural intelligence (Livermore, 2011).

The second step is to develop an advocacy skills set, knowledge apart from one's particular scholarly area consisting of data on the current status of languages in the US, on their importance and benefits, and on programs, methods, and initiatives likely to increase interest and motivation. The third step is to develop one's own individual strategic plan, with short-, medium-, and longer-term goals as an advocate for foreign language learning and use. The fourth and final step is to take action, whether in person, through research and writing, or through social and online media, to create sustainable interest in other languages and cultures, and this action can be scholarly and academic, practitioner-oriented, or political and social.

Key questions that precede, accompany, and follow the development of an action plan for the independent scholar include time, expense, opportunity cost, and whether or not advocacy is in alignment with the independent scholar's chosen vision and mission. Answers include the fact that time and opportunity cost are driven by the core values of the individual, and financial expense can range from minimal to considerable, with an array of options available at all levels. However, the answer as to whether advocacy is in alignment with the one's vision and mission is both personal and objective, based on the data surrounding the current status of languages in the US and the goals of the independent scholar. Here, too, the independent scholar may be a more readily proactive advocate than a traditional educator or language professional in that the independent scholar is precisely that, independent from a traditional academic career path, and its obligations, able to act more individualistically and creatively.

V. THE INDEPENDENT SCHOLAR-ADVOCATE -- AGILITY, ONLINE COMMUNITIES, GOALS, PARTNERSHIPS, AND SKILLS

Once convinced of this solidarity imperative of social responsibility, the independent scholar can proceed to build the advocacy skills needed to meet the determined goals and objectives. Just as the path to cultural intelligence consists of 4 steps - interest, knowledge, strategy, and action (Livermore, 2011), so too does the path to advocacy. With interest and motivation firmly established, it is important that the independent scholar-advocate develop the necessary knowledge base both about advocacy methods, but also about the issues beyond scholarship itself impacting communities and the broader society in relation to the advocacy area and goals. It is also important to have a plan, with short- and longer-term goals, action steps to achieve them, and a timeline in order to measure progress and to stay on track. Lastly, it is important to take action, as the most knowledgeable individual with the best plan achieves little without taking action. Action steps need to be doable, and serving as benchmarks to measure success.

In his classic article, (Bhide, 1986) described the nature, role, and importance of "hustle as strategy," driven by vision executed with energy, resourcefulness, and professionalism. This defines the role of the independent scholar in foreign language advocacy. While all institutions, including educational institutions, are driven by sometimes cumbersome strategic plans, with innumerable goals, objectives, etc., the independent scholar, driven by his/her vision of the importance of language and languages, can move with agility to participate in and to shape the public conversation of foreign language learning and use.

Agility, generally considered to be the ability to think, understand, and move quickly, is an essential part of the advocacy skill set. Educational institutions, while worthy in themselves, are bound by the structure, processes, and organizational factors inherent to all institutions. While these can serve many positive purposes, they can also limit and slow down the action of the advocate as change agent. Independent scholars, on the other hand, inherently enjoy

considerably more freedom from these constraints, and can both quickly understand a rapidly evolving situation and act quickly to effectively address and even resolve it.

While it is often said that every revolution begins with one person, it is equally true that often "it takes a village." or community effort. While community often refers to a school, school district, or campus, it can refer to the increasingly important concept of an online community, which can support and encourage advocacy and change, whether social media post, an online petition, or a virtual organization and/or conference. Again, in this virtual environment, the independent scholar, who can be located anywhere, and is accustomed to working alone and often virtually, can unite effectively with like-minded enthusiasts and fellow change agents to participate in the public conversation through podcasts, be present through virtual meetings, and vote for change. The independent scholar, with relative freedom from a rigid schedule and organizational policies and politics, can act for change within a scholarly discipline or practice, or for broader social change across borders and time zones, and during times like the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, when the need for online advocacy and change management are all the more important as the possibilities for travel and in-person meetings are dramatically diminished.

The goal of the independent scholar can be a short-term goal, to save an at-risk foreign language program, or to help to organize a cultural event, or it can be the long-term goal of effecting more fundamental change.

The question, as the value of education and of educational institutions is debated on a daily basis, is the manner in which the independent and the traditional, or embedded, scholar can and should work together. The broad questions include the role and value of education, and the responsibility of educators and scholars, and while independent and traditional/embedded scholars share many of the same core knowledge and skills, the value of collaboration among those who are embedded in academia, whether in postsecondary or in K-12 settings, with intentional outsiders may be a topic for discussion.

However, when faced with an issue for which they would like to advocate, an independent scholar may believe that he/she does not have the necessary skills or knowledge. Nothing could be further from the truth. An independent scholar has the research skills and dedication needed for advocacy, easily enhanced by learning the advocacy skills set, or core competencies. This skill set includes some skills needed by all advocates, and others may be more particularly suited to a particular discipline, advocacy project or goal, or a particular individual. While the advocacy skills set may be similar for all advocates, and especially, for all foreign language advocate, independent scholars play a unique role in that they can bridge the gap between K-12 and postsecondary educators, between scholars and educators embedded in careers in educational institutions and parents and community activists, and between educators and language specialists in business and government.

Advocates can attend in-person meetings and events and meet face-to-face with public officials and other decision-makers, advocate through online and social media -- web pages, blogs, Facebook, Twitter, podcasts, etc., or adopt a blended, hybrid approach using the most effective tool for the task at hand. However, in order to be effective, each conversation, whether virtual or face-to-face, takes place within the framework of a particular advocacy strategy or method.

Advocacy questions can be framed by theory and best practices in change management, social marketing (not to be confused with social media), and disruptive innovation. Change management has been defined as an 8-step process beginning with the creation of "a sense of urgency" (Kotter, 2008). In the case of foreign language advocacy, the situation is indeed urgent, with a decline in opportunity for foreign language learning and a shortage of qualified foreign language teachers just as a globalized and interconnected world and the US workplace demand more language skills and cultural knowledge. Not to be confused with social media marketing, although it may use social media, social marketing, or using the strategies and tactics of marketing for the greater good, is an effective strategy for independent scholars, passionate about their research, to maximize its impact in terms of social relevance (Lee & Kotler, 2019). As making the case for languages and persuading decision-makers of the importance of language learning is a major task of foreign languages advocates, the psychology of persuasion, which includes six principles -- including scarcity (just think of the gap between the supply of and demand for foreign language skills in the US workplace) -- is a valuable tool. (Cialdini, 2006).

Disruptive innovation is especially intriguing in that it changes, or disrupts, an existing product, service, and market through the development of a new product or service, often by outsiders (Christensen, 2013). In terms of foreign language learning and use, immersion programs, independent online learning platforms, heritage languages, and international/interdisciplinary education are among the current and potential disruptors. Immersion programs, with their exponential growth and demonstrated appeal among a broader public, are especially likely to change both foreign language education in the elementary and middle schools, and also college programs as large numbers of proficient and even fluent students reach college age, ready to deploy their language skills and cultural knowledge through interdisciplinary programs including and beyond STEM and business, international education, and language use within their communities and in our society.

Blue ocean strategy (Kim & Mauborgne, 2015), which is grounded in the development of new markets through the creation of a new, better, or less expensive product or service, can be viewed in foreign language learning from the perspective of public school immersion programs, which increase accessibility of language and cultural learning through the use of more than one language as the medium of instruction, beginning with the earliest grades.

However, at times even the best arguments remain unheard due to a myriad of social, political, and economic factors. At that time, while many language advocates may prefer the scholarly conversation, the effective advocate needs to be willing and able to move to the next stage of the advocacy conversation, which can include negotiation, confrontation, lobbying, and even protest and social movements. While all of these have certain elements in common, their focus is different, with an emphasis of a win-win solution in negotiation (Fisher, Ury, & Patton, 2011), a willingness to potentially engage in direct confrontation with authority, lobbying involving persuasion and grassroots political action, and protest (Satell & Popovic, 2017) involving a readiness to engage in direct social action to achieve the goal.

VI. CHALLENGES TO THE INDEPENDENT SCHOLAR AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE ADVOCATE

However, these very advantages that the independent scholar can bring to advocacy for a cause, for a paradigm shift, for example, in the ways that Americans typically view the learning and use of additional languages, can also be disadvantages in that the independent scholar may be perceived as a non-expert, a non-academic, or simply as an outsider. To overcome this potential challenge, an effective advocate and change agent, including the independent scholar, needs to consistently engage with other foreign language stakeholders, to support foreign language learning initiatives and campaigns, and to serve the cause without any appearance of self-interest. Overall, the strengths of the independent scholar-advocate in terms of motivation, resourcefulness, skills, and freedom, far outweigh the challenges.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

Foreign language learning is at a critical point in time in the US., where opportunities for language learning are not universally available and are, in fact, decreasing. On the one hand, however, more Americans than ever before speak languages other than English in the home, and in addition, many English-speaking parents would like their children to enjoy the academic, cognitive, personal, and professional benefits of bilingualism. Many Americans of all ages are interested in learning other languages -- either a heritage language, the language of a loved one, a language that would bring career advancement or increased employability, or a language that they are interested for any number of other reasons. The conversation about language learning and use in the US is at a "tipping point" (Gladwell, 2000), or watershed moment, where foreign language advocacy -- whether through large national, regional, and state campaigns, or through both strategic and vigorous (Bhide, 1986) action by motivated individuals -- can make a difference, creating a paradigm shift in foreign language learning and use.

In order to bring about the much-needed paradigm shift in foreign language learning (Jaumont & Stein-Smith, 2019) and use in the United States, advocacy is needed, and who better than independent scholars, free from the constraints often found among traditional scholars and educators embedded in schools and universities? Pursuing their research, writing, and engagement with expertise and passion, but most importantly, outside of academia, and accustomed to the time management and other challenges of juggling scholarly research, writing, and engagement, with non-academic careers, independent scholars are ideally situated to play a critical role in foreign language advocacy as public intellectuals.

As intentional outsiders, independent scholars have not only the skills, resourcefulness, and relative freedom needed, but also the responsibility to engage in advocacy without self-interest, in solidarity for the greater good, and even with altruism. The case of the independent scholar-advocate as change agent can be generalized to include advocacy for the greater good in many areas of our society.

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A Minimalist Analysis of Verbal Complementation in Igbo

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Abstract—The study investigates the verbal complementation in Igbo using the Minimalist perspective. In discussing the subject matter, such concepts as verb complementation, reflexive complementation and infinitival complementation are analysed. The objectives of the study are to find out how co-occurrence restrictions, thematic roles, theta criterion, subcategorisation frame and c-command could play crucial roles in selecting the complements of verbs. The study made use of written data, oral communication and introspection as the methods of data collection. The research adopted the standard Igbo as the area of study. The data are analysed using word-for-word English transliteration and then followed by English semantic gloss. The study discovers that the Igbo verbal complementation obeys the rules of adjacency and c-command. The verbs subcategorise its complements based on the relationships existing between the verbs and the complements. The head verb and its complement establish the path of union and intersection in the syntactic form. The concept of theta criterion determines the true nomenclature of the subjects in linguistic structures.

Index Terms—verb complementation, reflexive complementation, infinitival complementation, co-occurrence restrictions, minimalism

I. INTRODUCTION

Complementation, that is predication, according to Horie & Comrie (2000), has intrigued linguists of various theoretical persuasions, from cognitive/functional linguistics to typologists to generativists. After the initial stage of concentrated generative grammatical research on the largely syntactic aspects of English complementation in the 1960s and 1970s (e.g. Rosenbaun, 1967; Bresnan 1979), linguists started to take the semantic aspects of complementation serious. An important body of research on the semantics of English complementation emerged in the 1960s and 1970s, e.g. Bolinger (1968, 1972, 1974), Kiparsky & Kiparsky (1970), Kartmann (1971), Borkin (1973), Ross (1973), Riddle (1974), Hooper (1975), Kirsner & Thompson (1976).

In the 1980s, according to Horie & Comrie (2000), the scope of research on complementation was expanded and enriched by the works of functional typologists e.g. Givón (1980), Nooman (1985), Ranson (1986), Lehman (1988), and Wierzbicka (1988). Especially important is Givón's "binding hierarchy" a typologically based hierarchy of correlation between meaning and form in complementation. According to this hierarchy, the degree of "semantic binding" (i.e. the matrix subject's influence on the event expressed in the complement clause) is closely correlated with the degree of morpho-syntactic independence of the complement clause.

Building on this legacy, the 1990s saw great theoretical enhancement and enrichment of the research on the semantics of English complementation (e.g. Dixon. 1990; Frajzyngier & Jaspersen 1991; Duffley. 1992) as well as of the typologically oriented research on complementation (e.g. Frajzyngier. 1991; Horie. 1993; Dixon. 1995). It must also be noted that formal linguists have continued to investigate complementation and have produced some important work in this area (cf Chomsky. 1986; Rizzi. 1990; Authier. 1991) (cf. Horie & Comrie, 2000). This study investigates the syntactic aspect of complementation in Igbo using a minimalist perspective as a framework.

The Igbo language in the last four decades has seen an upsurge in the theoretical description of many topical issues about language configuration. In the light of the above, many Igbo scholars notably Emenanjo (1975a, 1975b, 1978 & 2005), Nwachukwu (1976, 1983, 1984, 1987) Ubahakwe (1976), Uwalaka (1983) have discussed the classification of the Igbo language on the dichotomy of transitivity and otherwise. Emenanjo is of the opinion that the Igbo sentence does not need the dichotomy since, according to him, all Igbo sentences are transitive in nature. But Nwachukwu, Ubahakwe and Uwalaka disagree with Emenanjo and assert that there is the need for the dichotomy since all Igbo sentences are not transitive in nature. They maintain that the Igbo sentences could be analysed on transitive and intransitive line. Emenanjo, in (2005), shifted his argument on the concept of complementation as a way of analysing the Igbo verb and not on transitivity/intransitivity divide. Emenanjo seems to confuse transitivity with complementation. To him, both transitivity and complementation serve one and the same purpose.

Emenanjo (2005) uses the term "complementation" to counter the claims of Ubahakwe (1976) and Nwachukwu (1983) who argue in favour of transitivity in the Igbo syntax (see Okeke. 2015). He disagrees with the analysis of Ubahakwe and Nwachukwu, since according to him, transitivity is a surface structure feature, which does not help to classify Igbo verbs according to the complements they select. Emenanjo (2005) does not go deep to highlight the intricacies of complementation as it occurs in world languages. The factor complicating the sub-classification of Igbo

verbs into transitives and intransitives is the existence of what Nwachukwu, (1976, 1983) referred to as *inherent complement verbs* (ICV) or *Inherent verb complement* (IVC). These are verbs the citation form of which always includes a nominal element which may or may not be cognate with the verb. *Inherent complement verbs* (ICV) are classified according to whether they are transitive or intransitive or unmarked. Another term is what Nwachukwu (1983) calls *Bound verb complement* (BVC) or what Emenanjo (1975) referred to as *Bound cognate noun* (BCN) which is a part of a complex verb. This adds emphasis to the verb. This is to say that BVC functions as an emphasiser. This background alludes to the fact that some type of researches have been carried out on some aspects of Igbo syntax but none of the scholars did exactly what is intended to be carried out in this study on complementation. This study focuses primarily on verb complementation using the framework of Minimalism.

The objective of this study is to use the concepts of co-occurrence restrictions, thematic roles, theta criterion and c-command in analyzing verb complementation in the Igbo language.

The study is organised in the following order: 1 introduces the basic assumption of complementation; section 2 overviews the framework of minimalism, section 3 highlights the basic concepts that underlie this study; section 4 discusses the subject matter of verb complementation using various forms of verb complementations and their analyses. Section 5 shows the findings and wraps up the study.

II. MINIMALIST PROGRAM

This study adopts Minimalist Program framework (MP) as proposed in Chomsky (1995, 1998, 2002). MP is the most recent version of the transformational grammar which employs fewer linguistic apparatus to construct syntactic structures. The apparatus are operations Select, Merge and Agree. Operation Select takes required word items from the lexicon and put them in the numeration to build syntactic structure. Numeration is a place where selected items needed for building syntactic structure are stored. The lexical items in the numeration are in turn put together by an operation dubbed Merge (Olaogun 2017). That is, operations Merge and Agree. Given that operation Move is a form of Merge and that movement of features is replaced by Agree, the computational systems that builds the syntactic tree consists of two operations namely, Merge and Agree. Merge is the operation that combines syntactic elements to form larger structures (Radford, 2004). Chomsky later developed a Phase Theory in which he proposes that syntactic structure is built up in phases (with phase including complementiser phrase (CP) and transitive vP). According to him, at the end of each phase, part of syntactic structure already formed undergoes transfer to the phonological and semantic components, with the result that the relevant part of the structure is inaccessible to further operations from that point on. In his words, (Chomsky. 2001, p.5) asserts: "Once all operations which apply within a given phase have been completed, the domain of the phase (i.e the complement of its head becomes impenetrable to further syntactic operations". He calls this condition "Phase Impenetrable Condition". This implies that c-command domain of a phase head is impenetrability to an external probe (i.e A goal which is c-commanded by the head of a phase is impenetrable to any probe c-commanding the phase).

The Minimalist Program (MP) is a development in generative thinking, which emphasises the aim of making statement about language as simple and general as possible (Nwankweagu. 2015). The emphasis is that grammars should be described in terms of the minimal set of theoretical and descriptive apparatus necessary. In other words, all representations and derivational processes should be as simple in terms of the number of devices proposed to account for language phenomena (the principle of economy). The basic tenet of minimalism is elegance. That is, derivation should be as simple and unambiguous as possible. Structures have to restrict to minimum application of rules in their generation. A derivation, according to Radford (2004), is adjudged to be well-formed if it converges at both interface levels: PF and LF, otherwise it crashes. Convergent derivation must also be optional. This means that it satisfies certain natural economy conditions. In other words, a well-formed structure must have followed the most economical path in the course of derivation. It is binary and recursive in nature-building operation which put together selected lexical items from numeration. Operation Merge is of two kinds, external and internal. External Merge involves merge operation that originates from the numeration while internal is a syntactic structure operation that affects syntactic objects that are already introduced into the derivation (Hornstein, Nunes & Grohmann. 2005, 317). In this study, Phase Theory will be incorporated where necessary in the analysis of our data.

III. BASIC CONCEPTS OF VERB COMPLEMENTATION

A. Complementation

Linguistically, according to Keown (2012), complementation is a linguistic phenomenon wherein the syntactic head of a phrasal category licenses a word, a phrase or a clause to complete its meaning. Crystal (1995) asserts that "the complement completes the action of the verb and hence cannot be dropped off. There are two main parts to consider while studying the process of complementation. These aspects are the complement and the complementiser. For complements, they are licensed or sanctioned in grammar by their heads. This implies that in order to complete the meaning of the phrase or sentence, a complement is needed or essentially required apart from the head in the phrase. Absence of the complement generates ungrammaticality and unacceptability because the syntactic head is in itself unable to express its complete meaning. In other words, the complement is an obligatory part of the phrase or sentence

that provides semantic content and hence, cannot be dropped off. Complementiser, on its part is a functional category that connects the main or pivotal clause to the subordinate or dependent clause. This is referred to as clausal complementation, while a complementiser can be used to link the main clause of the sentence with the complement clause. Since the number of complementiser in a language is limited, it forms a closed class. In this study, I will dedicate myself to various aspect of verb complementation.

B. Argument Structure

The term 'argument', according to Gilbea (2002), comes from philosophy, more particularly, from predicate calculus. Sentences are regarded as well-formed propositions that may be true or not in which something is predicated i.e. claimed about another entity or entities. The argument structure of verbs is particularly important in theta theory, which seeks to describe the thematic role that an argument fulfils in individual sentences.

Finch (2000) sees argument as the term used by linguists to describe the role played by particular entities in the semantic structure of sentences. He says that all verbs are said to have arguments. Indeed, it is the number and nature of the arguments that they require, which distinguish them grammatically. In this study, efforts should be made to locate an argument of a verb in order to determine the role of that verb in a sentence structure.

C. Thematic Roles

Finch (2000), states that the theta theory is concerned with assigning thematic roles to arguments of verbs. According to him, theta is the name of the Greek letter Θ , which corresponds to 'th' in English, and since theta begins with 'th' it has become standard convention to abbreviate the expression 'thematic role' to Θ -role. In theta theory, continues Finch (2000), theme indicates one of a number of semantic roles which arguments fulfil. Clauses are seen as consisting of propositions or logical statements, which require certain types of argument in order to be acceptable sentences.

Finch (2000) affirms that theta role is more concerned with 'agency' who does what to whom. The essential elements of the theta theory, according to him, differ somewhat among linguists but the following are commonly assumed theta roles:

Agent: a willful, purposeful instigator of an action or event, such as in:

(2) *John broke the glass*

Experiencer: things that experience internal states, such as perceivers and emoters (subject of verbs like think, believe, love and hate) as in

(3) *John thought about the question*

In this study, effort will be made to match the theta role a verb plays in a sentence structure to the nomenclature of the verb in the Igbo grammar.

D. Theta Criterion

This is a principle of Universal Grammar which specifies that each argument should bear one and only one theta role, and that each theta role associated with a given predicate should be assigned to one and only one argument (Chomsky, 1981, 36). For this to happen, the Predicate-Internal Theta-Marking Hypothesis (PITMH) which states that an argument that is theta-marked (i.e. assigned a theta role) via merger with a predicate, must be in force. That is, they must unit one another. For instance, the structure *the police have arrested the suspect* has two arguments – the police and the suspect. The subject –the police is DP while the predicate – arrested the suspect is the V-bar. So the complement *the suspect* is the internal argument of the verb arrested (in the sense that it is the argument contained within the immediate V-bar projection of the verb, and hence is a sister of the verb), whereas the subject *the police* is the external argument of the verb arrested (in that it occupies a position external to the V-bar constituent which is the immediate projection of the verb arrested) (Radford, 2004).

In consistence with the theta criterion principle, each argument of the structure above is assigned a single theta role which is different from the one assigned to any other argument of the same predicate. In the structure above, the suspect receives the **theme argument** while the police receive the **agent argument**.

IV. VERB COMPLEMENTATION IN IGBO

By verb complementation, it implies the process whereby the verb head triggers various complements. Verbs are lexical governors. As lexical governors, they assign both case and theta functions to other category, especially the nouns. What this implies is that complementation obeys some rules like that of c-command and adjacency. This rule of c-command states that the head must precede its complement and as such c-commands it. The rule of adjacency stipulates that the head and its subordinate must be close enough without any intervening nodes. The operations *Select, Merge and Move* will also be applied where appropriate and when necessary. It is important to note that word level heads of the same class can differ in the categories that they combine with, or more precisely, there is a co-occurrence restriction in the complements that verbs take. For instance, in Igbo, we have these sentences:

(4) *Óbi tinye- re ákwúkwọ́ n'ákpa*

Obi put Past book Prep bag

‘Obi put the book in the bag’

Since (4) is a transitive sentence, it is a Phase. The V adjoins the causative light verb \emptyset and the probe searches for the goal. In this case, the unvalued verb searches for the valued goal *akwukwọ*. But since the probe is a [+past] verb, it does not have any difficulty in assigning its [+past] value to the goal since past tense agree with any goal. Therefore, the sentence structure receive [+past] interpretation. The outcome of the probe is that the subject Obi is checked as nominative case since the verb must have an external argument as a transitive verb. The unvalued object *akwukwọ* is checked as an accusative case by the valued [+past] verb.

In the structure (4) above, the verb *tinyere* originates as the head of V of VP (Obi as its subject) and *akwukwọ n'akpa* as its complement; and the verb then raises up to adjoin to the strong causative light verb \emptyset heading the vP. The subject Obi in turn originates in spec VP (assigned the role of AGENT by the causative light verb \emptyset) and then moves up to spec TP to check its strong nominative case feature (cf. Radford, 2004). Once a vP is assembled, Spell out applies to the complement of its head (i.e. DP) and the semantic and phonological components inspect the shipped material as the tree below depicts:

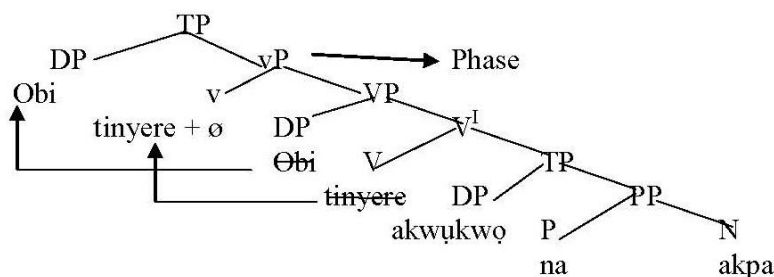


Fig.1

Since the structure above is a transitive one, it is a phase structure. The spell out is the spec of the DP. The probe which is valued for [+past] finds the appropriate goal in the complement of the verb. The phi-features are in order and the structure converges. The V of the V-bar adjoins the causative light verb \emptyset and the spec of the VP adjoins the spec TP. The causative light verb *tinyere* checks the external DP for nominative case and the internal DP for accusative. The movement takes place during the derivation; else, the structure will crash at both the phonological and logical interfaces. After these movements, there are transfers of the traces left behind and the traces receive null spell outs.

In (4b) below, the selection process is faulty because the Theta Role Assignment Principle, (TRAP) which asserts that theta roles can only be assigned under a Merge operation, is violated when the verb *tinyere* encode the human NP Uche as the head of the complement of the structure. The resultant violation of operation Select leads to the ungrammaticality of the structure. The structure crashes at both the PF and LF interfaces.

- b. * Obi tinye- re Uche kà ø rúsie órụ ike
 Obi put Past Uche for Uche work work hard
 Obi put Uche for Uche to work hard

Another instance of verb subcategorisation is witnessed in (5a) below.

- (5a) Obi kwàgide- re Uche ka ø rúsie órụ ike
 Obi persuade Past Uche for Uche work work hard
 ‘Obi persuaded Uche for Uche to work harder’

[TP[DP.Obi][VP[V.kwagidere[TP₂[DP.Uche][CP[C.ka][TP₃[DP.ø][VP[V.rúsie[NP[N.órụ[Adv.ike]]]]]]]]]]]

The structure contains both CP and transitive verb, so the structure is a Phase derivative one. The spellout is located at the TP of the CP. Since Uche of the DP of the TP₂ c-commands and binds the DP of the TP₃ under the CP, there is no Phase Impenetrable Condition (PIC) since the syntax of the DP of the CP is accessible to the DP of the TP₂. This happens because the complement DP of the verb blocks the PIC from obtaining in the structure but the verb must, as co-occurrence relation dictates, c-commands it. The probe continues to search for goals in the matrix TP structure. The DP Obi gets checked by the VP *kwagidere* for nominative case and the object Uche of the DP of the TP₂ for accusative. Since the probe and the goal agree, the structure is well-formed.

In (5a) above, the processes of selecting and merging are in order. The verb *kwagidere* (persuaded) encodes the right complement. In the structure (5a) under TRAP, the subject has theta role of [persuader] and the complement has the theta role of [persuadee]. TRAP ensures that the merger of the V and the DP complement *Uche* converges. The V-bar on the other hand merges with the subject *Uche*. The common thing between the persuader and the persuadee is that both share in rationality. In other words, the persuader has the ability to persuade and the persuadee also has the rationality of being persuaded. This is because the verb theta marks its complement but the V-bar theta marks their subject. The violation of TRAP condition on sentence structure accounts for why the (5b) counterpart is ungrammatical. In (5b), the complement cannot be assigned the theta role of [persuadee] because it lacks the ability of being persuaded. Therefore, both the subject and the complement do not both share in rationality and hence the non-convergence of (5b). In this

structure (5a), the operation select is duly carried out and hence the well-formedness of the structure. Since operation Select enhances the operation merge, the resultant effect is that the structure converges at both the PF and LF interfaces.

- b.* Obi kwàgide- re ákwùkwò n' àkpa
 Obi persuade Past book Prep (in) bag
 'Obi persuaded book inside the bag'

The (5b) is ungrammatical because the operations Select and Merge are violated in line with TRAP dictates.

It is clear that we need a subcategorisation of word level heads on the basis of complements they take. This is known as the head- complement rule and is formulated as follows:- $X^1 \rightarrow X, YP^*$. This rule embodies the assumption advocated in Jackendoff (1977) and Stowell (1981), that complements are always maximal projections. E.g.

- (6) a. Obi gbù- ru Uche
 Obi kill Past Uche
 'Obi killed Uche'

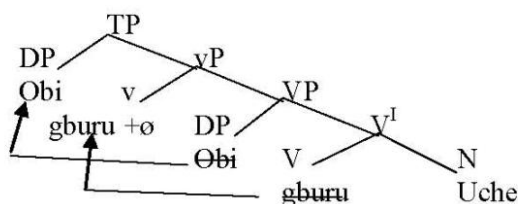


Fig. 2

Since the structure above is a transitive one, it is a phase structure. The spell out is the spec of the V-bar. The V of the V-bar adjoins the causative light verb \emptyset and the spec of the VP adjoins the spec TP. The causative light verb *gburu* checks the external DP for nominative case and the internal DP for accusative. The movement takes place during the derivation; else, the structure will crash at both the phonological and logical interfaces. After these movements, there are transfers of the traces left behind and traces receive null spell outs.

- b. Ùzò tinye- re ákwùkwò n' àkpa
 Ùzò put Past book Prep bag
 'Ùzò put the book in the bag'.

The (b) structure above follows the same analysis as that of (a) above.

The subcategorisation frame is a format that stipulates what is expected to enter into any slot left open by the presence of the verb which precedes the slot. Subcategorisation frame is a checker against mismatch or discordant relationship between the subcategorisands and their complements. The subcategorisation frames in (7) below is the representative of the example (6a-b) above. E.g.

- (7)i. [__ DP]
- ii. [__ DP, PP]

The explanation of the subcategorisation is done in line with the principle of theta criterion which stipulates thus:

(8) "Each argument is assigned one and only one theta role or each theta role is assigned to one and only one argument". (Chomsky 1981,36, Radford 1997,180) E.g.

- (9) a. V NP: Okee gbù- ru éwu
 Okee kill Past goat
 'Okey killed a goat'
- b. V NP PP: Ùzò tinye re akwùkwò n' akpa
 Ùzò put Past book Prep (in) bag
 'Ùzò put the book inside the bag'

Because the structure (a) is a transitive one, it is a phase structure. The valued [+past] verb finds the appropriate goal in the object of the verb. The phi-features of the structure receive the valuation of the goal to fulfil its phi-features. Since every probe must agree with the goal, the criterion is met and the structure converges. The subject is checked for a nominative while the object is checked for accusative.

Following the principle of theta criterion, the verb *gburu ewu* in (9a) theta marks the subject as a killer and the object as the killed. Due to the fact that the verb is a transitive one, it uses a complex verb phrase comprising an inner vP shell headed by the agentive light verb \emptyset (with a causative sense) and an outer VP headed by the verb *gburu* with the head verb *gburu* raising to adjoin to the light verb. This implies that the structure "Okee gburu ewu" (Okey killed a goat) is interpreted to imply that Okee's activity caused death to the goat. Operations Select, Merge and Move are well motivated and the structure converges at both the PF and LF interfaces.

The structure (9b) involves a ditransitive verb *tinyere* or what could be described as a 'double object structure'. The analysis of phase structure as is the case of (9a) obtains here. In the structure above, following the ideas put forward by Larson (1990); Hale & Keyser (1994) and Chomsky (1995); the V-bar head merges with the abstract causative light verb \emptyset with a causative interpretation as a verb like 'make'. The verb *tinyere* (put) raises to adjoin to it producing a

structure which can be paraphrased as *Uzọ made the book to be inside the bag*, that is, Uzọ caused the book to be inside the bag. The resulting V-bar is then merged with the subject Uzọ (which is assigned a nominative role by the causative light verb to form a complex vP). Subsequently, the vP merges with an abstract T to form T-bar, and the subject Uzọ raises to spec TP to check its nominative case. (It should be noted that in minimalism, subjects are generated at the VP specifier and then raised to TP specifier which is the highest node up the tree).

In addition, the verb ‘tinyere’ theta marks its complement ‘akwukwo’ for accusative and at the same time theta marks its subject ‘Uzọ’ as nominative. (In fact, what theta marks the subject is the entire V-bar). The preposition ‘na’ theta marks its complement ‘akpa’ for accusative in accordance with TRAP. So the verb checks the subject for nominative and the object for accusative in the same way that the preposition checks its object for accusative.

In the same vein, verbs select TRAP according to the co-occurrence restrictions and the thematic roles. For instance, a transitive verb which has two verbs – the light verb and the null verb theta marks both the subject and the object differently. The verb theta marks the object internally but theta marks the subject externally. What this means is that not only the verb that theta marks the subject but the V-bar. E.g.

- (10) a. Okee gbù ru águ
 Okee kill Past lion
 ‘Okey killed a lion’
 b. Okee gbù- ru ósisi
 Okee kill/cut Past tree
 ‘Okey cut down a tree’.

(Refer to the phase analyses in (6a & 9a) above for (10-12)). The complements of the verb – agù and osisi determine the status of the subject and the true nomenclature of the verbs in question. If we choose the **kill** nomenclature, then sentence (10b) would crash in line with TRAP. If we choose **cut** then the first sentence (10a) will crash. Based on the fact that a verb must co-occur with certain complements which ensures their grammaticality, there are two different verbs **Kill** and **Cut** for the two structures. Again, in as much as the two complements are direct objects, the two objects do not have the same theta roles of **killed**. The (10a) has the theta role of *killed* while (10b) has the theta role of *cut*. The same applies to the subjects which are both seen as nominatives; (10a) is the killer whereas the (10b) is the cutter. In (10a), the verb assigns theta role of *killed* to ‘agù’ and that of *killer* to ‘Okee’. The vP shell that encodes the causative verb makes (10a) paraphrasable as ‘Okee’s activity caused death to the lion’. This happens because the lion has a breathing organ that can be cut short as a result of certain activity. In (10b), the verb ‘gburu’ will encode a wrong object in ‘osisi’ (tree) if it means *kill*. The V-bar theta marks the subject as an Agent but does not theta mark the object as a *killed* but rather as a *cut* because a tree does not possess the organ of breathing that can be cut short. So the structure is illformed for **kill** but wellformed for **cut**. We can go ahead to analyse the third aspect of the verb in respect to another object or complement.

- (11) a. Okee gbu- ru mmadu.
 Okee kill Past person
 ‘Okey killed a person’

Here ‘mmadu’ is the complement of the verb as well as the Patient. The subject is also the Agent of the verb. Since the V-bar externally theta marks the subject, the subject is designated a “murderer”. Here the verb theta marks the object as *murdered* and theta marks the subject as *murderer*.

Based on the aforementioned, the verb ‘gburu’, even though it is a transitive verb that encodes objects will have its semantic import the moment an object is chosen for it. The issue of dumminess is apparent in the declension of the verb ‘gburu’. Again the same verb can be seen to mean ‘**cut**’ even when a human entity is the object.

- b. Okee gbu- ru Obi mma
 Okey kill past?/ cut Obi knife
 [Okey injured Obi with a knife].

Here the verb ‘gburu’ theta marks the complement, the object for *cut* and the subject for *cutter*; yet the vP shell of the causative makes the structure to be paraphrasable as ‘Okee’s activity caused a harm to Obi. The issue of death is not witnessed in the structure. Based on this, the activity is that of *cut* and not that of *kill* even though the V-bar assigns the theta role of nominative to the subject and the verb theta marks the object complement for accusative. The subject is not seen in this sentence as a murderer neither is the complement seen as a *murdered*.

The concept of co-occurrence restriction has shown that a particular verb could have different nomenclatures based on the complement it encodes. Also of note is the fact that the complement of the noun/noun phrase determines the nomenclature of the noun. E.g.

- (12) Okee ñu- ru okee mmaì.
 Okee drink Past big wine
 ‘Okey drank excessive alcohol’.

The complement of the noun ‘ñuru’ and the V-bar ‘oke mmaì’ designate the subject as a drunk. Since *drink* is an intransitive verb, all the actions in the sentence structure reside with the subject as the drinker that gets drunk. TRAP ensures that mergers follow due processes in order to generate a convergent structure. In TRAP, both the assigner and the assignee must have something in common.

A. Reflexive Complementation

In the Igbo language, some verbs can subcategorise the presence of reflexive complements. The reflexive pronouns in Igbo are *ònwé m* (myself), *onwe gị* (yourself), *onwe há* (themselves), *onwe ụ́nụ* (yourselves), *onwe anyị* (ourselves).

Great number of verbs especially those that require *inherent verb complements* (IVC) fill these slots. The verbs include the following: *kwà*, *tà*, *mà*, *wọ*, *mesi*, *pià*, *le*, *me*, *tinye*, *gwa*, *kwado*, *gupu*, *nyere*, *jide*, *gosi*, *nwapụta*, *dọpụta* and so on. The semantic imports of these verbs are determined by the complements they take. It could be a concrete object or an inherent verb complement. E.g.

- (13). a. Há kwà- ra **ònwé há** émò
3pl push Past **Refl** 3pl mock
'They mocked themselves'
- b. Ụ́nụ mési- ri **ònwé ụ́nụ** íke
2pl do Past **Refl** 2pl strong
'You suffered yourselves'
- c. Ọ́ gbù- ru **ònwé ya**
3sg kill Past **Refl** 3sg
'S/he killed her/himself'

Reflexives obey the c-command on binding which stipulates that a bound constituent must c-command by an appropriate antecedent. One of the structures above can be analysed using a tree diagram as below.

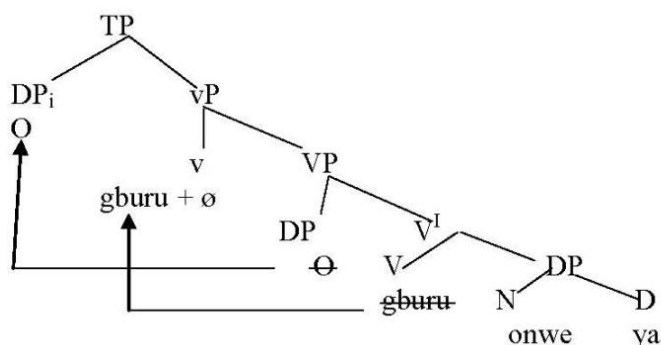


Fig. 3

The relevant bound constituent is the reflexive anaphor 'onwe ya' above; and its antecedent the third singular pronoun 'O'. The reflexive *onwe ya* can be bound by the DP_iO above because the sister of the DP node is the VP node, and the DP *onwe ya* is contained within the relevant VP (by virtue of being of the grandchildren of VP). Consequently, the DP 'O' c-commands the anaphor *onwe ya* and the binding condition is satisfied.

Since the structure is a transitive one, it is a phase. The valued probe searches for a goal which it c-commanded. This goal is found in the anaphor *onwe ya* and the probe does not waste time in agreeing with it since +past probe agrees with any object or goal. Since the probe is valued and the goal is unvalued, the probe agrees with the goal to fulfil its phi-features. This ensures that the structure is well formed and therefore converges at both phonological and semantic interfaces. Once this happens, the moved items undergo transfer. After the transfer, the traces left behind by the moved items receive null spell outs.

All the verbs listed above can be used with all personal pronouns provided that the subject encodes the appropriate reflexive. For instance, ụ́nụ must encode *onwe ụ́nụ*, mụ: *onwe m*, anyị : *onwe anyị*, gị: *onwe gị*, há: *onwe há*. It will be ungrammatical and unacceptable, for instance, to have a mismatch concord like:

- (14) a. * Anyị pià- rà **onwe ụ́nụ** ụ́tarị
1pl flog Past **Refl** 2pl cane
'We flogged yourselves'
- b. * Ọ́ tinye- re **ònwé ụ́nụ** na nsògbù
3sg put Past **Refl** 3pl Prep trouble
'S/he put themselves into trouble'

The ungrammaticality and unacceptability of (14a-b) above is due to the fact that there are discordances between the subjects and the anaphors (reflexives) they encode. This discordance violates operations Select, Merge and Agree. In (14a), the first plural subject takes a second plural anaphor reflexive complement thereby violating the rule of subject/reflexive concord which could be seen as violation of operations Merge and Agree. What this means is that *onwe ụ́nụ* is not the suitable anaphor for the antecedent *anyị* because the second plural ụ́nụ cannot be bound by the first plural anyị. It is therefore unbound and hence the ungrammaticality of (14a). The same thing applies to the sentence (14b), where the third singular subject takes the third plural reflexive complement. By virtue of the mismatch the

binding rule is violated. The violation of the binding rule also violate the rules of operation, select, merge and agree of subject-anaphor agreement (reflexive) which must be co-referential.

B. Infinitival Complementation in Igbo

In Igbo, infinitives are derived immediately the prefix *i* or *ì* is attached to the root-verb depending on the principles of agreement and computation. Infinitives act as either noun or verbs depending on the places of their appearances. If they occur at the subject position of a sentence, they are regarded as nouns whereas if they occur at the middle of a sentence structure, they are regarded as verbs. Verbs that encode infinitival complements in Igbo are usually verbs of forward looking. This accounts for the reason why infinitives are futuristic in nature and as such, cannot encode accomplished sentences. The infinitive prefix *i* or *ì* can be attached to any verb-root but the difficulty lies in the appropriate verb that can trigger infinitives since not every verb has the ability to encode infinitival complementation. Few verbs that can trigger/subcategorise infinitival complementation include: *bịara* (come), *chọrọ* (want), *kpebiri* (decided), *gburu* (kill), e.t.c.

Infinitivals complements are **control** structures. The reason is that the subject of the matrix verb is also the subject of the infinitival clause. The computation entails that the subject must c-command the infinitival clauses. The operations select, merge and agree are structural and any violation of the structural pattern will render the structure ill-formed.

- (15). a. Uche *bịa* ra [PRO *ì*- kpọ Okee]
 3sg come Past PRO **INF** call Okee
 Uche came [PRO to call Okee]
- b. Anyị *jù-* ru [PRO *ì*- kpọ Okee]
 2pl refuse Past PRO **INF** call Okee
 ‘We refused [PRO to call Okey]’
- c. Anyị *ga-* a- *gbalị* [PRO *ì*- ịla ụlọ echi]
 2pl Aux Pref. try PRO **INF** go home tomorrow
 ‘We will try [PRO to go home tomorrow]’

Examples (15a-c) above show that the various verbs listed above encode the infinitival complements. One thing that is apparent in the choice of the verbs that subcategorise the infinitival complements is the principle of co-occurrence restriction. The principle ensures that the right verb selects the right complement as the tree structure below suggests.

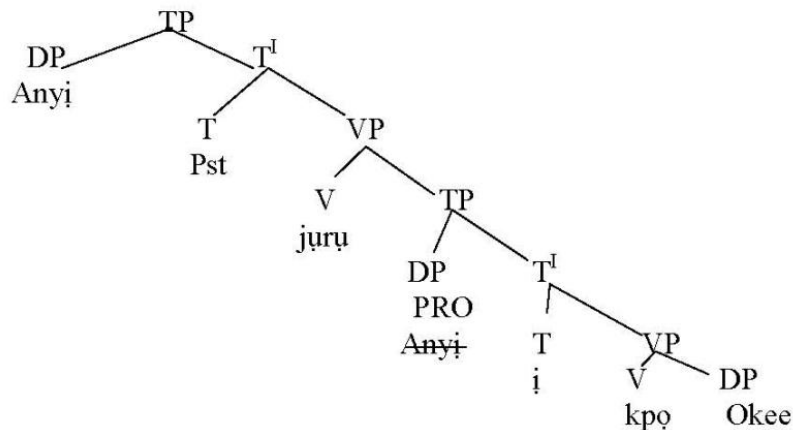


Fig. 4

In control structures, according to Radford (2004), the argument is that apparently subjectless infinitive clauses contain a null subject. The particular kind of null subject found in the bracketed clauses in (15a-c) above have the same grammatical and referential properties as a pronoun, and hence appears to be a null pronoun. The null PRO subjects above is controlled by or refers back to the subject ‘anyị’ of the matrix clause or equivalently, that ‘anyị’ (in case of b above whose tree is drawn above) is the controller or the antecedent of PRO; hence a structure like “*ọ gbalịrị PRO ịla ụlọ*” (he tried to go home) has an interpretation akin to “*ọ gbalịrị ya ịla ụlọ*” (he tried himself to go home). In control structure such as the one above, the PRO is the null subject of the infinitival ‘*ịla*’ ‘to go’. Again, the VP needs a merger with the functional T to check the past tense feature borne by the verb. This movement of the verb from V to T justifies the shortest move principle. So the T gives the verb its interpretable feature as [+past]. The thematic property of the verb ‘*gbalịrị*’ [tried] in (c) assigns theta role of trier to its subject; hence it requires as its subject an expression denoting a capable being. This entails that the verb theta marks its subject as an entity capable of trying.

The general postulation is that control clauses have silent subjects. If this is so, then a finite auxiliary has an [EPP] feature which requires it to have a subject specifier since the auxiliaries belong to the category T of tense marker. The same is true of the infinitive ‘to’ which also belong to T category (by virtue of its status as a nonfinite tense marker). So the broader generalisation is that not only a finite T but also a nonfinite T containing the infinitive particle ‘to’ has an

[EPP] feature and hence must likewise project a subject (Radford, 2004). The analyses (15a-c) above are consistent with this basic generalisation. E.g.

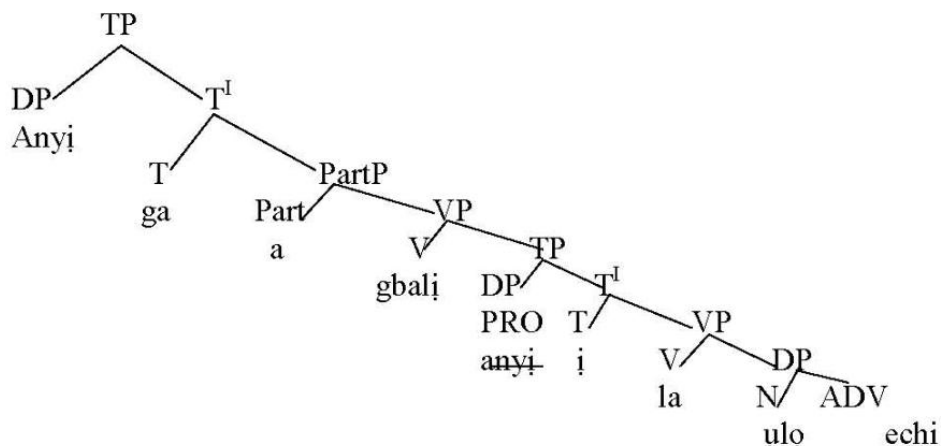


Fig. 5

Figure (4 & 5) above show that the antecedents are the same as the controllers of the infinitive (PROs). This is why the PRO could be represented by the appropriate pronoun as that of the subject in accordance with the generalisation above. Since PRO is invisible to the phonological and logical interfaces, it undergoes transfer and thereafter receives a null spell out in the two interfaces.

V. FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

A. Findings

In the study of verbal complementation, using Minimalist perspective, the study discovered that the verbs select the types of complements they will co-occur with. The co-occurrence restriction means that every head verb must be linked with complements, which agree with it, therefore, the rule of verb complementation in Igbo is purely that of adjacency and c-command. By adjacency, the head verbs must be adjacent to their complements according to the principle of shortest move in minimalism. C-command entails that the head must precede the complement and thereby c-commands it. The head verb does not need to be far away from the complement it c-commands. By this, there shall not be an intervening node between the head and the complement. The concept of theta criterion determines the theta role to assign to any argument. The V-bar (the complement) determines the exact nomenclature of the subject. A head must establish a path of relationship between it and its environment. Essentially, the meanings of the complements are contained in their heads, but the meanings of the heads are not contained in the complement. The head and complement establish a path of union and intersection in the syntactic form.

B. Conclusion

This study has investigated different aspects of verbal complementation using Minimalist perspectives. Syntactically, complementation obeys some syntactic rules. These rules are: theta criterion rule, adjacency rule, c-command rule, computation rule and subcategorisation restriction rules among others. Semantically, the heads must choose the complements to co-occur with in line with co-occurrence restriction dictates. This entails that the meanings of the structures must be ranked highest when the combination and computation are considered, because the failure to do that will result in ill-formed and ungrammatical structures. The argument structure of the verb determines the type of complement and the nature of the complement. The verb gives the relevant nomenclature to its satellites. When there is a mismatch in the selectional properties of the verb, the result is ill-formed sentence structure. This mismatch suggests that the computational processes are faulty. This entails that the operations Select and Merge are violated and the resultant effect is ill-formed structure which fail to converge at both phonological and logical interface.

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Narrative Structure Analysis: A Story from “Hannah Gadsby: Nanette”

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Abstract—According to Labov’s (1972) narrative elements, this paper attempts to analyze one narrative of Hannah Gadsby’s farewell stand-up show. And will discourse how a comedian combines humor with the idea in a story. Narrative structure analysis is one of the most crucial discourse types. In a stand-up show, the comedian prefers to use anecdotes to enhance their performance. Good comedians can present not only humor but their own unique viewpoint in narratives. Concentration is placed on the narrative structure to find out the relationship between humor and the speaker’s voice. It reveals that the six narrative elements can be found in Gadsby’s oral narrative. By combining the narrative elements, Gadsby expresses her consideration of females’ social situation in a humorous story. The function of her narrative is more than entertainment. This paper also found that when analyzing the speaker’s humor, the audience’s response is also a useful reference. Recording audiences in the transcript as the second speaker can bring the audience into Labov’s narrative framework analysis.

Index Terms—narrative structure, Labov, stand-up show, Gadsby, female

I. INTRODUCTION

Language plays a vital role in human lives. People may fail to live without the existence of language. Words can create stories. People use stories to share experiences and repeat the past. ‘Narrative’ can be viewed as a more formal name for ‘story’. People express narratives through various approaches such as oral, written and musical, but spoken stories tend to serve a personal and rational purpose (Tracy & Robles, 2013). People talk, people make stories. They use oral narratives to present their ideas. In linguistics, the narrative is one of the earliest discourse types analyzed, and it has always been one of the most studied ways of what people do with conversation (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015). Linguists are interested in analyzing narratives; some theories were provided. The structural, linguistic analysis of narrative is one of the famous approaches. It focuses on the function of a single clause in the overall structure (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015).

The stand-up show is a kind of comedic style. The audience receives information from the speaker’s vivid oral presentation. Comedians make people laugh via humorous monologue and are likely to complete the monologue through a series of stories and jokes. It is interesting to note how a comedian combines humor with a narrative to achieve a performance.

This paper applies Labov’s framework to analyze one oral narrative of “Nanette.” That show was the farewell of a famous Australian comedian—Hannah Gadsby, in June 2018, which has been nominated for the 71st Primetime Emmy Awards. Gadsby has won many awards in comedy festivals, such as the Melbourne International Comedy Festival and the Adelaide Fringe. “Hannah Gadsby: Nanette” won the Barry Award (best show) and obtained a high score in IMDb and Rotten Tomatoes. The research will first analyze the structure of Gadsby’s oral narrative from six aspects (abstract, orientation, complicating action, evaluation, results, and coda), which are provided by Labov (1972). Then, finding how Gadsby combines these narrative elements into a humorous story. Finally, discovering Gadsby’s voice behind the entertainment story, which is the primary purpose of the narrative.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Narrative has been one of the main themes of humanities and social sciences since the middle of the 20th century (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015). In linguistics, the narrative has always been one of the most intensely studied subjects in what people do through their talk (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015). “A narrative is a perceived sequence of non-randomly connected events, typically involving, as the experiencing agonist, humans or quasi-humans, or other sentient beings, from whose experience we humans can ‘learn’ (Toolan, 1988 pp. 8).” It can be viewed as a genre, including a sequence of events (Arciuli & Brock, 2014).

In the early-mid 1950s, the West had two interrelated but different narrative structures. One came from Russian Vladimir Propp; the other was Claude Lévi-Strauss’s. “while Propp’s approach to characterizing the universal features of folklore is like that of formal syntax, Claude Lévi-Strauss’s (1955, 1964, 1966) is more similar to formal semantics (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015).” After that, several philosophers and literary theorists applied these two ideas in their research about narratives in the late 1960s (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015). There were two main assumptions concerning them; one believed that narrative could be separated from the event itself, the other was about abstract, viewing as the

same the structures and meanings which seem different. These two ideas were common in America and became the main discourse work in the 1960s (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015).

William Labov's research in narrative has been particularly influential in American work (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015). He regards the narrative as "one method of recapitulating experience by matching a verbal sequence of clauses to the sequence of events which (it is inferred) occurred (Labov, 1972 pp.359-360)". Labov and Waletzky (1997) aim to find the underlying semantic structure of narratives in a "formal" way. In the book "Narrative analysis: oral versions of personal experience," they believe that "the most fundamental narratives structures are to be found in oral versions of personal experience (Labov & Waletzky, 1997 pp.12)". Based on that idea, Labov and Waletzky (1997) asked people to tell stories about their dangerous and embarrassing experiences. By applying these data, they provide several essential terminologies of narrative structure analysis.

The stand-up show is live. Gadsby speaks in front of the audience and uses her real story to perform. Based on the audience's reaction and evaluation from the media, Gadsby, an able comedian, delivers her humorous story successfully. Labov's framework is useful for analyzing Gadsby's triumphant story and examining whether her narrative has a complete structure. It is also worth discovering the effect of each narrative element in the whole story.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Object*

The object of the study is the transcript of one narrative of Hanna Gadsby's stand-up show—"Nanette." It lasts for 1 minute and 65 seconds. The narrative is the first story of the show; it is worth analyzing how Gadsby uses a short story in the first ten minutes to engage with the audience, revealing her own voice, and in that, to tell or even persuade the audience using the emotion of humor. Since aiming to analyze the narrative's humor, the interaction between audiences and the speaker cannot be ignored. The transcript of the narrative generally follows Conversation Analysis conventions (Clift, 2016) so that the performance of Gadsby and the reaction of the audience can be shown.

B. *Main Terminologies of Narrative*

Labov and Waletzky (1997) have presented a framework for analyzing the personal experience narrative. It is easy for the research to distinguish whether Gadsby's oral account is a narrative and how to divide the narrative into different clauses. The research can also analyze Gadsby's story via those clauses' various functions. The detailed explanation of terminologies that the study applies is as follows.

Labov (1972) views the minimal narrative as a sequence of two clauses that are temporally ordered. If the order of these clauses is altered, the original semantic interpretation will be changed. For example, "I punched this boy/ and he punched me (Labov, 1972 pp.360)". These two clauses consist of a minimal narrative. If changing the order of them, it will become "This boy punched me, and I punched him (Labov, 1972 pp.360)". The original meaning has been changed. Labov (1972) also provides another term which he calls temporal juncture. He explains that a minimal narrative involves a single temporal juncture (Labov, 1972). Labov distinguishes (1972) different clauses according to their functions in the narrative. For example:

- a I know a boy named Harry
- b Another boy threw a bottle at him, right in the head
- c And he had to get seven stitches (Labov, 1972 pp.361)

According to Labov, a series of temporally ordered clauses will consist of narrative clauses (Labov, 1972). That means the story will change if the narrative clause is re-ordered. In these three clauses, only b and c are narrative clauses. If clause c is placed before clause b, the order of the action changes. The meaning of the narrative will be altered. In contrast, clause a has no temporal juncture. That means clause a can be altered to be in any order without changing the meaning of the narrative. Clause a can be defined as a free clause that is not limited by any temporal juncture (Labov, 1972). There are also other clauses which are named the subordinate clause and the restricted clause. Subordinate clauses can be viewed as clauses with identical displacement (Labov & Waletzky, 1997). For example, "If you didn't bring her candy to school, she would punch you in the mouth (Labov, 1972 pp.362)." If placing "she would punch you in the mouth" in the front of the clause, the original semantic interpretation remains. On the other hand, Labov (1997) defines a restricted clause as a clause that is without freedom to be moved or temporally ordered in the strict sense. In other words, the restricted clause cannot be placed in any order as a free clause; however, the restricted clause is more flexible than a narrative clause because a restricted clause can move between some clauses according to the specific meaning of the narrative.

C. *Narrative Structure (Labov)*

Several narratives that hold temporal junction and involve beginning, middle, and end are generally complete. However, Labov (1972) provides a "fully developed" model of narrative structure, which contains six aspects: abstract, orientation, complicating action, evaluation, result or resolution and coda. The study uses these six narrative elements to analyze Gadsby's narrative clauses and discourse the effect of the narrative section in the story. A full explanation of these elements is as follows.

When a person is trying to tell a story, it is common to hear the abstract first, which can summarize the whole

narrative (Labov, 1972). For example, “(Were you ever in a situation where you thought you were in danger of being killed?) I talked a man out of Old Doc Simon, I talked him out of pulling the trigger (Labov, 1972 pp.363)” The speaker uses only one clause to sketch his whole story. Secondly, orientation provides a series of free clauses filling in background information, including characters, time, physical background and situation. It generally happens at the beginning of the story; however, the narrator will place it into the middle if necessary (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015). Moreover, it is interesting to note that the tense of orientation in English is generally the past progressive (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015).

Labov (1972) points out that complicating action can be viewed as a series of clauses. Each of them tends to describe an event in a temporal sequence of events. Result or resolution transfers the information of tension and the end before the real end of the story. It can occur throughout the narrative and has the function of evaluating, stating and underscoring what is interesting or unusual (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015). Evaluation represents the narrator's comments on the action from outside the story world (Labov, 1972). It can be either narrative clauses or non-narrative clauses. The coda indicates the end of the narrative. It can also include a summary of the story (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015).

IV. DISCUSSION

A narrative always starts from the abstract; it can be regarded as the summary of the whole story (Labov, 1972). Gadsby begins her story from the abstract. “I told a story about the time this young man had almost beaten me up because he thought I was cracking on to his girlfriend.” Gadsby first uses one subordinated clause to summarize her story. That clause introduces to the audience that the narrative is about a young man, a fight and Gadsby. It simplifies the whole story and shows the main points to listeners.

After that, Gadsby provides a restricted clause: “Actually, that bit was true, got that right” after “he thought I was cracking on to his girlfriend.” This clause cannot be put in any place as a free clause, but it can move to some specific place. For example, there is another “trying to crack on to my girlfriend” at the end of the narrative. If the clause is placed after these words, the meaning of the story will not be changed. According to Labov (1972), evaluation is more likely to be the expression of judgment. The speaker uses it to highlight the essential elements of the narrative. The restricted clause is Gadsby's evaluation of what the young man thought. The speaker admits the motive for talking to the young man's girlfriend. It is interesting to note the reaction of the audience, they laugh¹ after Gadsby's evaluation. That means the comedian delivers the humor successfully. Through inserting an evaluation after the abstract, the audience is persuaded to laugh by the comedian.

Next to the first evaluation, there is the second evaluation: “but there was a twist.” Gadsby provides this narrative clause to start the story. The speaker also indicates listeners that the most humorous point of the narrative is the “twist”. This clause tends to catch the attention and interest of the audience.

After these two evaluations, Gadsby provides the orientation, which can help the listener identify the place, time, characters and activities. In the narrative, the speaker says, “It happened late at night, it was at the bus stop, the pub had closed, it was the last bus home, and I was waiting at the bus stop, and I was talking to a girl.” Gadsby uses free clauses and narrative clauses to complete the orientation. These clauses provide information about the characters— a girl and me; time— late night; place— the bus stop; situation— the pub had closed, waiting for the last bus. Moreover, it is interesting that the most essential character— the young man is not introduced by the orientation but the abstract. That means sometimes abstract can replace the part function of the orientation.

Gadsby gives an evaluation after providing the orientation. “You could say flirting, I don't know.” This narrative clause has the same function as the first one. The speaker sets a punchline again in the evaluation. Listeners laugh² since Gadsby admits that she was trying to flirt not to talk to a girl.

The complicating action can be viewed as “then what happened (Labov, 1972 pp.370)”. Complicating clauses are narrative clauses and tend to reappear some events (De Fina & Johnstone, 2015). After the third evaluation, Gadsby shows a series of complicated actions to describe what has happened in her story. The complicating actions are as following:

- a “And out of nowhere, he just comes up” (complicating action: comes up)
- b “And starts shoving me going” (complicating action: shoving)
- c “And he goes ‘keep away from my girlfriend.’” (complicating action: goes)
- d “And she just stepped in going: ‘whoa, stop it, it's a girl.’” (complicating action: stepped)
- e “And he's gone, ‘oh, sorry.’” (complicating action: gone)
- f “He said: ‘oh, I'm sorry, I don't hit women’” (complicating action: said)
- g “he said, ‘what a guy’” (complicating action: said)
I don't hit women,
How about you don't hit anyone
Good rules of thumb.
- h “he goes: ‘sorry I got confused’” (complicating action: goes)

¹ 1 (see appendix: transcript Line 8)

² 2 (see appendix: transcript Line 20)

Based on these actions, there is no doubt that the young man was rude and he had no respect for Gadsby. His words were vulgar and humiliating. The young man tried to hit the speaker, but his girlfriend dissuaded him. The reason why he stopped his action was simple: he hits guys; he does not hit women. Through the description, Gadsby did not give a response to the young man's words. As a speaker, she only provides an evaluation—"I don't hit women, how about you don't hit anyone, good rules of thumb."

Evaluation helps the narrator to indicate the point. It shows "the *raison d'être* of the narrative (Labov, 1972)", which means the aspect of evaluation in the narrative is related to a situated value system. Gadsby puts her loud personal voice in this evaluation. The young man's action is a kind of sexism; he distinguishes women from the human beings. His protection ideology means he does not put women and men in the same social status. In his idea, women and men are unequal. But women are not the weak; women are the other sex, which is different from men. The young man does not hit women, should men be hit? This is also the unequal treatment of men. From the narration, the young man had no idea at all about Gadsby's name, he treated a stranger with swear language and planned to hit the stranger. "how about you don't hit anyone." This is the speaker's irony at the young man's action. She uses a humorous tone to hit back perfectly. The audience laughs³ after Gadsby's evaluation; this means the speaker's humor is delivered successfully.

Result indicates the information before the real end, and it can have the function of evaluating (Labov, 1972). "now I do understand I have a responsibility to help lead people out of ignorance at every opportunity I can." That sentence is not only the information before the end but also the evaluation by the speaker. Coda indicates that the story is over (Labov, 1972). The coda of Gadsby's story is "But I left him there, people. Safety first". After hearing that sentence, the audience laugh again⁴ realising the speaker's humorous satire of the young man.

Gadsby shows the audience her wisdom and humor successfully in the whole narrative. However, there is still a question. Why did not Gadsby use her intelligence and do something to hit back in the narration? She could use some action to fight back, but she kept silent to that experience of youth. Perhaps she lets the young man shame her into silence. Does that mean she was afraid of that rude person?

The answer might be yes. At the end of the narration, Gadsby said she tried to keep safe. In other words, the young man's language and actions scared her. The truth of Gadsby's story might be full of fear, violence and rudeness; the young man has almost assaulted her. It is hard to imagine how brave she is to transform that fear into humor and share the story on the stand-up stage with the audience. What people can get from the story is not only the entertainment value but also personal growth. In the narrative, young Gadsby might be scared to admit her orientation and hit back at the person who insulted her. However, today's Gadsby stands on the stage as a lesbian and shares her story with confidence. The audience laughs often in Gadsby's story. The most frequent punchline Gadsby uses is about her orientation. For example, in the first evaluation, the audience laughs⁵ because Gadsby admits to flirting with a girl. The speaker prepares the way for many jokes about lesbian. She never denies her orientation and is brave enough to demonstrate it to the public.

Moreover, it is obvious to note Gadsby's voice behind the narrative. She desires equality between women and men. In the story, the young man stopped his rudeness when his girlfriend told him Gadsby is a girl. Does that mean girls are different from guys, they stay in another section which keeps away from guys. But guy involves two kinds of sex, men and women. Gadsby uses a funny tone to say, "it's a girl." The audience laughs. It is hard to guess the reason why listeners laugh; however, it is easy to know Gadsby's consideration of women's social status. She recombines her unpleasant memories and uses humor to parcel the story on the comedy stage. The intention is not for fun or gaining the audience's sympathy to show how poor or helpless she was. Gadsby is trying to attract listeners' attention to note the female's situation in today's society. The same as what the young man did in the narrative, the sex of women is being ignored in many events. It is not fair for females but also males. As the study mentioned earlier, the young man does not hit women, should men be hit?

V. CONCLUSION

The study aims to find out how does Gadsby combine humor with her idea in the narrative. Labov's framework is a good method to analyze a stand-up show's story. The abstract, orientation, complicating action, evaluation, result and coda tend to be found clearly in the short story. In the comedy, Gadsby demonstrates/uses? humor mainly via inserting the evaluation. She puts the predictable punchline into the evaluation. The audience is persuaded to laugh in almost every evaluation. On the other hand, the speaker begins with abstract, orientation and end with coda. This order makes the story easy to deliver so that the audience can follow Gadsby's step.

However, there is a limitation when applying Labov's narrative structure to analyze the stand-up show's narration. Audiences' reflection is useful to measure the effect of the story, but Labov's six narrative elements concentrate more on the narrative itself. Putting the audience into the transcript as a second speaker is a good way to settle this problem.

Moreover, Gadsby guides the audience to laugh throughout the narrative; it seems that her story is provided only for entertainment; however, the speaker aims to transfer her consideration of females' social status. She finds and disagrees with the unfair treatment between males and females. In the show, she tells about her unpleasant story and shares it in a

³ (see appendix: transcript Line 37)

⁴ (see appendix: transcript Line 49) ⁵ (see appendix: transcript Line 8)

humorous way. Gadsby puts what she was afraid of in front of the public. Her bravery and growth can be seen clearly. However, the intention of the speaker is not herself. She expects the public to note the young man's discriminatory practice concerning women. That action exists not only in the story but also in society. To be treated equally is Gadsby's real expectation. The appearance of Gadsby's narrative is a comedy, but the point behind it is a woman's voice, she desires equality, not the neglect or special treatment.

VI. SUGGESTION

In future research, it is worth noticing the effect of other speakers when applying Labov's framework to a live show. Their reactions may affect the narrative. Although the audience almost does not participate in the speaker's performance by talking, the audience still tends to become the second speaker in the show because their reaction to the performance is also a kind of language. For example, it is possible for the narrator to change narrative styles or even the content when the audience shows signs of boredom such as whispering to each other.

APPENDIX 1. TRANSCRIPT

Link to the data: <https://www.netflix.com/au/title/80233611> (09:58-11:23)

1. G I to: :>ld a< I told £ a story £ about the time,
2. G this young: man
3. G had almost beaten me up.
4. G Because he thought(hh)
5. G I mean .hh
6. G he thought I was⁵ to his girlfriend .hh well
>Actually that< bit was true ↓ [got that right]
7. A [(hhh)]
8. G But(0.5) there was a twist.
9. G It happened late >at night< >it was(0.3)at<,
10. G the bus stop
11. G you know the pub had closed↑
12. G it was the last bus £ home £ ↑
13. G and I was £ waiting £ at the bus stop
14. G .hh and I was TALking to a girl.
15. G an:d I (0.2)
16. G you: know:
17. G You could say: flirting↑
18. G [o I don't know o]
19. A [(hhh)]
20. G (0.5)an::d,
21. G £ out of nowhere £
22. G he just comes up↓ and starts shoving: ME going
23. ⁶ YOU ⁷ (0.4)⁸
24. G An:d £ he knows goes £
25. G KEEP away from my girlfriend you⁹
26. G And(0.2)and she just steeped in going <whoa:, stop↓it
27. G it's a gi::rl>
28. G and he's gone, [“OH↓ sorry”],
29. A [(hhh)]
30. G (1.2)he said sorry oh I'm sorry >I↓ don't< hit women↑
31. G he said↑
32. G WHAT↓ a guy::
33. A (hhh)
34. G(0.9)>£ I don't £< hit women↑ (hh)
35. G How about you don't hit anyone↓
36. A (hhh)
37. G (0.7)Good rules of thumb
38. G he goes, SO:rry(hh) I got confused I: thought,

⁵ vulgar words which mean flirting.

⁶ swear words

⁷ swear words

⁸ insult words to guy.

⁹ insults words to guy

39. G you were a ¹⁰
 40. A (hhh)
 41. G (0.8) ↓trying to _____ ¹¹ my gi:rl:friend
 42. A (hhhh)
 43. G (1.5)now >I do<(0.6)I do understand,
 44. G I have a responsibility to help lead people out of
 ignorance↑o at every opportunity I can,
 45. G but I LE:ft him there pe:ople
 46. A (hhh)
 47. G (1.1)sa:fety fi:rst

APPENDIX 2. KEY OF THE TRANSCRIPT SYMBOLS

Transcriptions generally follow Conversation Analysis conventions (Clift, 2016)

- a. Temporal and sequential relationships []
 b. Numbers in parenthesis indicate silence (0.5) indicates half a second's silence
 c. Aspect of speech delivery
 Contour, not necessary at the end of a sentence.
 A comma indicates "continuing" intonation, not necessarily,
 Underlining is used to indicate some form of stress or emphasis word
 Capital letter means particularly increased loudness WORD
 Quite or soft o o
 Falling intonation contour (letter) No:
 Rising intonation contour (letter) ;
 Rise of full in pitch ↑↓
 Talk between them is compressed or rushed > <
 A stretch of talk is markedly slowed or drawn out <>
 d. Hearable aspiration is shown where it occurs in the talk
 The more 'hh' is, the more aspiration hh
 'smiling voice' £ £
 Inbreaths .hh

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¹⁰ insults words to guy

¹¹ vulgar words which mean flirting

Communicative Language Teaching: Do Tasks and Activities in School Textbooks Facilitate Learners' Development of Communicative Competence?

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Abstract—This paper reports a theoretical evaluation and findings from teachers' and students' evaluations of activities and tasks in *English 6*, an English textbook from a series of four textbooks which have been used as the compulsory textbooks for all students from grades 6 to 9 (ages 12 to 16) in all junior secondary schools in Vietnam since 2001 (Nguyen, 2005). It presents results from a study which involved 8 teachers and 126 students in four secondary schools in the Mekong Delta, Vietnam. Combining a theoretical evaluation and the analysis of the data collected from the questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and classroom observation. It is concluded that there is a lack of a variety of activities and tasks and they mostly focus on form. Therefore, they do not help develop learners' communicative competence. The present study also draws implications regarding how to use teaching materials effectively for EFL/ESL for developing learners' communicative competence.

Index Terms—evaluation of English 6, English 6 evaluation, textbook evaluation

I. INTRODUCTION

The previous research studies on textbook evaluation have shown that activities and tasks in textbooks can help promote learner interaction which is considered to have more benefits than teacher-fronted whole class instruction (Litz, 2006). Long (1990) indicates five benefits students have in student-student interaction. These include: the increase the quantity of students' language use, the improvement of the quality of students' language use, more opportunities to individualize instruction, a less threatening language use environment and the enhancement of motivation for learning. Unfortunately, Jacobs and Ball (1996) complain that in many textbooks, in order to help make learner interactions, the authors put the words 'in groups' or 'in pairs' in front of many activities which should be individual activities to try to encourage learners to cooperate with one another. Such activities just work in very few situations, but for effective interactions to take place according to them 'students will generally need more guidance and encouragement' not just simple instructions and requirements before the tasks and activities (Jacobs & Ball, 1996, p. 99).

Given that second language learners need activities and tasks which help them practice and perform the target language well in both inside and outside of the classroom, this study investigates the real communicative practice through activities and tasks via *English 6* with a hope that it can propose implications for both textbook designers and teachers who are using and will be using the textbook. It is part of an overall textbook evaluation project for *English 6*. It especially focuses on (1) what kinds of activities and tasks are included in the textbook, (2) to what extent they help encourage learner interaction and promote learners' communicative abilities and (3) what the instructors and learners suggest for improvement.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Textbook Evaluation

Textbook evaluation is a process of measuring the value or potential value of textbooks (Tomlinson, 2003). According to this definition, it involves making judgments about the effects of textbooks on people (learners, instructors and administrators) who use them. These effects may involve many criteria such as: the credibility, validity, flexibility, etc. of the textbooks. To share this point of view on textbook evaluation, Rea-Dickins and Germanie (1994) define evaluation 'as the means by which we can gain a better understanding of what's effective, what's less effective and what appears to be no use at all' (p. 28).

Lynch (1996) defines evaluation as ‘the systematic attempt to gather information in order to make judgments or decisions’ (p. 2). Weir and Roberts (1994) seem to be more specific when they consider textbook evaluation to be a systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of the textbook and access its effectiveness and efficiency. Nevo (1977) supports Weir and Robert’s view, adding that:

Evaluation refers to the process of delineating, obtaining and providing information on the merit of goals, designs, implementation and outcomes of educational activities, and should help to improve educational activities, and should help to improve an educational product during the process of its development, and/or demonstrate the merit of the final product when its development is completed. (Nevo, 1977, p. 127 as cited in Nguyen, 2015: 34)

To suit the teaching and learning context in this study, Nguyen (2015) mentions, textbook evaluation could be defined as the process of collecting information about a textbook and analyzing it to find out what works well, the merits, and what needs complementing, balancing or ruling out, the deficiencies, in order to make sound decisions and judgments to use the textbook efficiently for a particular course of instruction.

B. Evaluation of Activities and Tasks

The evaluation of activities and tasks is important. It aims to find out whether there is a variety of activities and tasks in a textbook which will meet learners’ interests, needs and learning styles. It is also suggested that the activities and tasks should reflect topics and texts from real world situations and be challenging enough to gain the learners’ attention (Tomlinson, 2003). The most important point is that the activities and tasks should be graded relevantly to help the process of second language acquisition happen comfortably. Another characteristic of good activities and tasks in a textbook is that there should be form-focused tasks, meaning-focused tasks as well as both form- and meaning- focused tasks in certain periods of lessons to interest learners. It is essential for a textbook to include different kinds of activities such as pair work activities, group work activities and individual work activities and these activities should tend to develop both the learners’ language use and skills.

To evaluate activities and tasks in a textbook effectively, Crookes and Gass (1993) suggested that the most effective tasks and activities should be those which promote the greatest opportunities for learners to experience comprehension of input, feedback on production and inter-language modification. These can be information gap activities, jigsaw activities, problem solving, decision making, and opinion exchange, Nguyen (2015).

In order to effectively involve learners in activities and tasks which may lead to success in language learning, the activities and tasks in a textbook should be designed to

- develop four language skills and communicative abilities,
- encourage learner interaction in classroom,
- develop learner autonomy in learning,
- and give clear instructions.

(Nguyen, 2015).

Developing four language skills and communicative abilities is a pivotal characteristic which needs to be explicitly expressed in activities and tasks. A good balance between receptive skills (listening and reading) and productive skills (speaking and writing) in the activities and tasks is required in each textbook in ELT to make sure the four language skills are practiced equally. It is suggested that the activities designed for learners to practice separate skills should tend to develop their communicative abilities. It means that there are activities and tasks in which learners can exchange information and communicate ideas and talk not just for practicing language as required but for sharing ideas, cooperating towards a certain goal, and competing to attain their goals (Crookes & Gass, 1993).

There should be activities and tasks which require learners to practice each skill separately and there should be integrated ones in which more than one skill are required to be practiced simultaneously, to draw learners’ interest and facilitate their classroom communication.

Encouraging learner interaction in the classroom is another important issue to evaluate activities and tasks in a textbook. Interaction, according to Thomas (1987) is ‘acting reciprocally, acting upon each other’ (p. 7). In his definition, he pointed out that action and reaction may not be interaction; in order to become interaction they need to be reciprocal. It means interaction is mutual influence or exchange of interlocutors. Learner interaction in this study is defined as the way in which learners exchange ideas or information to fulfill a task in their classroom. Encouragement of learner interaction helps learners interact to complete a task.

The promotion of learners’ communicative abilities is closely connected with learner interaction in classroom activities and tasks. According to Canale (1983) ‘communicative competence includes four components: grammatical, socio-linguistic, discourse and strategic competence’ (cited in Nguyen, 2013: 857). Chomsky (1965, as cited in Nguyen, 2013: 857) states that ‘grammatical competence is a language competence which reflects the knowledge of vocabulary; rules of word formation; pronunciation and spelling; and sentence formation’. Socio-linguistic competence is the appropriateness of language use in social contexts (Hymes, 1979). Discourse competence is ‘... an understanding of how spoken and written texts are organized and how to make inferences which cover the underlying meaning of what has been said and the connection between utterances’ (Skehan, 1998, p. 158). Lastly, ‘strategic competence or compensatory competence is used when other competences fail to cope with the situations such as lack of words or structures in communication’ (Canale & Swain, 1980 as cited in Nguyen, 2013: 857).

The value of student-student interaction to promote learning in classroom activities is advocated by many theorists such as Long (1990) and McDonough and Shaw (1993). Long (1990) points out five benefits of student-student interactive activities as follows:

- increased quantities of students' language use;
- enhanced quality of the language students use;
- more opportunities to individualize instruction;
- a less threatening environment in which the language is used;
- and greater motivation for learning.

Jacobs and Ball (1996) mention that the best types of activities for effective interactions are those in which learners can negotiate meaning or those that promote positive interdependence and individual responsibility in learning cooperation. Among the two given types of activities, the former is explained to be an action taken in order to ensure that all members in groups have communicated successfully. The latter, however, exists only when learners feel that there is a strong link between them and other members in their group, they cannot be successful if their group cannot and vice-versa so they have to cooperate with other members in their group for the success and completion of a task. The most important point at this stage is how to assess an individual's performance to ensure all members have worked and had their contribution recognized to avoid some doing everything and some doing nothing, which can discourage some from participating in the activities (Jacobs & Ball, 1996).

Real language communication is emphasized in each activity and task, as it is not just about practicing language in the situations under the control of teachers or the materials given, but in situations in which learners can decide the content, strategies and expression of the interaction. This helps learners develop their own strategic competence and check their own effectiveness of their own internal hypotheses (Tomlinson, 1998). Real communicative interaction in classroom, according to Tomlinson (1998) can be achieved through:

- Information or opinion gap activities which require learners to communicate with each other and/or the teacher in order to close the gap (e.g. finding out what food and drink people would like at the class party);
- Post-listening and post-reading activities which require the learners to use information from the text to achieve a communication purpose (e.g. deciding what television programs to watch, discussing who to vote for, writing a review of a book or film);
- Creative writing and creative speaking activities such as writing a story or improvising a drama;
- Formal instruction given in the target language either on the language itself or on another subject. (Tomlinson, 1998, p. 15)

Developing learner autonomy and independence should be clearly indicated in activities and tasks. Learner autonomy here is defined as the learners' ability to take charge of their own learning (Cotterall, 2000). To put it in other words, it is a way to make learners aware of their own study. Autonomous learning, according to Mishan (2005), helps learners return to their earliest experiences in language learning as 'L1 acquisition is essentially an autonomous process' (p. 36). It also conforms to the concept that 'we are born, self-directed learners' (Benson, 2001, p. 59). Developing learner autonomy and independence is to develop the learners' ability and attitude for self-study, lifelong study and steady independence from teachers.

Promoting learner autonomy and independence is important, as teachers are not always available to assist learners at all times. Moreover, 'learners become more efficient in their language learning if they do not have to spend time waiting for the teacher to provide them with the resources or solve their problems' (Cotterall, 1995). In order to foster learner autonomy, the activities and tasks in the textbook should be designed to raise learners' awareness of 'ways of identifying goals, specifying objectives, identifying resources and strategies needed to achieve goals, and measuring progress.' (Kenny, 1993, p. 111).

Learner awareness-raising is revealed within activities and tasks and after each lesson. According to Cotterall (2000), within activities and tasks learners should be asked the questions such as: 'Why are we doing this? How will it help? What makes it difficult?' and after each lesson such questions as: 'What did you do today? What did you learn today? What are you going to do differently as a result of today's class?'

According to the above-mentioned characteristics about learner autonomy, it is essential that textbooks should be learner-centered, so that learners are decision-makers about their own learning. Activities and tasks should encourage learners to learn independently and exploit their prior knowledge and experience to guess, predict, discover and take risk. Developing learner autonomy and independence also means that learners are introduced to activities and tasks which involve them in thinking about the learning process and experiencing different types of learning activities. Through the activities and tasks they can discover their own learning styles and strategies (Tomlinson, 2003).

Another important point relevant to developing learner autonomy and independence is that tasks, activities and exercises should enable students to monitor and measure their own progress. The progress monitoring and measuring can be achieved through activities and tasks which require learners 'to reflect on their learning, such as discussion of the goal-setting process, analysis of task types, and experimentation with strategies.' (Cotterall, 2000, p. 115).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Research Context and General Description of the Textbook*

This research was conducted in four junior secondary schools in the Mekong Delta – Vietnam, which is considered to have a textbook-based teaching and learning education system (Duggan, 2001). To put it in other words, it is a system in which all teachers have to use a compulsory teaching and learning textbook and follow a very detailed and rigid instructional framework issued by the MOET with the annual adjustments (if any) from the provincial Departments of Education and Training for each subject officially taught at schools, especially in general education (grades 1 to 12). In such an education system, the role of textbooks becomes more important and the requirement of following the textbooks and the detailed instructional framework seems to be a paramount factor for teachers to fulfill their duty. Moreover, Mekong Delta is considered to be the lowland of the country in education with large population, distinctive geographical conditions and lifestyles. In such a particular language teaching and learning context, the researcher carried out this research to find out what works well and what needs improving to make *English 6* better suited to the language teaching and learning environment there.

English 6 was first published in 2001, now all junior secondary schools use the 4th edition version. It consists of 204 pages with 16 units long. Each unit has two or three sections corresponding to a topic and they are closely related to each other. It is accompanied by a teacher's manual, a students' workbook, a cassette tape and a set of pictures as teaching aids. It is intended for 6th grade (aged 12) students who start to study English. According to Nguyen (2015), it is taught in 105 forty-five-minute periods in the classroom. It is claimed to be theme-based, consisting of the communicative topics closely related to students' needs and hobbies. The language material is introduced to students and practiced through situations and exciting activities which help promote students' creative roles in study. It helps encourage communicative activities as well as master the grammatical structures to make a good prerequisite for language competence development.

B. Participants, Data Collection and Data Analysis

1. Participants

Eight teachers and 126 students who were using the textbook in (2016 – 2017) school year in four different junior high schools in four different provinces (Kiengiang, Haugiang, Angiang and Camau) in Mekong Delta, Vietnam participated in the research. The four schools and four provinces were chosen because they are typical areas in Mekong Delta with the diversity of ethnic minorities (Khmer, Cham) and geographical and economic conditions (borderline and island areas).

Eight teachers (7 female; 1 male) ranging from twenty-five to fifty years of age and from two to twenty-five years of experience in ELT at junior secondary schools and 126 students (75 female; 51 male) at similar ages from twelve to thirteen participated in the study.

These participants were chosen based on the introduction and permission from the head teachers of the schools where the research was conducted.

2. Data collection

As this research study involves human subjects, approval from the four Departments of Education and Training (DoET) had to be obtained. Prior to the start of this study, I sent letters to the directors of the (DoET) of the four above-mentioned provinces, seeking their permission to conduct this research in some state schools in the study areas. Before conducting the study at each school, the researcher contacted the school head teacher to seek verbal permission to undertake the research, and to access the relevant staff and students needed for the research study. It also allowed me to make arrangements to meet the English teaching staff, in order to talk to them about the research plan and to seek voluntary participants (Nguyen, 2015).

Questionnaires were delivered to both the teachers and students by the researcher. There were two different sets of questionnaires, one for teachers and the other for students. They were designed to collect data from the instructors and students and they consisted of both close- and open- ended questions. The questions in the questionnaires for both the instructors and students aimed to investigate their opinions and suggestions on the activities and tasks in the textbook. The questions covered the following issues: the suitability of the activities and tasks for students' level, the instructions given before the activities and tasks, the distribution of the four language skills and the suggestions for improvement.

All of the teachers were also asked to take part in semi-structured interviews after the completion of the questionnaires. The questions in the interviews with the instructors were open-ended and focused on the same issues as the questions in the questionnaires as their aim was to make the results more reliable. Each interview lasted from twenty to thirty minutes.

In addition to the above data, eight 45-minute periods of classroom observation taught by the eight teachers were conducted and audio-recorded. In order to make the result of the observation more objective, I did it with the help of two other teachers whom I invited at each school. The two teachers were given the lesson observation sheet and some guidelines about what to take note during the lesson from me before observing the lesson (Nguyen, 2015). I also told the teachers who did the demonstration teaching the purpose of it carefully to make sure they would carry out the lesson in the similar way they do every day. After each classroom observation, I organized a meeting with the two teachers having attended it to discuss and make a final consensus about the lesson based on the criteria given on the lesson observation sheet.

3. Data analysis

In the questionnaires, data was analyzed by listing all raw data (all the individual responses) under each question, and then grouping the similar responses, identifying common themes, and counting frequencies.

However, analyzing interviews, according to Patton (1990), there are two strategies: case analysis and cross-case analysis. Implementing case analysis means writing a case study for each person interviewed. Using cross-case analysis means grouping together answers from different people to common questions or analyzing and grouping different perspectives on central issues. In this study, interviews were analyzed by using cross-case analysis, for the data obtained from the interviews it was better and more easily integrated to the data from other sources such as questionnaires. The data collected from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed by grouping the similar responses together and identifying common themes and counting the frequencies (Nguyen, 2015).

In the classroom observation, classroom size, layout and real equipment were described. Common stages of lesson conducting among the eight periods were recognized, grouped together and analyzed (Nguyen, 2015). Illustrations of typical stages of teachers' conducting specific lessons were given. Similar results of the consensus among the observers in specific aspects of classroom observation of the eight periods were group together for analysis.

IV. FINDINGS: THEORETICAL EVALUATION

A. Types of Activities and Tasks Introduced in the Textbook

The findings, when looking generally at the activities and tasks in *English 6* indicate that it does not provide learners with a variety of activities and tasks. It mostly consists of individual work and pair work activities. In the textbook, according to Nguyen (2015), there are many form-focused activities (i.e., controlled practice which focuses on the use of a structure or a grammar point such as repetition and substitution drills) but not many meaning-focused or form- and meaning-focused tasks (i.e., free practice in which learners can exchange information and ideas or use their own information and ideas to practice with other students such as write sentences about your place or practice with a partner about his/her daily activities) (see Table 1). Most of the lessons usually begin with a rather easy activity 'Listen and repeat' then 'Practice' in pairs, they end with a writing activity or task named 'Write' considered to be a little bit more difficult and this recurs in each lesson across the textbook (see Table 1 below).

TABLE 1
RANGE OF ACTIVITIES AND TASKS PRESENTED IN ENGLISH 6

Types of activities and tasks	Lesson																Totals
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
1. Listen and repeat	7	2	3	4	3		3	1	4	4	1	3	2		3	2	42
2. Practice	2		2											1			4
3. Practice with a partner	3	1	3	1	1	2	1		3	2		1	1		1	1	21
4. Practice with a group	1																1
5. Write in your exercise book		1									1						2
6. Remember	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	2	44
7. Game	2	2	1	1		2	1	3	1	1						1	15
8. Match and write		1								1							2
9. Listen and repeat. Then practice with a partner		4	1	2	3					5	3		1	4			23
10. Answer the questions			2	3	2	1		3		2	1	1		3	2	1	21
11. Listen and read. Then answer the questions			1			3	2	2	2		1	2			4	3	20
12. Read. Then answer the questions				1				1			1	2					5
13. Read				1	1								1				3
14. Complete the table/dialogue				2	1	1											4
15. Listen and choose the right picture/answer						1	3	2	2	1	2	1		1		1	14
16. Write sentences/ a description	1			2		2						2	1	2	1		11
17. Listen and answer					1	2	1	1									5
18. Listen and read						1		1				3		2	2	2	11

The table shows that although all of the activities and tasks are under different names, they are quite similar to each other in the way learners perform them. The textbook also has some games such as 'play bingo', 'play Simon Says' or 'a picture quiz' to help learners review vocabulary in an entertaining way. The workbook states that it intends to help learners practice grammar, vocabulary and language functions introduced in the lesson in the textbook through writing and reading activities and tasks so no listening and speaking activities and tasks are introduced to learners. Moreover, it is used as homework for learners. It means all of the activities and tasks in the workbook are done at home and they are usually in forms of complete conversations, complete sentences, read then answer the comprehension questions and describe pictures. They are illustrated below.

TABLE 2
RANGE OF ACTIVITIES AND TASKS PRESENTED IN ENGLISH 6 WORKBOOK

Types of activities and tasks	Lesson																Totals
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
1. Complete the sentences	2	1	4	2	2	1	1	2		2		1	1	1	2	1	23
2. Complete the dialogues	4	2	2	1			2				3			3	1		18
3. Write a dialogue based on the previous one	2		1				3				1				1		8
4. Rearrange the dialogues	1																1
5. Write sentences	1	1		3	3	2	1	3	1		1	1	1	2		1	21
6. Match the words/sentences with the correct pictures	1				1	1								1		1	5
7. Answer the questions		1	1	1	1	2	1	1		3		4	2	1	1	1	20
8. Read. Then answer the questions			1				1	1				1					4
9. Write a description							1		1			1	2		1		6
10. Sentence building				2						1		1					4
11. Use the correct form of the given verbs				1	2	1	1	1				1					7
12. Write questions for the answers		1		2	2	1		2				2			3		13
13. Complete the table					2										1		3
14. True-false exercises							1	1		1	1	1					5
15. Match words together/question and answers		1	1	1							1		1	1		1	7
16. Name the objects		1	1						2	1						1	6
17. Use given information to write questions and answer					1												1
18. Gap filling							1			2							3

The two tables above show that *English 6* with its accompanying workbook provide many role-play activities and tasks, but most of them focus on accuracy (i.e., listen and repeat the dialogue, practice given dialogues with a partner, practice the dialogue with some substitutions given). In other words, there are some limits on the variety of activities and tasks in the textbook with its accompanying workbook. Although these kinds of activities and tasks may encourage learners to involve themselves in classroom activities and tasks, they fail to help learners practice the language use in real communication outside the classroom. In short, form-focused practice is the emphasis of the textbook and its accompanying workbook.

B. Encouragement of Learner Interaction and Promotion of Learners' Communicative Abilities

When scrutinizing the contents of the activities and tasks in both the textbook and workbook and the above-illustrated examples, it seems that the activities and tasks are intended to introduce language material to learners to help them practice the four language skills. It has learners practice listening skill through 'Listen and repeat' activities, speaking through 'Practice the conversation with a partner', reading in 'Read. Then answer the questions' and writing in 'Write' activities. The level of difficulty is increasing as first learners just do the repetition then the substitution in their practice usually in pairs to complete the activity and task requirements. Finally, there are some more challenging activities or tasks which ask learners to use their real information to practice in the textbook. However, there are not enough such challenging activities and tasks for learners to practice. In the workbook the activities and tasks are similar to those in the textbook in their form. The language used for instructions which precede each activity and task is simple, clear and rather easy for learners to follow. They are short commands (Listen and repeat; Listen and repeat. Then practice with a partner; Listen and read. Then answer the questions; Complete the dialogues, etc.)

With regard to the encouragement of learner interaction, it is affected by not only the level of difficulty, the distribution of the four language skills practice and the types but also the content of the activities and tasks. The content of activities and tasks in *English 6* is related to family, school, daily activities, etc., which are considered to be very familiar to learners regardless of any social background. In addition, Tomlinson (1998) emphasizes that real communicative interaction in classroom can be achieved through information or opinion gap activities, post-listening and post-reading activities, creative writing and creative speaking activities and formal instruction. However, the textbook is deficient in many of the types of information gap and role-play activities which focus on fluency; creative writing and speaking and open-ended question discussions which help learners exchange, share information and express their opinions to engage them in truly meaningful and effective communication such as negotiation of meaning (see Table 1). This may cause the potential to be a serious problem in some teaching and learning contexts (Litz, 2006).

One more negative note on the activities and tasks in the textbook is that there is only one group work activity during the textbook. There are no activities or tasks which provide each individual member in a group with unique information that must be combined in order to complete a task to help learners practice what is called 'negotiation of meaning' as mentioned by Jacobs and Ball (1996).


When coming to post-listening and post-reading activities, *English 6* often presents these activities but most of them are not presented in a communicative way. In other word, in these activities and tasks, learners just do the repetition or substitution. This means they practice under very controlled situations. These, to some extent, are good for form-

focused practice, but according to Widdowson (1978), producing correct linguistic structures (through repetition or substitution drills as in *English 6*) does not guarantee an appropriate use in real-life communication. So these kinds of activities and tasks seem to help encourage interactions among learners but they do not work effectively in real communication. These are shown in the following examples:


Example 1:

B My routine


1 Read.




Hi, I'm Ba. I get up at six. I take a shower. I eat a big breakfast.



I go to school at a quarter to seven. I have classes from seven to a quarter past eleven.



At half past eleven, I have lunch. In the afternoon, I play games. I go home at five o'clock.



In the evening, I watch television. I do my homework. I go to bed at ten o'clock.

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Unit 5: Things I do

2 Complete the table in your exercise book. Write the time in figures.

ACTION	TIME	
	Ba	Me
get up	6.00	
go to school		
classes start		
classes finish		
have lunch		
go home		
go to bed		

3 Practice with a partner. Use your table.

- What time does Ba get up/go to school/have classes/have lunch/home/go to bed?
- What time do you get up/go to school/have classes/have lunch/home/go to bed?

4 Remember.

ten o'clock
 a quarter to ten = nine forty five
 a quarter past ten = ten fifteen
 half past ten = ten thirty

I/We/You/They get up He/She gets up	I/We/You/They go He/She goes	I/We/You/They eat He/She eats
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Figure 1: Illustration of activities and tasks in *English 6* (Nguyen et al., 2006, pp. 56-57)


Example 2:

UNIT 8
OUT AND ABOUT

A What are you doing?


1 Listen and repeat.

I am playing video games.




a) He is playing video games.

I am riding my bike.




b) She is riding her bike.

I am driving my car.




c) He is driving his car.

We are walking to school.




d) They are walking to school.

We are traveling to school by bus.



e) They are traveling to school by bus.

We are waiting for a train.



f) They are waiting for a train.

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Unit 8: Out and about

2 Ask and answer questions about all the people in the pictures and about you.


What is he doing? He is ...ing ...
 What is she doing? She is ...ing ...
 What are they doing? They are ...ing ...
 What are you doing? I am ...ing ...

3 Answer. Then write the answers in your exercise book.


a) What are you doing?




b) What is she doing?



c) What is he doing?



d) What are they doing?



83

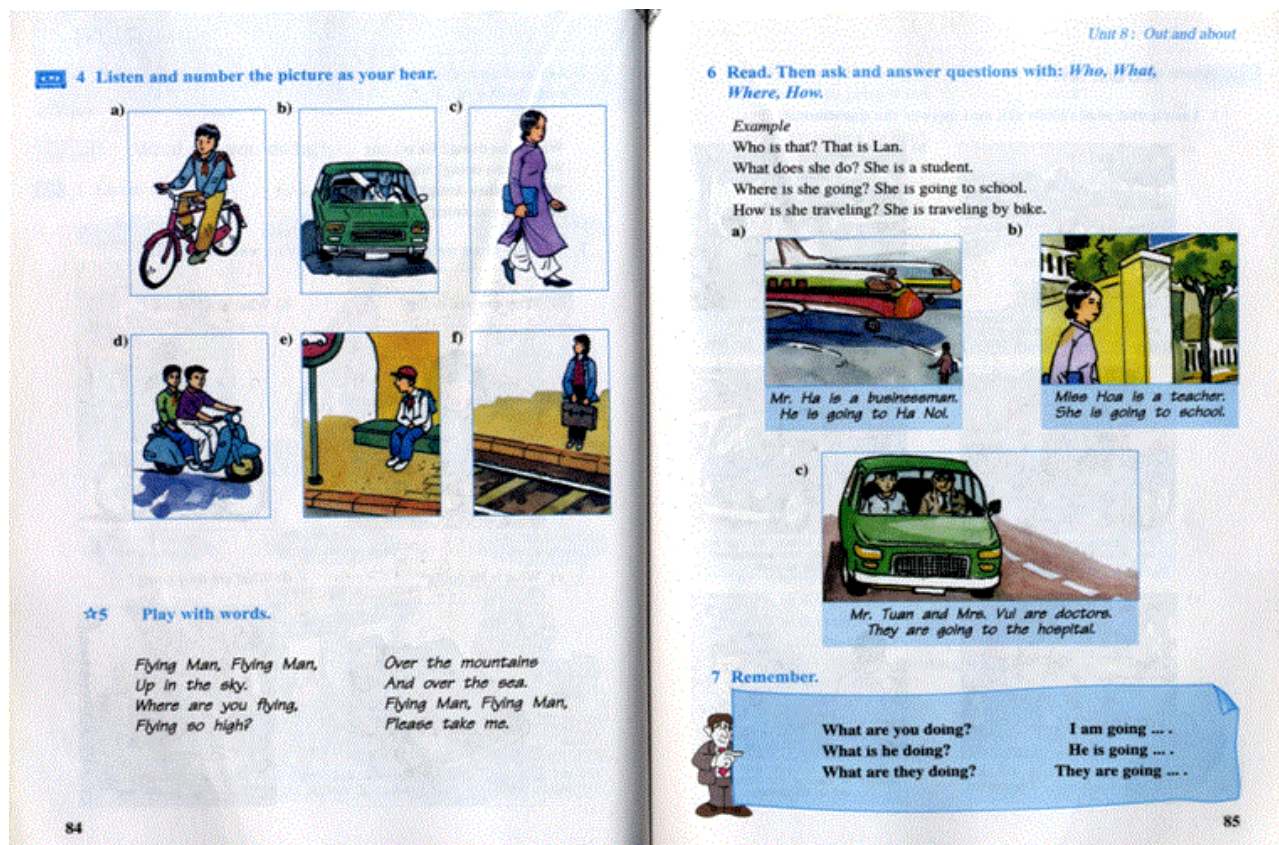


Figure 2: Illustration of activities and tasks in **English 6** (Nguyen et al., 2006, pp. 82-85)

Among the four above-mentioned components of communicative competence suggested by Canale (1983), it is easy to recognize that grammatical competence could be obtained through activities and tasks in **English 6** as each section in every lesson usually began with ‘Listen and repeat’ which actually introduces vocabulary, pronunciation and spelling, and structures to learners. Also, in this part learners have time to practice what they have been introduced to. Sociolinguistic competence, however, is not directly perceived in each activity and task. Social contexts (the place where the conversations took place, the relationship of interlocutors, etc..) are not clearly stated, they are only recognized through pictures or topics of the lessons. One more drawback of the social contexts in the activities and tasks in the textbook is that all of them and pictures describing them are Vietnamese ones. This may cause some problems in language use when learners are in their real-life communication, especially when they use English with foreigners or outside Vietnam. The third and fourth components, discourse and strategic competence are not included in the textbook.

V. FINDINGS: TEACHERS’ AND STUDENTS’ VIEWS AND CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

A. Results of the Teachers’ and Students’ Evaluation on the Questionnaire

The findings from the questionnaires for learners show that the learners thought that they had enough practice for listening, speaking, reading and writing. The percentage was as follows: 69.0%, 85.7%, 88.9 and 70.0% respectively. The level of difficulty of them is relevant to learners as they just do the substitution in their practice usually in pairs to fulfill the requirements. Then there are some more challenging activities or tasks which ask learners to use their real information to practice in the textbook. However, there are not enough such challenging activities and tasks for learners to practice. In the workbook the activities and tasks are similar to those in the textbook in their form. The language used for instructions which precede each activity and task is simple, clear and rather easy for learners to follow. They are short commands (Listen and repeat; Listen and repeat. Then practice with a partner; Listen and read. Then answer the questions; Complete the dialogues, etc..). This is quite similar to the findings from the questionnaires when 70.2% of learners and 75% of instructors agreed that the difficulty of the activities and tasks was relevant at learners’ level. The instruction preceded each activity and task is clear and rather easy for learners to follow. It recurs many times in the textbook as well as in the workbook. Most of the learner participants (84.1%) thought that the instructions were clear and easy for them to follow to fulfill the activities and tasks.

With regard to the encouragement of learner interaction, it is affected by not only the level of difficulty, the distribution of the four language skills practice and the types but also the content of the activities and tasks. Tomlinson (1998) emphasizes that real communicative interaction in classroom can be achieved through:

- Information or opinion gap activities which require learners to communicate with each other and/or the teacher in order to close the gap (e.g. finding out what food and drink people would like at the class party);
- Post-listening and post-reading activities which require the learners to use information from the text to achieve a communication purpose (e.g. deciding what television programs to watch, discussing who to vote for, writing a review of a book or film);
- Creative writing and creative speaking activities such as writing a story or improvising a drama;
- Formal instruction given in the target language either on the language itself or on another subject. (Tomlinson, 1998, p. 15)

Based on the above-mentioned issues, it seems that *English 6* provides many of role-play activities and tasks, but most of them focus on accuracy (i.e., listen and repeat the dialogue, practice given dialogues with a partner, practice the dialogue with some substitutions given). The activities and tasks are deficient in many of the types of information gap and role-play activities which focus on fluency; creative writing and speaking and open-ended question discussions which help learners exchange, share information and express their opinions to engage them in truly meaningful and effective communication such as negotiation of meaning (see Table 1). This may cause the potential to be a serious problem in some teaching and learning contexts (Litz, 2006).

B. Classroom Observation

1. Description of the observed classrooms

Classroom observation was conducted to see the extent to which the textbook and its supporting resources influenced the teaching process and the extent to which it is suitable for the context. The teaching and learning context in this research is rather specific, as mentioned in 7.1. The classroom observation was conducted by the researcher and two other teachers at each school where the demonstration teaching took place.

Regarding the equipment in each classroom, all of the schools observed were similar. Nguyen, (2015) describes, each classroom was about 5m x 7m. There was a desk and a chair for the teacher located near the chalkboard. Two or four rows with six lines of tables and chairs were arranged in each classroom. There were no other props to assist the teaching and learning (computer, OHP, video, etc.) in the classrooms. If teachers wanted to use a cassette player, they had to take it from the school library or the teaching staff room. Two or four students shared a table and sat facing the chalkboard. The number of students in each class varied according to the area. In cities, there are up to 50 students in one class, but in rural areas there were some classes with fewer than 30 students. The classroom size, as mentioned above, became overcrowded when there were more than 30 students present. The number of students in the observed classes varied. Due to the number of students and the layout of the classroom, it was not easy to organize group work.

2. Classroom procedures

With reference to the eight demonstration teaching periods, five of the teachers began with checking the previous lesson. The other three began with warm-up and lead-in for the new lesson. In checking the previous lesson, the majority followed what had been guided in the seminars, focusing on the oral test, with two asking students to perform the dialogue in pairs in front of the class. The other two used the pictures in the textbook to ask students to describe people (people's jobs and appearance). In the remaining period, the teacher asked students to write some sentences to describe people's appearance in the pictures and in that way students were checked for their memorization or recitation as both the dialogues and pictures had already appeared in the previous lesson.

In conducting new lessons, all of the teachers seemed to follow the PPP technique consistently. In the presentation stage, they all utilized the pictures in the textbook and the accompanying set of pictures to introduce new language material to their students. However, they asked questions of the students, based on the pictures. In fact, they did not give the students time to exchange their knowledge with each other to answer the questions. None of the teachers posited questions or created situations for students to work together. In other words, teachers did not effectively elicit or exploit their students' prior knowledge about the study topic to encourage their contribution to the lesson. There was one period at a school in an urban area when the teacher took his students to the language lab to conduct a lesson there. This lab, in fact, was similar to other classrooms, except that it had a screen and a computer. Although the teacher used Powerpoint to conduct his lesson, this period was similar to others. One difference was that the teacher, instead of using the pictures, scanned and put them on slides, with some instructions copied from the textbook, to draw his students' attention to the lesson. Below are some illustrations which illustrate the presentation stage used by the majority of teachers in the demonstration teaching periods.

In teaching Lesson 10, Part B: Food and drink, the teacher asked his students, 'What do you usually eat?' then appointed some students to answer the questions. After some responses from the students, he used the pictures on page 108 to present new words to his students. He then read each new word, and asked them to repeat them as a group and individually. The structure was introduced to the students after they had finished practicing the vocabulary.

In teaching Lesson 11, Part A: 'At the store', the teacher used the pictures on page 114 to ask students to name the objects in the pictures in Vietnamese. She then introduced English equivalents, reading them and asking the students to repeat them as a group and individually. Having asked students to practice the vocabulary, she continued introducing the dialogue to her students, read it and asked the students to repeat it as a group chorally.

In the two illustrations above, we can see that the teachers were mostly active and the students were passive listeners who sometimes contributed to the lesson by answering the teachers' questions. Also, the teachers were at the center and

talked most. In the practice stage, it was somewhat different as the students talked much more than the teachers. The students were asked to practice the structure or conversation they had just studied, including some substitution drills as in the textbook, with their partners. At the end of this stage, the teachers asked some pairs to perform in front of the class. All teachers conducted this stage in the same way, following the guidance in the textbook without any supplement. This seemed to emphasize the control of the teachers and the textbook over their students in order to achieve accuracy through repetition and substitution drills.

In the textbook there are a few activities and tasks involving production, so if teachers want to proceed to the production stage in the classroom, they have to create practical situations themselves. Among the eight demonstration teaching periods, five of the teachers stopped at the practice stage, after their students had finished their practice with some substitutions. The other three proceeded to the production stage, and conducted it as follows:

In Lesson 12, Part B: 'At the canteen', after the students had finished practicing asking and answering the price of the given items in the pictures, the teacher asked them to practice in pairs to ask and answer questions about the price of items they possessed or some things they wanted to buy. Then he asked some pairs to perform in front of the class.

In Lesson 10, Part A: 'How do you feel?' After the students finished working in pairs, asking and answering questions about the feelings of people in the pictures, the teacher asked them to work in groups of three. One performed a mine to describe a feeling and the other two asked and answered about the other student's feeling. Some groups were then asked to perform in front of the class.

The two above descriptions show attempts by some teachers to create real opportunities for students to use the target language in communication in classroom situations. These are thought to help students develop confidence about their use of English in real life communication, especially when in similar situations to those practiced.

One more common element, together with that of PPP, was that all conducted their grammar presentation in a deductive way. They began with the presentation of the marker sentence, which contained the structure or grammatical point, summarized the grammatical points in formulas, and then explained the formation and usages to their students. After the explanation, they gave more examples to illustrate it. This way is considered to save time for teachers as they explain everything to their students. However, students do not have much opportunity to make contributions to the lesson in situations like this so they become quite passive learners.

3. Consensus on the classroom observation sheet

Regarding the lesson summary sheets, the data obtained from the observers is presented below.

In the teacher speaking time, there were six out of the eight periods in which the teachers spent some of the time talking (30%) in the class. Students were encouraged to work mainly with their partners to practice speaking in the form of role-play in the given dialogues (repetition and substitution) and free practice/production. In the remaining two, teachers spent most of the time speaking (over 70%) in the class, with little time for students to work together to practice speaking.

Moving to command of English, four were thought to have a strong command of English and the other four had a fairly strong command. Seven used the mother tongue some of the time to translate language material. One of them used mother tongue most of the time: that is, after using English he translated into Vietnamese. For the instructions, regardless of whether the teachers used English or Vietnamese or combined both English and Vietnamese, their instructions were assessed to be clear enough for students to follow.

Although students' talking time occupied some of the time in the class, students used English most of the time, as they were asked to practice with their partners or perform a task in front of the class. However, their talk seemed to be restricted to repetition or substitution.

In terms of the degree of textbook use and the use of teaching aids, the majority of the teachers (seven out of eight) used only the textbook and followed it most of the time. Only one of them supplemented the teaching period with a creative task. In fact, this teacher created a free practice (production) stage and asked students to undertake it. As the lessons were mostly based on the textbook, none used group work in their teaching. Six of them used pair work and the rest used individual work only. The use of teaching aids in the classroom was thought to be appropriate by the observers, but a little bit boring, as they all used the set of larger pictures than those in the textbook. Teaching aids were used to present new language material, meanings of words and controlled practice. Three used a cassette player to teach listening, but mostly for the purpose of presentation, not as the focus of the lesson.

In general, classroom observation indicated that the teachers followed the textbook and the teacher's manual most of the time in the classroom. There was little creativity applied to the teaching to make the lesson more interesting and flexible. The students' use of the target language was limited as they practiced it mostly in controlled situations presented in the textbook. Their prior knowledge of the lesson was not exploited effectively to enable students to contribute more fully to the lesson. Both the textbook and the way the teachers conducted the lesson seemed to follow PPP. However, the production stage was limited, so students had few opportunities to practice the target language communicatively.

C. Suggestions for Improvement from the Teachers and Students

The strengths weaknesses of the activities and tasks in *English 6* and its accompanying workbook have been recognized in the previous parts. The suggestions for improving the activities and tasks in them were collected from the questionnaires for both the instructors and learners. Among eight teachers and 126 students participated in the research,

six suggestions were given by five of the instructors (63%) and 34 learners (27%) gave 34 suggestions for improvement. They are combined and presented as follows.

With regard to the suggestions from the students for improvement, their 34 suggestions can be divided into four themes. The first theme is the layout of the activities and tasks. The majority of the learners' suggestions (52.9%) wanted to have space after each activity and task to finish them directly in their textbook if long answers are required. The reason for this focus is that they may feel it easier and more comfortable to have the answers directly after the questions. The following sentences are cited from their suggestions: *'We do not have any space to write down our answers in some activities and tasks.'* (English translation), *'Space should be provided after the activities and tasks which require long answers.'* (English translation). The second theme is types of the activities and tasks. 26.5% of the learners' suggestions wanted to have more activities and tasks under game types (i.e., Play with words, Picture quiz, etc.), *'I want more activities and tasks in which we can study through games so that we can compete with each other.'* (English translation). The third theme focused on the level of difficulty. 17.6% of them wanted the activities and tasks to be easier to make sure slow learners could practice and finish them. The remaining percentage also focused on types of the activities and tasks, but they suggested having activities and tasks in which they work in groups to practice with each other. It can be inferred from the suggestions that they mainly focus on form of the activities and tasks. This is quite parallel with Cameron's (2001) theory on young learners of English. Students at that age, according to her, are lively and enthusiastic but can lose interest easily. So they need various types of activities and tasks to help them avoid turning off.

The six suggestions from the instructors in the questionnaire seem to support the students' ones. In fact, they are similar to those of the students' in field of the themes they focused. Three suggestions asked for more group work activities as they would help maintain learners' interest and make them involve in classroom interaction more. One of them wrote that, *'There should be group work activities to create opportunities for learners to work with many different members in their class.'* (English translation). One suggested adding more 'free practice' activities to help learners familiarize themselves in real communication writing that, *'I think the authors should make more activities and tasks in which learners can use their real information to communicate with each other.'* (English translation). Two suggestions focusing on the level of difficulty from the instructors were similar to those of the learners'. One of them mentioned that, *'Some of my students cannot finish some activities or tasks, they should be a little bit easier.'* (English translation).

The suggestions for improvement collected in the interviews with the teachers were more diverse. They focused on types of activities and tasks, level of difficulty and distribution of four language skills. Three suggestions asked for easier tasks to motivate weak students to involve in classroom activities. Six of them wanted to have more group activities and tasks which can help students share their opinions with each other. In other words, they wanted students to talk and exchange their ideas to each other in order to complete an activity or a task. The remaining focused on the supplement of specific skill practicing, but the specific skills they suggested were different from each other. One asked for more reading activities and tasks, one for listening and writing, one for speaking and the last one just asked for more tasks.

In general, the above-mentioned suggestions seem to be very general and do not focus much on the content of the activities and tasks. Although the activities and tasks are deficient in information gap; role-play; creative writing and speaking and open-ended question discussions, no suggestions related to these issues were made. In addition, there is also lack of free practice and productive practice in which students produce something new from what they have learnt.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

In short, this paper has indicated that textbooks do not always provide adequate source of activities and tasks for learners to practice to develop their communicative competence.

Another argument this study has mentioned is that not all textbook developers can introduce activities and tasks which introduce more authentic material and contexts and encourage learner interaction among learners in classroom to prepare them for effective communication in real life.

From the above conclusions, Nguyen (2015) suggests that:

In teaching, teachers should:

1. Be flexible at the presentation stage when introducing new language material, to make it more open with more pupil involvement, allowing pupils to recall their background knowledge.
2. Extend the practice stage in each section to free practice in which pupils can use the target language more freely after controlled practice. This provides learners with opportunities to use the target language.
3. Use additional material such as picture stories, comic strips, etc. in some units to motivate learners to study, as young learners at this age should study a foreign language through interesting visual aids and activities (Cameron, 2003).

In research:

The present research study focused on the context of English language teaching and learning in specific provinces (Mekong Delta) of Vietnam. It also involves only theoretical evaluation and evaluation voices from teachers and students only.

The voices of the textbook authors, parents and other stakeholders (teacher trainers, school head teachers, etc.) are also important in the textbook evaluation process, so they should be involved in further research.

Further research should also use focus group interviews, discussions or informal talks for both teachers and students to enhance the quality of the data.

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Approaches to World Englishes Print Media

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Abstract—This article provides a study of important frameworks expected to interpret and analyse World Englishes print media (newspapers). It is clear that the frameworks of Kachruvian and Strevens initially theorize print media and lexical borrowing. This leads to the introduction of numerous paradigms and ideas suggested by other prominent theorists about the World Englishes news media perspective. All in all, a summary of such frameworks contributes to building distinct approaches to the print media of World Englishes.

Index Items—approaches, world Englishes print media, the Kachruvian framework

I. INTRODUCTION

Most of the research on World Englishes in the media focuses on news discourse (e.g. printed news) and advertising (Martin, 2019, p. 553). Since the most famous approach to World Englishes, specifically ‘Concentric Circles of English’, was officially founded in 1985 (Kachru, 1985), Kachru himself and his successors (e.g. Strevens, 1987; Y, Kachru, 1987; Nelson, 1988; Smith, 1992) and other scholars (McArthur, 1998; Schneider, 2007; Trudgill and Hannah, 2008; Leitner, 2012) formed several frameworks for learning English in non-Anglophone contexts. No theorists, except for Kachru, seem to propose frameworks comprising three World Englishes fields- linguistics, literature and pedagogy. Even though focus on these three aspects of English studies traces Kachru’s approach, only the linguistic domain seems the most exceptional. The linguistic and pedagogical disciplines of World Englishes have frequently been expressed in a range of research on aspects of linguistic characteristics, lexicon in use, and English teaching-learning in Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, and the South Pacific. In proposing the concept of World Englishes, Kachru's approach to World Englishes points to non-native English linguistics. A number of his supporters have supported this idea through various paradigms provided with theoretical perspectives aimed at exploring linguistic works and their related artistic products produced by non-Anglo English users.

Based on the disciplines varying from structural linguistics, sociolinguistics, textual and discourse studies, gender and media studies to communication, the concept of World Englishes print media has been formed. These multidisciplinary factors motivate a canon of media studies of World Englishes. This paper expects to depict the key ideas and standards as well as theoretical structures that form ‘World Englishes print media’ in order to understand the significance of this concept and its application. It also illustrates the strengths of these approaches in other comparative empirical studies. This account will thus enrich an incisive recognition of the print media of World Englishes as a substitute field of linguistic research.

Before certain frameworks are to be explained by key scholars, their diagrammatic illustration needs to be shown as follows for an outline:

Scholars	Framework(s)/Paradigm(s) for World Englishes Print Media(Newspapers)
Braj. B. Kachru	<i>Models of Non-native Englishes (1983a), Contextualisation and Lxical Innovation (1983a), Three Concentric Circles of English (1985; 1992a); Bilingual Creativity and Contact Literature (1986; 1987) and Transcultural Crativity in World Englishes and Literary Canons (1995)</i>
Peter Strevens	<i>Local Forms of English (1977, 1980; 1982 and 1985); the World Map of English (1980)</i>
Edgar Schneider	<i>Dynamic Model of Postcolonial English (2007); Linguistic Aspects of Nativisation (2007)</i>
Tom McArthur	<i>Circle Model of World Englishes (1987)</i>
Gerhard Leitner	<i>Habitat Model (2004a/b)</i>
Trudgill and Hanna	<i>Varieties of Standard English (1982)</i>

Figure 1.1: Frameworks for ‘World Englishes print media’ by key scholars

II. KACHRU’S APPROACH TO WORLD ENGLISHES

The Kachruvian approach to World Englishes media is the strongest, as it includes a wide range of structures such as various styles of mass media, national identity, linguistic structures, and functional uses. Kachru's four World Englishes standards reinforce the approach of this study. Each is described as follows:

A. *Models of Non-native Englishes*

Kachru's (1983a) states, since both the number of English users and the level of English usage are increasing, non-native English varieties are emerging. Models of non-native Englishes are presented through the *types, development* and *functions* framework.

If we look at the global spectrum of English as a non-native language, we can clearly divide the non-native uses of English into two broad categories, namely, the performance varieties and the institutional varieties. Initially, performance varieties include essentially those varieties which are used as *foreign* languages. Identification modifiers, such as *Japanese English* or *Iranian English*, are indicative of geological or national performance characteristics. The performance varieties of English have a highly restricted functional range in specific contexts; for example, those of tourism, commerce, and other international transactions (Kachru, 1992, p. 55). The institutional second language varieties have a long tradition of acculturating new geographic and cultural situations; they have a wide range of local, educational, administrative, and legal functions. The result of such uses is that such varieties have created nativized types of discourse and style, and functionally defined sublanguages (registers), that are used in different genres as a linguistic device for media studies. We find such uses of English on almost every continent, for example, in Nigeria, Kenya, the Republic of South Africa, and Ghana in Africa; Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka in South Asia; and the Philippines, Singapore, and Malaysia in Southeast Asia (Kachru, 1990, p. 19). According to Kachru (1992), an institutionalized variety always begins as a variety of performance, with unique features gradually offering it another status. Two systems seem to operate concurrently in creating non-native models: the attitudinal system, and the linguistic system. Attitudinally, a majority of L2 speakers should identify with the modifying label that marks a model's non-nativity: for instance, Indian English speakers, Lankan English speakers and Ghanaian English speakers. In linguistic terms, it is usual that a part of the lexicon would be nativized in two ways in a range. On the one hand, the native items will be used to contextualize the language in localized registers and styles. English lexical objects, on the other hand, may have gained, expanded or confined semantic markers. The cycle then extends to other language levels (pp. 55-56).

Moreover, Kachru (1992b) has highlighted that non-native institutionalized varieties of English have developed through several phases. There is a non-recognition of the local variety at the initial level, and conscious identification with the native speakers. An 'imitation model' at this stage is elitist, powerful, and perhaps politically advantageous, because it recognizes a person with the 'inner circle speaker'. The second stage is related to extensive diffusion of bilingualism in English, which slowly leads to the development of varieties within variety. South Asian is a prime example of that attitude. Typical Indian (Indianized) English was used at actual performance. The third stage begins when the non-native variety is slowly accepted as the norm, thereby reducing the division between linguistic norms and behaviour. The last phase seems to be the one of recognition. This recognition can manifest in two ways; attitudinally, firstly, and second, the teaching materials are *contextualized* in the native sociocultural milieu.

Similarly, Kachru (1992b) point out the sociolinguistic profile of English in South Asia via the following four functions: (i) the *instrumental function*; (ii) the *regulative function* (iii) the *interpersonal function* and (iv) The imaginative/innovative function concerns the use of English in different literary genres. The non-native English users have demonstrated great creativity in using the English language in 'un-English' contexts in that function. Those functional uses also expand to range and depth. The term 'range' means English being extended into different social, cultural, commercial and educational contexts. The wider the range, the greater the variety of uses. By 'depth' we mean the penetration of English-knowing bilingualism to various societal levels.

B. *Contextualization and Lexical Innovation*

Kachru (1983b, pp. 99-127) suggests contextualization and lexical innovation as a framework for new Englishes analysis. The word 'contextualization' adopted from the 'Firthian Framework of Linguistic Science' (1957). This definition was used to examine Indian English (IE) contextualization from creative writing about four forms of lexicogrammatical transition. Such types include: lexical transfers (loans), translations (established equivalent L1-L2 items), shifts (adaptation of items in L1 to L2), and calques (rank-bound translation). Other types of transfer are speech and collocation functions (cited in Bennui, 2013, p. 62).

For lexical innovation, only two from South Asian (SA) Englishes are mentioned (Kachru, 1975, pp. 60-72; 1983b, pp. 152-162)- single items (shifts and loan translation) and hybrid items. By shifts, Kachru means those items which are adaptations of underlying formal items from South Asian languages which provide the source for the South Asian English item. A loan translation includes a structured equality between an item in South Asian language and SAE. These objects are to be sub-grouped into two extra classifications. First of all, there are certain items that have formed part of the English language lexical inventory and are found in both in British and American English, and thus can be considered 'assimilated items'. In British English, the borrowing of South Asian objects is greater than in American English for cultural, political and administrative purposes. Secondly, there are certain elements which were not originally included in the dictionaries of the native English varieties, yet have a recurrence in different registers of SAE.

For the first sort, Kachru, utilized the terms ‘non-restricted lexical items’ (or ‘assimilated items’) and the second sort, ‘restricted lexical items’. The first are ‘non-restricted’ as in they do not happen just in SAE. An investigation of these lexical things reveals that only a couple of South Asian words have discovered their way into the native English varieties. Then again, SAE writing, especially in Journalism, uses considerably more. The borrowing of lexical things from south Asian dialects into SAE does not appear to be arbitrary; these are register-restricted and might be grouped by their semantic areas. Those lexical items which are restricted to SAE and which are frequently used in SAE writing (especially in journalism) provide an interesting example of the ‘distinctiveness’ of SAE at the lexical level. The later sort (hybridization) is featured as the significant agent of loanwords. Hybridization is one of SAE’s data-oriented lexical developments of taxonomic research. A hybridized lexical thing is a lexical thing included at least two components, of which at least one is from a South Asian language and one is from English. As indicated to Kachru (1975), the advancement of SAE vocabulary has been practised more than 200 years of managerial, social, cultural, political and instructive contact with the English-speaking world. This component of SAE is hence fascinating both from the purpose of language acculturation and from that of contact with the language.

Overall, Kachru points to these features as a model for studying vocabulary in other Englishes in literary and non-literary texts (Kachru, 1983). Obviously, this framework could serve as a model for analyzing and interpreting contextualization and creativity of lexical items of any other Englishes print media (newspapers).

C. Three Concentric Circles of English

The most compelling model of English spreading has without a doubt been that of Kachru (1992) that is a three-circle model. Following the three-way categorization (e.g., ENL, ESL & EFL), Kachru partitions World Englishes into three focused circles, namely the inner circle, the outer circle and the expanding circle. The three parameters reflect the sorts of spread, acquisition trends and the functional assignment of English in different cultural settings (Jenkins, 2003) which are described below:

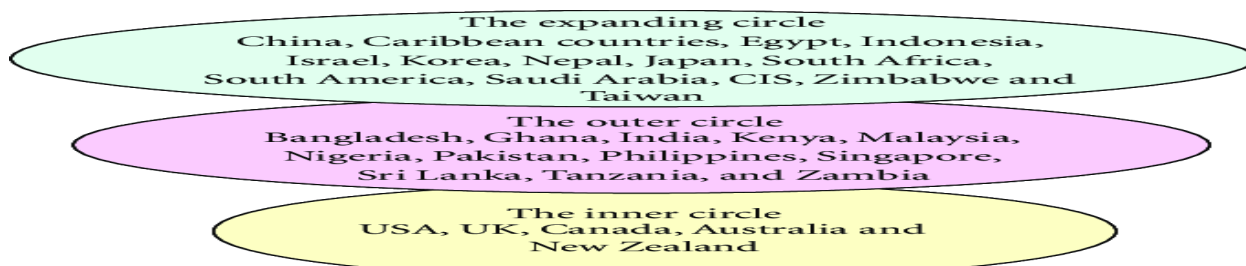


Figure 2.1: Kachru’s three concentric circles of English (Kachru, 1992a, p. 356)

Referring to figure 2.1, the ‘three circles’ model is usually portrayed graphically as three partially overlapping ovals and the expanding circle is situated at the top. The model represents the dispersion of English from the local nations to non-local ones by a segment of the populace. The English language is migrated to the US, Australia, Canada and New Zealand from Great Britain. English is named Native English Varieties in such countries. Kachru (1992a, p. 356) refers to the ENL countries (the inner circle) as ‘the traditional culture and linguistic bases of English’. This circle is called ‘norm-provider’. Traditionally, the British variety was accepted as the oldest model, and it is very recently that the American model has been presented as an alternative system. These two models give local standards (native norms) to Australia, Canada and New Zealand English. The outer (or extended) circle encompasses prior periods of English spread. Its acceptance takes place in non-native settings, so it is termed the institutional English Varieties in Asia, Africa and the South Pacific. These varieties have carried through long periods of colonization, each involving linguistic, political and sociocultural explanations. Statistically, the outer circle shapes a broad group of speech network with great variety and unique features. In ESL countries that are using these varieties, there have been conflicts between linguistic norms and linguistic behaviour. As a result, this circle merits the word ‘norm-developing’ as the provincial standards (norms) are constructed on the basis of exonormative and endonormative standards (norms). The provincial standards (regional norms) have been creating since being embedded by the British and American models in the frontier time frame. The Expanding Circle includes those areas where the varieties of performance are being used. Understanding the function of English in this circle requires a recognition of the fact that English is a global language. Nevertheless, English uses tend to be greater in number than different circles like those of China, Russian and Indonesia. The geological neighbourhoods presented as the extending circle do not really have a background marked by colonization by the clients of the internal circle. This circle right now extends quickly and has led to various English varieties of implementation (or EFL) (Kachru and Quirk, 1981). It is the users of that circle who definitely reinforce the cases of English as a global or standardized language. Kachru (2006) also mentions that in the pedagogical literature, in popular literature (e.g., in newspapers) and in power elite circles, only the inner circle varieties are considered ‘norm makers’; the other two are treated as the ‘norm breakers’. Indeed, in the inner circle alone, a particular elite class is regarded as ‘norm-makers’ or emulation models (Kachru, 2006; Jenkins, 2003). The media set positive standards for the acquisition of English around the Inner, Outer and Expanding Circles of users (Moody, 2020).

D. Bilingual Creativity and Contact Literature

Kachru (1990) highlights that the English language shows typical characteristics of a “mixed” language development in its layer after layer of borrowings, adaptations, and various levels of language contact. The term ‘contact literature’ refers to the literature written by users of English as a second language to delineate contexts which generally do not form part of what may be labelled “the traditions of English literature” (African, Malaysian, and Indian and so on). These kinds of literature are “a product of multicultural and multilingual speech communities”. Contact literatures have two faces: their own faces and the face they acquire by the linguistic contact with another language and society. The degree of contact with other language (s) determines the degree of impact at various linguistic levels. There are several examples in such literatures in English in South Asian languages (e.g., in Hindi and Persian in India). Contact literatures are “a product of multicultural and multilingual speech communities” (pp. 160-161).

According to Kachru (1990), bilingual’s creativity (the bilingual’s grammar) refers to the productive processes at the different linguistic levels which a bilingual uses for various linguistic functions. Bilingual creativity and contact literature framework (Kachru, 1986; 1987) conveys four characteristics of a bilingual writer’s linguistic and literary creativity. This creativity is not merely to see it as a formal combination of two or more language structures, but also as a development of cultural, aesthetic, societal and literary standards (norms). Indeed, there is a unique setting for this creativity.

The framework is the pioneering approach to find out contact literature in relation to lexical borrowing of print media. Kachru (1990) further mentions that this literary text has a distinguishing feature; the altered ‘meaning systems’ is the collection of different linguistic procedures, such as nativisation of context, cohesion and cohesiveness, and rhetoric techniques highlighting the features of such literary text. The lexicalization includes direct lexical exchange as well as different items, for example, hybridization and translation of loans. Such English lexical objects have more than one explanatory background: they have a second language (English) surface ‘meaning’ and an underlying ‘meaning’ of the first (or dominant) language (pp. 165-166). Linguistic thought patterns tend to manifest the bilingual’s creativity on lexical borrowing, as seen in English newspapers worthy of analysis under this framework.

III. STREVENS APPROACH TO WORLD ENGLISHES

Local Forms of English

Peter Stevens was one of those singled out by Prator for opprobrium; and it is obviously true that during his academic career, Stevens consistently argued for a variety-based approach to TESL and TEFL (see Stevens, 1977, 1980, 1985). Both his 1977 book *New Orientations in the Teaching of English* and his 1980 volume *Teaching English as an International Language* gave substantial coverage to what he glossed as “Localized Forms of English” (LFEs), arguing that:

“In ESL areas where local L2 forms have developed and where they command public approval, it is these forms which constitute the most suitable models for use in schools, certainly more suitable than a British or American L1 model . . . the native speaker of English must accept that English is no longer his possession alone: it belongs to the world, and new forms of English, born of new countries with new communicative needs, should be accepted into the marvellously flexible and adaptable galaxy of “Englishes” which constitute the English language” (Stevens, 1980, p. 90 as cited in Bolton, 2006, p. 253).

Furthermore, Stevens (1977) has highlighted that local forms of English are easier to exemplify than to define. They are two types: L1 (mother tongue) and L2 (foreign language) local forms. L1 local forms would include: Tyneside English; Cockney, Dublin English; South Wales English; West Indies English; Tristan da Cunha English; and so on. L2 local forms include: Scottish (Gaelic- speakers’) English; West African English; Singapore English, Samoan English; Phillippines English; a large number of different forms of Indian English; and many more. Together, the two variables discussed above to determine a given ‘form of English’. A definition of the term might be as follows: A form of English is that particular constellation of dialect and accent with a particular accompanying array of varieties, having affinities with either British or American English, which is currently in a given English-using community (p. 28).

In like manner, Stevens (1982) has referenced that Local Forms of English (LFEs) have created through five stages. LFEs happen since English has extended its users, applications and structures. Presently, there are more than non-local English users than local users. Stevens (1982) consequently partitions English users into three sorts, in particular *English-speaking countries* (ENL), *English-using countries* (ESL) and *Non-English-using countries* (EFL). In addition, English fills in as a vehicle for differing uses for non-native speakers—state-funded training, open organization, media, science and new writing. Moreover, LFEs that infiltrate numerous English-using nations can be brought in various settings, for example, Singapore English (Stevens, 1980).

Furthermore, LFEs are further split into two groups. First, international forms of inter-type English or LFEs refer to the use of English by a limited number of individual users for contact with the outside world connect to science, technology, etc. This type is found in Japan and Brazil, and so on. Besides, it is based on independent native English model norms, so English speakers of this form try to be native-speaker-like. In the meantime, intranational type of intra-type English or LFEs include the use of English by a wide population within the group for intranational communication including in India and Singapore. This form holds an independent norm. (Stevens, 1982 as cited in Bennui, 2013, pp. 51-52).

In summary, LFEs emerge when the parent variety implemented English in non-Anglo communities, and they gradually evolved for intranational and international communication purposes, due to a large number of users. In addition, the salient characteristics of LFEs are defined through their parameters of defining and differentiation. Evidently, this paradigm could be a model of lexical items of any other Englishes.

IV. SIMILARITIES AND DISTINCTIVENESS AMONG THE APPROACHES

The Kachruvian framework is probably the most prominent one because of his concept on Concentric Circles in English (1985), which is worldwide marketed. This has been in controversy and concern of many writers and scholars. Hence, particular attention has also been given to his linguistic frameworks. In this analysis, the approaches share comparable qualities, which lead to their being adjusted. First of all, the spread of English specifically is structured by Kachru and Stevrens. Kachru denotes a wide range of English-using communities by means of the diagram; however, Stevrens uncovers branches of the parent variety in just ESL countries. Both, notwithstanding, emphasize the spread of English in non-native countries as opposed to in local ones. All theorists display the way a non-native variety develops in divergence to the parent variety. Secondly, Sorts of English developments are correspondingly categorized by Kachru and Stevrens. English-speaking countries (ENL) generate an Inner Circle country. The Outer-Circle matches the English-using countries (ESL). Besides, the Expanding Circle is analogous to non-English nations. Thirdly, Kachru and Stevrens initiate the comparative kinds of non-native norms. Stevrens's Intranational and international kinds of an LFE conform to the performance and institutional varieties of Kachru. Thus, the independent and dependent norms of these types of LFE are near to the norm-developing and norm-dependent types of Kachru. Fourthly, Due to the emphasis on scope and range of non-native English users, English functions are significantly moulded by Kachru. Four sorts of these functions look like the five English-language vehicles of Stevrens in differentiating parameters of an LFE.

This outline is evident that Kachru's remaining frameworks on World Englishes have been pointed out by many scholars around the world because of their analysis of multilayer linguistic and educational aspects of World Englishes – lexis, phonology, grammar, semantics, stylistics, discourse, and pedagogy. Moreover, they are designed to explore the features of Englishes expressed by more non-native users than native ones. The Stevrens framework for World Englishes media has fewer linguistic aspects compared with the Kachruvian approach. That is, it focuses more on non-native English writers' textual or stylistic, and socio-cultural components of literary work. Of this purpose, the framework of empirical research has been adopted and adapted by a few researchers. The approaches are distinguishable, since they encapsulate the concepts that are distinctive. First of all, Stevrens introduces strikingly the two concepts: localization and of the English language and non-Anglo cultural setting. The latter is described as localized English forms in which non-Anglo people use the local language elements. Ultimately, this analogy does not consciously resolve a discrepancy between the structures often applied in research articles. Alternatively, it illustrates a recent trend in and attention given to different structures for investigable functions.

V. WORLD ENGLISHES OTHER APPROACHES

Kachru's approach to *Cultural Contact and Literary Creativity in a multilingual Society* and *Transcultural Creativity in World Englishes and Literary Canons*; Schneider's approach to *the map of World Englishes*; Leitner's *Habitat Model* and Trudgill and Hanna's *Varieties of Standard English* are among other influential approaches to World Englishes that have inspired so many researchers are described below:

A. *Cultural Contact and Literary Creativity in a Multilingual Society*

Contact literature is outstanding in a multilingual community, since its main components integrate cultural and linguistic interaction. Kachru (1992) offers 'the trimodel approach to diversity' in that three fields- linguistics, sociolinguistics and literature are interconnected. Linguistic fields contain (1) the development of register; (2) the source for 'mixing' 'switching', as well as 'formal developments; at each linguistic level; and (3) the strategies for discourse and the structure of discourse, taking into account units as paraphrasing and punctuations. All of the above elements are found in Indian writings with Englishization in Indian languages. In such manner, code-mixing is featured to fill in as convergence and creativity notions, as in India. Indian English literature gives the workflows between English and Indian languages such as mixing Hindi and Punjabi borrowings in English phrases. This tends to make English a piece of the native vocabulary of discourses and cultures; in linguistic creative and innovative English and other languages are correspondingly organized. The conceptions of consciousness about identity and community appear in this paradigm.

B. *Transcultural Creativity in World Englishes and Literary Canons*

The nativisation of rhetoric techniques in the 'bilinguals' creativity and contact literature' is reached out to an examination of 'transcultural creativity' as portraying the process of translation, transfer and transcreation as effective stylistic instruments (Kachru, 1995). The transcreation cycle plays a significant role in literary creativity in the '*mother tongue*' (national writing interpreted into English) and in the '*other tongue*' (World writing written in English).

Kachru's hypotheses concentrate on transcultural innovation, with three forms of crossover embraced from Smith's (1992) research in relation to their core concepts. Firstly, the crossover within a speech fellowship applies to the

participants of a speech fellowship that have common underlying socio-cultural resources. While they demonstrate the mutual intelligibility, the linguistic resources of these members can be different. For instance, Indian Speakers from Punjabi, Hindi, and Kashmiri have communicated ‘regional English dialect and educated English’. This type corresponds to the concept of ‘intelligibility’ which relates to surface interpreting of a linguistic expression. Secondly, the crossover is apparent through literary and cultural discourse in the processes of Sanskritization, persianization, and Englishization in that area. This form fits the term ‘comprehensibility’ or interpretation of a text from a variety of English within the sense of another variety of situations. Finally, the crossover yields ‘interpretability’ notions. This shows up in another understanding or commentary to interpretations of sacrosanct messages like ‘the Bible or the Bhagawad Gita’ and so on.

In the literature of World Englishes, this stage implies reincarving English into the local culture (Kachru, 1995). Hence, all types crossover they are grounded in the translation, transfer and transcreation processes of multilingual writers which will be helpful for interpreting World Englishes media studies.

C. *Stevens’ the World Map of English*

Numerous LFEs have emerged, however, each LFE is related with one of two significant branches: British English and American English -- which is the English family settled as ‘the World Map of English’ (1980), the most established guide of English spread, as appeared in the accompanying chart:

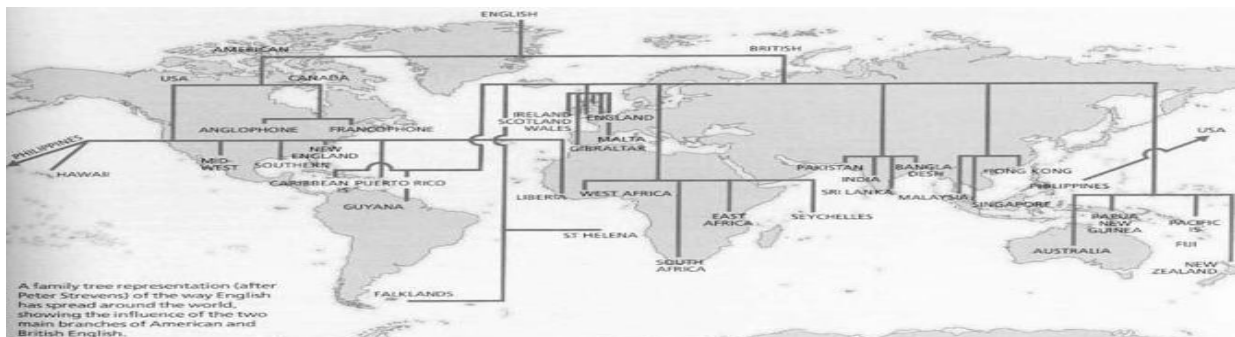


Figure 4.1: Stevens map of World Englishes (Stevens, 1980, p. 86)

The model imposes a branching diagram on a projection of the world by Mercator. It was first published in 1980 in *Teaching English as an International Language* by, Oxford: Pergamon Press. The model shows nicely how and where English speakers are located around the world. The British applied linguist Peter Stevens formulated a map-and-branch model (1980). This approach employs a map of the world on which appears an inverted-tree diagram resembling the branching models of Indo-European. The Stevens approach has both synchronic and diachronic implications, its taxonomy recalling Darwin while its cartography points to the current global situation. Stevens divides English into a *British English Branch* and an *American English Branch*, making them first equal in the pecking order and, in effect, the mothers of the rest, with British having daughters in Africa, the Caribbean, South Asia, and Australia, and America in the Caribbean and Asia (McArthur, 1998, p. 95). The oldest map of English spreading is the World Map of English by Stevens.

D. *McArthur’s Circle Model of World Englishes*

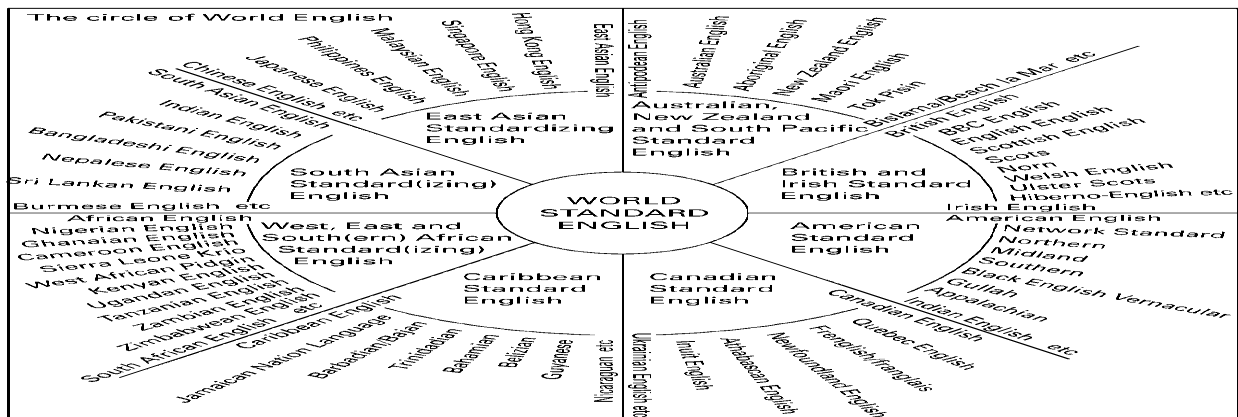


Figure 4.2: Tom McArthur’s Circle of World English (McArthur, 1987, p. 97).

Tom McArthur’s wheel model showed up in July 1987 in *English Today*. One way of representing the unity and diversity of the English speaking world is the Circle of World English (McArthur, 1987). It has a wheel with a hub,

spokes, and rim. The centre (hub) is known as World Standard English. It contains regional varieties within an encircling band (McArthur, 1998). The idea of World English is placed at the centre, imagined as a 'common core'. Around it appears the various regional or national standards, either established or becoming established ('standardizing'). On the outside are examples of the wide range of popular Englishes which exist. Each boundary line could provoke an argument, as the author acknowledges, but the overall perspective is illuminating. A small selection of heads of state or government symbolizes the way Standard English is used worldwide in public roles (Crystal, 2003, p. 111).

E. Schneider's Approach to World Englishes

It was Edgar Schneider (2003) who developed a fully-fledged substitute to the Three Circles of Kachru. In reality, Schneider's 'Postcolonial English Evolution Dynamic Model' (2007), derived from the 'Dynamic Model of New English Evolution' (2003), explores cyclical English development processes in former British/American colonies. Additionally, the Dynamic model delineates how the histories and ecologies will decide language structures in the various English varieties, and how linguistic and social personalities are kept up. To be sure, this model is structured with the thought of Thomason's (2001) *language contact* and *the language evolution ecology* of Mufwene (2001).

Schneider maintained that developments could be clustered into stages and were associated with two (or more) strands of communities, which ultimately followed a consensual path. So, there are two main features to this approach. First, five basic steps relate to (i) foundation, (ii) exonormative stabilization, (iii) nativisation, (iv) endonormative stabilization, and (v) four-parameter differentiation.. Second, the two communicative viewpoints as encountered in these processes by the main parties of agents apply to the colonizer or settler or 'STL strand' and the colonized or indigenous or 'IDG strand'. Each step is depicted beneath:

Figure 4.3 illustrates the five stages in a simple flow chart.



Figure 4.3: Dynamic Model of Postcolonial English (Adapted from Schneider, 2007)

F. Linguistic Aspects of Nativisation

Nativisation is the most influential phase in Schneider's model when it moves from a dependence on a variety of parent to a non-native variety initiation. In this way, Schneider (2007, pp. 71-90) presents linguistic aspects of nativisation at phonological, lexical and grammatical stages. Etymologically, the vocabulary of Postcolonial English PE includes four formal nativisation processes as continues follow: (i) loanwords from native languages (ii) hybridization (iii) coinages and (iv) semantic changes. In general, such lexical nativisation procedures typically reflect the development of English in postcolonial countries.

G. Leitner's Habitat Model

Through there is an impressive research history behind the *Habitat Model*, it was developed independently in Leitner (2004a/b) and applied to the language situation in Australia. One of the central objectives of the study of Australia's language habitats was to develop an integrative approach or, as ecologists put it, a 'holistic approach'. The objectives of this model can be mentioned as 'an attempt to demonstrate how all communities fit in a general platform'. One must ignore sectionalizing and disregarding common characteristics, while at the same time giving differences due weight (Leitner, 2004a). All in all, this analysis considers and helps to balance key factors that influence an English development phenomenon in a bi/multilingual community (Leitner, 2010).

H. Trudgill and Hanna's, Varieties of Standard English

Trudgill and Hanna's (1982) *Varieties of Standard English* visualizes native varieties of Standard English that depend on the British and American sorts as far as lexis, sentence structure, articulation and orthography.

Trudgill and Hannah's International English ([1982] 1994) is an expansion of a previous study by Haghes and Trudgill (1979), titled English accents and dialects, that included tape recordings, interpretations and a short linguistic review of a number of highly vernacular British urban dialects London, Walsall, Bristol, Pontypridd, Norwich, Bradford, Newcastle Liverpool, Bedfast, Edinburgh, among many others. However, there are a lot of inconsistencies between the International English and the previous volume. All so predominating are sections concerned with 'inner-circle varieties, with somewhere in the range of 100 pages in the most recent version designated to 'native-speaker varieties, and 30 dedicated to creoles and second-language varieties. The effects of this book through the World has been meaningful, both as a framework for methodology as well as for sociolinguistic teaching methods and coursework in World Englishes (Bolton, 2006).

Overall, this chapter has provided an overview of Kachru's and Strevens' approaches to World Englishes. Others have also been mentioned. In the study and interpretation of lexical borrowing features in World English print media,

all the adopted and adapted definitions theorized by the scholars are very crucial to fulfilling the integrated approach. Although Schneider's *the World Map*, McArthur's *Circle of World English*, Leitner's *Habitat Model* and Trudgill and Hanna's *Varieties of Standard English* approaches are not applied to this study directly, their significant works are nevertheless acknowledged by many other researchers.

VI. CONCLUSION

As seen in a wide range of studies focused on the concepts and principles, the Kachruvian model for World Englishes news media is obviously also the most influential. Works of other scholars are not normally used. Furthermore, although this has been commonly known to researchers all over the world, it is not fair to study just the Kachruvian model. Therefore, this paper urges the scientific community to pay close attention to such mass media structures as alternatives to their World Englishes media analysis. This will boost the growth of World Englishes mass media research. All frameworks are significant as documented in this paper. These are certainly a lively representation of ongoing meanings, complexities and dimensions, as well as approaches and methods for interpreting and researching the news media of World Englishes. Our analyses and summaries here should encourage researchers searching for applications for our analytical or argumentative studies.

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The Impact of Consciousness Raising and Communicative Tasks on Fluency and Accuracy during Interaction within Saudi Secondary School Students

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Abstract—This study investigated the effect of collaborative tasks on language performance, with a focus on fluency and accuracy. Three groups of Saudi learners of English in a secondary school were given either awareness raising tasks, meaning-based activities or a combination. Quantitative data collected from 72 Saudi learners of English and then analysed to answer the research questions. The test results were analysed for speech fluency, written fluency, accuracy and lexical richness to provide quantitative measures of any improvement over the three test periods. Consideration was also given to language related episodes (LREs), i.e. pauses, repetitions and self-correction to identify changes during the interactions. The results indicated that there was an improvement in both fluency and accuracy. In addition, there is a likely significant benefit of encouraging interaction amongst peers during a task-based learning approach, particularly when there is a combination of CT and CR tasks, when compared to one task type. The findings underline the relationship between classroom interaction and practice and improvements in fluency and accuracy. This is important due to the increasing view that in the teaching of EFL, fluency is being neglected despite its importance in achieving communicative competence as Tavakoli and Hunter (2018) noted. As a result of the findings we argue that Saudi secondary school EFL classes should place a greater emphasis on TBL and interaction, combining both consciousness raising and communicative tasks to maximise the improved benefits seen in this study.

Index Terms—consciousness-raising, communicative tasks, interaction, fluency, accuracy

I. INTRODUCTION

The benefits of collaborative learning, i.e. interaction, are considered to be a fostering of social connections and encouragement of student engagement in class activities (Han, 2014; Shehadeh, 2011). These identified benefits have contributed to the rise in adoption of a task-based learning (TBL) approach although there is a need to determine whether consciousness raising (CRT) or communication tasks (CT) deliver the most promising outcomes for students. Certainly, problem solving tasks are considered to be a highly effective way to introduce and encourage collaboration and interaction leading to identification and correction of errors that might not occur in a more passive teaching environment. We therefore believe that introducing the idea and practice of collaborative learning into the Saudi school environment, will demonstrate the benefits to learners of both using CT and CRT tasks.

This study examined learner outcomes using these CRT and CT tasks with Saudi learners of English. We first provide a theoretical and methodological overview of previous research into task-based learning, interaction, fluency and language related episodes. This is followed by a description of our research procedures and a presentation of the findings. Next, we discuss the results of our research with reference to psycholinguistic processes of L2 speech production and perception. We conclude our paper by highlighting the benefits of the task types and the interaction and outlining future directions for research.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Nature of Collaborative Interactions*

Research into task-based learning suggests that when students work collaboratively, each individual learner brings their own knowledge and perceptions and speaking style into the group meaning there may be divergent views and various levels of knowledge and interaction styles (de Jong et al., 2015). The interaction is a convergence of these factors which enable sharing of knowledge and collaboration for task resolution. Again, this reflects on the process of learning as a social practice, and may involve a number of strategies related to students' own personalities and speaking styles. These include assertiveness, or domination of others, acquiescence from silent students or more passive members of the group. Puntambekar (2006) suggests an ideal collaborative group make-up is one where there is reciprocal sense making of the task and its required outcomes and components. This entails moving from disagreement to assimilation

and finally to the construction of new understanding through discussion and negotiation about the task and its requirements. Longer term, the aim is that the shared knowledge creation increases with familiarity amongst group members and the generation of new understanding of the requirements of the L1 (Hmelo-Silver, Chernobilsky & Jordan, 2008).

This development of shared understanding and increased knowledge is reflected in the language produced during and after the collaborative process. Of particular interest is a potential conflict between the cognitive approach and the knowledge the individual students have in their heads, and the group sharing and interaction (Elliott & Zhang, 2019). However, when there is a need to consider developing both implicit and explicit knowledge of how language works and thus the ability to use it for a problem solving task; this conflict is not necessarily a major issue. The process of top down and bottom up learning means that whichever route is taken there is a need to match the linguistic knowledge and speaking style of the individual to contextual and situational knowledge and real world factual information regarding how language is used and thus applied to task resolution. When the cognitive and interactionist approaches are used together, a two-way link is created that enhances, through collaboration, the overall learning process and language production (Hinkel, 2006).

B. Collaborative Language Production

In terms of the language produced through the interaction, the intent is to encourage students to focus on the form of what is produced as a group. The collaborative nature of the task encourages group and individual awareness of knowledge gaps, that may be filled by shared information via discussion and exploration of forms (Nassaji & Tian, 2014). Furthermore, the discussions, collaborations and knowledge sharing increase awareness of the relationships that exist between function, form and word meaning during interaction in the TL, enhancing students metacognitive understanding of the nature of the L2 (Jong, 2009; Leiser, 2004). Moreover, the peer feedback during collaboration creates a cyclical approach to examining language knowledge and production, this in turn promotes the deeper understanding necessary for language proficiency. The view is that producing language collaboratively, rather than individually supports understanding of how language learning works, in a natural interactive way that is more reflective of real world situations (Kowal & Swain, 1994). This however is dependent on the effectiveness of the interactions, group dynamics and whether the speaking styles are complementary according to Trofimovich et al. (2019).

C. Group Interaction and Dynamics

When there is a positive group dynamic, there is concurrent enhanced motivation, moral and ultimately learning outcomes (Gorse & Sanderson, 2007), as the group shares goals and responsibility. Achieving this optimum team can however be a challenge in an EFL classroom where there may be diverse personalities, knowledge and even proficiency levels (Zastrow, 2009). There is a need to create a sense of belonging which contributes to a rewarding learning experience and encourages students to work together (Gorse & Sanderson, 2007). Following the work of Belbin (2010) who identified specific roles within a group, in this study it was recognised that good practice would require initial team building, despite a level of existing familiarity between the students. It was evident all the different role styles were present (planters for ideas generation, resource investigators for solution location and conflict resolution), all of whom contributed to effective negotiation of meaning (Gass et al., 2011; Long, 1996; McDonough, 2004).

Alongside identification and understanding of group dynamics, this study was informed by information processing theories and the role of interaction in L2 acquisition. In essence, whether CT or CR tasks had the most significant impact on fluency and interaction, along with the influence of language-related episodes (Block, 2003; De la Fuente, 2002; Ellis & He, 1999; Swain, 2013).

D. Communicative and Consciousness-raising Tasks

Mohamed (2004) noted that there are comparable results for both CT and CRT tasks on different dimensions of learning and development. It appears that CR tasks facilitate the teaching of linguistic features, their long-term retention, and that awareness is vital for this to be effective (Van Lier, 2001). The reflection on language that results from greater awareness draws attention to decision making in L2 production and how to use this knowledge for task completion (Fotos, 1994; Izumi, 2002; Nassaji & Tian, 2010). The challenge with taking this view is that little consideration is given to the automatization of processes, deployed when learning chunks of language by rote (Wray, 2002), which is common in the completion of communicative task. Despite this, as Jeon and Hahn (2006) point out, CR task appears to be supported by collaborative learning, and thus incorporating this task type into the study has merit and value. A wider discussion of the two task types is beyond the scope of this work but further detailed information can be found in studies by Ellis (2002) and Nunan (1991).

E. Research Question

The main focus for the current study was “What is the effect of interaction on fluency and accuracy when used as part of a TBL approach? From this aim, three sub-questions emerged:

RQ 1a) How does interaction during communicative tasks influence fluency and accuracy?

RQ 1b) How does interaction during consciousness-raising tasks influence fluency and accuracy?

RQ 1c) How does interaction during combination of tasks influence fluency and accuracy?

We hypothesised that interaction during both CT and CRT tasks improved fluency and accuracy due to the shared negotiation of meaning that occurs during collaborative tasks of either nature. At the same time, we further hypothesised that based on the view that learning was a personal experience that there could be an influence from social and group dynamics on the achievement and retention of any improvement in fluency and accuracy.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Setting and Participants

This research was carried out with the use of the four EFL intact classes at a secondary school in Makkah, Saudi Arabia. There were a total of 116 adult learners of English recruited for the study, aged between 17 and 18, but only 72 learners who completed all three tests are included in the results. The classes were divided into the following groups: a CT group ($n=16$), CRT group ($n=20$), combined group ($n=16$), and control group ($n=20$). They were recruited as volunteers, and all studied English at grade three as part of their overall curriculum. Arabic is their mother tongue and they had studied English language for five years and were currently in mandatory English classes at their school.

B. Approach and Procedure

The approach adopted involved an intervention in a secondary school, and the use of both CT and CRT tasks as a new means of instruction. Outcomes were assessed with tests of a quantitative nature. A total of four groups were created: Group A undertook consciousness raising (CRT) tasks, Group B performed communicative tasks (CTs), Group C undertook a combination of CT and CRT tasks and a control group just completed the tests. All the participants undertook an English Placement Test (EPT) to identify their proficiency levels and to ensure mixed abilities in the group so that interactions could be observed in terms of negotiation, support and speaking styles, and the influence of more proficient students on those less knowledgeable during the task process.

The English participial adjective was selected as the target structure because it had not yet been taught at the commencement of this study. As such it was unfamiliar to all the groups and meant that it was possible to investigate whether the inclusion of the different task types affected the use of form and ability to learn the structure. In the CRT group, the students were asked to work together to identify differences in meaning and structure for ‘-ed’ and ‘-ing’ adjectives, before formulating a rule for the use of participles, followed by making sentences to focus on the accuracy (see Appendix A). For the CT group the task was to discuss pictures and then tell stories using a number of supplied adjectives (see Appendix B for this task). The aim was to focus conveying meaning, but without full explanation of information that would ensure target-like proficiency in order for them to identify gaps in their own knowledge. At the same time, in line with findings from Byrd (2005), it was anticipated that the learners would be fluent but at the expense of accuracy. However, in the combined condition, learners first completed CRTs to raise their consciousness of the same structure. Subsequent tasks were meaning-based to assist the students to integrate the form in order to develop their interlanguage system. The control group process continued with normal lessons, and taking of the tests using the same intervals for pre-post and delayed tests as the experimental groups.

The three experimental groups attended five 45-minute treatment sessions where they performed their allotted tasks involving the use of participial adjectives. Before engaging with the task completion, each group was given five minutes planning time at all the test stages. The most straightforward approach therefore was to teach according to the regular course book in current use, it was only the mode of teaching that was adjusted. Informed consent was obtained from all the cohort, and ethical issues adhered to, as well as conforming to requirements for anonymity and confidentiality.

C. Research Instruments

The main instruments were a grammaticality judgement test (GJT), a jumbled sentence test (JST), oral production test (picture description) and written production test (for/against composition). The data gathered and the instruments used are summarised in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
TASK CONDITIONS

Groups	N	Operationalisation
CT	16	English Placement Test GJT and JST Tests Oral Production Written Production
CRT	20	English Placement Test GJT and JST Tests Oral Production Written Production
CT & CRT	16	English Placement Test GJT and JST Tests Oral Production Written Production
Control	20	English Placement Test GJT and JST Oral Production Written Production

The GJT had 20 target items and 10 distractors i.e. grammatical and ungrammatical sentences. During the test the learners were asked to identify whether the sentences were correct or incorrect based on assessment of the target structure of participial adjectives, which was unfamiliar for the students. There was no time limit set on the GJT. The JST also consisted of 20 items that the students were instructed to place the presented sentences in the correct order. The time limit was given for this task with sentence length ranging from 6 to 10 words.

In addition, the GJT was selected to provide a baseline of explicit knowledge, despite concerns raised about the test in terms of judgement making and reliability (Ellis, 1991; Han and Ellis, 1998). To manage these concerns, the JST, which is widely used for examining word order knowledge, was also applied requiring students to put 20 sentences containing jumbled words into the correct order.

D. Analysis of the Instruments Following Usage

Specific instruments used for analysis of data were a grammatical judgment test (GJT) and jumbled sentence test (JST). Although other tests (oral and written production) were utilised, these were not from specific instruments but developed from available curriculum materials and analysed using the approaches shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2.
ANALYTICAL APPROACHES

Item for Analysis	Analytical approaches
Speech fluency	- Number and length of pauses - Number of times a word, phrase is repeated or self-corrected are counted - Number of syllables is counted and divided by speaking time after the L1 and dysfluency have been excluded.
Written fluency	- Number of words in a text - Number of clauses - Words to total number of clauses
Accuracy	- The changes refer to syntax, word order, morphology or lexical choice. - Number of error-free clauses
Lexical richness	- Number of different words - Total number of content words

An oral production test requiring the telling of a story based on provided words and pictures, both individually and as a collaborative group provided a further level of assessment. The students were audio-recorded, with consent, to provide data for analysis in terms of fluency and accuracy, with the aim being to identify the use of effective syntax, expressiveness, coherence and fluency and whether these abilities improved for each of the groups at the three testing phases. These approaches follow the work of by Lu (2012) and Saito et al., (2016) and their work on tasks, fluency and complexity of utterances.

A final test was written production, to identify potential transfer of speech fluency and accuracy to the written word. The groups wrote a short text, collaboratively produced following evaluation of “for” and “against” information that was provided about the topic. The scale for measurement of the oral and written output was as follows:

- 1) Outputs (oral or written) were word by word. Infrequent two or three-word phrases but without contributing to meaningful syntax
- 2) Outputs (oral or written) were predominantly two-word phrase structures, awkward word groupings and unrelated to overall passage
- 3) Outputs (oral or written) were predominantly four-word phrasing, mostly appropriate word groupings and preservation of syntax is seen. However, there is limited expressive interpretation or addition
- 4) Outputs are in large meaningful phrase groups, consistent syntactic use, and a good level of expressive interpretation and additions.

This scale was adopted to provide a level of consistency in the analysis and demonstrated the skill level of the students during each testing phase. Lexical richness/density was assessed using a type/token ratio approach whilst coherence was based on logical sequencing of ideas based on the following:

- 1) No logical sequencing and awkward syntax
- 2) Minimal sequencing of a logical nature
- 3) Some logical sequencing of ideas and use of connectives
- 4) Effective, accurate use of sequencing and use of connective to provide coherence.

Taking this approach meant that for both fluency and coherence there was a potential total score of 4, and a separate lexical richness score for each test phase. Although the work was focused on the impact of interaction on fluency and accuracy, it was considered important to also examine L2 production which was assessed by examination of the grammar and jumbled sentence scores, along with speech fluency measures. Speech fluency was assessed through number and length of pauses, repetitions and self-correction as well as the speed of speech through syllables per minutes. Written fluency was identified by number of total words and clauses. Accuracy was assessed through a count of reformulations, error identification and the number of error free AS-units. From these analysis approaches, it was

anticipated that a clear indication of how the different task types influenced fluency and accuracy and what role the interaction played in achieving improvements in lexical content.

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS

The focus of this work was on determining the effect of interaction on fluency and interaction during different types of task-based learning interventions. To identify the significant levels, ANOVA was used to analyse the gain scores in the pre-, post- and delayed post-tests obtained by the three groups. In order to answer the core research question which was “*what is the effect of interaction on fluency and accuracy when used as part of a TBL approach*”, we examined the relationship between test outcomes and interaction processes. This was combined with assessment of the level of improvement. It should be noted that only those students who completed all three tests are included in these results.

A. Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT)

Assessment of the GJT scores by group using ANOVA analysis indicated improvement in all groups at the post-test stage. However, by delayed test stage, this improvement had reduced, although had not returned to pre-test levels. However, the CT and CR groups showed an improvement at the delayed test when compared to the pre-test.

Mean scores by group, in Table 3, indicated the greatest pre-test/post-test improvement in the control group, but again this was not retained at delayed stage, suggesting a temporary improvement. The CRT group showed the largest long term gain, indicating an increase in accuracy, which could suggest that the interactions, which were focused on raising awareness may be a contributory factor to the improvement.

TABLE 3. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS BY GROUP

		Descriptive							
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
GJT Pre-test	CT & CRT	16	11.6250	4.09675	1.02419	9.4420	13.8080	4.00	19.00
	CT	16	15.5333	3.52272	.90956	13.5825	17.4841	12.00	23.00
	CRT	20	14.4500	4.98920	1.11562	12.1150	16.7850	8.00	25.00
	Control group	20	14.3500	4.68227	1.04699	12.1586	16.5414	9.00	25.00
	Total	72	14.0141	4.54656	.53958	12.9379	15.0902	4.00	25.00
GJT post-test	CT & CRT	16	17.7500	3.75056	.93764	15.7515	19.7485	10.00	25.00
	CT	16	14.1333	4.80872	1.24161	11.4704	16.7963	8.00	25.00
	CRT	20	18.1000	5.20020	1.16280	15.6662	20.5338	10.00	30.00
	Control group	20	18.3500	4.96594	1.11042	16.0259	20.6741	10.00	30.00
	Total	72	17.2535	4.93593	.58579	16.0852	18.4218	8.00	30.00
GJT delayed	CT & CRT	16	12.7500	4.59710	1.14928	10.3004	15.1996	6.00	21.00
	CT	16	15.0667	5.22995	1.35037	12.1704	17.9629	9.00	27.00
	CRT	20	16.5000	6.21120	1.38887	13.5931	19.4069	4.00	27.00
	Control group	20	12.0500	5.27631	1.17982	9.5806	14.5194	2.00	25.00
	Total	72	14.0986	5.61161	.66598	12.7703	15.4268	2.00	27.00

As the table indicates all groups showed improvement at the post-test stage except the CT group, although the combined group and control group did not maintain their improvements to the delayed stage. Conversely, the CT and CR groups both showed an improvement at the delayed test when compared to the pre-test (see Figure 1).

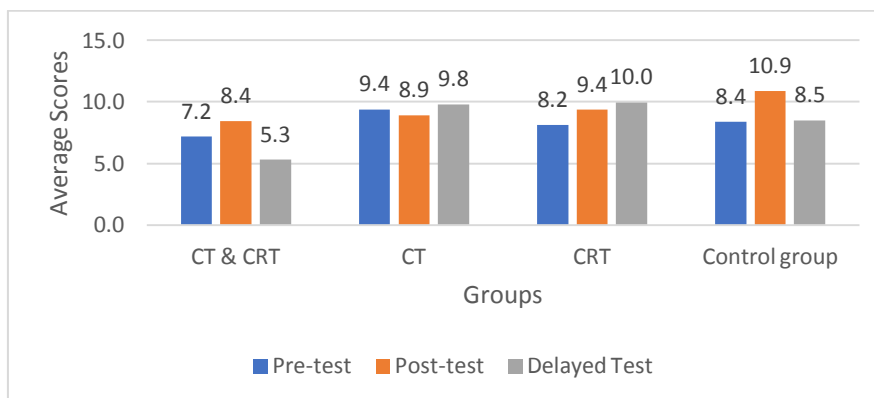


Figure 1. GJT Average Scores

To identify a correlation between intervention type and overall scores, regression analysis was undertaken which resulted in a significant relationship (.174) between the intervention type (dependent variable) and improvement on GJT scores. However, from the model summary, it was determined that only 26.6% of the improvement was due to the

intervention (CT/CRT or combined) type. In other words, the intervention only did not lead to the improvement, which again indicates a potential role for the interaction that was required to complete the task.

B. Jumbled Sentence Test (JST)

For the JST the same analysis approach was adopted, identifying initial gains at post-test but not maintained at the delayed stage. There was however variation in the overall level of significance of the improved scores for each test condition. The gradual improvement seen in all groups, suggests that the interventions are effective, but that there are other factors which may also be influencing the outcomes, for example the level of interaction in the group. Reviewing the average scores for the JST, as shown in Table 4, the CT group showed the greatest improvement, confirmed by regression and ANOVA.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS BY GROUP

		Descriptive							
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
JST pre-test	CT & CRT	16	7.1875	3.25000	.81250	5.4557	8.9193	4.00	14.00
	CT	16	9.4667	5.76773	1.48922	6.2726	12.6607	1.00	19.00
	CRT	20	8.1500	5.15318	1.15229	5.7382	10.5618	1.00	18.00
	Control group	20	8.4000	4.67243	1.04479	6.2132	10.5868	1.00	18.00
	Total	72	8.2817	4.75750	.56461	7.1556	9.4078	1.00	19.00
JST post-test	CT & CRT	16	8.4375	3.98278	.99569	6.3152	10.5598	2.00	14.00
	CT	16	8.9333	6.46382	1.66895	5.3538	12.5129	1.00	17.00
	CRT	20	9.3500	5.86044	1.31043	6.6072	12.0928	2.00	20.00
	Control group	20	10.9000	4.84388	1.08312	8.6330	13.1670	6.00	20.00
	Total	72	9.4930	5.32346	.63178	8.2329	10.7530	1.00	20.00
JST delayed test	CT & CRT	16	5.3750	3.28380	.82095	3.6252	7.1248	1.00	12.00
	CT	16	9.8667	6.03403	1.55798	6.5251	13.2082	2.00	19.00
	CRT	20	9.9500	5.53910	1.23858	7.3576	12.5424	2.00	20.00
	Control group	20	8.5000	3.41051	.76261	6.9038	10.0962	4.00	15.00
	Total	72	8.4930	4.93058	.58515	7.3259	9.6600	1.00	20.00

It appears that the combined group showed the least improvement and there was in fact a loss of ability in terms of JST scores at the delayed stage. The CRT group showed the greatest improvement (1.53 at the post-stage) in the experimental groups, although surprisingly the control group showed an improvement of 2.4 average points (see Figure 2). At the delayed test stage the CT condition had the largest improvement from pre-test outcomes. Whilst these are encouraging results, it should be noted that the delayed test scores for all conditions may have been influenced by other factors during the period between the intervention and delayed testing.

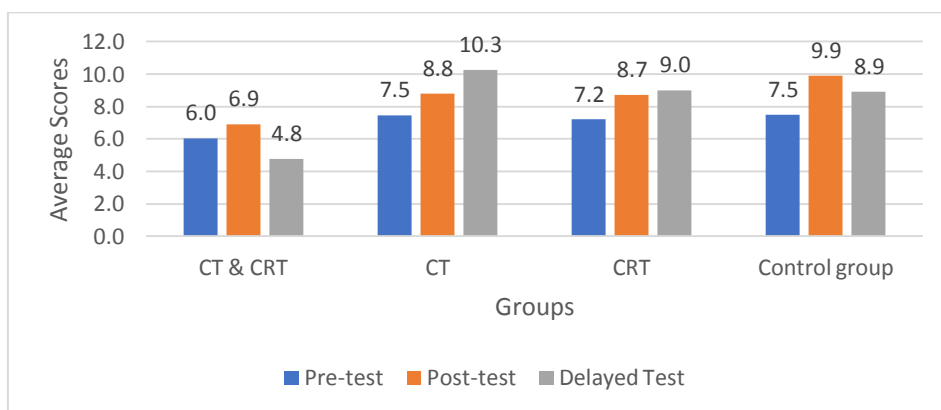


Figure 2. JST Average Scores

The suggestion overall therefore is that CT tasks provide a greater improvement on JST tests, with a 2.8% average score increase by the delayed stage from pre-test levels, potentially due to the cognitive processes involved. To confirm this finding ANOVA and regression were undertaken. However, the impact does not appear to be as significant (.124) as that seen for grammatical judgement.

C. Oral Production Task

The analysis of the oral production task was based against the scales indicated in the methodology and evaluated as percentages to facilitate between group measures. The results shown are from group, rather than individual scores, as this was felt to be a better way to measure the impact of interactions between the group members in terms of improving overall oral production. The outputs for assessment of changes in speech fluency during the oral production task were

taken from the results of each group as a whole (i.e. CT, CRT or combined and control) rather than individual student outcomes. The measures came from evaluating fluency through three sub-dimensions of breakdown, repairs and speed. Accuracy data come from application of the Foster and Wigglesworth (2016) ratios indicated in the methods section. Lexical richness data are related to the number and complexity of content words identified, through a manual count in the output. The total scores were then aggregated into the percentages shown in Table 5. The percentages refer to the level of fluency calculated based on breakdown, repairs and speed with the type-token ratio of the overall production from the group in their oral presentation. In other words, returning to the research questions, in respect of the sub-research questions, it can be seen from the results that in all cases there was improvement whilst interaction was taking place but that this was not maintained to the post test stage. In effect, the interaction appeared to improve fluency, lexical richness and accuracy for the CRT group at post-test stage (RQ1b), but only fluency and lexical richness for the CT group (RQ1a), and fluency, lexical richness and accuracy in the combined group. It is also notable that the control group who showed similar scores at the pre-test stage, and some minor improvement at post-test, did not have the same level of retention of knowledge at the delayed test stage. This suggests that even without the intervention there was some natural learning and improvement. However, the sustained improvement in the experimental groups does demonstrate the benefits of the task-based interaction and collaboration.

TABLE 5.
ORAL OUTPUTS BY GROUP

Group		Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
CRT	Fluency	55%	56%	54%
	Lexical richness	70%	73%	72%
	Accuracy	53%	55%	53.5%
CT	Fluency	47.5%	49%	50%
	Lexical richness	27%	54%	42%
	Accuracy	48%	47%	46%
CR & CT	Fluency	56%	57%	59%
	Lexical richness	68%	69%	67%
	Accuracy	50.5%	51%	50.2%
Control	Fluency	55%	56%	53%
	Lexical richness	53%	63%	60%
	Accuracy	51%	51%	49.3%

In evaluating core measures of fluency and accuracy, the make-up of the groups in terms of participants was separated into levels of proficiency as shown in Table 6 below (core measures of fluency and accuracy). The figures relate to the total number of pauses amongst the students in each group.

TABLE 6.
CORE MEASURES OF FLUENCY AND ACCURACY

Group	Proficiency	Participants	No. of silent pauses	filled pauses	Length of pauses	No. of repetition	No. of correction	reformulations
CRT	1	5	17	5	4	6	4	5
	2	5	12	4	4	5	1	3
	3	5	6	1	3	4	5	9
	4	5	4	0	2	0	0	2
CT	1	4	6	0	2	7	4	10
	2	4	12	5	2	5	2	13
	3	4	2	4	3	2	0	5
	4	4	9	3	3	4	0	5
CRT & CT	1	4	16	6	1	9	1	11
	2	4	13	4	1	7	4	8
	3	4	7	4	0	1	0	11
	4	4	3	1	1	2	1	3
Control	1	5	13	4	2	5	3	3
	2	5	12	4	2	6	1	3
	3	5	4	3	2	3	1	4
	4	5	5	2	2	2	1	3

Note: 1 = higher proficiency student, 2 & 3 = intermediate student and 4 = low-level student

TABLE 7.
RESPONSE TO SUB-QUESTIONS

	No. of silent pauses	filled pauses	Length of pauses	No. of repetition	No. of correction	Reformulations
CRT	39	10	3.24	15	10	19
CT	29	12	2.50	18	6	33
CRT & CT	39	15	0.57	19	6	33
Control	34	13	0.2	16	6	13

During interaction it appears that there is a short-term improvement in fluency and accuracy irrespective of task type, but that if the interaction does not continue, the improvement is lost. Of further note, and in line with work by Abu-Ayyash (2018) and Hassanein, the higher proficiency learners in all the groups had a higher percentage of reformulations, suggesting that the complexity of the task was influenced by proficiency. A similar indication can be seen from examination of the number of corrections in the different proficiency groups. Comparing the test outcomes to the control group, there was a much lower level of reformulations and corrections, suggesting again that although there was some natural learning, this was not sustained with traditional teaching. This suggests that without the interaction, the control group were unable to notice gaps and thus reformulate and correct their outputs.

The data for the scores was achieved through analysis of the discussion within each group as they performed the tasks. From this analysis, there is an indication that one potential reason for the lack of retention may be due to the make-up of the groups, and as with the grammatical tests, the discontinuation of regular interaction interrupted the retention of accuracy. This is in line with work from Spada and Lightbown (1993) who identified that when there is regular input and interaction, fluency and accuracy improvements noted during the interaction, continue to be maintained and reinforces the potential role of interaction in improving overall knowledge, fluency and accuracy during TBL tasks of both a CT and CRT nature.

D. Written Production Task

As with the oral production, the results presented are those from the group, rather than individual outputs, and was based on a 4-tier grading, and the evaluation of accuracy cohesion and lexical richness, represented by an overall percentage to facilitate comparison. As with the oral output the measures and outcomes of the group output are based on accuracy measures using the Foster and Wigglesworth (2016) ratios shown in Table 8 (Group written outputs), and lexical data were counted based on number and complexity of content words. Fluency is based on the cohesion and sentence length of the written output. Thus returning again to the sub-questions it can be seen that in relation to RQ1a written fluency, lexical richness and accuracy increased by more than 5% after the interaction for the CT group. This highlights the potential that written work based on communicative tasks benefits from interaction and discussion about the content. A similar improvement was seen in the CRT group (RQ1b). In the case of the CRT condition the improvement was more significant, rising from an initial 50% for fluency to 63% at the delayed test. In comparison to the other groups which saw a rise of only 2-3%, this suggests that in answer to RQ1c, the interaction raised individual consciousness about errors which is then transferred to written outputs and an improvement in overall fluency and cohesion.

TABLE 8.
WRITTEN OUTPUTS BY GROUP

Group		Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
CRT	Fluency	50%	62%	63%
	Lexical richness	59%	62%	64%
	Accuracy	51%	62.5%	61.2%
CT	Fluency	70.1%	75%	73%
	Lexical richness	68.5%	85%	53%
	Accuracy	55%	56.1%	55.3%
CR & CT	Fluency	60%	62.1%	61%
	Lexical richness	55%	57%	43%
	Accuracy	61%	63.2%	79.4%
Control	Fluency	60%	66%	65%
	Lexical richness	60%	68%	53%
	Accuracy	55.6%	60%	48.75%

As with the speech fluency outcomes, and in regard to the research questions, the indication appears to be that all task types appear to deliver some improvement in written accuracy and fluency whilst the interaction continues, but that this may not be fully retained at the post-test stage. The loss seen in speech fluency however is less marked in the written outcomes, suggesting that improvements are maintained better with written than oral output, which is an area that could be investigated in future research. At the same time, examining the outcomes from the control group, there is again some natural learning but accuracy and lexical richness improvements following instruction were not maintained at the post-test stage. This again underlines the value of interaction and collaboration during task-based learning to embed the knowledge gained.

All groups showed improvement in fluency, but only the CRT improved in lexical richness, which suggests that raising consciousness improved access to new lexical items and variation following the interactions. It should also be noted that the written work in the combined group was marginally longer. Ellis (2009) suggests there is a relationship between complexity and fluency /accuracy which is reflected in the outcomes of this work. What is interesting in terms of written output is that the improvements were maintained at the delayed test stage, which suggests that the different processes required for written output, compared to oral may reinforce the improvements made as a result of interaction which is line with earlier work by Ellis and Barkhuizen, (2005).

E. Lexical Content of Speech Fluency

Given the aim of identifying whether interactional processes increased fluency and accuracy, the overall lexical content was evaluated, with the students divided into high, intermediate, and low proficiency groups. The statistical analyses consisted of a) correlations of groups and task performance measures to demonstrate the strength of the relationship between task type and various linguistic measures analysed in the three conditions and across modalities; b) analysis of variance with task type and modality as within-group and as between-group as a repeated measure to examine the impacts of task on learners' L2 production and c) one-way ANOVA tests to compare the performances of learners in the three conditions on the types of tasks and across modalities.

At the individual level, more advanced students appeared to engage in more pausing behaviour, which could be attributed to their longer utterance length, although this was not explicitly tested. Moreover, fluency is impacted on by personal speaking as well as language skills, and it should be recognised that in line with de Jong and Bosker (2013), hesitations and pauses are part of natural and successful communication approaches. With this in mind, the analysis presented here should be taken against this background understanding of the nature of fluent speech and how individual styles may vary.

In addition, there is a potential that the pausing of advanced students is an indication of other processes at work such as thinking and searching for a correct word, i.e. usage of interlanguage, or this may simply be a characteristic of their individual speech styles, which is a further factor in encouraging interaction and achieving positive outcomes. Again, this was not directly assessed so it would need further consideration in future studies. These tables, however, should be taken with caution due to the small size of each proficiency group. In other words, for this group at least the tables are indicative of the effectiveness of the interventions, and the valuable role of interaction in improving fluency.

Importantly the interactions created opportunity for learning, giving those of lower proficiency a learning space, where they could use their interactional skills and work together to improve fluency and accuracy, defined by Spitzberg and Cupach (2012) as interactional competence. What was also notable is some students were reticent about contributing to the interaction and only did so following encouragement from more proficient students, again supporting the role of interaction in improving fluency and accuracy, highlighting the value of mixed proficiency groups during TBL interventions. Furthermore, it should be note that there was higher proficiency and focused collaboration at the level of correction and confirmation. This was particularly noticeable within the CRT group who spent more time discussing potential solutions to the task than other groups, who had a more combative approach. This aligns with works relating to group familiarity and individual dynamics suggesting that the CRT group was more collaborative in their approach and reinforces the role of individual speaking styles and group dynamics.

F. Lexical Content of Written Fluency

According to Freed (2000) L2 fluency does not necessarily strictly develop in a linear manner and it refers to the final output rather than the actual writing process. For the written work, the examination was undertaken of the level of content words to identify the lexical density, can be shown in Table 9.

TABLE 9.
LEXICAL RICHNESS OF WRITTEN PRODUCTION

Group	Stage	Total Words	Total Content Words	Percentage of content words
CRT	Pre-Test	88	23	26%
CT	Pre-Test	68	20	29%
CRT & CT	Pre-Test	85	24	28%
CRT	Task	97	29	30%
CRT	Task	79	15	19%
CRT & CT	Task	95	22	23%
CRT & CT	Task	87	25	29%
CT	Task	84	17	20%
CT	Task	95	23	24%
CRT	Post-test	84	12	14%
CT	Post-test	108	29	27%
CRT & CT	Post-test	75	15	20%
CRT	Delayed Test	93	28	30%
CT	Delayed Test	98	28	29%
CT & CRT	Delayed Test	89	27	30%

*Note: In the task section, there are two scores as two tests were administered during the intervention

It is clear that the CRT group shows improvement from the pre-test during the task increasing percentage of content words from 26% to 30% of the overall text, based on type token ratio calculations but this was not reflected in the post-test stage when the percentage of content words had reduced to 21%. Interestingly there was improvement at the delayed test stage, for the CRT group returning to 30% by this stage, suggesting there was retention and learning that occurred. However, there is also the potential that following intervention the students had increased confidence in utilising more content words and awareness of the need to increase lexical richness in the compositions.

The CT group however showed no real change in their use of content words, suggesting that there was not the same level of improvement for this group. In the combined group however, there was a distinct improvement (of 2% from pre-test stage to delayed test – increasing from 28% to 30% during this period), again suggesting improved awareness of how to increase their lexical richness. However, the lexical richness was not supported by concurrent grammatical improvement across the groups. In addition, there was some improvement in English use, but the accuracy and proficiency of this longer term could not be assessed within the constraints of the current study.

Overall, no statistically significant differences were emerged between texts produced by the three conditions in terms of fluency and lexical richness. However, the texts produced by the combined group were more accurate than other groups. This suggests that task type may have an influence on the type and combination of strategies employed by the students. More specifically, those tasks that integrate spoken and written production may be more effective for L2 development than those that require only spoken production.

G. Accuracy during Interaction

Overall, the results reveal that the learners’ performance in the present study could not be accurate while they were pushed to produce the language using task-based sessions. This is in line with Foster & Skehan’s (1999) trade-off model although their model is focused on a general level of accuracy rather than at a more specific level. It was further assumed that there is no guarantee that an increase in fluency, lexical diversity, or even complexity would influence accuracy of any particular forms.

The results did however reveal that the students’ accuracy scores for L2 production seem to be closely related to how the learners are able to produce accurate sentences than the cognitive demands of task. In addition, it was identified that negotiation of meaning was not widely used, indeed, many of the students in the groups were reticent to indicate a lack of understanding, preferring to pretend that they understood. This could be an important factor in terms of managing interactions as it suggests that the personality differences and speaking styles of Saudi students are not always conducive to encouraging increased interaction and is something that teachers will need to take into account if their students are to benefit from the value of interaction during TBL interventions. Alongside the accuracy and lexical content evaluations, language episodes were also incorporated into the data collection and final analysis due to the indications from the literature review that they may influence how peers interact, specifically in regard to negotiation and achievement of accuracy (Watanabe and Swain, 2007).

H. Language-related Episodes (LREs)

Following Leeser (2004) and Swain & Lapkin (1998), the LREs may be identified as correctly resolved, unresolved, or incorrectly resolved. With this in mind, the identified LREs were coded based on these three potential outcomes and their linguistic focus. It is assumed that task type influenced the types of LREs as suggested by Kim (2008) and R ́ev ́esz (2011). So, the best way to represent the findings for LREs were to categorize them as grammar-focused (dealing with syntax or morphology), lexical-focused (dealing with word choices and word meaning), mechanics (dealing with spelling, pronunciation and punctuation), or pragmatic aspects. In regards to the research question, examination of the LREs can provide answer to whether fluency and accuracy improved in each of the group conditions. The results of LREs outcomes can be shown in Table 10.

TABLE 10.
LRES OUTCOMES

	CRT		CT		CRT & CT		Total
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Number of times L1 used	56		93		93		242
Correctly resolved	40	61.54%	19	40.42%	38	50.7%	97
Unresolved/ abandoned	23	35.4%	22	46.8%	33	44%	78
Incorrectly resolved	2	3.08%	6	12.8%	4	5.3%	12
Total	65		47		75		187

The CRT students had the most correctly resolved LREs (n= 40, 61.54%) whilst the combined group had the highest number of unresolved episodes (n= 33, 44%) compared to the other groups. Part of the reason for this may have been the group dynamic, although there is also a potential that proficiency effects may have influenced these outcomes. It was also noted that there was a much higher use of L1 in both CT and combined groups (n= 93) compared to the CRT group (n= 56). This could be due to the task demands in the CT and combined students which required them to create new sentences and extend their L2 while the CRT students may refer to the sentences given in the worksheets. However, the use of L1 diminished over the intervention period in all groups, which are discussed later in this chapter suggesting

increasing confidence even when errors were made.

In terms of error type, the majority of the errors were grammatical in nature, such as omission of determiners or incorrect tense parsing. This appeared to be consistent across all conditions with no significant variation emerged between any of them. In addition, there was a high level of repetition in the interaction, again with no significant variations across the group. However, it is recognized that repeating phrases in examples such as 'go out, go out' 'where he, where he' is frequently used in natural speech to emphasize a point, or to confirm that what a speaker is saying is correct. In terms of new categories, which considered likely to occur prior to gathering the data, there were also indications that learners employed negotiation to determine the intended meaning, supporting again the role of interaction in improving accuracy and fluency.

In all three conditions, the most common LREs were grammatical in nature (n= 125), and predominantly focused on tense and pronoun errors. However, it was noted that in the CRT and combined groups, the number of correctly resolved events was significantly higher (n= 40 and 38 respectively) than that seen in the CT group (n=19). Furthermore, in the CRT and combined groups, there was a wider discussion on grammatical points (n= 92), suggesting a better focus on identifying errors and resolving them as a group. This suggests that there is a benefit to the CRT approach in achieving meaningful interaction and discussion leading to improvement in proficiency that is not so extensively present in the CT approach. This does not detract from the CT approach, but does underline the importance of development of the awareness raising of the students in identifying, discussing and correcting errors during task-based interaction.

Overall, in terms of LREs, discussions and interactions centred on the categories of incidence included meaning-based, grammatical, discourse, orthographic and identification of terms and individual constructs. The grammatical episodes were defined as the stages of the interaction where students engaged in discussion of morphological and syntactic elements of language. These instances were then subdivided into categories relating to: verb form (active/passive voice, aspect/tense forms, auxiliary verbs, and verb form), relative clauses (use of the defining/non-defining clause, choice of the relative pronoun/clause, omission of the pronoun, clause position: centre-embedded or right-embedded clauses, referring to the relative pronoun), subject-verb agreement, word order, choice of prepositions, conjunctions, definite or indefinite articles, gerunds or infinitive, and adverbs of time.

At the same time, in line with work by Benson, Pavitt & Jenkins (2005), the specific category was presented to enable coding of speech segments where the participants clearly identified phrases, words or sentences that were mentioned in task worksheet (CR tasks). Discourse episodes were considered to be those elements of the interaction where the students engaged in discussion of the older of sentences or sentence elements along with identifying parts that preceded or followed the parts under discussion. A few numbers of these instances were identified during the CR tasks, even though the majority of the activities did not require linking elements of text and discussions at the level of discourse which suggests that the interactions were focused on identifying errors and encouraging improvement in fluency and accuracy.

Overall, in terms of LREs (grammatical, lexical and pragmatic), it appears that the students were able to provide one another with mutual scaffolding during the interactions, which shows benefits of tasks and associated interactions can extend beyond grammar and lexis to L2 pronunciation or pragmatic features. The results also revealed that learners attended to lexical and grammatical items when they interacted with advanced interlocutors. Furthermore, it should be noted that mixed proficiency levels between the learners not only result in improvements in terms of attention to language but also to the nature of group work. The results lend support to Skehan's (1998) trade-off hypothesis. In other words, fluency and accuracy are dependent on task complexity and type, but can be supported by interaction and collaboration during the completion of tasks.

V. DISCUSSION

In this section, we discuss the findings of the study in relation to the research questions. Initially examining whether there were improvements in the fluency and accuracy of learner's L2 production, both oral and written, and then moving on to a discussion of negotiation of meaning. The results presented suggested two patterns of interest. The first concerns the comparisons seen between the three task conditions and any potential advantage of these, and the second is the potential influence of social dynamics and use of L1. Certainly the results indicate a value to the use of interaction to encourage negotiation of meaning and provision of learning spaces for mutual scaffolding during task-based activities.

The results of the pre-test/post-test/delayed test approach across grammatical knowledge, fluency and accuracy suggests that collaborative interactions do encourage a more fluent performance, but that once the interaction ceases, the improvement is not fully retained. In effect, and taking into account the outcomes for fluency and accuracy, it can be suggested that extending the task-based interaction, there would have been a concurrent on-going negotiation. The net result of this is that there could have been deeper learning and thus greater retention of the knowledge and greater attention to fluency and accuracy in both spoken and written outputs. This would however need to be reviewed in future research.

A factor indicated during evaluation of the interactions however is that the process of negotiation was not common, with students pretending to understand rather than request clarification. This could be due to individual personality

differences, cultural factors or potentially the setting, i.e. that of a secondary school, where students are not encouraged to engage in classroom debates and negotiate, and non-language lessons are more passive (Alharbi, 2015). Moreover, the secondary school setting for evaluation of the task-based approach and importantly interaction in the classroom has not been widely explored in the Saudi context and it is thus clear that further work is need (Al-Kathiri, 2015). Despite this overall reticence and lack of familiarity with collaborative working, it was noted that the group discussed features of the language during interactions, suggesting that with practice, the process would become more familiar and lead to increased negotiation.

Furthermore, in line with Spitzberg and Cupach (2012) it was identified that some learners found oral production challenging and daunting, reducing their motivation to engage fully in interactions, which had a negative impact on their overall fluency and accuracy. Again, this could be due to personality/learning styles as well as a lack of familiarity with a more student-centred approach and would need to be investigated in future research. However, it was further noted that in all three groups there were indications that the task type encouraged discussion of alternatives in terms of form and function and the introduction of options that could then be discussed and decided on. The value of this is that when groups are of mixed ability, as was the case for this study, new words and forms of expression were highlighted, clarified and learned by the lower-level learners, improving overall fluency and accuracy. For the higher proficiency learners, the interactions during the tasks supported an increase in their confidence about their own spoken fluency and accuracy, and provided them with an opportunity to self-reflect and evaluate, evidenced by pausing and other devices.

The increases in fluency and interaction over the intervention process further indicates that encouraging negotiation of linguistic features and their meaning in collaborative environments can encourage a deeper understanding that consolidates the cognitive processing necessary for effective retention and subsequent use of the knowledge. In this respect, what is particularly critical is that when learners produce language in collaborative work conditions, they do not just produce output, but gain a benefit from the monitoring and feedback they receive from interlocutors whilst attempting to produce accurate verbal utterances or written work. It appears therefore that in the collaborative setting, there is a greater individual focus on fluency from the students, which is important in terms of teaching practice. In other words, in line with Tavakoli and Hunter (2018), there needs to be an increased focus of the achievement of fluency and accuracy in the development of classroom instruction and tasks given.

The observations of the students in this study are thus in line with Swain and Lapkin (1998) and Swain and Watanabe (2012) who noted that during interaction learners pay attention to the forms used by others in their group, develop the ability to evaluate accuracy and appropriateness and in so doing can provide feedback and correction. In effect, there are two monitoring levels, self and others, which occur simultaneously, embedding information in the language centres of the brain and promoting more accurate, high quality task outcomes.

In addition, the current study confirms the work of Witton-Davies (2014) who identified that dialogue interactions are more fluent than monologues, including reduced pausing, elevated speech rates and a reduction in repair words. However, this is dependent on the task type and individual differences as well as the linguistic features. Although the students in this study did not, as such, engage in monologues, it can be seen that this is confirmed when some individual students engaged in longer utterances. Moreover, whilst turn-taking patterns and interruptions were not directly analysed for this work, several instances of students indicating '*it's my turn*' or similar were identified during the interaction. This suggests that across all groups there was recognition of the need for dialogue and collaborative interaction to achieve effective task outcomes (Cameron, 2001).

Although the quantitative analysis suggested that overall interaction improved fluency and accuracy, it should also be recognised that the dominance and passivity of individual group members may vary, impacting on overall turn-taking patterns. Although this element was not statistically measured, it appeared to conform to the work of Hudson-Kam and Edwards (2008) regarding balance within interactions. Overall however it can be indicated that the majority of students felt relatively confident in their ability to promote fluency in class, although it is also recognised that many of the proposed activities were not directly tailored to fluency and accuracy and as such were more suitable for the development of a more general speaking ability. Furthermore, in the current study, there were cases identified from the transcripts where some students appeared to dominate, or had to encourage participation from others. In terms of fluency measurement therefore, this study could support previous findings regarding turn-taking and interruptions.

VI. IMPLICATION

This work has identified some clear benefits to the use of CT and CRT tasks in promoting interaction and thus development of fluency and accuracy. What this suggests and what we therefore propose is that Saudi secondary schools should place greater focus on developing a more task-based interaction focused curriculum to encourage discussion between students that leads to improvements through negotiation, self-repair and correction and ultimately improvements in their fluency and accuracy. At the same time, there is an implication for curriculum and the importance of ensuring positive group dynamics, balancing proficient, intermediate and low level students to encourage development of learning.

VII. CONCLUSION

Task-based learning as a beneficial means of improving second language knowledge is not in dispute, nor is the value of including either consciousness raising or communicative tasks within the process. What has been determined from this work is that the interaction that occurs in the completion of these tasks is a potential factor in increasing fluency and accuracy, through the process of negotiation of meaning and overall increasing of ability and confidence amongst students. At the same time, there is also a need for additional work to further consider the need for use of L1 and the wider impact of factors such as task type, group dynamics and how much impact language related episodes can have on developing fluency and accuracy.

Although there is definitely value in the work undertaken and an indication of potential value within the Saudi school system, we do recognise that the work has limitations. Firstly, this was a small scale study over a defined period of time and further research is likely to be necessary to verify the findings and examine factors such as use of L1 and the assessment of LREs as a measure of fluency before concrete steps can be taken to change the curriculum directly. This having been said, we believe that the findings present some interesting discussion points for the writers of secondary school EFL curricula in Saudi Arabia.

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Intonation in Hong Kong English and Guangzhou Cantonese-accented English: A Phonetic Comparison

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Abstract—Hong Kong English is to a certain extent a standardized English variety spoken in a bilingual (English-Cantonese) context. In this article we compare this (native) variety with English as a foreign language spoken by other Cantonese speakers, viz. learners of English in Guangzhou (mainland China). We examine whether the notion of standardization is relevant for intonation in this case and thus whether Hong Kong English is different from Cantonese English in a wider perspective, or whether it is justified to treat Hong Kong English and Cantonese English as the same variety (as far as intonation is concerned). We present a comparison between intonational contours of different sentence types in the two varieties, and show that they are very similar. This shows that, in this respect, a learned foreign-language variety can resemble a native variety to a great extent.

Index Terms—Hong Kong English, Cantonese-accented English, intonation

I. INTRODUCTION

Cantonese English may either refer to Hong Kong English (HKE), or to a broader variety of English spoken in the Cantonese-speaking area, including Guangzhou (Wong et al. 2005). In practice, Cantonese English in a narrow sense (HKE) is usually not distinguished from Cantonese English in the wider sense (Wong et al. 2005). Parallel observations can be found for the native varieties. Hong Kong and Guangzhou local Cantonese dialects can be regarded as the same dialect (Zhan 2004), given that there are no massive or systemic phonological differences, either segmental or prosodic, between these varieties. However, based on some socio-cultural and lexical differences, Hong Kong Cantonese and Guangzhou Cantonese can be considered as two varieties that have undergone divergent developments from Guangzhou Cantonese since the 1970s (Zheng 1998). In this article, we examine to what extent HKE resembles Cantonese English in a wider sense. We approach this question from the angle of intonation, because this is an important marker of foreign accent (e.g. Wenk 1985), and because intonation is a complex of linguistic and paralinguistic features, reflecting a speaker's grammatical, attitudinal and social information (Shen 1990). A comparison between the intonation of HKE and Guangzhou English (GZE) will therefore be a good measuring-stick for standardization from a phonological viewpoint.

One of the characteristics that help define a variety of world English, proposed by Butler (1997), is a “standard and recognizable pattern of pronunciation handed down from one generation to another” (Butler (1997), cited in Bolton (2000)). As early as more than 30 years ago, Le Page & Tabouret-Keller (1985) (also cited in Bolton (2000)) reported that the Hong Kong accent could be recognized easily and the local respondents had difficulty in labelling other accents of English. If HKE is indeed a standardized variety (Setter et al. 2010), at least with regard to accent (Kirkpatrick 2007), we expect the intonation to differ systematically from English spoken by Cantonese speakers outside Hong Kong—a foreign variety of English. Alternatively, if HKE is not a standardized variety, then we would not expect systematically different intonation patterns in HKE and GZE.

To investigate if HKE and GZE intonation are different or similar, we conducted an experiment on four different sentence types by Guangzhou Cantonese speakers, in English and Cantonese. We compared the outcomes with the literature on HKE intonation and on native English intonation. The results show that the intonation patterns of HKE and GZE do not differ significantly, and we will discuss how this affects the notion of standardized varieties of English.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows: we first introduce necessary background on HKE and GZE, and then provide a brief description of the relevant facts of English intonation, and Cantonese and HKE intonation. After this, we

explain the experimental approach to the native Cantonese dialect and English of the same speakers of Guangzhou, and describe the materials, subjects and procedure. We present the result and compare intonation in HKE and native English. Finally, we discuss the results and different issues for future research.

II. BACKGROUND INFORMATION ON CANTONESE, HKE, AND GZE

HKE emerged from language contact with British settlers (1839-1941). However, it has been a matter of some dispute whether or not there is an autonomous indigenous variety HKE, on a par with other Englishes in the Asian region, such as Indian English and Singapore English. Some researchers have advanced arguments against this idea, arguing that Hong Kong is “a case of societal bilingualism, in which two largely monolingual communities coexist, with a small group of bilingual Cantonese functioning as linguistic middle men” (Luke & Richards (1982), as cited in Evans (2011a)), that “English continues to remain more a foreign language than a second language to most people” (Fu (1987), as cited in Bolton (2000)), that there’s “no social or cultural role for English to play among Hong Kong Chinese; it only has a role in their relations with expatriates and the outside world” (Johnson (1994), cited in Evans (2011a)), and that there is “no societal basis for a nativized variety of “Hong Kong English” (Li (1999b), as cited in Evans (2011a)), and therefore “Hong Kong has not developed a nativized variety of English” like in Singapore or India (Li 1999a). Advocates for HKE maintain that it meets at least three (Kirkpatrick 2007) or four (Bolton 2006) of the five criteria Butler (1997) proposed to define emerging varieties of English. Based on criteria including history and politics, identity construction, sociolinguistics of contact, and linguistic developments, Schneider (2007) distinguished five developmental phases for English in such contact situations in his innovative Dynamic Model: foundation, exonormative stabilization, nativization, endonormative stabilization, and differentiation. In Schneider’s model, HKE already entered Phase Three (nativization) half a century ago, with heavy borrowing, local accent, and phonological, morphological and syntactic changes (Evans 2011b; Schneider 2007), as argued by Groves (2011). HKE has not reached the stage of linguistic homogeneity, including a literary tradition, of Phase Four (like Singapore English); and is not entirely standardized (as in established nations like Australia), free from external threat, with a certain amount of sociolinguistic and ethno linguistic variation emerged (Schneider 2007: 127).

The linguistic status of HKE is in this respect clearly different from GZE, where English is a foreign language that did not develop from long term language contact with a community of settlers. For instance, the influence of English in the Guangzhou Cantonese community is much smaller than in Hong Kong. In Guangzhou, teaching of English generally starts from Primary 3 (age 10) (Ye 2015), whereas the Hong Kong educational system strives for the development of trilingual (Cantonese, English, Mandarin) competences from primary school onwards (age 6-12) (Evans 2013). Due to historical, geographical, and political reasons, Mandarin is more influential in Guangzhou than in Hong Kong. For instance, the language of instruction in Guangzhou is Mandarin (Han 2012), whereas in Hong Kong it is Cantonese and English (Bolton 2000). In general, the most frequently used language in Guangzhou is Cantonese, with Mandarin as the second language and English as the third language, which definitely counts as a foreign language in Guangzhou, like in the rest of mainland China, which in terms of Kachru’s paradigm shift and pluricentric model of global English, falls within the expanding circle among the ‘three concentric circles’ (Bolton 2000; Yi 2010).

In contrast with Hong Kong, and despite a massive amount of training, performance of mainland Chinese students in English appears to be relatively poor. Even English majors in colleges in advanced areas such as Shanghai (Bu 2016) and Guangzhou (Ye 2015) are reported to have a very low level of performance in terms of pronunciation and intonation. One of the reasons might be that there are few extracurricular chances to practice English. Ye (2015) investigated the use of English in 60 English majors who are Guangzhou natives in a Guangzhou college and demonstrated that, just like students from other areas of China, Guangzhou natives’ mastery of English intonation does not transcend the elementary level and showed negative transfer effects both at the segmental and the suprasegmental level. By contrast, empirical evidence shows that English is used on a daily basis in a number of different ways in many families as well as in the professional world in Hong Kong (Bolton 2002; Evans 2011a, b). According to the 2016 census*, more than 90% of the population aged over 5 in Hong Kong are able to speak Cantonese and more than 50% of the population aged over 5 in Hong Kong are able to speak English. It is reasonable to say that in Hong Kong, English has at least an equal status with Cantonese in some domains while Mandarin has little role to play (Bolton 2000, 2011; Evans 2011b).

This suggests that the intonation of HKE and GZE may differ drastically not only because of differences in contact with British native speakers, but also just because of proficiency differences. But established varieties of English may be marked by native features as well, such that HKE and GZE have similarities. It seems that, at least at the segmental level, this is a complex matter, since HKE clearly has Cantonese segmental features alongside with British as well as American English features (Bolton & Kwok 1990; Deterding et al. 2008; Hung 2000; Sewell & Chan 2010). In the present paper, we will compare the intonation of HKE and GZE and investigate to what extent HKE and GZE employ Cantonese features and to what extent they resemble native English pronunciation. It will turn out that, just like for the segmental level, both Cantonese and English features can be distinguished and that the differences between HKE and GZE intonation are relatively small. Before we turn to the experimental data, we will first introduce the wider topic—

* The data are available at the homepage of the Census and Statistics Department of Hong Kong: <http://www.search.gov.hk/>. (accessed 24 July, 2017.)

following non-stressed syllables fall more slowly than in statements: this leads to a general higher F0 level of yes-no questions than in statements. The canonical yes-no question contour has a final high phrase accent and a high boundary tone (Beckman & Ayers 1997; Beckman & Hirschberg 1994; Pierrehumbert 1980). In yes-no questions, a high fall + rise is common (Collins & Mees 2003). The fall is often on the auxiliary verb (Collins & Mees 2003), like in wh-questions. The result is a global raising: there is a declination like in the statement and the phrase boundary H[◌]H% generates an F0 contour high above the generally falling pattern (Pierrehumbert 1980) as shown in (3).

(3) Is Lucy in the park?
 H*[◌]L⁻ H[◌]H%

Echo questions have the same syntactic form as statements but the intonation is characterized by global raising, a high phrase accent on the final word and a high boundary tone indicating either incredulity or seeking confirmation (Cruttenden 1997), see (4).

(4) Really? Lucy is in the park?
 H[◌]H%

Table 1 summarises the points made about English intonation.

TABLE 1.
 NATIVE ENGLISH INTONATION (NA MEANS 'NOT APPLICABLE'; ↑ FOR RISE, ↓ FOR FALL)

English Intonation	Declination	Boundary	Place of final rise/fall	Global raising
Statements	Yes	L%	After the last accented syllable ↓	NA
Wh-questions	Yes	H% or L%	The final L ⁻ ↓	NA
Yes-no questions	Yes	H%	The first accented syllable ↑	Yes
Echo questions	Yes	H%	The final H ⁻ ↑	Yes

HKC

As mentioned earlier, Cantonese is a tone language and as such sentence intonation plays less of a role (Gussenhoven & van der Vliet 1999). Cantonese has a relatively large lexical tone inventory, but, unlike Standard Chinese, it has no neutral tones (Wong et al. 2005). The tonal systems of Hong Kong and Guangzhou Cantonese differ only minimally, as shown in Table 2 (based on Wong et al. (2005) and Zhan (2004)).

TABLE 2.
 OVERVIEW OF THE HONG KONG AND GUANGZHOU TONES, IN WHICH 5 REPRESENT THE HIGHEST AND 1 THE LOWEST PITCH LEVEL

Tone description		Open syllables		Closed syllables	
		Hong Kong	Guangzhou	Hong Kong	Guangzhou
Level	High	55	55	5	5
	Mid-high	33	33	3	3
	Mid-low	22	22	2	2
	Low		11*		
Rising	High	335	335	35	
	Low	223	113		
Falling	Low	221	221	21	
	High	553**			

* Only for speakers who distinguish between low falling and low level tones.
 ** Only for speakers who distinguish between /55/ and /53/. In Guangzhou the high falling tone is preferred, but it is undergoing merger with the high level tone. Most Hong Kong speakers have lost the high falling tone (Bauer & Benedict 1997).

In Cantonese, particles play a major role in the expression of phrasal meaning, and 'compete' with this function of sentence intonation (see above) (see e.g. Fry 1968, as cited in Bauer & Benedict 1997, among many others). For example, the final particle *ma* is a question marker. Similarly, the positive plus negative syntactic structure (e.g. *shi bu shi* 'be not be' or *you mei you* 'have not have') marks yes-no questions.

The intonational markers in Cantonese are simpler than in English. Every sentence type has declination in Hong Kong Cantonese (similar to English) (Fox et al. 2008). Statements in Cantonese have a low boundary tone (Chen & Mok 2015; Han 2013). Wh-questions typically show a declination of the F0 contour similar to that of statements (Chen & Mok 2015; Wong et al. 2005). Typically, boundary tones in both statements and questions start no earlier than the last syllable (Chen & Mok 2015; Xu & Mok 2011). Yes-no questions have an optional final rise (Chow 2002, as cited by Chen & Mok 2015). Echo (or intonation) questions are marked by an overall higher F0 level than statements and a high final boundary tone (Han 2013): the tones of the final syllable in echo questions begin at an F0 level lower than the initial and medial syllables, but rise to a level above that of the initial syllable, regardless of the canonical tone (Ma et al. 2006). The same was observed by Wong et al. (2005), who, in addition, distinguished a high boundary tone with a plateau H:% (which expresses incredulity) from a regular H% (which expresses seeking confirmation). There is an abrupt final rise and expansion of pitch to the speaker's largest range at the final boundary tone (Han 2013; Vance 1976).

There is no global raising in Hong Kong Cantonese echo questions (Han 2013; Xu & Mok 2011). The F0 contours of statements and echo questions in Cantonese typically overlap until the last syllable (Chen & Mok 2015). Table 3 gives the main intonational characteristics of the different sentence types in Hong Kong Cantonese.

TABLE 3.
HONG KONG CANTONESE INTONATION (NA MEANS 'NOT APPLICABLE'; ↑ FOR RISE, ↓ FOR FALL)

Cantonese Intonation	Declination	Boundary	Place of final rise/fall	Global raising
Statements	Yes	L%	Final syllable↓	NA
Wh-questions	Yes	H% or L%	Second part of the last syllable↑	NA
Yes-no questions	Yes	Optional H%	Second part of the last syllable↑	No
Echo-questions	Yes	H%	Final syllable↑	No

HKE intonation

In this subsection, we describe the declination, boundary tone and global raising of four different intonation contour patterns in statements, wh-questions, yes-no questions, and echo questions in HKE, based on the existing literature.

The F0 contours of statements, yes-no questions, and echo questions in HKE typically overlap until the penultimate syllable, from where H% in questions starts to deviate from the unmarked L% contour in statements (Chen & Mok 2015). As a result of this, the three sentence types have the same degree of declination, without global raising.

For statements in HKE, there is no consensus about whether there is a final low boundary tone or not. Chen & Mok (2015) observed L%, but Gussenhoven (2014) observed two intonation contours for words with penultimate or earlier stress—a final L% or no boundary tone (which is typical in this language (Gussenhoven 2012)), because of an L% deletion rule (see example in (5)).

(5) The park is open.

L[~]%

L%→∅ / L_— (L%-deletion after a low tone)

A level tone after the IP-final main stress (as in example (5)) signals a declarative intonation in Hong Kong English, even if a low boundary tone is absent (Gussenhoven 2014). But this is not reported in either Cantonese or English. Wh-questions are signalled by a high initial tone on the wh-word in HKE, like in English. Furthermore, wh-questions have either a high (small rise) or a low boundary tone on the final syllable with a relatively flat final tone, which is not observed in Cantonese or English. The declination in wh-questions is less steep than in statements (Chen & Mok 2015). Yes-no questions have a high boundary tone with a final rise smaller than that of echo questions (Chen & Mok 2015). Finally, echo questions are cued by a high final boundary tone (Chen & Mok 2015; Han 2013), like in English and in Cantonese. The final rise in echo questions is larger than that in yes-no questions. The final rise in HKE questions occurs from the penultimate syllable while in Hong Kong Cantonese it starts from the final syllable.

A comparison between the intonation of native English, HKE, and Hong Kong Cantonese is shown below.

TABLE 4.
COMPARISON BETWEEN NATIVE ENGLISH, HKE, AND HKC (NA MEANS 'NOT APPLICABLE'; ↑ FOR RISE, ↓ FOR FALL)

Varieties	Question types	Declination	Boundary	Place of final rise/fall	Global raising
Native E	Statement	Yes	L%	After the last accented syllable ↓	NA
HKE			L% or %	Final syllable or last L ↓	
HKC			L%	Final syllable ↓	
Native E	Wh-questions	Yes	H% or L%	The final L [~] ↓	NA
HKE		Probably, smaller than that of statements		Penultimate syllable ↑	
HKC		Yes		Final syllable ↓	
Native E	Yes-no questions	Yes	H%	The first accented syllable ↑	Yes
HKE				Penultimate syllable ↑	No
HKC			Optional H%	Second part of the last syllable ↑	
Native E	Echo questions	Yes	H%	The final H [~] ↑	Yes
HKE				Penultimate syllable ↑	No
HKC				Final syllable ↑	

IV. EXPERIMENTAL APPROACH

Based on the historical differences and the language contact with British settlers, HKE and GZE intonation might be significantly different. Alternatively, based on the common native dialect, which is sometimes considered as

phonologically homogeneous, HKE and GZE intonation might also be similar. The intonational system of HKE is relatively well-described, but that of GZE is completely under-investigated. We therefore recorded native speakers of Guangzhou Cantonese in English and compared their English to HKE intonation as described in the literature. We also recorded these speakers in their native language to investigate transfer effects from their native language to L2 English. We recorded and analysed the same four intonation types in Guangzhou Cantonese (GC) and Guangzhou-accented English (GZE). In total, 306 English sentences produced by 18 speakers were analysed.

Materials

To obtain natural intonation (as far as possible), we designed a picture description task. The sentences we targeted were the four sentence types we discussed above: statements, wh-questions, yes-no questions and echo questions. We targeted six wh-questions, three yes-no questions, six statements, and five echo questions. A picture was made to elicit each sentence, with conversation bubbles containing keywords in English.

Here it is necessary to note that the categorization of the sentence types does not necessarily stipulate that there are 'canonical', default intonation patterns corresponding to different sentence types (e.g. statements and wh-questions end with a falling contour while yes/no questions terminate in a rise). Rather, innovations are added to such kinds of conventions, the breach of which may rouse native listeners to perceive something unusual or different from the norm. For example, wh-questions produced with a final rise can be interpreted as having a softening, sometimes patronizing effect (Reed & Levis 2015).

Subjects

Eighteen Guangzhou Cantonese speakers, nine males and nine females, aged between 19 and 21, and one male of 25 were paid to participate in the study. All participants were college students not following a major in English.

Design

The experiment consisted of a PowerPoint slide show of twenty slides, each with a picture and keywords in English. The same slides were used once to elicit English and once to elicit Cantonese. The twenty sentences were pseudo-randomized such that the sentences with *park* and *bank* alternated. A list of English model sentences (see Appendix) was available for the participants to prepare before the recording.

Procedure

The experiment was conducted in quiet rooms at Guangzhou University and Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. Before the recording, the participants received instructions to describe each picture by a sentence according to the keywords provided in conversation bubbles. They were asked to repeat the sentence if they made a mistake or hesitated. The sentences were recorded using a Tascam DR-05 recorder and a Rode Smartlav microphone. During the recording, the experimenter left the room. The participants went through the slides twice: the first time they described the pictures in English and the second time in Cantonese (they also repeated it in Mandarin, which will be analysed in a larger study). After the picture descriptions, they read a list of the target sentences. After the whole experiment, the participants' linguistic background was elicited, such as the participants' major, a self-assessment of their English level, their frequency of usage of languages and the linguistic background of the participants' parents.

Analysis

We adopted the Hong Kong Cantonese ToBI labelling conventions (Wong et al. 2005) to label lexical tones and intonation in Guangzhou Cantonese. For the boundary tones, we used the conventional 'H', 'L' and '%' notation proposed by Pierrehumbert (1980), which are also used in the ToBI conventions for other languages. We analysed the boundary tones, declination, and global raising using the Praat script ProsodyPro (Xu 2013).

V. RESULTS

Guangzhou Cantonese intonation

Previously in the subsection of HKC, we described Cantonese, including Hong Kong and Guangzhou Cantonese as a single variety. Our observation of Guangzhou Cantonese intonation confirms that they do share the same intonation system, which motivates the hypothesis that HKE and GZE may share the same intonational system.

Just like in Hong Kong Cantonese (see HKC), all sentence types in Guangzhou Cantonese have declination. Statements (Figure 1) have a low boundary tone and wh-questions have either a high (Figure 2) or a low boundary tone.

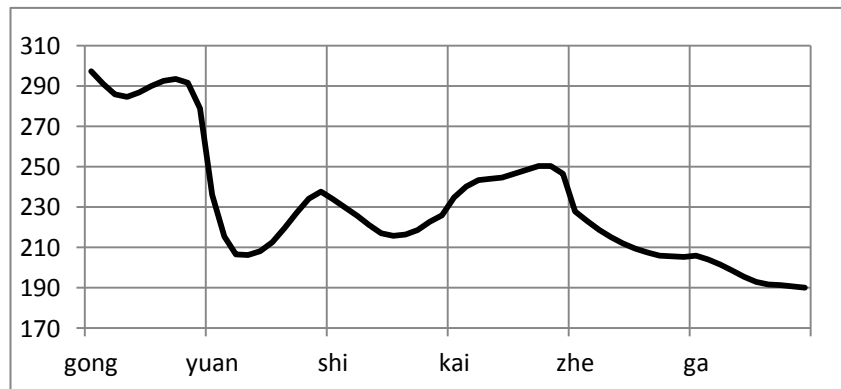


Figure 1. F0 contour of Guangzhou Cantonese statements 'The park is open'

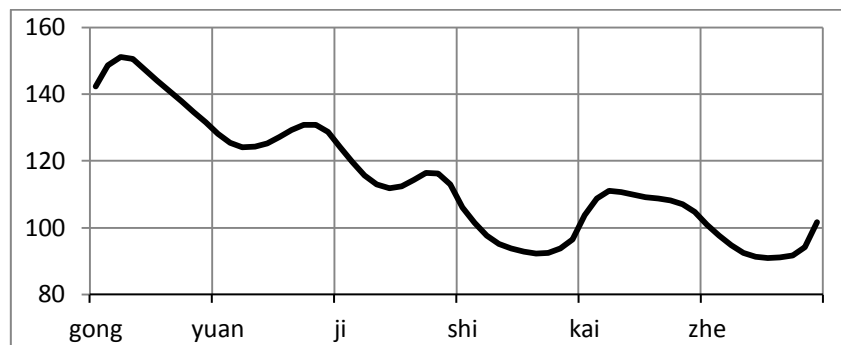


Figure 2. F0 contour in GZ Cantonese wh-questions 'When is the bank open?'

We also observe an optional H% in yes-no questions in Guangzhou Cantonese (see Figure 3 for an example).

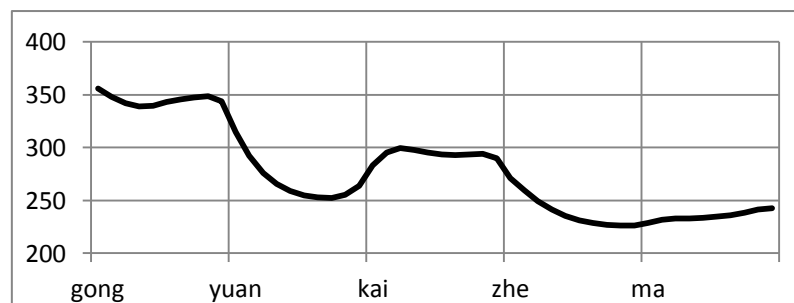


Figure 3. F0 contour in GZ Cantonese yes-no questions 'Is the park open?'

Finally, echo questions are distinguished by short and long sentences. In both we find declination and a high final boundary tone, again similar to HK Cantonese. However, short echo questions have a global raise compared with statements (Figure 4), which we do not find in long echo questions (Figure 5). In the long echo questions, we observe a final rise starting at the penultimate syllable. This may be different from echo questions in Hong Kong Cantonese, which are reported to have no global raising but instead have a final rise starting at the final syllable.

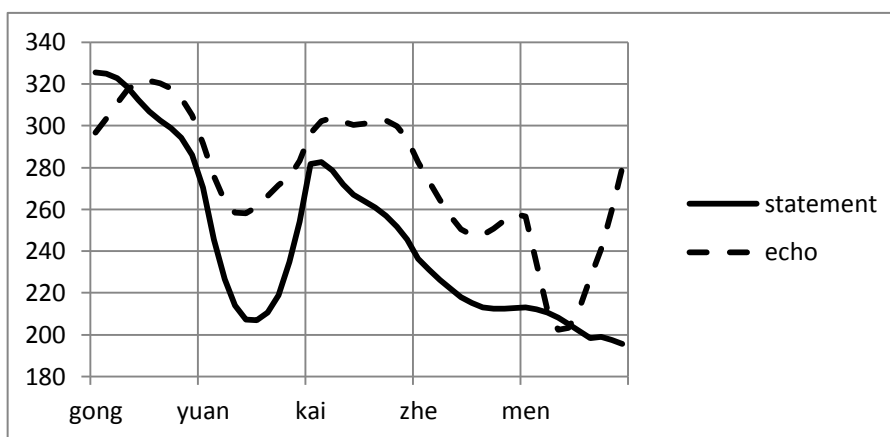


Figure 4. F0 contour of GZ Cantonese short echo questions vs statements ‘The park is open’

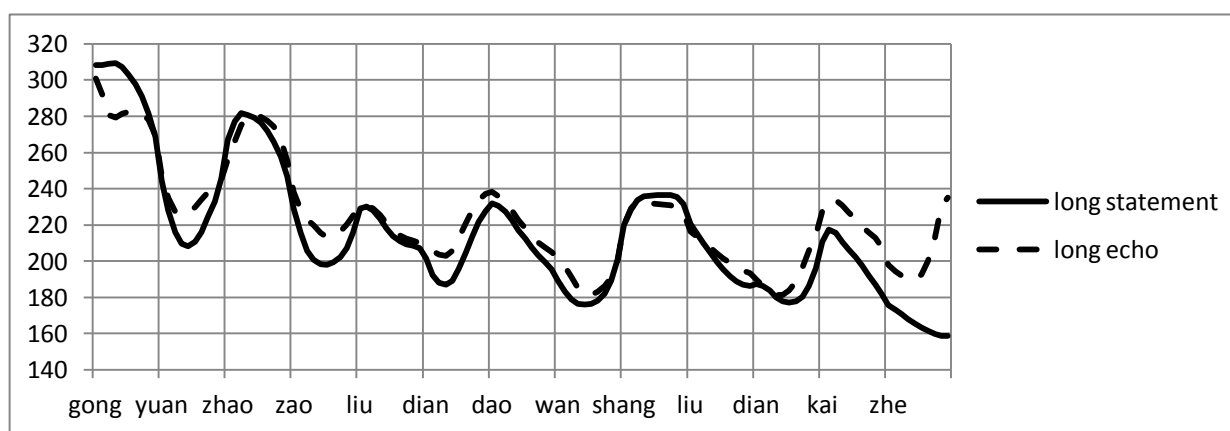


Figure 5. F0 contour of GZ Cantonese long echo questions vs. long statements ‘The park is open from six a.m. to six p.m.’

A comparison between HK and GZ Cantonese intonation is shown in Table 5 below.

TABLE 5.
COMPARISON BETWEEN HKC AND GZC (NA MEANS ‘NOT APPLICABLE’; † FOR RISE, ‡ FOR FALL)

Cantonese Intonation	Declination		Boundary		Place of final rise/fall		Global raising	
	HK	GZ	HK	GZ	HK	GZ	HK	GZ
Statements	Yes		L%		Final syllable‡		NA	
Wh-questions			H% or L%		Second part of the final syllable†		NA	
Yes-no questions			Optional H%		Second part of the final syllable†		No	
Echo-questions			short	H%		Final syllable †		No
	long			Final syllable †	Penultimate syllable†	No		

So, as for intonation, GZ and HK Cantonese only differ slightly in echo questions. The following subsection shows the results of GZE intonation and a comparison between GZE vs. HKE, and GZE vs. native English.

GZE vs. HKE

A comparison between GZE and HKE shows large similarities between the two varieties.

Declination in statements can take two patterns. Short statements have a clear declination, as shown in Figure 6, which mirrors that for statements in HKE. Long statements, however, show no declination, which is different from HKE. Similar to HKE intonation, a low boundary tone. Also similar to HKE, L% occurs on the final syllable in GZE. So as for statements, only declination in long sentences appears to be deviant from HKE.

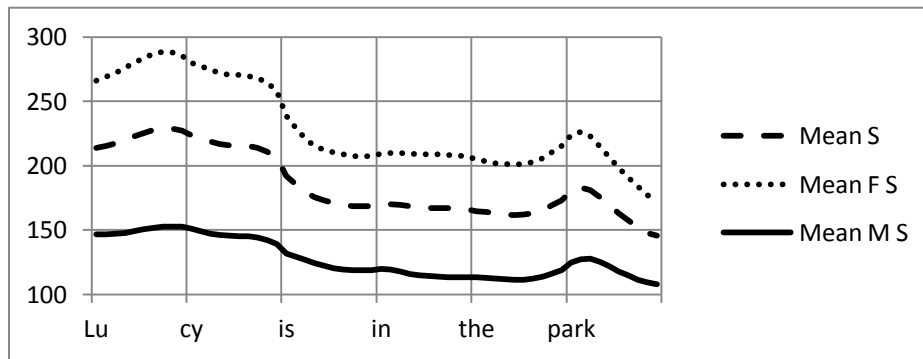


Figure 6. Mean F0 of female, male and all speakers in GZE statements

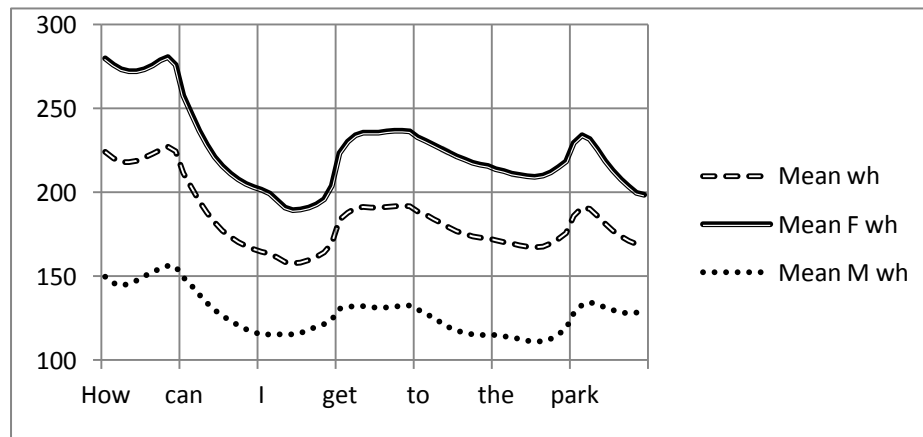


Figure 7. Mean F0 of GZE wh-questions

Wh-questions in GZE do not consistently show declination. Even if there is declination, the declination is not steep, just like in HKE, cf. Chen & Mok (2015). Wh-questions start with a high boundary tone followed by a fall (see Figure 7). They typically end with a low or a high boundary tone, the first being more frequent (corroborating Ye 2015 for HKE, although Ye mistook the high boundary tone for an error). This variation between L% and H% is also observed by Chen & Mok (2015) for HKE. The final boundary tone can be L% or H%, falling on the final syllable. Similarly, HKE has the final fall on the last syllable or the rise on the penultimate syllable.

We also observe the final rise with relatively flat tone like in HKE (Chen & Mok 2015). Therefore, for the intonation of wh-questions we cannot observe substantial differences between HKE and GZE.

Yes-no questions in GZE show no declination or very slight declination. This is different from HKE, in which the F0 contours of yes-no questions largely overlap that with statements—which do have declination—until the penultimate syllable. GZE and HKE yes-no questions have an H% (Figure 8) and the final rise also starts on the penultimate syllable. The mean F0 contour of yes-no questions for all speakers is given in Figure 9. As in HKE, we do not observe a global raising in GZE. So the only difference between HKE and GZE regarding yes-no questions is that the former shows more declination.

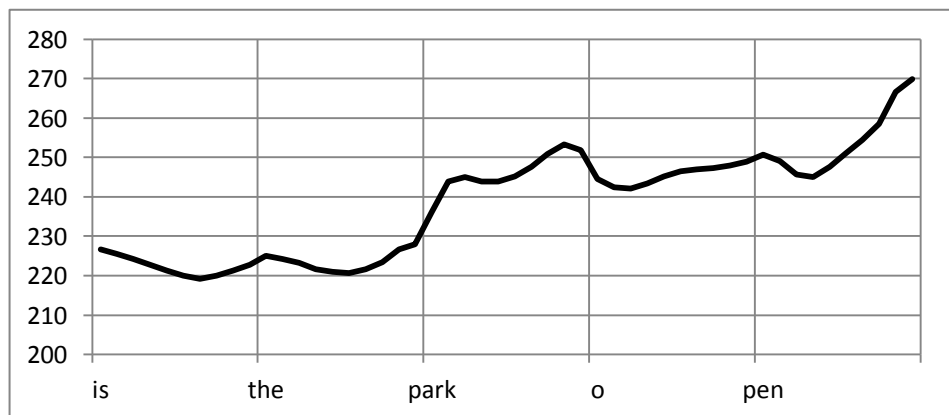


Figure 8. F0 contour of GZE yes-no questions

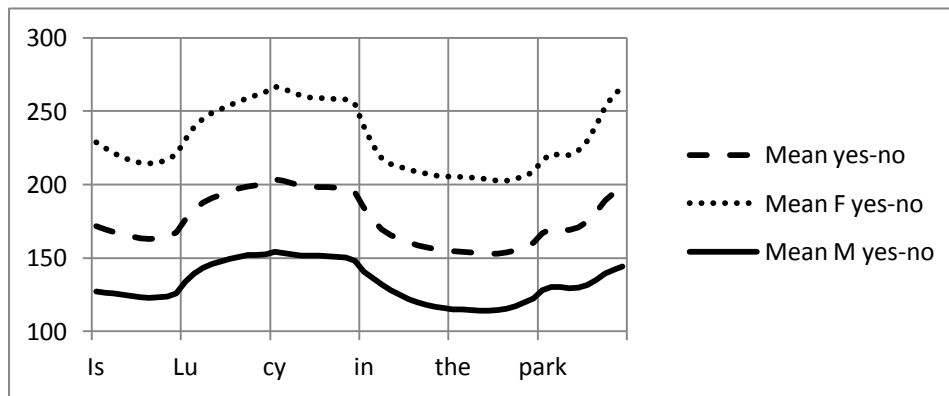


Figure 9. Mean F0 of female, male, and all speakers in GZE yes-no questions

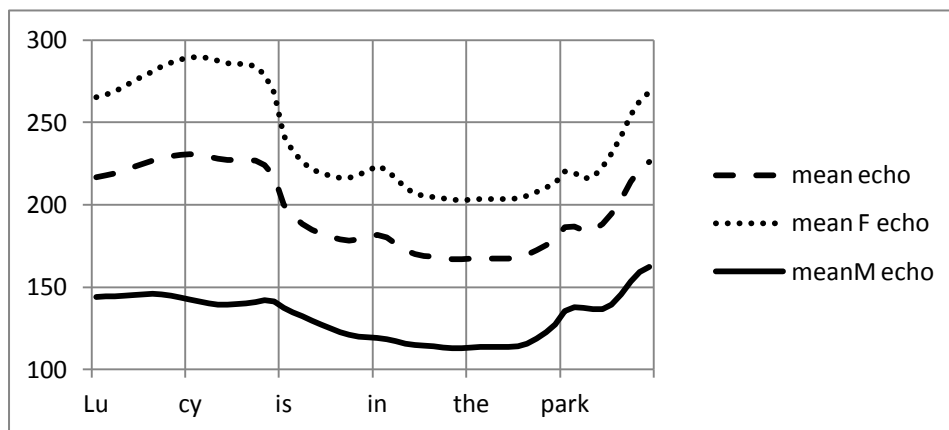


Figure 10. Mean F0 of female, male, and all speakers in GZE short echo questions

Finally, echo questions are realized with an H%, as is also observed in HKE (Figure 10). Short echo questions have a slightly smaller declination than statements (Figure 11). However, long statements and long echo questions largely overlap until the final or penultimate syllable, without showing declination (Figure 12). This is different from HKE, in which the echo questions overlap with the statements until penultimate syllable. Echo questions don't show global raising in GZE, which is the same with HKE. Therefore, for echo questions GZE differ from HKE mainly in declination.

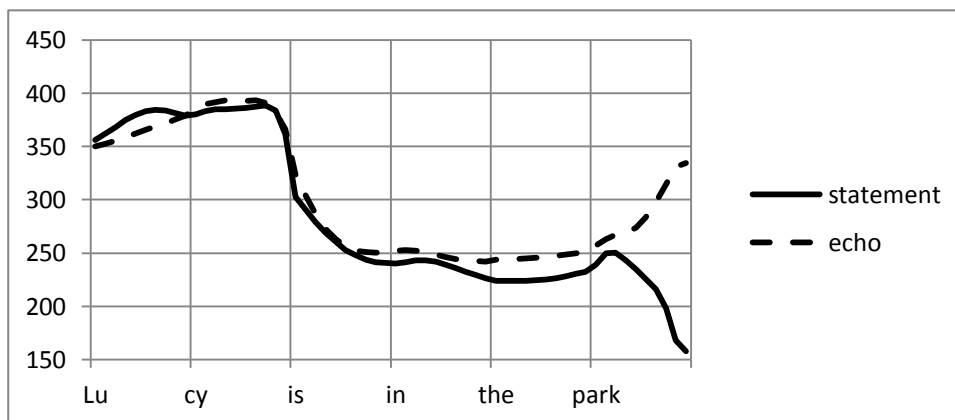


Figure 11. F0 of GZE short echo questions vs. short statements

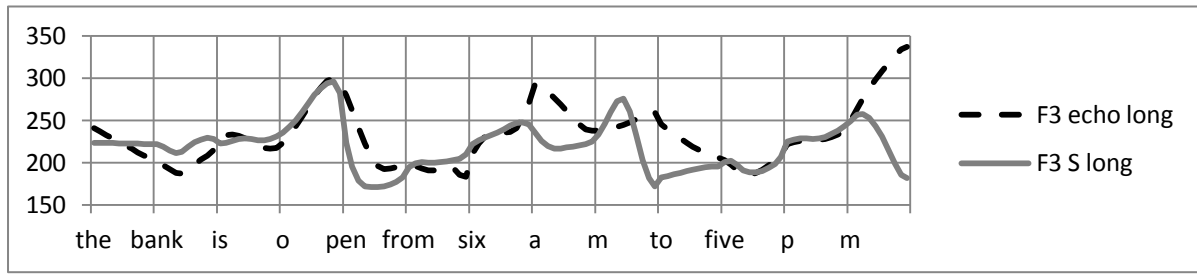


Figure 12. F0 contour of GZE long statements vs. long echo questions

We summarize the four sentence types in Figure 13.

Figure 13 shows overlap of the F0 contours of statements and echo questions until the ultimate or sometimes penultimate syllable. The latter pattern is also reported for HKE (Chen & Mok 2015; Xu & Mok 2011) (see HKE). For the final syllable, the intonation contour of echo questions overlaps with that of yes-no questions (see also Figure 14). This is different from Chen & Mok’s (2015) finding that echo questions in HKE have a higher final boundary tone than yes-no questions.

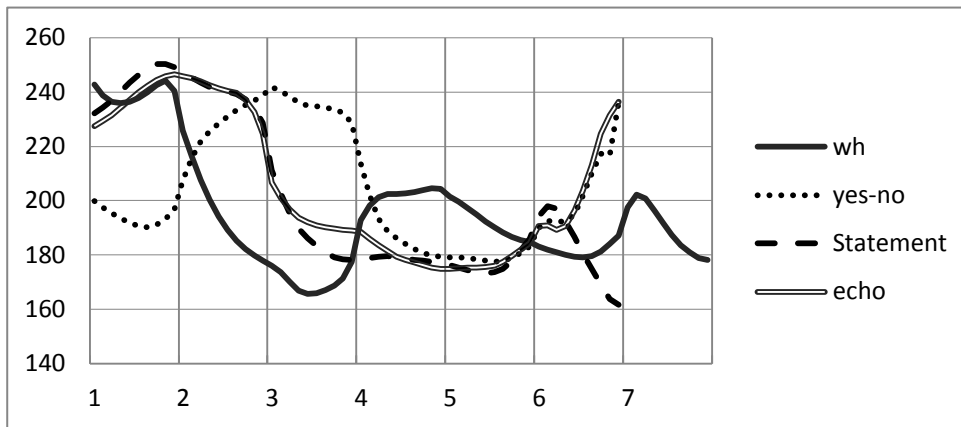


Figure 13. Mean F0 of all four sentence types



Figure 14. Time-normalized normalized pitch contour of ‘Is Lucy in the park?’ (speckle) and ‘Lucy is in the park?’ (line) in GZE

Our results show that GZE and HKE are very similar, with only slight differences.

Table 6 displays the differences between HKE and GZE, which mainly lie in declination: GZE tends to have less declination than HKE.

TABLE 6.
COMPARISON BETWEEN HKE AND GZE

Sentence types	Varieties	Declination	Boundary	Place of final rise/fall	Global raising	
Statements	HKE	Yes				
	GZE	Not for long statements				
Wh-questions	HKE					
	GZE					
Yes-no questions	HKE					Yes
	GZE					No declination, or slight declination
Echo questions	HKE		Yes, the same as in statements	H% (higher than in yes-no questions)	Penultimate syllable	
	GZE		Short	Yes, smaller than in statements	H% (no difference found than in yes-no questions)	
		long	No			

Knowing the similarities and dissimilarities between GZE and HKE intonation, we now turn towards the question whether HKE and GZE reach the target intonation of English.

GZE vs. native English

A comparison between native English, GZE, HKZ, and Cantonese shows that the deviations of GZE and HKZ from native English sometimes point to the influence from Cantonese but sometimes don't. Both native English and Cantonese have L% for statements, but HKE and GZE sometimes lack a boundary tone. Declination is realized in wh-questions in native English and Cantonese, but not consistently in HKE and GZE wh-questions and in yes-no questions in GZE. Besides, when statements and echo questions are long, they show no declination in GZE.

The rest of the deviations of HKE and GZE from native English recall an echo from the speakers' native Cantonese: 1) the place of final rise or fall in HKE and GZE always takes place on the last one or two syllables like Cantonese does; 2) while in native English the echo questions have an overall higher F0 and a global raising in the last domain of the sentence (Chow(2002, cited in Chen & Mok 2015; Clements 1990, O'Shaughnessy 1979), there is an overall higher pitch level but no global raising in yes-no questions or echo questions in HKE and GZE like in most cases in Cantonese.

Besides the above-mentioned aspects of intonation, we observed some accents in the participants' utterances, which is not expected in native English. Content words appear to be consistently accented (H*). For instance, the word *Lucy* is frequently accented in all sentence types, as if the first syllable of *Lucy* had an intrinsic pitch height. The words *park* and *bank* also have a relatively stable pitch level. Similarly, in the sentence "the man under the tree is Lucy's father", high tones appear on the second syllables of *under* and *Lucy*, which would be completely unexpected in native speakers.

These unexpected accents are explained as a result of the transfer of the Cantonese tone system (Luke 2000). In Cantonese, function words may be realized with some tone (Wong et al. 2005), of which this may be an effect. In some speakers, content words (frequently including prepositions) and words in a particular context or position (such as in phrase boundary marking non-finality) may tend to attract a pitch accent, because these words are lexically important and needs to be marked in a certain way. The pitch accents of words are subject to down-step and boundary tones too.

The high pitch assigned may optionally copy or spread to the next syllable within the word such as in the word *Lucy*, which is realized either as HL or HH, the former of which tends to appear in a final position, and the latter in non-final position. But the assignment of pitch accents in Cantonese English is much more complicated than can be elucidated here.

VI. CONCLUSION

We investigated whether GZE and HKE intonation are comparable or whether they show clear differences. Given that HKE is to a certain extent a standardized variety, developed by long term language contact, and GZE is a second language variety in which apparent negative transfer effects both at the segmental and the suprasegmental level are reported, one could expect the two to have clearly different intonation patterns. On the other hand, since the native varieties have claimed to be more or less the same, one could expect the same patterns of native language transfer. To investigate this matter, we studied the intonation of four sentence types in GZE: statements, wh-questions, yes-no questions and echo questions, and compared these to the well-described intonation in HKE.

As far as the investigated aspects of intonation are concerned, HKE and GZE share large similarity in terms of declination and boundary tones, and the possible influence from Cantonese to not show a global raising in yes-no questions or echo questions. The findings suggest that there are no significant differences between the two varieties of English. They shared similarities in boundary tones, and places of final rise or fall in all four sentence types, and both showed no global raising in yes-no or echo questions, different from native English. The only differences are that Hong Kong speakers show more declination than Guangzhou speakers in English long statements, yes-no questions and echo questions and that the boundary tone in echo questions is higher than that in yes-no questions in HKE but it is the same height in GZE. Since both in native English and in Cantonese there is declination, it is unclear why Guangzhou speakers show less steep or even no declination in English. Besides, some words show unexpected accents. We suggest tonal assignment in such words is due to a transfer effect of Cantonese prosodic system.

Our findings cast doubt on Schneider's model of standardization, in which linguistic structure is seen as one of the criteria for classification of an English variety into one of the five phases, for there are other criteria as we explained in the section of background information and these criteria are likely to be very similar to those of L2 acquisition. The results of our research points towards HKE as being a second language, with an accent of Cantonese in a wider sense; including Hong Kong and Guangzhou and other areas where Cantonese is spoken. English has a different history and social function in Hong Kong than in Guangzhou, with important lexical differences, and early borrowings in HKE that don't occur in GZE (Li 1999a). But with respect to intonation there turns out to be little difference between HKE and GZE.

Future research will explore the rhythmic patterns and tone spreading patterns in both varieties to see in what other ways native Cantonese affects speakers' L2 English prosody, both in Hong Kong and in Guangzhou. We will also compare English intonation produced by speakers from Guangzhou with those from other mainland regions, including Beijing. Deterding et al. (2008) reported that Cantonese features as well as British and American English features affected HKE pronunciation at the segmental level. Of course, complementary research is needed to compare other

suprasegmental factors (e.g. the tonal systems, phrasing) or segmental ones. Most of all, perception experiments are needed to examine the intonation of HKE and GZE as well as Chinese English in other regions of China.

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Chinese MAs' Evaluation in English Academic Writing: A Student-oriented Perspective

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Abstract—Though it is well acknowledged in the academia that constructing authorial evaluation is important in English academic writing, L2 novice writers' views of and attitudes towards evaluation, which can help to understand their problematic evaluation demonstration in English academic writing, is generally underexplored. To address this gap, this study aims to investigate Chinese MA students' views of and attitudes towards evaluation in English academic writing, especially in the subgenre of literature review. To achieve this end, a semi-structured questionnaire survey among 174 Chinese MAs of Applied English Linguistics as well as interviews was conducted. Quantitative and qualitative data analyses show that the majority of the Chinese students have recognized the importance and necessity of evaluation in English academic writing, and their understandings of evaluation are generally accurate and in compliance with the institutionalized nature of academic writing. However, there are still quite many students possessing inadequate knowledge and underestimation of evaluation in English academic writing, which can partly be attributed to the general underplay of evaluation demonstration in the pedagogy of English academic writing and by supervisors as well. Explicit instruction on evaluation in the teaching of English academic writing as well as postgraduate supervisors' attention to and guidance in students' constructing authorial evaluation are therefore appealed for by the study.

Index Terms—evaluation, English academic writing, student perspective

I. INTRODUCTION

Evaluation is common in our everyday life, for example, teachers evaluate students' performance, readers evaluate the book content, or parents evaluate children's behavior. Though academic discourse was traditionally considered as a kind of discourse whose function was to transmit epistemic knowledge in a purely objective way, studies conducted in the past two decades such as Thompson and Ye (1991), Hunston (1994), Hyland (2000), Bondi (2008), Hood (2010), and Dueñas (2010) have unveiled the persuasive nature of academic writing in which evaluative meanings are ubiquitous and writers' authorial evaluations are strategically constructed to help convince readers of the validity and soundness of writers' epistemic knowledge claims and to "construct a dialogue and relations of solidarity with the reader" (Hyland & Diani, 2009).

Despite the wide acknowledgement among scholars in the academia of the significance of evaluation in academic writing, especially in literature reviews which is the indispensable part in all academic genres (e.g., Hart, 1998; Feak & Swales, 2009; Dawidowicz, 2010), novice writers' English academic writing are commonly found to be short of authorial evaluation (e.g., Feak & Swales, 2009; Hood, 2004; Flowerdew, 2001) or filled with inappropriate evaluation (Xie, 2016). Given that L2 student writer's evaluating in English academic writing is a socio-cultural practice in essence which is subject to various personal and contextual factors, exploration of the possible factors for L2 student writers' evaluation performances can help to better understand their evaluating practice. However, in the extant literature, the majority of studies on L2 student writer's evaluation in English academic writing are text-oriented focusing on the features or patterns of authorial evaluation demonstrated in different academic texts such as argumentative essays (Hinkel, 1997; Wu & Rubi, 2000), postgraduate thesis introductions (Sun, 2009), undergraduate thesis abstracts (Feng & Zhou, 2007), etc., whereas research exploring the factors accounting for L2 student writers' evaluating practice away from the text itself are still rare.

In the context of mainland China, the group of postgraduates are growing fast in number each year, and English academic writing is a required skill for them to master given the lingua franca role of English in today's academic circle. There are a few studies investigating Chinese postgraduates' evaluation demonstration in English academic writing (e.g., Xie, 2016; Xu, 2007; Chen & Li, 2019) which revealed some general patterns of their evaluation, however, the potential contributive factors are underexplored and research from the perspective of students themselves can hardly be found. How do Chinese MA students see and understand evaluation in English academic writing? To answer this question, this study, as part of a larger project on Chinese students' evaluation in English academic writing, intends to investigate Chinese MA students' actual views of and attitudes towards evaluation in English academic writing with a focus on the subgenre of literature review, hoping to achieve a better understanding of their evaluating practice in English academic writing and provide pedagogical implications for the teaching of English academic writing in China as well as other similar L2 contexts.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Evaluation is a complicated concept which is not easy to define. Thompson and Ye (1991) interpreted evaluation as the conveying of the writer's view of the status of the information in his/her text, while Hyland and Diani (2009) regarded evaluation as a concept essentially concerned with the interpersonal meanings of language, that is, how the speaker/writer expresses his/her attitudes towards what he/she addresses and the material he/she addresses. The most often cited definition of evaluation was provided by Thompson and Hunston (2000) who defined evaluation as "a broad cover term for the expression of the speaker or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feeling about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about" (p. 5). This definition foregrounds that evaluation "has something to do with valuing and taking a position both to entities and to propositions" (Hood, 2010, p. 13). Basing on these definitions and oriented to academic discourse, this study defines *evaluation* in a broad sense as the writer's viewpoints on, emotions, attitudes, and positions towards the entities or propositions that are explicitly or implicitly encoded in the written academic texts.

Hyland and Diani (2009) highlighted the importance of evaluation in academic writing, saying that "among all the activities of the academy, what academics mainly do is evaluate" (p. 5). They also pointed out that evaluation performs three central functions in academic writing: 1) expressing the writer's opinion and thus reflects the value-system of the writer and their community; 2) helping to construct a dialogue and relations of solidarity between the writer and reader; and 3) assisting structure a text in expected ways. The importance of evaluation is especially obvious in the subgenre of literature reviews whose communicative purpose is to persuade the reader of the worth of the writer's study (Bunton, 2002; Kwan, 2006) and evaluation plays a critical role in achieving this aim (Hart, 1998; Feak & Swales, 2009; Dawidowicz, 2010). For example, writers need to evaluate key works and identify core authors and relevant studies to create a research niche for and justify their own research in the literature review (Hart, 1998).

However, practitioners in undergraduate and graduate education have repeatedly voiced their concerns about the inadequate evaluation in novice writers' academic writing (e.g., Feak & Swales, 2009; Hart, 1998; Hood, 2004, 2010). On the other hand, L2 novice student writers also perceive constructing appropriate evaluation in English academic writing as a highly challenging task (Hood, 2004). Analyzing from the perspective of journal editors, Flowerdew (2001) interviewed some journal editors and concluded that a lack of authorial voice characterizes L2 novice writers' academic writing and that the literature review is particularly problematic for them. Swales and Lindemann (2002) further listed some comments from professors on draft literature reviews written by graduate students or junior researchers as "merely a list" or "boringly chronological", which are "hard to know where the writer stand" and "need something more to evaluate and connect" (p. 107). As a matter of fact, a simple description or summary of previous studies appears to be a common phenomenon in novice writers' literature reviews, which are often "thinly disguised annotated bibliographies" (Hart, 1998, p. 1) rather than a "synthesized argument" (Xu, 2007, p. 13).

Among the many studies on L2 novice writers' evaluation in English academic writing, Xie's (2016) and Chen and Li's (2019) studies are particularly relevant to the present study. Through detailed textual analysis of Chinese MA students' evaluation in thesis literature reviews applying the appraisal framework, Xie (2016) found that these student writers, "in compliance with the institutionalized nature of academic writing" (p. 13), preferred evaluating the value of entities and propositions to judging other researchers or research behaviors or expressing personal emotions, and they encoded dominantly positive evaluation but stood neutrally when making references to other positions or voices. However, different from previous studies (e.g., Scollon, 1991; Hinkel, 1997) which suggested that Chinese students were prone to express evaluation indirectly in English academic writing, Xie revealed that the Chinese students "are not hesitant to express evaluation directly as the common stereotypical view would expect" (p.13) who encoded more explicit evaluations than implicit ones and they tended to be assertive in claim-making but often mitigated their assertiveness when evaluating. The author then argued that the Chinese students' preference for direct evaluation was a natural result of their change of evaluating "habit" over time given their greater exposure to English academic writing nowadays. Xie also mentioned that Chinese students' inadequate knowledge of evaluation due to its absence in instruction accounted for their problematic demonstration of evaluation. Chen and Li (2019) took a diachronic perspective and studied evaluation in Chinese MA thesis literature review chapters over two periods: 1990-2000 and 2005-2015. The findings revealed that the more recent student writers were "discursively more critical than their earlier counterparts" (p. 48). Similarly, the authors attributed this change to the recent relevant instruction on English academic writing offered by the relevant graduate program. Despite their inspiring findings, these two studies are still text-oriented, thus the authors could only resort to speculation when explaining the Chinese student writers' evaluation performance. How do present-day Chinese MA students actually view evaluation in English academic writing and do their understandings and knowledge of the matter explain their evaluation performance? These questions call for empirical research from the student's own perspective, which also specifically guided the present study.

III. METHODS

To elicit Chinese MA students' viewpoints of and attitudes towards evaluation in English academic writing, a questionnaire survey and follow-up interviews were conducted in the study.

A. The Participants

The questionnaires were distributed among 200 Year-3 Chinese MA students of Applied Linguistics in China. Altogether 174 valid questionnaires were retrieved and among the respondents, 15 were male and 159 were female, accounting for 8.6% and 91.4% respectively of the total number. This gender ratio is actually typical of the group of Chinese English-major students in China which is dominated by female students. The respondents were from 12 prestigious universities in China and the general information of them is provided in Table 1 below.

TABLE 1
GENERAL INFORMATION OF THE SURVEY RESPONDENTS

Respondents (N=174)		Geographical distribution of the universities						
M	F	Guangdong	Hunan	Beijing	Henan	Hong Kong	Shanghai	Chongqing
15 (8.6%)	159 (91.4%)	GDUFS	HNU	BUAA	HENAU	PolyU	ECNU	CQU
		JNU		UIBE		CUHK		
		SYSU		BISU				

The survey respondents were chosen out of two considerations: first, the English-major MA students generally have high English language proficiency which helps to rule out the potential variable of L2 writers' English language proficiency in evaluation demonstration in English academic writing. Second, English academic writing is a requirement for Chinese English-major MAs for fulfillment of MA degree whose theses are officially required to be written in English. The survey was administered at the beginning of their third academic year, which ensures that after two-year postgraduate study, the respondents generally have gained experiences in English academic writing and thus accumulated knowledge of English academic writing.

The interview participants were selected among the 174 survey respondents who indicated their willingness to take part in the follow-up interviews in the questionnaire. Following the principle of representativeness and accessibility, seven Year-3 MA students of Applied Linguistics were chosen from one university in Guangdong Province which is one of the most prestigious universities in English studies in China. The seven participants were all female students of a MA TESOL program in the university and they had taken one of the courses taught by the present researcher, which ensures the rapport between the researcher and the students.

B. The Questionnaire

Though this study is mainly concerned with Chinese MAs' views of and attitudes towards evaluation in English academic writing, their knowledge of academic writing and literature reviews in general can also shed light on their evaluating practice. Therefore, the questionnaire was designed to consist of four sections: Section One was about the students' demographic information such as name, gender, current institution, willingness to participate in the following interview, etc. Section Two aimed to elicit their views of academic writing, such as the importance, function and features of academic writing, their personal experiences in English academic writing, their assessments of their own abilities in English academic writing, and challenges and difficulties encountered in English academic writing. Section Three meant to generate respondents' understandings of the particular subgenre of literature review, such as its importance, content, generic structure, etc., Section Four was the major part which was designed to find out how the respondents view evaluation in academic writing, such as its importance in English academic writing and literature reviews, and their evaluating practices such as evaluation modes, evaluation types, objects of evaluation, and so on.

There were both close-ended questions (Example 1 below) and open-ended questions (Example 2) in the questionnaire, but the majority are mixed-type questions (Example 3). The questions were all in Chinese, the respondents' native language.

Example 1. Do you think it is necessary for academic writers to express personal evaluation (e.g., emotions, attitudes, opinions, positions) in English academic writing?

- a). very necessary b). necessary c). neutral d). unnecessary

Example 2. Could you briefly describe the ways in which you generally adopt or the steps you normally follow when writing a literature review?

Example 3. Do you think academic writers should directly or indirectly express their evaluations in English academic writing?

- a). directly b). indirectly

Why?

After the design of the questionnaire, the following measures were taken to ensure its validity and reliability: first, two professors who are familiar with the topic of this research were invited to read through the questions to assess whether the questions were pivoted on the topic under investigation, and to check for common errors like double-barreled, confusing, or leading questions. Afterwards a pilot study was administered among 30 Chinese MAs of Applied Linguistics for two times and Cronbach's Alpha (CA) was performed via SPSS to check the internal consistency of questions which generated a value of 0.87, indicating a fairly good internal consistency of the responses. Finally, the questions were revised based on the information gleaned from the previous steps.

The actual questionnaire survey was carried out via the popular online survey platform "Wen Juan Xin" which is free to the public and the respondents completed and submitted the questionnaire through the online link generated by the

platform.

C. The Interview

One-to-one and face-to-face in-depth interviews were carried out with the seven participants after they had completed and submitted their MA theses, through which they had gained more and deeper understandings and experiences of English academic writing. Since the interview was meant to generate more detailed ideas and thoughts from the students about evaluation in English academic writing, the interview guide also followed the three themes of the questionnaire survey: academic writing, literature review and evaluation in English academic writing. In the interview, the participants were first invited to elaborate on their responses in the questionnaire survey. Then the interview centered on their evaluating practice in their MA thesis so as to entice more detailed thoughts from them basing on their most recent thesis writing experiences.

The interviews were also semi-structured, as which can offer the researcher more organized and focused access to the interviewees' opinions while at the same time giving the interviewees a certain degree of power and control over the course of interviews (Nunan & David, 1992). That is to say, even though the interviews generally followed the interview guide, the specific forms and order of the questions were varied and tailored for the different student participants. All interviews were undertaken in Chinese and observed the principles of "rapport" and "neutrality" (Patton, 1990) in which the participants' voices were fully listened to and they were encouraged to share with frankness and comfort. Each interview took about one hour and was recorded with the permission of the participants.

D. Data Analysis

Data from the questionnaire survey and interviews were analyzed in different ways. The platform "Wen Juan Xing" through which the questionnaire survey was conducted can automatically generate statistical data according to the students' responses. Since the survey was exploratory in nature, a modest statistical analysis basing on the data generated by the platform was adopted in the study.

The interviews were transcribed verbatim into Chinese and then content analysis of the transcriptions was carried out according to the three broad themes (namely academic writing, literature reviews, and evaluation in English academic writing) on which the interview questions were based as discussed earlier. The data analysis involved synthesis and categorization to bring about enriched information on the students' knowledge of and attitudes towards evaluation in English academic writing, especially those that could shed light on their actual evaluation performance.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Chinese MAs' Views of English Academic Writing

For this section, the Chinese MA students were asked about their (1) experiences in English academic writing; (2) views on the importance of English academic writing; and (3) their assessments of their own English academic writing abilities.

According to the survey, the Chinese MA students' experiences in English academic writing mainly come from course paper and research proposal writing. Given that the respondents are Year-3 postgraduates, they are expected to have accumulated experiences in writing course paper which is the major assessment form for postgraduates in China. Actually, by the time of the survey, over half of the students (39.9% + 10.2%) (see Table 2) have written more than six course papers during the past two-year study, and 66% of them have finished the MA research proposal as different university has different schedule for submitting the research proposal. It is worth noticing that the dominant majority (85.6%) do not have any experiences in publishing research articles on English-medium journals. One out of the seven students in the interview had published one research article on a domestic journal, but when being asked why she had not tried to publish an English research article, she said "*Publishing an English research article is beyond my current capacity as a master student, because it is too demanding for us given our English language proficiency and research abilities.*" However, as Table 3 shows, 73.0% of the Chinese students consider English academic writing as very important, and 23% of them think it important, indicating that they have generally recognized the important role of English academic writing for their postgraduate study and future career. For example, one student said that "*English academic writing is very very important nowadays because most of the academic knowledge are transmitted in English.*" Despite their general recognition of the importance of English academic writing, most of the students (62.1%) assess their abilities of English academic writing as average, and some consider their English academic writing skill as poor (20%) or even very poor (2.9%), with only 14.9% of the students confidently labelling their abilities as good. This implies that English academic writing is still a very challenging task for the average Chinese MA students. When invited to specify the aspects in need of improvement in English academic writing, the most frequently mentioned aspect is logic argumentation which is "*hard to build over the extended segments in academic texts*", and another one is surprisingly language especially vocabulary: "*I feel my academic vocabulary is not professional and large enough and I have to repeat the same sentence structure and limited number of words again and again, thus turning my writing into a dull piece.*" This implicates that the teaching of English academic writing should give more weight to the instruction on argumentation and academic vocabulary because what the students find challenging is what needs to be focused on in the instruction.

TABLE 2.
CHINESE MAS' EXPERIENCES OF ENGLISH ACADEMIC WRITING

Type	0	1-5	6-10	Over 11
Course paper	0%	49.9%	39.9%	10.2%
Research article	85.6%	12.1%	2.3%	0%
Research proposal	33.3%	66.0%	0.7%	0%
Grant project	83.9%	14.4%	1.7%	0%

TABLE 3.
CHINESE MAS' VIEWS OF ENGLISH ACADEMIC WRITING

Importance of English academic writing	
Very Important: 127 (73.0%)	Important: 40 (23.0%)
Neutral: 6 (3.5%)	Unimportant: 1 (0.5%)
Ability in English academic writing	
Excellent: 0 (0.0%)	Good: 26 (14.9%)
Poor: 35 (20.1%)	Fair: 108 (62.1%)
	Very poor: 5 (2.9%)

When asked to rank the different parts in English academic writing in terms of difficulty, the Chinese students rated literature review as the most difficult, followed by methodology, results, discussion, abstract, introduction, and finally conclusion (see Figure 1). It is within expectation that literature review is viewed as one of the most challenging subgenre in English academic writing since in the literature review the writer not only needs to display his/her comprehensive knowledge of a particular area, but also to develop that knowledge through sound reasoning and good maneuver of evaluation. Moreover, the writer also needs to weave a strong argument for his/her novel study and certify his/her contribution to the disciplinary community. For a L2 novice academic writer, all these are effortful not only in terms of epistemic knowledge but also in terms of academic writing skill. Some students also mentioned that building coherence in literature review instead of “*patching the studies together randomly*” is also very demanding for them.

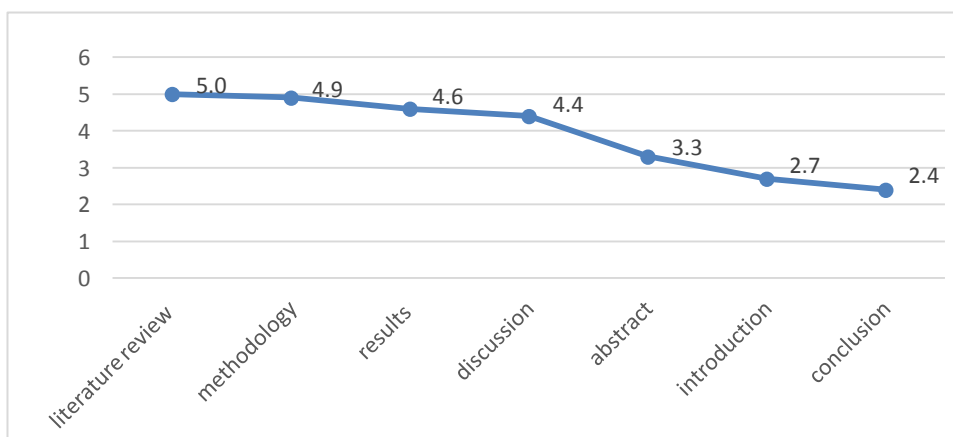


Figure 1. Ranking of different sections in terms of difficulty

B. Chinese MAs' Views of Literature Reviews

As discussed above, literature review is the subgenre that most Chinese MA students consider the most difficult, this section will present their understandings of literature reviews so as to shed light on their evaluating practice in literature reviews.

Among the 174 survey respondents, 109 (62.6%) view literature review as very important, 57 (32.8%) consider it important, with only eight students (4.6%) thinking it neutral and none viewing it unimportant. Therefore we can say that the Chinese MAs have generally recognized the importance of literature reviews in academic writing. For the content of literature review, there was a multiple-choice question in the survey which required the students to tell the “generic moves” which academic writers should include in literature reviews and the results are presented in Figure 2. We can see that 92.0% of the students consider “*analyzing and finding out the research gap in the literature*” as essential in the literature review, and 67.2% consider “*arguing for the centrality of one’s research topic*” and 66.1% consider “*arguing for the worth of one’s own study*” as essential. These three aspects actually correspond to the major moves of literature review proposed by Kwan (2006), indicating the majority of the Chinese MAs have formed a correct understanding of the content of literature reviews.

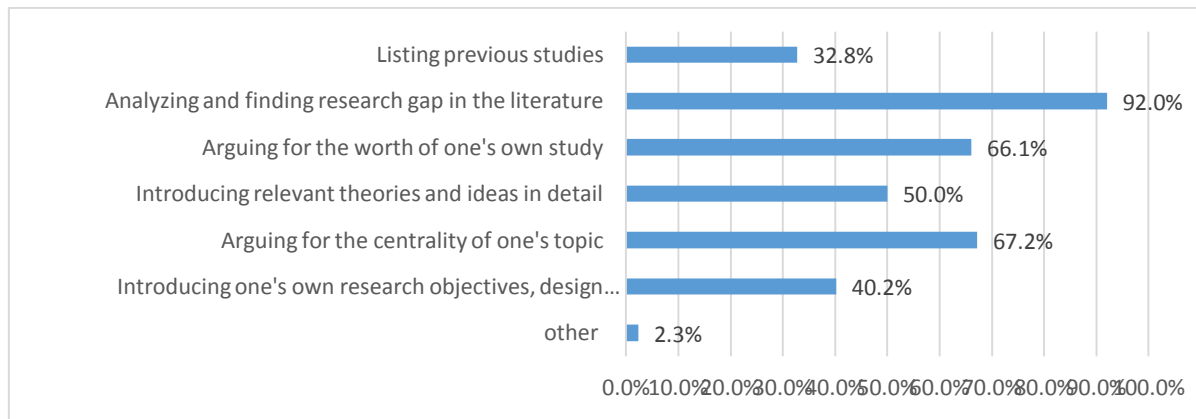


Figure 2. Chinese MAs' understandings of the content of literature reviews

However, there are still quite a number of students who seem to hold an imprecise comprehension of literature reviews which may account for some of the problematic practice in their literature review writing. For example, half of the survey respondents (see Figure 2) chose “*introducing relevant theories and ideas in detail*” and 32.8% of them selected “*listing previous studies*”, which can explain why quite a number of Chinese MAs turned their thesis literature reviews into pure descriptions of relevant theories and ideas in full details and gave a simple listing of previous studies without any synthesis or analysis as pointed by Xie (2016). As a matter of fact, some Chinese students consider the literature review as a mere description and summary of previous studies and theories, holding that writing literature review is to “*list previous studies one by one, describe relevant theories and their development in details, and summarize the literature in the end*” and thus making their literature reviews “overly descriptive” (Xie, 2016, p.13). It also deserves our attention that many Chinese MAs have developed a rigid pattern in organizing the literature: “*I first review the foreign studies, then the domestic ones, and finally summarize the whole literature*”. Though we cannot say that this pattern is wrong or inappropriate, more diversified overall structure deployment tailored for different research topics can and should be encouraged and taught in the teaching of literature review writing.

C. Chinese MAs' Views of Evaluation in English Academic Writing

1. General views and attitudes

This section presents Chinese MAs views of and attitudes towards evaluation in English academic writing, especially in literature reviews.

From Table 4, we can see that 21.3% of the Chinese students consider evaluation as very necessary in English academic writing and 43.1% of them consider it necessary. However, there are 29.9% of them standing neutrally towards the necessity of evaluation and 5.7% think evaluation unnecessary. This shows that though the majority of the postgraduates have realized the necessity of evaluation in English academic writing, there are still plenty of students have not developed such awareness. As for the subgenre of literature reviews, despite the wide acknowledgement of the importance of evaluation in literature reviews in the academia as discussed earlier, over 30% of the students (27.0%+6.3%) are still insensible of the importance of evaluation. Nevertheless, the majority of the students think expressing authorial evaluation as challenging in English academic writing with 10.3% of them view it as very difficult and 53.5% as difficult. This finding is in consistence with what Hood (2004) have found about novice L2 student writers in Hong Kong.

TABLE 4.
CHINESE MAS' VIEWS OF EVALUATION IN ENGLISH ACADEMIC WRITING

Necessity of evaluation in English academic writing		
Very necessary: 37 (21.3%)	Necessary: 75 (43.1%)	
Neutral: 52 (29.9%)	Unnecessary: 10 (5.7%)	
Difficulty of expressing evaluation in English academic writing		
Very difficult: 18(10.3%)	Difficult: 93 (53.5%)	
Neutral: 53 (30.5%)	Not difficult: 10 (5.7%)	
Importance of evaluation in literature review		
Very important: 24 (13.8%)	Important: 92 (52.9%)	
Neutral: 47 (27.0%)	Unimportant: 11 (6.3%)	
Evaluation: Direct or indirect?		
Direct: 87 (50.0%)	Indirect: 82 (47.1%)	Other: 5 (2.9%)
Evaluation: Positive or negative?		
Positive: 107 (61.5%)	Negative: 13 (7.5%)	Other: 54 (31.0%)

In terms of the mode of evaluation, Xie (2016) found that Chinese students were not hesitant in expressing evaluation directly in English academic writing. In the survey of this study, it is shown that half of the students (50.0%) think academic writers should express evaluation directly while nearly another half (47.1%) hold the opposite opinion. In the interview, students who agreed with the former explained that “*Academic writing, which is different from other types of*

writing, is mainly concerned about information and knowledge, so as long as my evaluation is objective and soundly based, why can't I express it directly?" The other students who considered indirect evaluation as more preferable said: "I tend to evaluate implicitly to be safe, because I feel not very confident given that I am not as knowledgeable as those established scholars." Therefore, it would not be wise to label the Chinese students either as direct or indirect in the case of expressing evaluation given the huge diversity existent among this group just like any other cultural groups around the world. With regard to the polarity of evaluation, the majority of the students (61.5%) think academic writers should encode positive evaluation in academic writing and only 7.5% of them deem negative evaluation to be the recommendable polarity. This is consistent with Xie's (2016) finding that positive evaluation dominates Chinese students' English academic writing, which is within expectation as building solidarity with the academic community is highly valued in the academia (Hyland, 2000). It is also worth mentioning that 31% of the Chinese MAs chose the "Other" option, thinking that "Either to encode positive or negative evaluation depends on the specific situation, and academic writers should evaluate objectively basing on reasonable and comprehensive judgement without considering whether it is positive or negative evaluation for its own sake."

When it comes to the object of evaluation, Chinese MAs' views and practices seem even more varied. As Table 5 shows, "the status quo of relevant fields" seems to be the most common object of evaluation among the Chinese students, with 42.0% of them often evaluate the status quo of extant literature and 19.5% of them always do so. "Other studies and opinions", "research topics and themes", and "relevant theories and analytical frameworks" are the following three aspects that are commonly targeted by the Chinese MAs with students assessing the three aspects regularly accounting for 36.8%, 34.5%, and 33.3% respectively of the total number. Chinese students appraise "other scholars and their achievements" as well as "one's own study" less commonly with 28.7% of them often evaluate other scholars and 27.6% often gauge their own studies. "Methodology and methods" is the least popular object of evaluation among the students with 21.8% of them evaluate this methodological aspect occasionally and 11.6% never evaluate this aspect. This is again within the researcher's expectation because evaluating methodology is epistemically exacting and master students in general are cognitively less equipped than PhD students or established scholars.

TABLE 5.
CHINESE MAS' OBJECTS OF EVALUATION

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Occasional	Never	Not clear
Other studies and opinions	17 (9.8%)	64 (36.8%)	44 (25.3%)	31 (17.8%)	15 (8.6%)	3 (1.7%)
Status quo of relevant fields	34 (19.5%)	73 (42.0%)	34 (19.5%)	20 (11.5%)	11 (6.3%)	2 (1.2%)
Theories and analytical frameworks	23 (13.2%)	58 (33.3%)	44 (25.3%)	29 (16.7%)	16 (9.2%)	4 (2.3%)
Methodology or methods	19 (10.9%)	43 (24.7%)	50 (28.7%)	38 (21.8%)	20 (11.6%)	4 (2.3%)
Scholars and their achievements	14 (8.1%)	50 (28.7%)	47 (27.0%)	28 (16.1%)	31 (17.8%)	4 (2.3%)
Research topics or themes	20 (11.5%)	60 (34.5%)	53 (30.5%)	22 (12.6%)	14 (8.1%)	5 (2.8%)
One's own study	13 (7.5%)	48 (27.6%)	47 (27.0%)	33 (19.0%)	28 (16.1%)	5 (2.8%)

Regarding the evaluation type, the majority of the postgraduate students (89.7%) hold evaluation in English academic writing should involve the social value of research entities and activities (see Figure 3), this view is compliant with the institutionalized nature of academic writing. However, only 38.5% of them deem demonstration of personal evaluative stances towards research propositions necessary, which to some extent explains the phenomenon that when referring to other propositions, Chinese students tend to stand neutrally towards the cited information as discovered by Xie (2016). It should be noted that there are 42.5% of the students believing that ethical judgement of other researchers or behaviors is appropriate for academic evaluation. This belief, however, is against the institutionalized nature of academic writing as which is less about appraisalment of person and behavior but more concerned with the social value and significance of research entities and propositions.

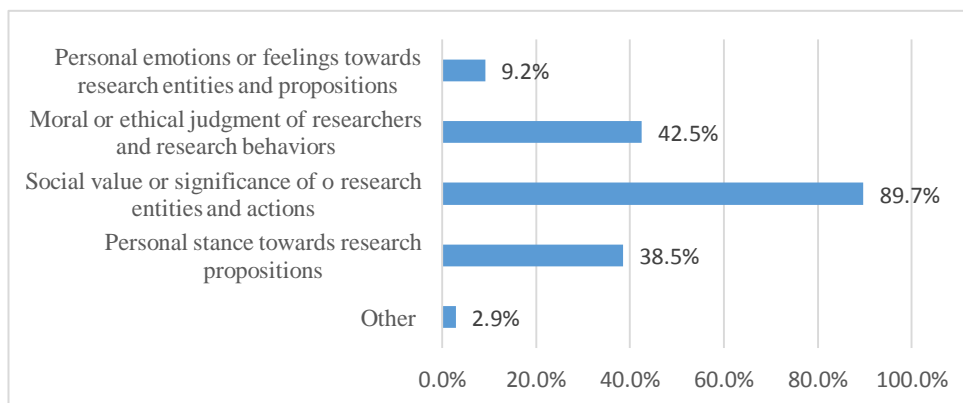


Figure 3. Chinese MAs' preferred types of evaluation

With regard to the assertiveness of evaluation, over half of the students indicated that they would soften the tone when making evaluations, because *"I am not confident in expressing personal opinions in academic writing"*, *"Softening the tone can make myself less vulnerable to criticism"*, *"I soften the tone to show my modesty"*, *"I soften the tone to avoid sounding too absolute since there are always exceptions"*. In contrast, there are also many students offering the adverse reply who would not soften their tone because *"this will make my evaluation appear unobjective and unprofessional"*, *"we should be crystal clear when making claims"*, *"uncertainty will lead readers to doubt the reliability of my claims"*, or *"academic writing should be precise without vagueness"*, etc. These views partly explain the coexistence of assertiveness and mitigation in Chinese MAs' literature reviews as found in the literature (e.g., Xie, 2016).

2. Possible influencing factors

Instruction has been considered as an influencing factor for Chinese students' evaluating practice in English academic writing (e.g., Xie, 2016; Chen & Li, 2019). This study found that there is a lack of sufficient instruction or guidance on evaluation for the Chinese MA students. As Table 6 shows, 77.6% of the survey respondents reported they had not received any explicit instruction on how to construct effective authorial evaluation in English academic writing. As a matter of fact, according to the present researcher's informal survey, relevant instruction on English academic writing for postgraduates in China mainly focuses on the broad format matter, such as the overall structure of a research paper, styles to follow in in-text citation and reference list, and technical means to reach resources, whereas content-based instruction such as argumentation deployment and evaluation demonstration are generally neglected. In addition, supervisors also play a vital role in guiding postgraduates to the conventionalized practice of English academic writing. However, only 29.3% of the students reported they had received guidance on evaluation demonstration in English academic writing from their supervisors. In the interviews, the students also mentioned that their supervisors mainly provided guidance in the general research design and overall structuring of the thesis, and seldom or even never offered any feedback about evaluation during the whole thesis writing process. Such common neglect from the course instructors and supervisors contribute to the novice Chinese students' scant knowledge of evaluation and consequently their problematic demonstration of evaluation, because it is hard for the students to intuitively appreciate the means of constructing effective authorial evaluation by themselves.

TABLE 6.
INSTRUCTION ON EVALUATION

Any instruction on evaluation from the course?	
Yes: 39 (22.4%)	No: 135 (77.6%)
Any guidance on evaluation from the supervisor?	
Yes: 51 (29.3%)	No: 123 (70.7%)

In addition to instruction, Chinese students' self-awareness of their academic status may be another reason for some of their evaluating performance. Over half of the students said they would think of their novice academic status when evaluating in academic writing, especially when they were trying to voice their own opinions, raise opposing opinions, or making negative evaluations. Considerations for such awareness are diversified: *"I would think of my novice status in the academic field and adjust my evaluation to make it more credible"*, *"I am worried that the professors in my committee will disapprove"*, or *"I am not confident in myself as I am nobody in the field, unlike those experts"*. On the other hand, many students said they would not consider their academic status when evaluating in academic writing because *"We should not consider the evaluator's academic status as a criterion for judging the validity of the evaluation"*; *"Academic evaluation is about the academic community in general and should not be taken personally as academic progress can only be achieved through open discussion, questioning and criticism"*; or *"My teachers are the only readers of my academic writing, so I can be honest and candid with them when making evaluation."*

V. CONCLUSION

This study, from the students' perspective, examined Chinese MA students' understandings of evaluation in English academic writing through questionnaire survey and interviews. Results of this study showed that the majority of the Chinese students have recognized the importance of evaluation in English academic writing, and their understandings of evaluation in terms of type, mode, polarity, content and objects are generally accurate and in compliance with the institutionalized nature of academic writing. However, there are still quite many Chinese students possessing inadequate knowledge and underestimation of evaluation in English academic writing, which can explain some of the problematic demonstration of evaluation by the Chinese students as reported in the literature. Insufficient guidance from the relevant instruction and supervisors on evaluation is also revealed in this study, which is partly responsible for students' inadequate knowledge of evaluation. Therefore, this study calls for explicit instruction on evaluation demonstration in the teaching of English academic writing as well as postgraduate supervisor's attention to and necessary guidance in students' constructing authorial evaluation in English academic writing.

This study focused on the L2 students' views of and attitudes towards evaluation in English academic writing and unveiled some possible contributive factors for the student writers' problematic performance of evaluation in English academic writing. Given that evaluating is a socio-cultural practice, more complicated objective and subjective factors are at play in the matter. Therefore, process-oriented perspective or teachers'/supervisors' angles are recommended for future studies so as to engender more enriched findings on the topic.

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Sociolinguistic Study of Pet Names among Couples in Nsukka Metropolis, Nigeria

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Abstract—This paper conducts a sociolinguistic study of pet names used among couples in Nsukka metropolis. It seeks to identify the pet names used among couples within Nsukka metropolis, examine the implications of the identified pet names, identify the sociolinguistic factors that contribute to the differences in the use of pet names among couples, and ascertain the language used by couples within Nsukka metropolis in communicating pet names. This research studies pet names used in six selected areas in Nsukka metropolis – *Echara, Ngwuru, Ihe n'Owerre, Amaeze, Nru, and University community*. This study adopts the descriptive method in analysing the data gathered. From the findings, it is observed that couples within Nsukka metropolis use both English and Igbo pet names in addressing their spouses. The identified pet names are used by the couples in communicating what they feel for each other; either to express the masculinity or femininity of their partners or to express how beautiful or handsome their partners are, and to portray their respect for their partners. Sociolinguistic factors such as age, gender, occupation, region and educational background are identified to serve as determinants as to why couples use pet names. In conclusion, couples within Nsukka metropolis use pet names they feel are suitable in communicating their feelings for their spouses and also use the language they feel is appropriate in communicating the said feelings.

Index Terms—sociolinguistics, pet names, terms of address, Nsukka

I. INTRODUCTION

To everything that exists in the universe, there is a unique identity. Names can identify a class, category of things or a single thing either uniquely or within a given context. It can also mean a word or combination of words by which a person is designated or called. This implies that a person, thing, body or class is known by the name it bears. Invariably, a name refers to a word or term used for identification. It serves as a renewable label for a thing, person, product (brand name), even an idea or concept normally used to distinguish one from another (Olieh, 2001). The names of individuals are meaningful and they are as important as the persons that bear them. Humans are given names at birth that reflect something of significance or describe the course of their lives. The importance of a name cannot be over emphasised. In view of this fact, Bing (1993) opines that “besides having psychological roles in establishing a person’s identity, names convey to those who know their origins and meanings, the social and cultural experiences of the people who created them” (p. 1). Names can be personal names, assumed names, Christian names, designated names (titles), family names, nicknames (sobriquets), pet names (affectionate names or terms of endearment) etc.

Naming is a universal cultural practice in the sense that every society has the habit of placing names on persons, objects and entities for distinction. The concept of naming is the process of assigning a word or phrase to a particular object, entity or property. This can be quite deliberate or a natural process that occurs in the flow of life as some phenomena come to the attention of the users of the language. Onomastics, which means the study of names has other branches which include; Anthroponomastics- the study of anthroponyms (proper names for a person or a group of people), Charactonym- study of names given to fictional characters in a piece of literature, Cryptonym- study of secret name which is used for the protection of the name bearer, Pseudonym- study of alternative names given to or used by a person in addition to or instead of an official or legal name, and Hypocorism- the study of pet names. For the purpose of this study, emphasis will be on hypocorism - the study of pet names or terms of endearment.

Pet names are names used by those who love or have affection for one another. It can also be seen as an affectionate substitute for a proper name. Therefore, it is a name that is used instead of someone’s usual first name to express fondness or familiarity. Such names show how a friend sees the other or what they think of each other. These names also exist among couples; they are used to signify the importance of one to another. Nsukka is a town and a Local Government Area in the South Eastern Nigeria of Enugu state. Towns that share common borders with Nsukka are Eha Alumona, Edem, Alor-uno, Opi, Orba, Ede-Oballa, Obukpa and Obimo. Other nearby towns are Enugu Ezike, Obollo-

Afor, Nimbo, Adani, Uzo Uwani and Mkpologwu. Nsukka town is the site of the University of Nigeria; which is also inhabited by the educated and the non-educated, the young and the old, the single and the married.

Pet names are remarkably universal methods of being demonstrative, showing affection and projecting tenderness. For instance, when a husband calls his wife “my treasure”, he feels the wife is a rare gem and a gift to him. When this happens and the wife feels the husband addressed her rightly, it increases the level of attraction she feels for the husband. Some other names like mummy, *obidiya*, *ugo m*, *asampete m*, *oyiridiya*, angel, mine, darling, baby (for women) and daddy, *nke m*, *di m oma*, *odiukonamba*, *obiajulu m*, *onyemjiribiri*, *oga m*, *nwokeoma* (for men) give couples a sense of attachment to each other. Afful and Nartey (2013) further observe that terms of endearment refer “to words or expressions used in an interactive, dyadic and face-to-face situation by a speaker to address or describe a person for which the speaker feels love or affection for” (p. 92). The use of these names differs among couples due to social, emotional, psychological and marital factors. Therefore, the aim of this research work is to conduct a sociolinguistic study of pet names among couples in Nsukka metropolis, Nigeria. Specifically, the objectives are to:

- i identify pet names used among couples in Nsukka metropolis;
- ii examine the implications of pet names used among couples in Nsukka metropolis;
- iii identify the sociolinguistic factors that contribute to differences in the use of pet names among couples in Nsukka metropolis; and
- iv ascertain the language of communicating pet names among couples in Nsukka metropolis.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Sociolinguistics is a branch of linguistics that studies language in relation to the society. Hudson (1996) defines sociolinguistics as “the study of language in relation to society” (p. 4). Thus, in sociolinguistics, one studies language and society in order to find out as much as one can, what language is all about. However, Holmes (1992) says that “the sociolinguist’s aim is to move towards a theory which provides a motivated account of the way language is used in a community and choices people make when they use language” (p. 16). For example, when one observes how varied language use is, one must search for the causes. These causes are known as their social correlates. In her own opinion, Mallinson (2015) believes that sociolinguistics aims “to study the effects of language use within and upon societies and the reciprocal effects of social organisations and social contexts on language use” (p. 13). Sociolinguists view language and society as being mutually constitutive; each influences the other in ways that are inseparable and complex.

Language is used in addressing people as well as communicating emotions. Addressing sometimes takes an emotional tone; addressees are called with friendlier, more passionate and more amiable tones. This marks the intimacy between the addresser and the addressee. Yule (2006) posits that words or phrases for a person being talked to or addressed are known as terms of address. More so, they are linguistic forms people use in a conversation use in addressing themselves. It indicates certain relationships between people and also shows the difference in identity, position and social status. Mahzad (2012) further notes that terms of address are linguistic forms that are used in addressing others or to attract their attention or for referring to them in the course of conversation. These address terms are socially driven; they mirror the complex social relations of individuals in a speech community. Terms of address are also used in different contexts. For instance, terms of address used by couples may be different from those used by peers. Forms of address are correlated with the social status and interpersonal relationship between the addressee and the addresser. It is worthy to note that the address forms used to address someone depend on the relationship of the participants, their attitude to each other and the situation in which the conversation is happening. Thus, Holmes (1992) says that “the variation depends on the participants, setting, topic and function of the talk” (p. 12). It is also affected by mood or feelings of participants. For Kriengkrai (2007), terms of address can be variously called ‘vocative’, ‘address terms’, ‘address forms’, ‘forms of address’ and ‘theory of address’. According to Braun’s (1988) classification, terms of address can be divided into three main categories or three word classes as follows: ‘pronoun’, ‘verb’ and ‘noun’.

However, names as forms of address terms show the relationship between language and the society (Salihu, 2014). Names play important roles in the society because they symbolise a man’s social position in relation to the people around him and his status is readily recognised. Thus, terms of address used to express intimacy can be called terms of endearment, pet names, sweet words, affectionate talk or terms of affection. Agnieszka (2015) posits that “terms of endearment serve to convey two main functions; on one hand, in some areas, they are part and parcel of everyday speech and one may find it unusual if they are left out because they express emotions and strengthen ties; on the other hand, such words may be perceived as disparaging or condescending, as they may imply incompetence, foolishness or weakness of addressee”. Thus, it is a form of address; a word or phrase employed either to address or describe a person, animal, or inanimate object for which the speaker feels affection. Laudau (2015) observes that the use of pet names is a good thing in relationships because partners who have developed pet names for their romantic partners use these names in expressing their affection for each other and also as an inside language when they are alone. Agnieszka (2015) subdivides terms of endearment into smaller sets. The vast majority of the sweet words fit into the mechanism of animal metaphor called ‘zoosemy’. They include chick, chuck, bunny, turtle, dove, lamb, duckling, lambie, kitten, mouse etc. Others belong to ‘foodsemy’- honey, cupcake, honey pie, sugar, muffin, cookie, peach, sugar pie etc.; ‘Plantosemy’- buttercup, pumpkin etc.; ‘toy endearment terms’- doll, baby doll etc.; ‘royal terms’ - queen, princess, duchess, king etc.; ‘sky terms’- star, sunshine, sun etc. Rakhman and Setiawan (2014) further note that terms of address are considered to

be polite and familiar terms used to show great intimacy. They maintain that address terms can be first name, nicknames, last name, title, multiple names, kinship terms, endearment terms and zero terms.

Afful and Nartey (2013) observe that terms of endearment can further be derived from coinages relating to personal names of the addressees. They observe that such forms are coined either from deletion of a vowel or consonant sound (hypocoristic forms) or insertion of a vowel or consonant sound. They further note that there are instances of reduplication. Examples are Lam-Lam (derived from Lamar), Georgie-Porgie (derived from George), Markiiiiii (derived from Mark), Queeny (derived from Queen) and Narty (derived from Nartey). Afful and Nartey (2013) note that despite the fact that their research uses English as a major means of communication, most of the terms of endearment identified were rendered in other languages; thereby pointing the use of terms of endearment for socio-pragmatic purposes and multi-lingual situation of the University studied.

Umeodinka (2015) studies affective meaning as it relates to marital life in Igbo. The research work seeks to examine what affective meaning is, kinds of expressions that indicate positive and negative affective meaning, ordinary meaning of these expressions and the effects of their usage in the marital life of the Igbo. Umeodinka (2015) uses data elicited from twenty couples chosen using the purposive sampling technique. He observes from his findings that affective expressions can be either positive or negative. Again, he observes that the old generation wives emphasise strong and responsible husbands as against the young generation, whose aim is mainly on love and mode of wealth of their husbands. Also, between the educated and non-educated couples, he finds out that the educated use a mixture of English and Igbo expressions while the non-educated use Igbo expressions. For the urban versus the rural dwelling couples, Umeodinka (2015) notes that the urban dwelling wives reflect socialisation and sophistication as they use more of English emotional expressions than the rural dwelling wives who use less English expressions. From the study, he concludes that emotional expressions are used based on the expression of personal love and beauty, indication of personal mood, appreciation and pride, walking into husband’s psychology, promotion of youthfulness in marriage, maintenance of marriage fun and sexual pleasure, expression of annoyance etc.

III. METHODOLOGY

This research adopts the survey design. This is to enable the researchers assess a wide variety of behaviours and other phenomena that can be studied in a typical naturalistic observation study. The area for obtaining data for this research work is Nsukka metropolis, Enugu State, Nigeria. This work focuses on couples (married men and women) within Nsukka metropolis; the educated and the non-educated. The choice of this population is to get first hand information on what pet names are used by these couples and what these names mean to these couples. This study adopts a random purposive sampling technique. This implies that from each of the regions, 15 couples are selected randomly to meet the need of obtaining necessary data for the study. Oral interview is employed in getting the required data for the research. Information gathered from the interview is analysed using descriptive method. This method is chosen because it is needful to explain and describe the pet names used by these couples.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

A. Presentation of Data

TABLE I
SHOWING PET NAMES IDENTIFIED IN THE STUDY AREAS

COMMUNITIES	PET NAMES FOR MALE SPOUSES	PET NAMES FOR FEMALE SPOUSES	PET NAMES FOR NEUTER GENDER
NGWURU	Daddy, <i>Pàpáá m̄</i> , <i>Pàp á</i> , <i>Nnà m̄ úkwú</i>	Mummy, <i>Nnē</i> , <i>Òriàkù m̄/Òr ìkù m̄</i> , <i>Bèkèè m̄</i> , Missis	<i>Nkè m̄</i> , Darling
ECHARA	Daddy, <i>Pàpáá m̄</i> , <i>Nnà m̄ úkwú</i>	<i>S ɔs ɔ́ ɛ̀ ɔ̀</i> , <i>Lòlò m̄</i> , <i>Nnē</i> , Mummy, <i>Nwáànyị ọm á/Nwáànyị ọm á</i> , <i>Òrièkù</i> , Missis, <i>Ọm áríchá m̄</i>	Dear, <i>Nkè m̄</i> , <i>Ọyòó m̄</i> , Bestie, Mine
AMAEZE	Daddy	<i>Bèkèè m̄</i> , <i>Nnē</i> , Mummy, <i>Lòlò m̄</i> , <i>Òrièkù m̄</i> , <i>Ọm áríchá m̄</i> .	<i>Ọyòó m̄</i> , <i>Ọnyéè m̄/Ọnyé nkè m̄</i> , <i>Nkè m̄</i> , <i>Ọdìmnòbì</i> , My darling, Dear
NRU	<i>Pàpáá m̄</i> , Daddy, <i>Nnà m̄ úkwú</i>	<i>Òrièkù m̄</i> , Mummy, <i>Lòlò m̄</i> , My queen	Dear, Sweetheart, <i>Ụtọ́ m̄</i> , <i>Nkè m̄</i> , <i>Ọyòó m̄</i> , Bestie
IHE N’OWERRE	Hubby, King (B.I), Daddy, <i>Nnà m̄ úkwú</i>	<i>Nwáènyị ọm á</i> , Mummy, <i>Lòlò m̄</i> , My queen	My world, <i>Ọdìmnòbì</i> , <i>Nkè m̄</i> , <i>Ọnyéè m̄</i> , Dear, <i>Ọyòó m̄</i> , My love
UNIVERSITY COMMUNITY	Daddy, My cute, Hubby,	Mummy, <i>Nnē</i> , My angel, <i>Bèkèè m̄</i> , My queen, <i>Ọm áríchá m̄</i>	Honey, Mine, <i>Nkè m̄</i> , My love, Best m, Dear, Darling, Sweetheart, <i>Ọyòó m̄</i>

The table above shows pet names used among couples in Nsukka metropolis according to the six regions under study. These regions include Ngwuru, Echara, Nru, Amaeze, Ihe n’Owerre and the University community. The pet names sourced are subdivided into; pet names used for male spouses, pet names used for female spouses and pet names for neuter gender (both male and female spouses). It is pertinent to know that most of these pet names occurred almost in all the regions. Most of the pet names like ‘daddy’, ‘mummy’, ‘*òyòó m̄*’, ‘*nnē*’ and ‘*nkè m̄*,’ are frequently used

On the other hand, most non-educated couples who have less or no contact with Western education often use pet names that are available in their dialect/language. Since these couples have no integrity to save, they make do with what is obtainable within their locality. These groups of couples use pet names like *nnē, nwáenyị ómá, ór íkù m, ùtó m, pàpáá m/pàpá, ónyéé m/ónyé nkè m, nnà m úkwú, missis, s às òr ò à*

4. Occupation

Different works people do also affect their use of pet names towards their partners. It is gathered from the study conducted that most business men and women use pet names like *nkè m, òyóó m, daddy, mummy, dear, òr íkù, pàpáá m*. Also, petty traders and way side traders use pet names like *sòsòrisò, nnē, nnà m úkwú, missis, òrièkù*. Couples who are civil servants, nurses, chemists and teachers often use pet names like daddy, mummy, dear, mine, best, bestie, honey, darling, sweetheart. However, the name '*nkè m*' is generally used notwithstanding the couples' occupations or societal classes.

5. Region

Another sociolinguistic factor that affects the use of pet names among couples in Nsukka metropolis is the region in which the people live. This could be a rural or urban area. For this study, areas under study like Echara, Ihe n'Owere, Nru, Ngwuru, and Amaeze are all rural areas. It is observed that pet names used in these areas are mostly Igbo pet names except for people who have had contact with other areas. Thus, prevalent pet names used in these areas include: *nnē, òyóó m, òr íkù m, sòsòrisò, pàpáá m/pàpá, nnà m úkwú, missis, nkè m, ónyéé m/ónyé nkè m, lóplò m, òdìmnóbì*. They also use English pet names like daddy, mummy, dear, darling, mummy, hubby, king (B, I) but these names are not often used. Most of the couples in these rural areas use other terms of address like *nwáenyị / nwáenyị hú*, calling their partners by their children's names or using their partners' first names.

In the University of Nigeria community, which is considered to be an urban area, it is observed that couples there use mostly English pet names; however, few of them use Igbo pet names. They use pet names like mummy, mine, daddy, my angel, my cute, my love, best, bestie, my queen, dear, darling, sweetheart, honey, and hubby. Some Igbo pet names used include *nkè m, bèkèé m, òyóó m, ómárichá m, nnē*. Also, it is observed that some of these couples address their partners using other address terms like calling them their children's names (tekonyms).

D. Language of Communicating Pet Names among Couples in Nsukka Metropolis

Couples in Nsukka metropolis use both English and Igbo pet names in addressing themselves. Most of these couples use both Igbo and English pet names in addressing their respective partners. It is rare to see a couple who uses Igbo or English pet names exclusively. Furthermore, the use of these pet names differs due to some sociolinguistic factors like age, gender, occupation, region and educational background.

Older couples who have been married for 25 years and above use Igbo pet names majorly, though they also use English pet names that can be said to be general among couples like daddy, mummy, dear and sweetheart; while younger couples married for 1-20 years mostly use English pet names though some of them also make use of Igbo pet names. Couples married for 20-25 years are observed to use both English and Igbo pet names so far as they are able to communicate their feelings about their spouses. On the basis of occupational influence, couples that are civil servants mostly use English pet names while couples who are either business men or farmers mostly use Igbo pet names though there are traces of English pet names among these groups. Couples living in the rural areas tend to use more of Igbo pet names than those who reside in urban areas, who have had contact with both education and civilisation. Also, couples that are educated mostly address their partners using English pet names though some of them also prefer to use Igbo pet names that better convey their feelings for their partners. However, non-educated couples, though they make use of English pet names, employ Igbo pet names more due to their environment and occupation which is mostly business and farming.

Non-educated couples who reside in the rural areas, whose occupation is either business or farming, frequently employ Igbo pet names in addressing their spouses. These couples may fall under any of the duration used above; they might be newly married couple, middle aged couple or older couple, while educated couples who reside in urban areas, who are mostly civil servants, frequently use English pet names.

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study is carried out in six regions of Nsukka Local Government Area of Enugu state, Nigeria; Ngwuru, Echara, Nru, Ihe n'Owere, Amaeze and the University community. From the findings, it is observed that couples within these regions use (thirty-one) 31 pet names which co-occur among couples in these regions. From the study, couples who have lived for 1-15 years mostly employ English pet names due to their exposure to education and civilisation which couples that have lived together for 20 years and above might not have. Furthermore, in terms of regions (where these couples dwell), it is observed that couples living in rural areas like Ngwuru, Nru, Echara, Amaeze and Ihe n'Owere use Igbo pet names more than those who live in Nsukka urban area like the University community. Unlike the non-educated couples, the educated couples employ pet names that showcase their integrity as educated people. They mostly employ English pet names. It is also pertinent to note that educated couples do not usually address their spouses using their children's names because they see it as archaic or out of fashion for educated or civilised people. Thus, factors like age, gender, educational background and region have been identified as sociolinguistic factors that determine which of the

pet names is used by each couple and how often they use these pet names in expressing their feelings towards their partners.

Furthermore, it could also be deduced that the languages of communicating these pet names among couples within Nsukka metropolis are the English and Igbo languages. The use of either of these languages is also determined by sociolinguistic factors like age (number of years the couples have lived together), gender, educational background and region. Couples who reside in rural areas employ Igbo pet names more those who reside in urban areas. This is because couples in urban areas have opportunities to formal education and civilisation than those dwelling in the rural areas. It is also important to note that couples also use a particular language; the Igbo or English language depending on the feelings they want to communicate to their spouses. They use the language that enables them express their feelings better to their spouses. Some educated couples who use Igbo pet names do so not because there are no available pet names in the English language rather, they want to use a suitable language to communicate their feelings. However, the language for communicating pet names among couples in Nsukka metropolis depends on what the couples want to achieve with the pet names they employ.

APPENDIX

Table showing meaning of Igbo pet names used among couples in Nsukka metropolis

IGBO PET NAMES	GLOSS/MEANING
Pápáá m̄	My father
Pápá	Father
Nnà m̄ úkwú	My lord
Nnē	Mother/Dear
Òriákù m̄/ Òriékù m̄	The one that consumes my wealth
Békéé m̄	My English baby
Nkè m̄	Mine
Sòsòrisò	Sexy queen
Lóòlò m̄	My queen
Nwáányị ómá/ Nwáenyị ómá	Good woman/ Beautiful woman
Óyóó m̄	My friend
Òmárichá m̄	My finest
Ónyéé m̄	My person
Ónyé ñkè m̄	My personal person
Òdìnnóbi	The one in my heart

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Research on Constructing “Parallel Contrast Corpus of Grammatical Errors”*

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Abstract—Error analysis and interlanguage are two cores in second language acquisition research. Researchers have conducted studies and established corpora from various perspectives based on Big Data. However, most of the existing interlanguage corpora provide no feedback for students, which resulted in the barrier of improving self-study efficiency. Additionally, interlanguage systems are influenced by nationalities, while there is a vacancy on the construction of divisional interlanguage corpora. Based on previous studies and error analysis of BNU-Cardiff Chinese College students, this study proposes an idea and model of “Parallel Contrast Corpus of Grammatical Errors” for native English speakers in Chinese learning.

Index Terms—Chinese as a foreign language, error analysis, interlanguage, parallel contrast corpus

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese language and culture have appealed to more foreigners, and the number of international students in China has reached over half a million in 2019, half of which are diploma education students. With greater influence, along with *the Belt and Road Initiative*, China has maintained closer and deeper interactions with the world. Chinese, thus, is used more and more frequently. This leads to a pressing demand of epoch elites who proficient in Chinese language and culture. The established Confucius Institutes throughout the world have made great contributions to cultivate their language ability, however, without a diploma. Thus, many countries start to cooperate with Chinese Universities to train professionals in China-related affairs through diploma education, such as Beijing Normal University-Cardiff University Chinese College (hereinafter referred to as “Chinese College”), whose aim is to cultivate future Chinese-related talents with knowledge of Chinese language and culture. Therefore, it’s urgent to improve their Chinese acquisition efficiency and set up an online platform for them to do self-corrections.

Language learners and researchers are concerned about non-standard expressions derived from the interior linguistic system, also known as ERROR (Corder, 1981). However, the learners pay attention to the common use of verbal communication, while the researchers focus on their erroneous expressions. Different focuses result in divergence between teaching and learning, which influences the Chinese acquisition efficiency. The existing Chinese interlanguage corpora also have many limitations, lying in the restricted access to teachers and researchers, while students are not provided with a platform for independent study and self-correction. Moreover, the insufficient corpus annotations make it impossible to conclude the characteristics of interlanguage systems of people under the same language background.

To propagate Chinese, the present study aims to construct “Parallel Contrast Corpus of Grammatical Errors” based on a contrast method, which helps to overcome the defects mentioned above. Every error originated from learners under the same native language is profoundly analyzed with parallel comparison over error form, correct form, translation form and relative explanations. From the contrasts, language learners can seek for the regulations by themselves.

According to previous studies and current corpora, this study focuses on Chinese learners who are native English speakers to deeply investigate their grammar errors and to filter marginal grammar errors. Meanwhile, specific grammatical errors from “Chinese College” students are chosen, corrected, synthesized and analyzed. The outcomes, therefore, not without justification to depict the learning features of this special group, supporting a practical platform for language learners to self-correct their outputs.

II. REVIEW OF CORPORA RELATED RESEARCHES

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Previous research includes collecting all the grammatical error corpora from essays that refer to native English speakers. Focusing on grammatical errors in Chinese as a foreign language, aiming to make Chinese learners realize that “the spoken words and written sentences basically conform to Chinese grammar” (Lu, 1998, p.2), the materials are sorted out, forming “Chinese Grammatical Error Corpus” (hereinafter referred to as Corpus I).

A. Definition of “Grammatical Error”

Lu (1984) introduced the concept of “interlanguage” and “error” into China and applied it in teaching Chinese as a foreign language (1992). He also discussed the grammar (including morphology and syntax) in detail (1994). “Error” refers to “(in the speech or writing of a second or foreign language learner) the use of a linguistic item in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning.” (Richards, 2000, p.157). However, Researchers have a divergence of views about its boundary. Some speak of it refers to “illegal” usages (according to the grammatical rules), while others believe it also includes unidiomatic expressions. This study concurs with the first opinion. The reasons are as follows: (1) “Illegal” and unidiomatic usages essentially belong to the grammatical and pragmatic perspectives accordingly. Researches on grammatical errors and the construction of relevant corpora should stick to grammar firmly. (2) Pragmatics can’t be explained clearly in a few words due to the complicated Chinese culture. It is also hard for beginners to comprehend and acquire. (3) Language conventions are influenced by regional and personal factors, resulting in the subjectivity in pragmatic judgment. Therefore, this study sifts the unidiomatic expressions out to maximize the objectivity of the outcomes.

TABLE I
UNIDIOMATIC EXPRESSION

E.g.	Original Sentence	Correct Formation
1	ping guo duoshaoqian mei jin 苹果多少钱每斤?	ping guo duoshaoqian yi jin ping guo mei jin duoshaoqian 苹果多少钱一斤? /苹果每斤多少钱?
E.T ¹	How much are the apples per pound?	
CUS ²	Native language transfer	
2	wó men bān yǒu shí qī shí bā gè xué shēng 我们班有十七、十八个学生。	wó men bān yǒu shí qī bā gè xué shēng 我们班有十七八个学生。
E.T	There are seventeen or eighteen students in our class.	
CUS	Insufficient knowledge of the target language	

The examples above are unidiomatic expressions, which are rarely heard from native Chinese. E.g.1 is clearly influenced by English. The word “per” stands for “měi 每” in Chinese. Through literal translation, “měi jīn 每斤” is placed at the end of the sentence as the phrase “per pound” is, causing the disorder in the Chinese sentence. However, it doesn’t affect understanding and communication. Similar occasions also occur in native Chinese. For instance, people in Northern China always use Inversion Sentence, like “chī le ma, nín 吃了吗,您? (have had a meal, you?)”, in contrast to the conventional way “nín chī le ma 您吃了吗? (you have had a meal?)”. It doesn’t belong to grammatical error for its using frequency in the dialect, and this kind of “illegal” usages will transform into “legal” ones if they are widely acknowledged.

E.g.2 refers to Chinese expressions of approximate numbers. The phrase “shí qī, shí bā gè xué shēng 十七、十八个学生(seventeen or eighteen students)” makes a semantic error without conveying the idea of uncertainty about class size, hence the approximate number “shí qī bā 十七八(lit. ten seven eight)” should be used instead. According to the definition of grammar (Richards, 2000), the original form is correct.

To summarize, subjective experience is frequently used to define unidiomatic usages when analyzing corpus materials, leading to controversial explanations. Thus, it is necessary to prescribe the objects of this research, which are the “illegal” outputs with grammatical errors.

B. Questions on “Reached Achievements”

After collecting and analyzing independently of “illegal” corpora based on grammar rules, the outcome shows that some previous conclusions are controversial. These questioned corpora are categorized as “Questioned Errors”, including inappropriate classification, lack of context, misplaced error and artistic treatment.

1. Inappropriate classification. It is mainly caused by partial analysis of multi-typed errors, referring to more than one error in a sentence, while researchers often focus on one grammatical point so that they might ignore others. Typical examples are listed below:

¹ “E.T” is the abbreviation of “English Translation”.

² “CUS” is the abbreviation of “cause”.

TABLE II
INAPPROPRIATE CLASSIFICATION

E.g.	Original Sentence	Correction by Researcher
3	rú guǒ bǎ wǒ néng cǎi yòng wǒ yuàn zuò zài nǐ men gōng sī de tuī xiāo yuán. 如果把我能采用，我愿做在你们公司的推销员。	rú guǒ bǎ wǒ néng cǎi yòng wǒ yuàn zuò nǐ men gōng sī de tuī xiāo yuán. 如果把我能采用，我愿做你们公司的推销员。
C.F ³	rú guǒ néng bǎ wǒ lù yòng wǒ yuàn zuò nǐ men gōng sī de tuī xiāo yuán. 如果能把我录用，我愿做你们公司的推销员。	
E.T	If I were hired, I would be willing to work as a salesman in your company.	
4	xiě dé jù zǐ zǒng shì tài cháng yǒu shí hou xiě cuò zì 写得句子总是太长有时候写错字。	tā xiě dé jù zǐ zǒng shì tài cháng yǒu shí hou hái xiě cuò zì 他写得句子总是太长有时候还写错字。
C.F	tā xiě dé jù zǐ zǒng shì tài cháng yǒu shí hou hái xiě cuò zì 他写的句子总是太长，有时候还写错字。	
E.T	Sentences are too long, sometimes typos.	

The researcher takes the error in e.g. 3 as the redundant preposition “zài 在(on)” before the object, while other errors are ignored: (1) The disordering of a modal verb in “bǎ zì jù 把字句 (passive disposal sentence)”. (2) Confusing “lù yòng 录用 (hire)” and “cǎi yòng 采用 (adopt)”.

The most prominent error of e.g.4 is the lack of adverb “hái 还 (and also)”. The researcher studies adverbs, but neglects the indistinct usage of “de (variants 的, 地, 得 according to different patterns)”. Their sole focus results in inappropriate classifications of multi-typed errors. Although some of them make corrections, they don't give complete explanations.

2. Lack of context. Corpus without context is always ambiguous. Given a proper context, the error is corrected. During a certain process of survey, researchers always pick out the sentence with errors from a paragraph or discourse, detaching it from the context. Although it reduces workload and seems clear enough, the ambiguity can't be ignored to some extent.

Without context, e.g.5 can be explained in different ways: (1) The two characters have no blood relation, but “he” treats “me” as his own child. Under this circumstance, the original sentence is complete without modification. (2) If the narrator claims that he or she has grown up, then the conjunction “hái 还” should be added to express the complaining tone towards the other character, who still regards the narrator as a little kid. The researcher only analyzes the latter without giving a supportive context, thus the readers may feel confused. E.g.6 is also ambiguous due to different tenses: (1) September is in the future and “he” has not but will come to China. Thus, the usage of “zài 再” is appropriate, but “le 了” is redundant for collocation principles. (2) September has passed and “he” has already come to China. “yòu 又” should be used accordingly, collocating with the structural auxiliary word “le 了” to show the past tense. To improve corpora, the context is a significant clue to assess the error accurately and make appropriate modifications.

TABLE III
LACK OF CONTEXT

E.g.	Original Sentence	Correction by Researcher
5	kě shì tā bǎ wǒ dāng chéng hái zǐ yí yàng dài wǒ. 可是，他把我当成孩子一样对待我。	kě shì tā hái bǎ wǒ dāng chéng hái zǐ yí yàng dài wǒ. 可是，他还把我当成孩子一样对待我。
E.T	However, he (still) takes me (as a kid) and treats me like a kid.	
A.R ⁴	The condition that he treats me as a kid is ongoing, thus “hái 还” should be added ⁵ .	
6	jīn nián jiǔ yuè tā zài lái zhōng guó le. 今年九月，他再来中国了。	jīn nián jiǔ yuè tā yòu lái zhōng guó le. 今年九月，他又来中国了。
E.T	This September, he came to China again.	
A.R	The main difference between adverbs “zài 再” and “yòu 又” (both contain the meaning of “again”) is “zài 再” is used when a continuous or repetitive action has not happened, while “yòu 又” for already happened ⁶ .	

3. Misplaced error. This indicates grammatically correct corpora which are able to use in daily communication. The redundant error is placed and needless analysis is done because some researchers try to support their research without independent analysis of each corpus; some might be subjectively influenced by their regional and traditional culture.

³ “C.F” is the abbreviation of “Correct Formation”.

⁴ “A.R” is the abbreviation of “analysis by researchers”.

⁵ The original text is Chinese. 把我当孩子看这种状态的持续进行,所以应加上“还”. The English is translated by the author.

⁶ The original text is Chinese. “再”和“又”的主要区别是表示动作重复或者继续时,“再”用于未实现的,“又”用于已实现的. The English is translated by the author.

TABLE IV
MISPLACED ERROR

E.g.	Original Sentence	“Correction” by Researchers
7	měi guó rén dōu jué de zuì hǎo cóng zì jǐ de cuò wù xué duì de bàn fǎ 美国人都觉得最好从自己的错误学对的办法。	měi guó rén dōu jué de zuì hǎo cóng zì jǐ de cuò wù xué xí duì de bàn fǎ 美国人都觉得最好从自己的错误学习对的办法。
E.T	Americans deem that it's the best way to learn from their own mistakes.	
8	tā bìng bú shì yí wèi hěn shòu de nǚ hái , ér shì tā de shēn cái bǐ jiào fēng mǎn 她并不是一位很瘦的女孩,而是她的身材比较丰满。	tā bìng bú shì yí míng hěn shòu de nǚ hái , ér shì tā de shēn cái bǐ jiào fēng mǎn 她并不是一名很瘦的女孩,而是她的身材比较丰满。
E.T	She is not very thin, but rather, quite plump.	

E.g.7 refers to a choice of monosyllabic or disyllabic words. The modification of “xu é学” to “xu é x í学习” is needless because “xu é学” can replace “xu é x í学习” as they both stand for study. For e.g.8, there are no differences in meanings and semantic preference between classifier “w ǎ 位” and “m íng 名” that both indicating a person, hence it’s unnecessary to make a distinction here.

4. Artistic treatment. Literary expressions focus on elaborating different words, artistic conceptions and elucidation of ideas. Therefore, grammar is not the main concern. A treatment that meant to create an artistic conception is acceptable and cannot be regarded as an error.

TABLE V
ARTISTIC TREATMENT

E.g.	Original Sentence	Correction by Researchers
9	bù zhī bù jué , wǒ zài běi jīng yǐ jīng guò le liǎng gè qiū tiān , liǎng nián de shí jiān 不知不觉, 我在北京已经过了两个秋天, 两年的时间, fā shēng le xǔ duō ràng wǒ yú kuài , ràng wǒ shāng xīn de shì qing 发生了许多让我愉快, 让我伤心的事情。	bùzhībùjué , wǒ zài běijīng yǐjīng guò le liǎng gè qiūtiān , zhèliǎngnián de shíjiān fāshēng le 不知不觉, 我在北京已经过了两个秋天, 这两年的时间, 发生了 xǔduō ràng wǒ yúkuài , ràng wǒ shāngxīn de shìqing 许多让我愉快, 让我伤心的事情。
E.T	Unconsciously, I've witnessed two autumns in Beijing, when many cheerful and sad things have happened.	

There is no need to add the pronoun “zh è这” before the phrase relates to time “liǎng ni ǎn de shí jiān 两年的时间”. In addition, grammar errors in literary sentences are personalized and can only be applied to high-levelled language learners, hence these “errors” have little reference value.

These four types of mistakes above will highly impair the accuracy of analysis and the efficiency of corpus data. To use the corpora efficiently and make error analysis reasonable, we should: (1) List the correct formation in English. It helps to figure out the relationship between error and the negative influence of the native language during the comparison. Moreover, it is easier to approach what Chinese learners are trying to convey from the perspective of English expression, paving a way to analyze and modify errors accurately. (2) Annotate the necessary context. When doing error analysis, researchers should give brief explanations to avoid ambiguity and provide abundant information for readers to make independent analyses. (3) Make complete corrections. Take every possibility into consideration, especially when analyzing corpora with multi-typed errors. (4) Error corpora aim mainly at benefiting beginners and intermediate-levelled language learners. Sentences with literal modifications should be chosen carefully.

III. ERROR OUTPUTS OF “CHINESE COLLEGE” STUDENTS

This study mainly targets “Chinese College” students, gathers their grammar errors from daily quizzes throughout the whole semester, and forms the “Grammatical Error Corpus of Chinese College Students” (hereinafter referred to as Corpus II). The characteristics of this group can be concluded according to the results. Comparing to Corpus I, the similarities and differences between “Chinese College” students and other native English speakers can be illustrated.

A. Characteristics of Chinese College Students

This study selects junior-year “Chinese College” students who have a similar environment and cultural background. All of them, generally beginners, have been studying Chinese for less than three years. According to Corpus II, they have made similar errors, such as the confusion of the word “zhuān m ǎn 专门 (specialize)” when making sentences with it.

According to Table 6, students generally believe that “zhuān m ǎn 专门” is a noun, while it can only be applied as an adverb. When outputting Chinese, they fail to distinguish “zhuān y è 专业 (major)”, “zhuān zh í 专职 (specific duty)” and “zhuān m ǎn 专门”. One possible reason is the insufficient input of Chinese, or it may lie on the negative influence of English. The word “major” can be used as a noun, a verb as well as adjective, with flexible positions in sentences. When translating “major” into Chinese, students misuse “zhuān m ǎn 专门” to substitute “zhuān y è 专业” and “zhuān zh í 专职”.

TABLE VI
CHINESE COLLEGE STUDENTS USE THE WORD “ZHUǍN MÈN 专门” IN SENTENCES

E.g.	Error Formation	Correct Formation
10	méi pó de zhuǎnmén shì zuò méi. 媒婆的专门是做媒。	méi pó shì zhuǎnmén zuò méi de rén méi pó de zhuǎn shì zuò méi. 媒婆是专门做媒的人。/媒婆的专职是做媒。
E.T	Matchmakers are people who specialize in matchmaking.	
11	hàn yǔ shì wǒ men de zhuǎnmén 汉语是我们的专门。	wǒ men zhuǎnmén xué hàn yǔ 我们专门学汉语。
E.T	We specialize in Chinese.	

In accordance with Corpus II, the main causes of errors are the unfamiliarity with part of speech and the meaning of a word. As a result, for beginners, the difficulty lies in vocabulary accumulation. Advanced grammar rules are not their primary missions. To improve acquisition efficiency, graded teaching with proper learning materials is necessary, to which the construction of corpora with learner’s Chinese levels and error categories is helpful.

B. Distinctions between Corpus I and Corpus II

1. Similarities. Beginners and intermediates, including “Chinese College” students, always have difficulty with everyday vocabulary, especially content words like verbs and nouns. They are also negatively influenced by their mother tongue as other native English speakers are.

TABLE VII
COMPARISON OF ERROR CORPORA ABOUT “JIÉ HŪN 结婚(MARRY)”

E.g.	Error Formation	Correct Formation
12 (Corpus I)	mǎ lì jié hūn le tāng mǔ 玛丽结婚了汤姆。	mǎ lì hé tāng mǔ jié hūn le mǎ lì jià gěi le tāng mǔ. 玛丽和汤姆结婚了。/玛丽嫁给了汤姆。
E.T	Mary married Tom.	
13 (Corpus II)	tā dǎ suàn míng nián jié hūn tā de nǚ péng yǒu 他打算明年结婚他的女朋友。	tā dǎ suàn míng nián hé tā de nǚ péng yǒu jié hūn qǐ tā de nǚ péng yǒu 他打算明年和他的女朋友结婚/娶他的女朋友。
E.T	He plans to marry his girlfriend next year.	

“Marry” is a transitive verb, while “jié hūn 结婚 (marry)” usually collocates with the conjunction “hé 和 (with)”. Besides, “jié hūn 结婚” can be substituted with the intransitive verb “jià 嫁 (a woman getting married)” and the transitive verb “qǐ 娶 (a man getting married)”, sharing the same English expression of “marry someone”. Learners, especially beginners, translate “marry” directly into “jié hūn 结婚” and “jià 嫁” due to the negative transfer of native language, missing the conjunction “hé 和” and the preposition “gěi 给” accordingly. It also causes disorder in Chinese sentences.

2. Differences. “Chinese College” students present their own group distinctions. (1) They have difficulty in dealing with some Chinese words or phrases as other native English speakers do. However, their erroneous outputs are supplements to the mentioned error expressions, see the comparison of the degree adverb “yuè lái yuè 越来越 (more and more)” below. In Corpus I, the collocation with adjectives is grammatically correct, while in Corpus II, the erroneous usages are self-created by “Chinese College” students.

TABLE VIII
COMPARISON OF ERROR CORPUS INCLUDING “YUÈ LAI YUÈ 越来越”

E.g.	Error Formation	Correct Formation
14 (Corpus I)	zài xiàn dài shè huì shàng rén men yuè lái yuè zhòng de gè rén zhǔ yì xīn lí 在现代社会上，人们越来越重的个人主义心理。	zài xiàn dài shè huì rén men de gè rén zhǔ yì xīn lí yuè lái yuè zhòng 在现代社会，人们的个人主义心理越来越重。
E.T	In modern society, people are becoming more and more individualistic.	
15 (Corpus II)	lái zhōng guó yǐ hòu wǒ yuè lái yuè rèn shí gèng duō de zhōng guó rén 来中国以后，我越来越认识更多的中国人。	lái zhōng guó yǐ hòu wǒ rèn shí le yuè lái yuè duō de zhōng guó rén 来中国以后，我认识了越来越多的中国人。
E.T	I've met more and more Chinese after I come to China.	
16 (Corpus II)	tā de míng shēng chéng wéi yuè lái yuè dī de le 她的名声成为越来越低的了。	tā de míng shēng yuè lái yuè chà le 她的名声越来越差了。
E.T	Her reputation becomes worse and worse.	

Despite the redundant noun of locality “shàng 上 (on)” after the preposition “zài 在 (a preposition indicates direction)” in e.g.14, there is also a word order mistake in the second clause. The collocation “yuè lái yuè zhòng (heavier)” is without error, but this phrase cannot function as an adjective to modify the nominal phrase “gè rén zhǔ yì xīn lí 个人主义心理 (psychology of individualism)”, after which it can be applied as a degree complement. In e.g.15 from Corpus II, the degree adverb “yuè lái yuè 越来越” should modify adjective “duō 多 (many)” and the collocation “yuè lái yuè duō 越来越多” modifies the nominal phrase “zhōng guó rén 中国人 (Chinese)”, but it can’t collocate with verbs, such as “rèn shí 认识 (know)”.

As for e.g.16, “chéng wéi 成为 (become)” and “yuè lái yuè dī 越来越低 (lower)” are both predicates, causing

erroneous sentence structural. Only one predicate should remain. “chéng wá 成为” is redundant for the subject “tā de míng shēng 她的名声 (her reputation)” is incompatible with it. In addition, the adjective “dī 低 (low)” can’t modify the noun “míng shēng 名声 (reputation)”, which should be replaced with “chà 差 (worse)” instead.

(2) Marginal error formations that haven’t been mentioned by previous researchers. “Chinese College” students collectively produce some similar grammar errors that are not regarded as typical error outputs. In preposition studies, many researchers only pay attention to the misuse of “yóu yú 由于 (because of)”, excluding studies of the phrase “yóu yú.....yuán gù 由于.....缘故 (because of)”. However, “Chinese College” students fail to apply this phrase correctly.

There are differences between Chinese and English forms of causation words and phrases. In Chinese, “yóu yú 由于” shows a causal relationship, which can be substituted by paired phrase “yóu yú.....yuán gù 由于.....缘故” with exactly the same meaning. However, there is a lack of paired causation phrases in English, thus language learners often over-generalize the rules of paired conjunctive phrases in the target language. In e.g.17, the language learner may imitate the word order of a more frequently-used paired conjunctive phrase and apply it to the usage of “yóu yú.....yuán gù 由于.....缘故”. While e.g.18 omits the auxiliary word “de 的” before “yuán gù 缘故”, mainly because of their insufficient vocabulary of the target language.

TABLE IX
ERROR CORPORA OF “YÓU YÚ.....YUÁN GÙ 由于.....缘故” FROM CORPUS II

E.g.	Error Formation	Correct Formation
17	yóu yú tā de zhàng fu sǐ le de yuán gù 由于她的丈夫死了的缘故。	yóu yú tā de zhàng fu sǐ le de yuán gù 由于她的丈夫死了的缘故。
E.T	Because of the death of her husband.	
18	yóu yú tiān qì bù hǎo yuán gù qǔ xiāo bǐ sài 由于天气不好，缘故取消比赛。	yóu yú tiān qì bù hǎo de yuán gù qǔ xiāo bǐ sài 由于天气不好的缘故取消比赛。
E.T	Due to the bad weather, the match was canceled.	

According to the results above, it’s necessary to set up a corpus for a certain group due to their own characteristics, especially for long-term projects. Moreover, when using a corpus to assist teaching, teachers should re-sift the material based on their nationalities, Chinese levels, study aims and so on. During the educating process, new types of errors are supplementary materials with a reference value to both researchers and other language learners. Thus, a tunnel for feedbacks between teachers and researchers should be constructed.

IV. THE CONCEPTION OF CONSTRUCTING PARALLEL CONTRAST CORPUS OF GRAMMATICAL ERRORS

A. The Background

Big data is regarded as “an effective mode of learning a language” (Jiao, 2013, p.11), and the current corpora have made huge progress. For example, HSK dynamic Composition Corpus has a function of searching nationalities, which classifies Chinese interlanguage systems according to different countries. Scholars also attempt to carry out divisional researches on African countries where HSK seldom refers, such as the conception of building an interlanguage corpus of a sole country (Huang, 2019). It bases on Chinese learners in Rwanda who are at different Chinese levels, compensating the current deficiencies of interlanguage corpora.

Nevertheless, they still have a long way to go (Zhang & Cui,2015). Li (2016, p.116) pointed out “corpus that contains abundant data but is not annotated and classified is of limited help to learners”. The current corpora are demonstrated in a single language without correct formations, let alone involving the comparison between the target language and the mother tongue of the language learners. These single-language interlanguage corpora mainly open for researchers and teachers. Language teachers are mostly accessible to collect different error forms from students, but they always fail to do researches and analyze complicated linguistic phenomena due to the lack of time and ability. Instead, they focus more on teaching. In contrast, researchers have a lag on updating error forms and usually conduct studies on age-long data. Even if they intend to collect present corpora for their surveys, the access is limited. It virtually shows that there is a gap between teaching and research, and the research results have no direct reference to teaching activities, which restricts its practical value.

B. The Contents and Influence

Enlightened by Lü (1992) and Zhang (2019), this study aims at constructing a parallel corpus including Chinese, English and Chinese interlanguage especially for “Chinese College” students, which is also a reference to other native English speakers. Chinese formation, a correction to Chinese interlanguage, allows language learners to do self-learning after class and consolidate what they have learned through comparisons as well as homogeneous examples. English translation removes the language barriers by helping them comprehend the exact meaning efficiently. In conclusion, the parallel comparisons provide more ways to explain errors.

To collect authentic and representative corpora, the construction of the “Parallel Contrast Corpus of Grammatical Errors” (hereinafter referred to as Corpus III) is divided into two parts. (1) Review relevant research findings and collect all the grammatical error corpora produced by native English speakers, forming a basic framework of their

Chinese interlanguage system. (2) Collect error outputs by Chinese College students. Comparing them with the former results to identify their difficulties and sift the most common errors during Chinese learning.

TABLE X
EXAMPLES OF SEGREGATORY WORDS⁷ IN VERB-OBJECT STRUCTURE FROM CORPUS III

E.g.	Chinese Formation	Chinese Interlanguage Formation
19 (Corpus I)	dǎ suànmíngnián jié hūn wǒ de nǚ péngyǒu 打算明年结婚我的女朋友。	wǒ dǎ suànmíngniángēn wǒ de nǚ péngyǒu jié hūn 我打算明年跟我的女朋友结婚。
E.T	I plan to marry my girlfriend next year.	
20 (Corpus II)	wǒ zài zhōnglóu zhàoxiàng tā 我在钟楼照相机。	wǒ zài zhōnglóu gěi tā zhàoxiàng 我在钟楼给他照相。
E.T	I took pictures of him in the bell tower.	
A.R	Foreign students whose native language is English regard intransitive segregatory words in verb-object structure as transitive verbs. They directly add objects but omit the necessary prepositions before the objects.	

Corpora in Corpus III are demonstrated in parallel language forms with professional annotations and error analysis. Examples of segregatory words in verb-object structure are listed above. The innovations lie in three aspects. (1) Special research objects. Corpora are mainly collected from “Chinese College” students. Meanwhile, negative influence from uncertainties including the Chinese level, cultural background, age is under control. (2) Fresh new achievements. This corpus provides a brand-new pattern of multilingual comparisons and analyses. It compensates for the deficiency of current single-language corpora without grammatical annotations. It can also test how auxiliary teaching tools work on Chinese learners. (3) Appropriate context. When collecting new error corpora that may cause misunderstanding, its context will be annotated, providing more referential information to readers.

C. Anticipated Effects

The anticipated effects of Corpus III mainly contain: (1) A clear boundary of “grammatical error”. (2) Accurate error classifications. (3) Suitable materials for learners at a certain level. It can be directly applied to “Chinese College” students, providing a platform for self-correction and active learning. (4) The parallel contrast method helps Chinese learners dissect their own grammatical problems by comparing different languages.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This study aims at constructing a “Parallel Contrast Corpus of Grammatical Errors” based on previous research findings and error corpora from “BNU-Cardiff Chinese College” students. It bridges corpus and language learners with multilingual annotations and compensates for the demerits of previous studies. The attempt to construct a corpus for a certain group, especially for “Chinese College” students, is a student-centered movement, allowing students to do self-correction of their second language outputs. Researchers can also deduce the learning characteristics of this group from the results.

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⁷ A segregatory word should be regarded as a word-phrase unit. It has both semantic cohesion and grammatical looseness. Its form has the characteristics of a phrase, and in the sense of a word, so it is an intermediate or transitional linguistic unit between a word and a phrase.

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Investigation of the Present Situation of Intelligent APP in College Students' Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—This research adopts the method of literature survey method, investigation method and interview method, etc. Through literature research method, this thesis combs and summarizes the research of mobile vocabulary learning at home and abroad. Based on the multimodal discourse theory and the second language acquisition theory, the author investigates the learning attitude, habits and strategies on vocabulary of college students and collects their opinions on learning words by using Bai Ci Zhan App through questionnaire method. And the author investigates the current situation and existing problems of using mobile Apps to study vocabulary. Intelligent App application in college English vocabulary learning can effectively enlarge students' vocabulary breadth and depth and motivate their interest in English learning.

Index Terms—vocabulary learning, college students, intelligent APP, present situation research

I. INTRODUCTION

With the modern technology develops rapidly, our life has been transformed into a new era: everything can be linked to our tiny, intelligent and convenient mobile phones. In addition, according to today's standards, we can conclude that mobile phones are no longer luxury, and it has become a necessity instead. People cannot go anywhere without mobile phones. People use mobile phones to order meals, ride cars, find jobs and so on. People can get a lot of information, resources and entertainment through this kind of mobile device, which not only has a great impact on the way of life, but also on the way we communicate with each other in society. In addition, in this mobile era, the change of learning style cannot be ignored. (Liu, 2017)

In foreign language learning, we do not have to bring one thick dictionary to have English classes, all we need to do is a smart phone, which has an electronic dictionary, and it is convenient to use a mobile phone to look up words that we do not know. Mobile devices with Internet applications have brought much convenience and rich information resources to college students in language learning.

Vocabulary learning has always been the most basic but crucial part of language learning. Although vocabulary is indeed crucial, a large number of English learners believe that memorizing words is arduous, time-consuming and boring. In addition, English teachers often have the task of vocabulary learning as homework, that is, learners must deal with vocabulary problems outside the classroom by themselves without the supervision of teachers. In this way, learners may easily get tired of vocabulary learning due to the lack of effective methods and proper supervision. However, some specific mobile phone applications can provide English learners with more attractive ways to learn and remember vocabulary, including pictures, audio and video.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Foreign Research

Recent studies on mobile vocabulary learning could be divided into three kinds: pushing messages including Short Message Service (SMS) text messaging and e-mails, e-dictionary and smart phone Apps.

For the purpose to reexamine the effectiveness of mobile phones in learning vocabulary, Thornton & Houser (2005) made a research to compare students' performance in the gains of vocabulary among three conditions: learning vocabulary via SMS, via PC and through traditional vocabulary book. Assigned to the same words, the group who learned words through SMS did better than the other two groups. Although much research has proved the effectiveness of vocabulary learning via mobile phones, some limitations of researches happened in artificial environment should never be ignored. Therefore, in order to get the real effect of mobile learning, it was necessary to conduct the research in realistic settings. Stockwell (2008) tracked 75 pre-intermediate English students' mobile phone usage outside the classroom in his study. According to the survey and the data, it showed that a large number of students preferred to use PC rather than mobile phones when completing the vocabulary tasks. And students said that they did not want to use the mobile phone to learn vocabulary at the outset owing to the screen size, and the data charges. Therefore, mobile technology, mobile phones also had some negative influence on vocabulary learning owing to some limitations of mobile phones itself (Stockwell, 2007). Similarly, Cavus & Ibrahim (2009) investigated the use of wireless technologies

in education with reference to the potential of learning words using SMS text messaging. As is shown in the results, students were willing to learn new words with the help of their mobile phones. The “pushing message” to individual learners’ mobile phones offers cumulative lessons which maximize the exposure to the contents (Nation 2011). By contrast, the traditional vocabulary book, which usually includes lengthy presentation of vocabulary lessons, has no such advantages. The traditional vocabulary book is unable to deliver pushing messages like mobile phones. The strength of portability and immediacy has been embodied by mobile phones.

In a study conducted by Kennedy and Levy (2005), participants are given messages by SMS on mobile phones in the frequency of ten messages a week. Learners can choose new words in familiar context or already known words in a new context. It indicates that the effectiveness of vocabulary learning is influenced by the messages. Browne and Culligan(2008) study the effectiveness of mobile vocabulary learning by using mobile flash cards out of classroom . From the research, flash cards learning activities on mobile phones are beneficial for learners to grasp their targeted items. But details about how the mobile phone’s system works with the items are not mentioned in the study (Browne & Culligan 2008).

B. Domestic Research

The research direction of related studies on mobile vocabulary learning is diverse. From the perspective of theoretical study, Yang (2012) explored the mobile vocabulary learning mode which includes SMS-based vocabulary learning, portable devices-based vocabulary learning and mobile community-based vocabulary learning, in accordance with the features of contemporary college students, she indicated the mobile learning can break the constraints of time and space, and students can study, communicate with each other and learn vocabulary at anytime and anywhere. Therefore, it has fully embodied the dominant role of students during the process of teaching. With respect of the practical implementation of mobile learning in vocabulary, most researchers used SMS, QQ or WeChat to deliver learning materials (Cui, 2014). Yu (2014) explored the feasibility of mobile English vocabulary learning based on the characteristics of college students and the advantages of mobile English vocabulary teaching. She designed the specific process of mobile vocabulary learning in terms of previous preparation, formal teaching and the acceptance of the results. Some believe the new study resources are emerging in large numbers and get the favor from teachers, parents and students. They also offered some suggestions to the development of education APP (Ma et al., 2016). Several studies aim to investigate vocabulary learning by using mobile devices to send messages. A study has been conducted to demonstrate how learners can acquire knowledge of vocabulary through mobile phones (Chen & Chuang 2008: 93-113). Song and Fox (2008) investigated undergraduate students’ dictionary use of mobile devices to boost their vocabulary learning in English. The study reveals that students hold positive attitudes towards the use of mobile devices in learning.

III. RELEVANT THEORIES

A. Brief Introduction of Multimodal Discourse Theory

The theory of multimodal discourse refers to the theory of communication through language, image, sound, action and symbolic resources by using the senses of hearing, vision, touch and so on. A researcher puts forward a comprehensive theoretical framework for multimodal discourse analysis from four aspects, including culture, context, content and expression. (D.L. Zhang, 2009) Multimodality consists of five modes of communication: auditory, visual, olfactory, tactile, and taste. The process of vocabulary learning itself is multi-modal rather than single-modal. At present, English vocabulary learning is mainly based on two-dimensional multimodality with visual image and text mode. With the combination of mobile phone and various network resources, Bai Ci Zhan makes vocabulary learning move from two-dimension to three-dimension and four-dimension and from static graphics to dynamic video. Take the word “encouragement” as an example, when learners first enter the interface of vocabulary learning software, their tactile system has been stimulated. When learning the word “encouragement”, after the word is read aloud, learners need to choose the picture that fits the meaning of the example sentence from the four pictures provided by Bai Ci Zhan APP. Besides, in the process of reading the example sentence “The cheerful leaders did everything they could to give the team some encouragement!”, learners will hear the tone of the system's voice and meaning according to the example sentences. When learners successfully choose a picture that matches the example of culture, they hear the effect of success. In addition, Vocabulary software has introduced “word TV” and “word radio” two ways to memorize words, watching video to memorize words and listening to audio to memorize words. The whole vocabulary learning process has achieved the organic combination of various modes, and learners can choose more beneficial vocabulary learning methods according to their own actual situation, helping themselves to carry out vocabulary learning more effectively and personally.

B. Brief Introduction of Second Language Acquisition Theory

The theory of second language acquisition was put forward by Krashen in the 1970s, he expressed that it is necessary to distinguish between "learning" and "acquisition" of second language, and their role in the formation of second language competence is also different. "Learning" is a conscious process, that is, through the teaching in the classroom, conscious practice, memory and other activities to achieve the understanding of the language we learned and the mastery of the grammatical concepts. "Acquisition" is an unconscious. It focuses on the natural communication to

improve language proficiency, and children master mother tongue through acquisition. Because of the language environment in China, it is a little difficult to acquire English. And most of them use the "learning" mode in class, so it is difficult for students to have the opportunity to acquire English. When using Bai Ci Zhan APP, learners can learn vocabulary through pictures, videos and associated examples, and help learners improve their knowledge and master English vocabulary through the way of non-native language, which can make up for the lack of language environment and the disadvantages of classroom teaching.

C. Brief Introduction of Ubiquitous Learning Theory

Ubiquitous Learning which is short for U-Learning is defined as a type of "4A" learning and an expansion of E-Learning. Exactly, anyone can use any device to acquire knowledge, information and communicate with each other at anytime and anywhere. Through technology learners can achieve "4A" learning can acquire no matter what knowledge or information they want. The circumstances that U-Learning creates are far different from those in formal learning. In this study, mobile phones, the most pervasive mobile device, is used to achieve ubiquitous learning. Students can wait in line in the school canteen, take the bus to their destination, and even lie in bed before falling asleep to complete the daily vocabulary learning, which is completely at the disposal of the students themselves. For one thing, U-Learning transfers the teaching mode from the traditional teacher-centered to the student-centered, which cultivates students' autonomy in learning. Teacher is no longer the only source of information, instead any student can get access to learning materials without constraint of time or space. Also, the role of teacher turns to be the facilitator and supervisor. For another, it will help students to develop the habit of being a lifelong learner. In a ubiquitous learning environment, students could freely use all kinds of mobile devices they own to search for information they need, gradually it will become a learning habit. Rome was not built in a day, especially in vocabulary learning, it needs to accumulate every day rather than massive learning at a time.

IV. RESEARCH METHODS

This study aims at examining the effects of mobile phone Apps on college English vocabulary learning and the students' attitudes towards English vocabulary learning Apps. Participants are randomly chosen from Nan Chang Normal University, since they are faced with the CET-4 and CET-6 which is closely related to their diploma. The questionnaire concerns the basic information of subjects, the students' attitudes of mobile vocabulary learning and the students' evaluation towards Bai Ci Zhan. All the survey questions are presented in Chinese in order to make the content understood better and avoid misunderstanding. This survey altogether provides 100 questionnaires and 100 questionnaires were retrieved. Besides the quantitative part of this study, qualitative data is also collected by open-ended interview questions. 4 subjects are randomly selected to take the online interview via QQ or WeChat. The relevant questions are as follows: What do you think of using mobile phone APP, like Bai Ci Zhan, to learn vocabulary?; When and where do you usually use your mobile phones to learn vocabulary?; What is your favorite function of Bai Ci Zhan?; What do you think of the difference between mobile vocabulary learning and traditional vocabulary learning?; Which way do you prefer to memorize words?

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Research Findings

In this study, Respondents are mainly juniors and seniors. And a large number of students have passed cet-4 and cet-6. As an English major, I get to know that most English majors can pass cet-6 easily. However, for those colleges who major in non-foreign language, it is difficult to pass the exams. Bai Ci Zhan have advantages and also have disadvantages (Q4, Q5), and the advantage colleges like best is that they can memorize words by pictures, providing human-sounding voice and remember words easily. While the disadvantages most colleges think is that Bai Ci Zhan relies on pictures too much and ignores word spelling. As for the purpose to download Bai Ci Zhan App (Q6), The purpose of most college students is to pass the English exams (such as cet-4, cet-6, TEM4, TEM8, IELTS and TOEFL). In addition, some colleges download Bai Ci Zhan in order to enrich English vocabulary and learn English well. About the question how many words students usually learn at a time. (Q7), the survey indicates 56% of students memorize 50-100 words every day through Bai Ci Zhan APP, 39% of people memorize 30-50 words through Bai Ci Zhan APP and only 5% of people can memorize 100-200 words through Bai Ci Zhan APP. Obviously, most students may choose a reasonable quantity of words to memorize every day. For the question how much time do they spend on learning and reviewing words. (Q8), a large number of students spend less than 45minutes on reviewing English vocabulary, accounting for 63%. And 32% of students spend 45-60 minutes on reviewing English vocabulary. It indicates a large number of students do not like reviewing and spending a little bit of time on it, but Bai Ci Zhan is equipped with the function of review and it is beneficial to students' vocabulary study. As for the question "Are you currently efficient at memorizing words"(Q9). It shows 67% of students think it is middlingly good, 22% of students believe it is bad and 11% of students think it is good about their current efficiency. For the question whether they are memorizing words actively (Q10), it reveals 56% of students occasionally recite words by themselves, 32% of students usually recite words by themselves and 2% of students never recite words by themselves. So we can know that colleges usually

cannot recite words by themselves and they need supervising and some reminders. For the reason why they choose some apps (Q11), the study reveals that students usually choose some vocabulary APPs mainly for powerful, comprehensive function and being convenient to review. In addition, simple and nice interface can be the reason. As for the question, if they will spend a lot of time on reading the explanation and the example sentence (Q12), it also shows 7% of students read every word, 71% of students read those that have not seen it at all and 22% of people never spend much time on the explanation of the word and the example sentence in the process of memorizing words.

For the question if they need set notification or other ways to supervise their clock (Q13), it shows 54% of students think they need to set notice or other ways to supervise their clock for they often forget and some students do not need to set notice or other ways to supervise for clock in is a habit. Clock in could motivate students to learn and memorize words, and it can be a method of supervision. On the question when and where do they usually clock in (Q14), it indicates 68% of students usually take advantage of the time when queuing up or waiting a bus to clock in and some people arrange special time and specific locations to clock in, accounting for 32%. On the question of what are the main reasons that motivate them to keep clocking (Q15), it shows 73% of students believe that to improve vocabulary and comprehensive English ability can motivate them to insist on clocking in. Also, the urge by teachers, parents or friends and relatives can motivate them to insist. For the question what is the frequency of using Bai Ci Zhan, it reveals 62% of students use Bai Ci Zhan App occasionally and some students use Bai Ci Zhan APP almost every day, accounting for 18%. As a result, we can see most people display a lack of self-discipline and use Bai Ci Zhan APP in their spare time to enrich their vocabulary. Although Bai Ci Zhan owns abundant merits, it cannot be suitable for all the study. As for the question how often do they use Bai Ci Zhan (Q17), it shows 98% of students hold the view that English vocabulary APP is just responsible for clocking in and they will do other offline study. Also, eight percent of students think Bai Ci Zhan is all their daily English study. Bai Ci Zhan is the most popular English vocabulary software among all kinds of English vocabulary software.

On the question what is the evaluation on the learning effect of Bai Ci Zhan (Q18), it also reveals that colleges are able to use learned words accurately after having used Bai Ci Zhan APP, 78% of students think they have improved English vocabulary after having used Bai Ci Zhan APP, 22% of students think that they have improved pronunciation and 2% of students think that they have improved listening skill. As for the question of what is the evaluation on improving enthusiasm of Bai Ci Zhan (Q19), it also shows most people have improved learning enthusiasm and most of them hold the view that locking screen by words will increase learning enthusiasm. Also some students think interactions between users and giving comments and likes between friends will increase learning enthusiasm.

B. Discussion

As the intelligent English learning software is popular, it makes the learning convenient and breaks the limitation of time and space. English learners cannot be limited by time and space. Compared with the traditional learning tool, paper books, the carrier of learning has changed. Now the mobile phone is a tool that people carry with them, learners can line up to remember the words. In the Bai Ci Zhan, words can be downloaded offline, so people don't have to worry the consuming of flow. In the aspect of self-directed learning, it often occurs after class. In the past, it was difficult for teachers to supervise students' learning. However, with the rapid development of mobile devices and 4G networks, instant communication between teachers and students becomes possible. For students, when they encounter difficulties in learning English, they can turn to the teacher immediately for help, and vice versa, the teacher can immediately guide and give feedback to the students in need. In addition, appropriate monitoring should be considered in self-directed and self-paced learning, and social media can provide this possibility

Bai Ci Zhan uses pictures to help learners memorize words. The drawing is lively and interesting, which is simple and easy to remember. In addition, learners can create small classes and invite friends to join them. They can also join the existing classes through invitation code and they can supervise each other in the class to learn and make progress together. Study in a small class will present class ranking, which can stimulate them to study. In word PK of Bai Ci Zhan, learners can make a competition to remember words randomly, with nearby people and friends. And then make the learning effective according to the results of the competition. At the same time, word PK presents the game role of "Lord Bao ", which enhances the interest in the competition. It is easy for learners to develop a strong interest in learning by means of game.

Learning words does not mean knowing the meaning of words, and Bai Ci Zhan is also not a tool for presenting the meaning of words. By providing words TV, word radio, lecture halls and related reading section, Bai Ci Zhan helps learners learn words and extends knowledge beyond words. Bai Ci Zhan provides a variety of word expansion ways for learners, which not only meets the needs of different learners, such as visual and auditory, but also provides learning content including hot news, English classics, life common sense and so on. It can enrich learners' knowledge and expand learners' horizons. (Wu, 2019)

Bai Ci Zhan provides the pronunciation of words and the example sentences which are presented in the intonation full of emotion. Learners can understand the words' context in application more easily and grasp the emotion of words through the pronunciation of example sentences. In addition, the radio station on Bai Ci Zhan also brings audio feast to learners. It first presents the word and the meaning, then carries on the word explanation with the common sense or the related event as the background, and gives the corresponding example sentence. Each audio in the radio consists of

about 6 mins, including 12 words. Learners can switch their own audio lists and listen at anytime and anywhere.

VI. CONCLUSION

The problems of college English vocabulary are universal. This thesis chooses the mobile APP that people can't live and work without it as the starting point, and choose the popular Bai Ci Zhan APP among college students to investigate the present situation of intelligent APP in college students' vocabulary learning. Through the questionnaire, interview and careful analysis, the author has found that there are many problems existing in college English vocabulary, such as rote memorization, limited vocabulary size and depth and spelling mistakes. The widespread use of smart electronic products, such as mobile phones, makes mobile learning more convenient and autonomous, but there are also inevitable drawbacks, such as over-reliance on pictures, too much interference and so on, which can reduce the efficiency of memorizing words. Software also provides some "punch" monitoring mechanism, but it lacks some kind of supervision and reward and punishment measures. And this fragmented learning style does not form a system, which prevents users from forming a systematic knowledge structure. The lack of self-control, patience and willpower of some users can also influence the use of software. However, there is no doubt that the learning of mobile English vocabulary can be used as a supplement to classroom learning and has a great effect on vocabulary acquisition. In order to overcome the disadvantages of mobile learning, the authors suggest: 1. Combine mobile learning with group collaboration. Software users can set up online communication platforms, such as WeChat or QQ, helping to form collaborative learning that allows learners to help each other, as well as mutual monitoring mechanisms. 2. Mobile Learning of English Vocabulary should combine teaching and learning as an important part of flipping classroom teaching, bringing into the teaching program. Therefore, fragmented learning methods can be integrated into the English learning system, through the effective network platform communication model, effective inspection, which is more conducive to the students' learning effect.

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The Virtual World of Pynchon's Fabulation: Against the Day Lit World

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Abstract—Adapting Deleuze's conceptualization of the virtual, this study shows that *Against the Day* intends to undermine our narrow conception of reality by surpassing the actualities of the known world. In the darkness of the novel, "the virtual" lurks; the novel is a travel against the day, against the actual world to an actual-virtual world, toward "the nights" which "will be dark enough for whatever visions must transpire across them, no longer to be broken into by light" (Pynchon, 2006, 1083).¹ Indeed, the presence of mysterious, paranormal, and magical events (such as the uncanny tales of ghosts, séances, visions, hallucinations, and other-dimensional interventions) along with actual events functions as a defiant *modus operandi* against the actual-oriented, secular Western Philosophy. That is, through virtual occurrences, lines of flight are created (from the real/actual) offering alternative systems of looking at the world.

Index Terms—the virtual, fabulation, *Against the Day*, Pynchon, Deleuze

"Let us create extraordinary words, on condition that they be put to the most ordinary use and that the entity they designate be made to exist in the same way as the most common object."

— Gilles Deleuze, *Dialogues*

Deleuze's reference to Marcel Proust's statement, "Real without being actual, ideal without being abstract" (Deleuze, 1994, p. 208), can best describe the concept of the virtual. To Deleuze, experience is a not confined perception, and there is always something beyond what we perceive actually, something virtual which is directly related to the actual experience yet is incorporeal, some line of flight from the actuality which is real although "we don't see it, because it's the least perceptible of things" (Deleuze, 1995, p. 45). The virtual is part of reality, and these incorporeal territories are virtually real though they might not be actualized in the visible world of everyday existence. In *Against the Day*, Pynchon tends to transcend the world we are experiencing through our five senses by engaging in the virtual, the unknowable, and the invisible. Indeed, the reader's relationship to the reality is destabilized as soon as the narrator enters the realm of virtual straying away from the pedestrian realm of the actual, representation, and sensible signification. In *Dialogues*, Deleuze contrasts French literature with minor literature in which there is no longer the infinite account of interpretations which are always slightly disgusting, but finite processes of experimentation, protocols of experience. Kleist and Kafka spent their time making programmes for life. Programmes are not manifestos – still less are they phantasms, *but means of providing reference points for an experiment which exceeds our capacities to foresee.* (Deleuze and Parnet, 1987, p.48)

In the same vein, *Against the Day*, though fictional and fantastical, is arguably a set of programs for real life, programs which are "means of providing reference points for an experiment which exceeds our capacities to foresee" (*Against*, p. 48). In the synopsis of the book, Pynchon describes the novel as the world as such or the world "with minor adjustment or two", and "[a]ccording to some, this is one of the main purposes of fiction." Pynchon is after presenting the reality of the world, a "hysterical" reality (in Wood's terms) which might differ from the reality offered by the actual-oriented realist writers, yet it might be truer to the reality of the world.² In the synopsis, Pynchon states that he is not to merely depict the actual present time of the novel in a so-called realistic fashion, rather he wants a deeper reality which is gained by manipulating the actual history and incorporating the virtual into the actual and present society. Interestingly, Buchanan (2000) posits a similar argument about Deleuze's own writings; he says, "the most deeply utopian texts are not those that propose or depict a better society, but those that carry out the most thoroughgoing destruction to the present society" (p.94).

Deleuze and Guattari (1994) in *What is Philosophy* propose that art incorporates or embodies the virtual, leaving space for "life higher than the 'lived'" (p.177) that is higher than the actual. Generally, fiction contributes to the revelation of the virtual realms of life in that by reading it, the reader dissociate himself from the actual world surrounding him and creates a more virtual-oriented outlook. John Hughes (1997) also argues that an artwork is itself a virtual event:

¹ Hereafter, Pynchon's *Against the Day* (2006) is referenced to as *Against*.

² As Fowler (1980) argues in *A Reader's Guide to Gravity's Rainbow*, Pynchon "does not enter into any covenant with the reader as to what is 'real' and what is 'fantastic.' His fiction is fantastic in its essence, not incidentally or symbolically;" that is, Pynchon "does not hold up a mirror to nature, but steps through the looking glass into a realm governed by magical forces rather than logical ones" (p. 55).

So, the artwork takes on the status of an event of the virtual expressed through its matter as a reiterable potential of relations exceeding any states of affairs that is depicted. The affect becomes sensible in the matter of expression [...]. As an event, the artwork reiterates the potentialities which insist within its sensible material. (p. 70)

Likewise, Pynchon dexterously interweaves what is happening in our everyday routine with what “exceed[s] any states of affairs”; he creates odd events and ideas which make even more sense than the actual ones, granting us a holistic and deep reality hence “the actualizations expressive of the virtual affect incorporated in the material of art” (Hughes, 1997, p. 71). Pynchon’s characters are living within an actual-virtual reality that can be traced in the actual and virtual events coexisting naturally side by side. As Kathryn Hume (2011) points out, “characters in *Against the Day* long to go beyond the material world to something higher and finer, and they sense that higher reality through mathematics, light, vision, peyote, a geographical sacred place, or floating in an airship” (p. 177). Indeed, Pynchon’s artistic and literary experimentations necessitate thinking events at the level of the virtual.

I. THE CONCEPT OF VIRTUAL

Deleuze insists that his philosophy is “transcendental empiricism”; thus, he tends to surpass the actual world we sense through our five senses. Deleuze’s virtual, which is pivotal in the Deleuzian philosophy, is comparable to Kant’s concept of *noumenon* in going beyond the *phenomenal* (what is apprehended by the five senses). Deleuze (1994) states, “The virtual must be defined as strictly part of the real object -- as though the object had one part of itself in the virtual into which it plunged though into an objective dimension” (p. 209). The ramifications of the virtual concept are multiple since it is interrelated to many other concepts like multiplicity, difference, and becoming given that difference and becoming are nothing else than the creative process of unfolding the virtual, i.e., the actualization of the virtual in multiple actualized beings. Deleuze (1988) argues, “the virtual differentiates itself; without this the virtual could not be actualised because there would be no lines of differentiation that could enable actualisation to happen” (p. 97). Indeed, Deleuze has characterized the virtual as the *élan vital* which is the internal spontaneous force in the morphogenesis of things. He claims that the “virtual difference” has the potentiality “to become in unforeseen ways,” ways which are “always more than this actual world, and not limited by its already present forms” (Colebrook, 2002, p. 96).

The world consists of actualities and virtualities, that is, the actual state of affairs and the multitude virtualities potential in life.¹ The virtual force is difference-in-itself and the virtual power of life is its potential to differ. Then, life is a virtual power of singular variation, and through this standpoint, we can grasp the world’s virtual power, a world of multiplicity, immanence, and becoming which yields infinite difference.

A LIFE and nothing else [...] A life is the immanence of immanence, absolute immanence: it is complete power, complete bliss [...] A life is everywhere, in all the moments that a given living subject goes through and that are measured by given lived objects: an immanent life carrying with it the events or singularities that are merely actualized in subjects and objects ... A life contains only virtuals. It is made up of virtualities, events, singularities. (Deleuze, 2001, p.29)

Deleuze’s emphasis on the virtual is in line with the prominence he gives to difference as both concepts criticize western philosophy which is rather based on the actual and identity. Thus, unlike what the traditional philosophy holds, Deleuze claims that the real world is not merely composed of the actual but also the unactualized virtual; he argues, “Every actual surrounds itself with a cloud of virtual images. This cloud is composed of a series of more or less extensive coexisting circuits, along which the virtual images are distributed, and around which they run” (Deleuze, 1977, p.148).

II. FABULATION

Gregory Flaxman (2012) states, “the most elusive aspect of minor literature” is “the power of fabulation” or “the power of the false” (p. 234). He argues that Deleuze is a philosopher of the false and fabulation who privileges simulacrum (or the “falsehood” of a simulacrum) over Platonic truth. Flaxman holds that Deleuze himself “turns to the work of art because, especially in its literary formation, it musters the powers of the false to create the ‘impossible’” (Flaxman, p.183). Also, Fairclough, conceding to the performative nature of discourse and fiction, states, “Discourses not only represent the world as it is (or rather is seen to be), they are also projective, imaginaries, representing possible worlds which are different from the actual world, and tied in to projects to change the world in particular directions” (Fairclough, 2003, p.11). Indeed, the powers of the false are to create the “impossible” and go beyond representing the possible worlds. Fabulation is to activate the “powers of the false”, “to falsify orthodox truths in the process of generating emergent truths” (Bogue, 2011, p. 81). Fabulation comprises resistance given that “to create is to resist” (Deleuze and Guattari, 1994, p. 110); hence, fabulation is political. Fabulation is the process of creating “the new, remarkable, and interesting” (p. 111), and fiction via its discourse has the power to (re)constitute the world. What fiction does is similar to Heidegger’s projection introduced in *Being and Time* which is “a throwing of existence ahead of itself” (Roe, 2003, p. 3).

¹The “virtual and the actual are two mutually exclusive, yet jointly sufficient, characterizations of the real” (Boundas 2014, p. 490).

Similarly, the events of Pynchon's text, getting loose from the actual world, tend not to be restricted to the possibilities, and extend themselves into the virtual realm; thus, we are faced with narrative-virtual or virtual-oriented fabulation. Flaxman argues that Kafka considers "the strange task of writing" "a kind of creationism" that connotes "the possibility of an event, which [...]set[s] the 'real world' ablaze, burning it to the ground [...] and then creating an entirely new one in its place" (Flaxman, 2012, p. 235). Indeed, Kafka intends to say how "the strangest fancies" unleash "lines of flight that leave the world behind" (p. 235). Similarly, going beyond traditional historicizing which is based on actual encounters, Pynchon's fabulation tends to resist the tyrannical reduction of the reality to the actual. *Against the Day* hinges on the spectacle of "the strangest fancies", the unexplained, and the unexplainable; that is, in the novel we encounter fantastic violations of the laws of actual realm, the laws of space, time, thermodynamics, and even mortality. Deleuze believes, "to write is to become" (Deleuze and Parnet, 1987, p.32), and the idea that literature is far from reality because of engaging in the imaginary and fictitious is debunked by him.¹ There are many mundane actual events in *Against the Day*, but the narrator always leaves some space for the defiant powers of the spiritual and the supernatural possibilities. Yashmeen Halfcourt, a major protagonist, explains about going beyond the "galley-slave repetition of days" and being able to go deeper, that is, the capability of stepping "outside of Time as it commonly passes here" (*Against*, p.610). Indeed, the title of the novel, *Against the Day*, which has been a riddle perplexing many, could be a cue for the whole mammoth work. According to the narrator of the novel, there are ways which "God chose to hide within the light of day" (*Against*, p.853), and beyond this light of actual world, there is "God's unseen world" which has been avoided by the actual-oriented realist writers with a myopic, actual-oriented outlook, while Pynchon has tried to incorporate it in his fantastic work.

III. THE VIRTUAL IN *AGAINST THE DAY*

In the delightful labyrinthine narrative of *Against the Day*, anything is entirely possible. Recounting the historical period from 1893 until the time following World War I in around 1100 pages, the book does not merely focus on actualities or even possibilities, but also virtualities are immensely and inseparably intertwined. Indeed, the narrative of *Against the Day* grows out of the actual historical state of affairs without any boundaries on where and when the actual events veer into virtual ones. This is compatible with the Deleuzian view in which the reality is consisted of the actual and the virtual inseparably joined. For instance, the actual historical events are juxtaposed with the Chums of Chance's wandering around the world in their out-of-this-world zeppelin in search of other-dimensional entities and events that go beyond the actualities' boundaries like Æther, Iceland spar, time machines, wanderers from the future (Trespassers), and the mysterious Tunguska Event. This is because "the unnaturally shaky quality of present-day 'reality'" (*Against*, p.518), as Pynchon puts it, cannot be conveyed via the traditional, actual-oriented outlook on the world. The idea behind *Against the Day's* transgression of actualities and all those fantastical possibilities commingled with historical actualities is to show the virtual possibilities, or better, potentialities inherent in the world.

Pynchon's novel is replete with whimsies, shenanigans, and intriguing events. Pynchon teases the reader out of his premises that the reality equals the actual entities and things surrounding him and piques his insight into reality by exposing him to a world beyond his ordinary grasp. Pynchon fashions alternative worlds, and these fantastic inventions have a wonderful force of the inventiveness and virtuality. His indulgence in the fantastical events which are "from somewhere else not quite 'in' the world" is to render the virtual/real of the world; that is, the events seem to be non-existent and non-actual, yet they are real in a Deleuzian sense. At a point in *Against the Day*, for instance, Yashmeen Halfcourt experiences a mystifying twilight with a curious pallor in Vienna that lasts for a month; it is "cringed beneath the sky" and carries "the sense of overture and possibility", a possibility beyond what we actually encounter in the everyday world.

As nights went on and nothing happened and the phenomenon slowly faded to the accustomed deeper violets again, most had difficulty remembering the earlier rise of heart, the sense of overture and possibility and went back once again to seeking only orgasm, hallucination, stupor, sleep to fetch them through the night and prepare them *against the day*. (*Against*, p.805)

This is the realms of "possibility" beyond the logic of everyday empiricism, a virtual being actualized in the realm of the novel and changed to a routine affair for the characters of the novel, although remaining virtual to the readers; as Deleuze and Guattari (1994) argue, the work of art essentially "does not actualize the virtual event but incorporates or embodies it" (p. 178). No wonder Deleuze and Guattari (1987) have dubbed the writer a "sorcerer" (p.240), a sorcerer who has access to the virtual and incorporates it in his writing. Ironically, Pynchon makes one of his characters talk about this going beyond the so-called "real"; as Kit Traverse escaping from a mysterious death intrigue by a flow of mayonnaise, exclaims, "Nothing's been rigorously what you'd call 'real' lately". That is to say, Pynchon is after depicting "life higher than the 'lived'" in Deleuzian words (Deleuze and Guattari, 1994, p.178), or beyond what "you'd call 'real'," in Pynchon's words. The novel confronts its readers with an undercutting force of the beyond pushing them to have their own reality construction; when the imagination has gone wild, it is revealed that bigger picture to the reader is forming a new reality, a political one in Deleuzian sense, no longer confined by the controlling, stifling frames

¹ Koerner (2002) says, "Literature does not represent an imaginary world, nor can it be reduced to the nature of previously existing symbolic structures; instead, literature produces the real" (p. 13).

of the actualities. Indeed, the novel is an altar for the marriage of the metaphysical and the socio-political spheres and amalgamation of epistemological and ontological issues which “literally transcend the old political space, the map-space of two dimensions, by climbing into the third” (*Against*, p.1083). Inger H. Dalsgaard states in his essay on this novel, “When reading fictions,” “we may be in a better position to maintain a conscious awareness of alternative narrative realities coexisting with equal validity than we are in our everyday experience” since in our actual-oriented everyday experience “we usually privilege one reality and read others as ‘ghosts,’ dreams, or fantasies” (*Against*, p. 122). In the fictitious world of *Against the Day*, there are all these elements of ghosts, dreams, or fantasies related to “alternative narrative realities” (or the virtual realm) which coexist with the everyday experience (or the actual realm).

Pynchon in his article “Is it OK to be a Luddite?” states that the mysterious archetypes such as “the Badass -- the djinn, the golem, the hulk, the superhero” undercut the traditional frames of “the real or secular.” Likewise, his novel’s postsecular uncanny critters are to bash the same “real or secular” frames. He creates animals that do not comply with the actual animals around us. A telling example is the spine-chilling, gigantic worm called Tatzelwurm. Tatzelwurm (i.e., pawed worm) is a mysterious, subterranean creature that can stand for “some primordial plasm of hate and punishment” (*Against*, p.655) in the bowels of the Earth.¹ Indeed, Pynchon uses an eco-critical discourse at this point. Giving virtual quality to the phantasmagoric creature, he makes them embody the dormant, virtual force of the nature, a nature which has hitherto remained reticent in response to the violations of technology, but suddenly, it cannot not take it anymore unleashing its virtual anger via its soldier-worms. In the realm of the underground, this burrowing creature is a malignant/benign force with a virtual potentiality to take on various good or evil-primordial forms which “can be projected to the surface” either as a gruesome retaliating creature of the rage of the nature or as a benign masculine force to protect the feminine Earth from evil men-- evil men who exploit and corrupt the Mother Nature by their intrusion into it, drilling into it, by raping her (i.e., creating the tunnels under the Alps) for the sake of advancing technology. Indeed, Tatzelwurm has an indefinite incorporeal potential that is actualized in diverse corporeal manifestation. Moreover, this unpredictably volatile creature resists the actual features of vision; that is, Pynchon has created it as a virtual image which is capable of shifting. In other words, the monstrous creature is a virtual image which does not have an exact fixed representation in the actual world. The Tatzelwurm, as a virtual image, is capable of irrupting in the nightmares of the owners, i.e., Pynchon’s movement from actual manifestation of the force to its virtual image. These delirious projections function as a “flight”; as Deleuze explains to Parnet:

A flight is a sort of delirium. To be delirious is exactly to go off the rails (as in *deconner* – to say absurd things, etc.). There is something demoniacal or demonic in a line of flight. Demons are different from gods, because gods have fixed attributes, properties and functions, territories and codes: they have to do with rails, boundaries and surveys. What demons do is jump across intervals, and from one interval to another. (Deleuze and Parnet, 1987, p.40)

Philippe who has “gained an early appreciation of institutional spaces” compares the underground world of Tatzelwurms with a cathedral, and the Tatzelwurms with priests “of their own dark religion” (*Against*, p.658) signifying the mystery and obscurity of an irate Nature’s virtual force, nature’s dark side.

Yet, another phantasmagoric creature which is the embodiment of the nature’s anger is the monster which is dug from North pole’s ground and transported to the city and wreaks destruction on the city. This dreadful object could be the representation of the “invisible ruler” which is “in general not friendly” and “an enforcer of ancient, indeed prehuman, laws” which are now violated by humans (*Against*, p.150–51). The “serpent like” creature (*Against*, p.141) instills “contempt” in the greedy humans and dominates human with its vengeful gaze. The unearthed monster seems to be a mystifying entity which is unnamed and unidentified and undescribed with “little agreement” “as to its ‘facial’ features” (p.141). Indeed, the critter has a dynamic nature, and this potentiality of being dynamic and unpredictable is what makes it more “virtual” in the Deleuzian sense. When Chums place it in the ship they realize that the dimensions and shape of the entity is dynamic: “Trying to get it to fit inside the ship, we measured, and re-measured, and each time the dimensions kept coming out different—not just slightly so but drastically. There seemed no way to get the object through any of the ship’s hatches” (*Against*, p.144). The scientists fail to “determine the distribution of its weight in ordinary space”, that is actual space, with their actual-oriented science and measuring tools because this creature is pregnant with some virtual forces that enables it to be different any minute. Indeed, Pynchon incorporates this virtual, hazardous, volatile, once-buried giant of him into the actual-oriented, technological, capitalistic metropolis to imbue the world of his novel with the virtual energies.²

Besides, there are purposeful narrative ellipses which contribute to the virtuality of the monster and the mystery of the crazed narrative. Pynchon’s horror scene, the nameless creature’s rampage, and most importantly the exact nature of the creature are shrouded in mystery. The aftermath is depicted briefly wherein “Fire and blood were about to roll like fate upon the complacent multitudes” (*Against*, p.152). Though there are minute nuances regarding the victims and the

¹ Christopher Coffman (2011) also considers the earth as a conscious being counteracting against the advancements of human beings in a defensive fashion.

² Also there are Tommyknockers, mischievous spirits whose existence is denied by the capitalists with their actual-oriented, “every day explanations” (*Against*, p.308). Also, there are giant beetles (*Against*, p.991) that are the souls of people, and local people use their virtual quality of connectivity beyond space-time dimension to help further their mundane and actual affairs; that is because within the virtual realm of souls “Special Relativity” is not applicable (*Against*, p.992).

wreck caused by the creature, the creature himself is cloaked in a mist of the traumatic scene of destruction rendering the city's inhabitants "amnesiac" and bemused (*Against*, p.153). This obscurity reinforces the sense that the creature has virtual potentialities; as if the monster is an invisible, ineffable, virtual force rather than an actual presence. Besides, the exact place and time remains undecided; therefore, the disaster has the potentiality to be the embodiment of many historical or human-made catastrophic events such as 9/11 terrorist attack, world wars, Hiroshima's nuclear bombardment, Holocaust, and even probable catastrophic events "yet to come" in possible future such as nuclear wars; thus, this event is a virtual "Event" having multiple temporal layers. Deleuze (1994) proposes the concept of "to come" which is a future in present that we don't know, and we cannot pin down, a future "at the frontiers of our knowledge" where we can start writing (p.xxi). A writer who can depict the "to come" can see beyond the actual time and get access into the alternative virtual time. Interestingly, the heroine of the novel seems to have access to these realms. Yashmeen, has the virtual potentialities "to travel in the fourth dimension" (*Against*, p.602); the fourth dimension supposedly refers to time since she talks of the ability to step "outside of Time as it commonly passes here, above this galley-slave repetition of days, and have had a glimpse of future, past, and present" (*Against*, p.610).

In this novel, natural entities seem to possess a virtual quality which could be actualized under certain circumstances and by certain people. For instance, there are virtual roses which have the ability to not only understand human language but also communicate with them using human language (*Against*, p.956). Also, Dr. Mikimoto produces cultured pearls which "When illuminated in a certain way" could "be made to yield a message" (*Against*, p.114). Indeed, in the process of light refraction, part of the cultured pearls' virtual force is actualized so the message on the pearls, which is already there but invisible and incorporeal, becomes visible to the corporeal eye.

There are also fabricated objects with virtual qualities. Some hours after Kit has come back from the "invisible" hospital, in the darkness of the dormitory, Kit sees an indistinct mass which smells of freshly-baked pastry. The oversized pastry starts to talk with Kit requesting him not to react because it fears if others know about its being there, they might eat it. The strange mass says his situation is similar to that of "invisibility" since most of the people cannot admit that they have seen it. It talks about the issue of cannibalism in a humorous syllogism:

"...And then the cannibalism issue of course."

"The ... I don't exactly ..."

"Well. Puts them in a bind, doesn't it. I mean, if I'm human, and they're considering me for breakfast, that makes them cannibals—but if I really am a jelly doughnut, then, being cannibals, they all have to be jelly doughnuts as well, don't you see?" He began to laugh merrily. (*Against*, p.627)

The concept of being beyond visibility, transgressing "the edges of the visible" (*Against*, p.297), and the "invisible forces" (p.362) which are "less nameable" (p.542) are reiterated all over the novel. Indeed, what Pynchon says about his character is applicable to Pynchon's own preferences: Lew Basnight has "a keen sympathy for the invisible" and this is indeed "what distinguish[es] him" (*Against*, p.43). As Deleuze argues, "Beneath the actual qualities and extensities, species and parts, there are spatio-temporal dynamisms [...] They must be surveyed in very domain, even though they are ordinarily hidden by the constituted qualities and extensities" (1994, p.214). Invisibility has to do with virtuality, given that the virtual is something which exists yet is not actual or visible. From Deleuzian perspective, for instance, the human eyes actualize light as color; however, there are other living things that actualize it in other ways. Therefore, "there is always more than the actual world; there are also all the potential worlds that we might see" (Colebrook, 2002, p.126). Indeed, "our perceived present has this virtual halo of what is not present but is no less real" (Colebrook, 2002, p.127); thus, real but invisible or "imperceptible". Human beings, especially artists can "expand and maximise difference: anticipating a future, recalling a past, and allowing the actual perception to be opened to the virtual" (Colebrook, 2002, p. 127). Pynchon's novel emphasizes the "invisible" all through the novel to the extent that it becomes one of the key words to the understanding of the novel. He tries not to reduce the chaos of perceptions to the visible, the actual, by going beyond the visible territory of humans. For instance, the Chums of Chance, who to the people "from the ground" are "more conjectural than literal" (Colebrook, 2002, p.255), grow more and more invisible as the novel proceeds. From some point in the novel onward, the earthly residents do not seem to be able to see Chums and their vessel anymore; as Randolph sadly complains, "they would have all been stopped in their tracks, rubbernecking up at us in wonder. Nowadays we just grow more and more invisible" (*Against*, p.549). Chums become invisible from "the known Creation" escaping into a space which is "beyond the space we know" (*Against*, p.602), or in Miles' terms "they actually become invisible. Almost as if there were some [...] additional level of encryption" (p.437). Moreover, Kit with a group of his classmates takes the overdosed Humfried to a hospital that is constructed "on the principles of Invisibilism." Indeed the structure of the hospital is "minimally attached to the physical world"; that is, the real/actual world (p.625). The wired girlfriend of Kit, Pleiade, also seems to have this asset of "deliverance into the Invisible" (*Against*, p.625) at her will. Pleiade wants to make Kit busy so that Piet can spy on Kit's room. "[A]gainst his better judgment", Kit accompanies Pleiade to her suite and there "with no sensible passage of time" (p.542), the room becomes "resonant with absence", and Pleiade vanishes mysteriously from the room out of blue, leaving her "all-but insubstantial chiffon" standing erect "against gravity" (p.543). The pale negligee is rippling now and then "from otherwise un-sensed passages of air, as if someone were inside of it, perhaps stirred by *invisible* forces less nameable" (p.542). Also, Pynchon aptly calls the mysterious city of Shambhala the "invisible sphere of force" (p.447). The sacred

city, for centuries, “had lain invisible, cloaked in *every day light*” of actualities, until the Tunguska Event in which “those precise light frequencies which would allow human eyes to see the City” were finally released (p.793).¹

Moreover, there is a “notional railway” (p.842) in Mitrovitsa that Cyprian and Danilo were following, which was “not yet built” standing “invisible across the snow and passes and valleys, an element of diplomacy waiting to enter material existence” (p.842). Indeed, Pynchon is deeply engaged with the virtual, and he is after presenting the “something else” which is “beyond the world” (*Against*, p.75) and beyond the visible in his novel; a good analogy could be drawn between these virtual, invisible entities and what a character describes as the waves which lay beyond the visible light, “wireless waves, [...] Seems every day somebody’s discovering another new piece of the spectrum, out there beyond visible light” (p.670). Likewise, the Deleuzian virtual plane of existence is similar to the “other plane of existence, close but just invisible” (p.610) which Pynchon engages in so often. That is, Pynchon’s “the invisible, the ‘imaginary,’ the unimaginable” (p.1082) is at times quite similar to Deleuzian virtual, the hidden. Virtual dimension of reality is a dimension which exists beyond the visible three, just like the Chums of Chance’s motto “There, but Invisible,” a virtual force that like “death” is “invisible and everywhere” or “like God” (p.835) as occurred to Danilo Ashkil.

Indeed, Pynchon presents a world of a dynamic reality rather than representing an actual world of immediate objects; he pushes the fiction into the realm of the virtual and lays bare the profound reality behind the actual one resulting in a creative reality whose audacious creativity does not make it any less real or genuine. One of the examples of the virtual possibilities Pynchon refers to is the possibility of “afterlife”. *Against the Day* is replete with ghosts and communications with the dead via séances or prophetic dreams; by so doing, he creates lines of flight via the events which go stray from “insufferably smug guardians of the day lit world” (p.672). It is worth mentioning that the concept of death is virtual as such; Deleuze sees death, in its pre-individual or impersonal form, as an “eternal return” with a virtual force since it is the “ultimate manifestation of the active principle that drives all living matter” (Parr, p.152). This interconnection “with the ‘outside’” and being “on the frontiers of incorporeality” gives death a virtual nature. The employment of ghosts is both aesthetic and political in Deleuzian terms since the presence of ghosts in the novel functions as a resistance to the rationalistic tradition which is based on the observable, concrete presence, representation, and actual aspect of reality. Through dreams, visions, and séances, the characters have journeys to parallel worlds, meeting otherworldly beings such as ghosts and specters, visiting a world beyond the material, and gaining awareness they would never gain in actual world. Beside séance, the characters use another way to communicate with the dead, dream; indeed, the character’s dreams and visions are so much recounted in the novel that they become a major motif in the novel with undeniably significant undertones. In Deleuze’s view, dream has a virtual quality, and it is a line of flight or going off the rails of actualities; “[a] flight is a sort of delirium. To be delirious is exactly to go off the rails;”

“[t]here is something demoniacal or demonic in a line of flight. Demons are different from gods, because gods have fixed attributes, properties and functions, territories and codes: they have to do with rails, boundaries and surveys. What demons do is jump across intervals, and from one interval to another” (Deleuze and Parnet, 1987, p. 40).

To Deleuze, dream is a transitional space that has the potentiality of deterritorialisation of the mundane actual world, reveals the imperceptible to us, and frees life from the actual-oriented and habitual modes of perception. Most importantly-- coming from the super-terrestrial sphere-- the “transcendent Webb[s]” ghost like the ghost of Hamlet’s father frequently visits his sons in their dreams; every time Webb is going to communicate another message to his sons on order to spur them into taking revenge, finishing his unfinished business, or continuing his way. Soon after the séance summoning his father’s spirit Kit dreams of his father. In that dream, Webb is playing poker solitaire, and Kit who is about six years old in the dream “notices at the time the cards are not only marked with numbers, they somehow *are* numbers, some real, some imaginary, some complex and even transcendent” (*Against*, p.673). The scrupulous Kit wakes up feeling guilty because he has betrayed his father’s goals by accepting Foley’s proposition of scholarship. Kit, “sick and hollow with shame”, has no other way than to resort to “the stripped and dismal metonymies of the dead” in the virtual world of “séances and dreams” (p.674). Being a math scientist himself and believing in real numbers, Kit is faced with “some imaginary, some complex and even transcendent” ones and a virtual universe (of the dead) which exists in parallel, i.e., the “spirit realm[s]”, the “coexisting world[s] of imaginaries” (p.675). Formerly, he was committed to Vectorism which had a glimpse of “transcendence”, yet now he feels that Vectors never have been his “salvation” (p.675). Moreover, his father has been murdered by men whose allegiance “was to that real axis and nothing beyond it” (p.675); that is, they were utterly committed to the actual. Therefore, the inspiring dream causes Kit to set out for “someplace out ahead in the fog of futurity” (p.675) which –as it turns out– is Venice where Scarsdale Vibe will be, someone whose punishment Kit has avoided. Indeed, in this novel dreams can disclose invisible realms or parallel worlds and open the prospect of transition to a different mode of life since the reality, in Pynchon’s viewpoint, does not merely lie in its actualities and visible entities but also in the sphere beyond the actual, a sphere which could be reflected in the dream world.

IV. PEOPLE WITH VIRTUAL QUALITIES

¹Interestingly, this is close to Deleuze’s concept of “Event” which is closely related to the virtual force and a sort of the actualization of the virtual.

The multiple layers of mysteries, magic, and super-terrestrial events and characters in *Against the Day* produce a virtual sphere which serves as a key to the Pynchonian style of writing. Hinging on the spectacle of the unexplained and the unexplainable, Pynchon creates characters with virtual qualities such as Merle, the alchemist; Yashmeen Halfcourt, the femme fatale; Lew Basnight, the mystifying detective; the Chums of Chance, the extra-terrestrial balloonists; and so forth. One of the major characters with virtual qualities is Yashmeen Halfcourt; at times, she is able to see beyond the actual world. In a letter to her father, Yashmeen describes some virtual visitors who are “lighted from within” by whose compassionate help she wishes “to transcend the World” (*Against*, p.749). However, Yashmeen is worried why the otherworldly visitors who used to visit her all the time, now do not come along and her only hope is to be “brought in among them someday.” She starts doubting herself desperately wondering if she has lost her virtual privileges to see the “invisible” critters (p.750). She describes herself as a person with “strange doubleness”; one version of her is at Shambhala with her father and the other version of her who has “stayed behind” (p.750) is writing the letter.¹ Moreover, Yashmeen has the qualities of a Shekhinah figure. Shekhinah is the actualization of the virtual powers of God; thus, without her, God will remain in the virtual realm, as Father Ponko puts it: “Without her to reflect, God is invisible” (*Against*, p.223).

Cyprian’s “religious surrender of the self” (p.876) to Yashmeen as an image of the Shekhinah, is not merely a sexual subservience but a line of flight to the beyond; that is, this ascetic surrender of his body and his sexual desires, which seems masochistic, in a sense is a flight to a world beyond the actual, beyond the sadomasochistic sexual games into a transcendental, Gnostic sphere. As Coffman (2011) argues, Cyprian achieves transcendence by means of “a declaration of allegiance to a female transcendent” (p.99). Indeed, Cyprian’s self-willed abjection of self, subjectivity, and identity has to do with his subservience to spirituality as though he wants to go beyond the concept of subject and transgress the actual limits. The sexuality of Cyprian is virtual as such since it actualizes in polymorphous forms starting with being a male, to a transgender, and finally a female by crossing a mysterious stone gateway “Halkata Ring” that changes the sex of any bachelor who passes under it (*Against*, p.955).

Lew Basnight also reveals virtual qualities some of which come as a surprise to Lew himself as well as the reader since Lew who was once “the Upstate-Downstate Beast” (*Against*, p.37) seems to have drawn blank on his mysterious past. In fact, with his mystifying existence, Lew is stuck between a dreadful past (when he racks his mind to remember the past, “all he could produce was this peculiar haze” [*Against*, p.37]) he cannot retain and a complicated present he cannot figure out. This vagueness gives Lew’s life a kind of virtual quality. He also experiences some surrealist visions, altered states of consciousness, strange mental states, and trances. He is able to witness the extraordinary realms from time to time.

Also, Lew has the capacity to see certain virtual images; once, he looks out of the window at the Wintery downtown Chicago, but when he looks closely the scene transforms into an eerie setting: “a mirage of downtown Chicago ascended to a kind of lurid acropolis” as though Chicago is devoured by the “lurid acropolis” as a “nightly immolation” (*Against*, p.41). Once, in a very usual an ordinary day, Lew undergoes a strange “transfigure[ation]” and finds himself “surrounded by a luminosity new to him, not even observed in dreams” (*Against*, p.42). At Another point, in a hotel, the wallpaper turns into “a very far away land perhaps not even on our planet” with “beings who resembled—though not compellingly—humans” and were busy with their lives “beneath the gigantic looming of a nocturnal city full of towers, domes, and spidery catwalks, themselves edged by an eerie illumination” (*Against*, p.182). Indeed, in Lew’s eyes, the actual, ordinary wallpaper transforms into a virtual, ghastly space with virtual human-like living things surrounded by an eerie illumination. Shortly after that, in a restaurant, Lew experiences another virtual image in yet another trance-like state. When they bring his meal to his table, Lew starts to see virtual things beyond what “a fellow might reasonably expect” in the serving dish. Each section of the steak that he made with his knife reveals “new vistas” of “the intricately disposed axes and poly hedra, a race of very small though perfectly visible inhabitants” (*Against*, p.183). Most importantly, Lew has the capacity of avoiding death. After the transformation, the stereotypical detective character is able to become invisible and escape into an alternative dimension of the world to get away from any explosions without being even slightly hurt.²

There are also some very spectral characters (with super-terrestrial qualities) that seem to have dual actual/virtual lives. One telling example is Kieselguhr Kid, the legendary anarchist dynamiter whose identity and whereabouts remain a mystery in the course of the novel. Kieselguhr is a virtual figure that has exhausted the mining owners who are looking for him. His identity is so unfathomable that Lew complains to his boss, Nate Privett, the case of the Kieselguhr Kid is “a bitch, and growing more difficult every day” (*Against*, p.179) and decides to leave it aside. Even to the end of novel, this knot will remain unraveled by Pynchon, which adds to the mystery and virtual quality of the character.³ The

¹ As a member of the intricate mystical society (TWIT), Yashmeen is considered a Tzaddik in the organization. Yashmeen also has the ability to communicate via telepathy (*Against*, p.595).

² Similarly, Nicholas Nookshaft, the Grand Cohen of T.W.I.T., says he can jump into an explosion without being hurt since he can be transported to a Lateral-world in the fourth dimension (*Against*, p. 211). In addition, the nymphomaniacally obscene Pert or Ruperta Chirpingdon-Groin’s experiences “being surrounded then by a queer luminous aura” (*Against*, p.896) and a levitation. After the “levitation,” she descends into earth and reoccupies herself, but she never again pursues “her old career of determined pest” (p.896). It is worth mentioning, here Pynchon also reflects upon the virtual and mysterious force which is potential in music.

³ Amian (2008), talking about Pynchon’s *V*. states that “Much of the uncertainty that characterizes Pynchon’s novel” “stems from its reveling in this space of creative possibility” (p.70).

faceless Kieselguhr Kid is similar to the virtual character, “Ned Ludd”; Pynchon in his essay opines that “Ned Ludd”, the faceless, unidentified character which recurs in the temporary works, is based on the mysterious archetypes like “the Badass -- the djinn, the golem, the hulk, the superhero” which bash the frames of “the real or secular” (“Is it Ok to be a Luddite?”). Another spectral character is a woman named La Blanca. In *Telluride*, Frank happens to see “La Blanca” who was named for the white horse with “supernatural demeanor she was always seen to ride” (*Against*, p.287). La Blanca seems to be not only dangerous and fearful like her husband, but also mysterious and virtual due to the “light of Heaven on her hair”, her keeping distance scrupulously, her “bloodless” lips that in “the windy transparency” seem “to disappear, leaving her black-fringed eyes the only feature you’d recall after she’d gone by” (*Against*, p.288).¹ Among many other virtual characters is Dally’s uncanny boyfriend Hunter Penhallow, a Venician artist who just like Venice itself has a mysterious side to it. Penhallow has fought in a great war which has not occurred yet; he is “demobilized from a war that nobody knew about, obscurely damaged, seeking refuge from time, safety behind the cloaks and masks and thousand-named mists of Venezia” (*Against*, p.577).

V. THE CHUMS OF CHANCE, THE VIRTUAL HEROES

Arguably, the fictional world of the Chums of Chance can help us perceive “life higher than the ‘lived’” (Deleuze and Guattari, 1994, p.177). Chums who verge on Tom Swifitian fictional characters are both fictional characters of the novel and fictional characters in the fictional series referenced in the novel; they seem to be caricatural, innocent characters from a fairy or tall tales, fictional characters within fiction or “Some invisible narrative occupying [...] the passage of the day” (*Against*, p.418). As if, the harsh non-fiction world is too much for them; hence, they take solace in the virtual world of fiction and “[get] down to earth” not often. In the very beginning of the novel, the narrator informs us that Chums’ existence is dependent on the virtual realms of fiction, and unlike the “harsh non-fictional world”, the Chicago Fair that was “at once dream-like and real,” “possessed the exact degree of fictitiousness to permit the boys access and agency”. The narrator adds that “the ground population” who “regards them with contempt and pity” are very different from Chums (p.25). That is, the world of other fictional characters of the novel is “more real” while Chums’ world is more virtual.

Chums’ fictionality is so much that the narrator, who has very rarely used the metafiction in the novel, poignantly addresses the reader directly and makes an apology for not including enough detail, referring the readers to a fictitious book, *The Chums of Chance in the Bowels of the Earth* for more information on Chums’ “intraterrestrial scherzo” that is their journey into the hollow Earth and their encounter with the army of gnomes (*Against*, p.117). Indeed, Chums’ parts are the most metafictional sections of the novel. The parts that are related to Chums with their mostly virtual nature intersect the accounts of the real groundlings of the fiction (i.e., characters who are taken to be real in the context of the novel). That is, the earthbound characters or the surface dwellers of the actual/virtual world of the novel and the pure virtual world of Chums entangle and make the novel even more intriguing. While Chums enjoy several visits to the real world of the fictional novel, by nature, they prefer the fictional, the alternative world of the fiction. Nevertheless, Chums’ being fictional or real in the world of novel is not something consistent or unflinching; that is, nonfiction and fiction, the real and the imaginary are merged.

This perplexing state of the oscillation between fiction and nonfiction resurfaces many times in the course of the novel. At one point, Reef Traverse, being on his way to bring back Web’s corps, reads “a dime novel, one of the Chums of Chance series, *The Chums of Chance at the Ends of the Earth* to his father’s corps. Later on, Reef who deems the boys as “agents of a kind of extrahuman justice” and is enjoying “a sort of dual existence, both in Sorocco and at the Pole”, sees “something familiar” in the sky, and the strange yet familiar thing is nothing but Chums’ balloon that he is reading about; Reef says, “They’re watching us, all right. And tonight I’ll read you some more out of that story” (p.215). Perhaps, through Chums’ quasi-fictive status, Pynchon wants to show that there is not a plain distinction between fiction and nonfiction and between virtual and actual, as Deleuze also maintains. In fact, fiction is the revelation of the virtual realms of life helping the reader to detach himself from the actual world. As Fairclough says, fictional discourses “not only represent the world as it is (or rather is seen to be), they are also projective, imaginaries, representing possible worlds which are different from the actual world, and tied in to projects to change the world in particular directions” (Fairclough, 2003, p.11). John Hughes (1997) also argues, “the artwork takes on the status of an event of the virtual expressed through its matter” (p.70). Indeed, in the pastiche-like tale of the boys, the line between the real and imaginary peters out as it gets hard to “tell fiction from non-fiction” (*Against*, p.37) in Randolph’s words. In a word, Chums’ inhabiting a fictionalized world, brings up the possibility of virtual world and poses ontological questions about what exactly is real in the reader.

Chums seem to be the embodiment of a virtual world of multiple realities as well as Pynchon’s “impulse towards immanent transcendence” (Thomas, 2007, p.37). The novel starts with Chums’ singling up all lines and finishes with their flight toward grace, and nowhere in the whole novel, the virtual forces are more bespoken than in the Airship Boys tales, the extra-dimensional aeronauts flying in a fantastical zeppelin with virtual capabilities and virtual gizmos. They are the proof that Pynchon, on his time machine, goes backward in time and resorts to the virtual world—a virtual world

¹ Similarly, the character of Fleetwood Vibe also seems to be mystifyingly virtual. The narrator says that Fleetwood may or may not be alive; that is, he might be a ghost (*Against*, p.164).

of unlimited possibility—while an actual, nasty World War is around the corner. Chums are Pynchon's supermen who have the potentiality to defy the force of gravity, travel beneath the earth, use aether's qualities to move around, hold meetings with their fourth-dimensional counterparts, and age merely a few years in the course of the thirty years of the novel. This innocent gang is "everywhere, but invisible"; they are vectors "passing through the invisible, the 'imaginary', the unimaginable" and truly belong to where darkness is not disturbed by "light displaced from Hell" (*Against*, p.1082).

Chums can take a trip to dimensions outside the visible three dimensions, beyond this "known Creation", "beyond the space we know" (p.602). They live in their own meta-universe or a "realm of the counterfactual" (p.9); however, they have to visit our world. Indeed, Chums tale redirects the narrative from the actual into the virtual and vice versa. The world that other characters in the story are dwelling in is more actual/real and more sinister than the mostly virtual/real world of the innocent boys. However, these opposite worlds are seamlessly attached together. Just as Deleuzian virtual and actual are attached and create the reality, these two worlds are sewed by Pynchon to create a unique reality of the world of the novel and our own world in general. This seamless link is reflected in the interrelated relations of the characters, in the interspersed stories flowing from actual-oriented stories to virtual-oriented ones. Pynchon starts with Chums who then get to meet Lew Basnight who, as a private detective, is after the anarchists including Webb Traverse who is going to be killed by Scarsdale Vibe who financially supports Professor Vanderjuice who had been the balloonists' mentor. Of course, in between of these wide-ranging stories there are several associations of other virtual or actual stories like anarchists' resistance and holy Shambhala, and so forth, which are not unrelated to Chums' tales.

In addition, Chums' "usual unworldliness" (*Against*, p.35), as Vanderjuice deems them to be, is extendable to the implements they use. Even Chums' zeppelin is virtual as such; the narrator tells us that Inconvenience's propulsion mechanism, designed by Professor Vanderjuice, is "a perpetual-motion machine, in clear violation of themodynamical law" (p.6). Moreover, Chums, in their search for Shambhala, the magical place, use a device called "paramorphoscope" which is made of the magical crystals of Iceland Spar to read its map (that is "not a geographical map at all but an account of some spiritual journey" [p.248]); the calcite o is capable of separating "ordinary" beams of light from the "extraordinary" ones, which is the actual beams from the virtual beams, and Chums can decode the message from the Upper Hierarchy. Indeed, seeing via the extra-actual gadget, the balloonists get access to the virtual aspect of the world. Interestingly, this gadget revealing "the terrain at finer and finer scales" seems to function quite similarly to the modern Google earth software.

Further, Chums can have virtual visions which open the doors of the virtual worlds to them. For example, Miles, after saying goodbye to the Saksaul, experiences "extra-temporal excursions" (p.443) on board of the Inconvenience. The vision is a prophecy of the future Earth which seems to be disastrous. When he reports fully what he has seen of the future of the world, Chick thinks that he cannot count on the authenticity of this vision because Darby and him have already experienced a similar vision in the "timechamber" of Dr. Zoot with the same obscure message. However, we readers know that in their future of the novel--which is our past--the disastrous World War will happen and millions of people will be slaughtered. Hence, unlike Chick, we do not doubt the vision's accuracy; indeed, Pynchon sets Chick to function as a foil character or devil's advocate to his readers in this regard.

Each of the five Chums has certain virtual qualities, even the dog Pugnax that is literate and able to read classic literature. Yet, among Chums, perhaps Miles Blundell has the greatest grasp of the virtual world. Miles Blundell practices divination, communicates with the Fourth Dimension (*Against*, p.602), and has a "prophetic vision" (p.250). Once he tells one of his fellows, Lindsay, that at times he can temporarily be witness to peculiar thing: "like the electricity coming on--as if I can see everything just as clear as day, how...how everything fits together, connects", and soon he is taken back from this virtual journey "tripping over [his] feet again" (pp.194-195). Once, while passing an area in Venice, Miles spots ruined frescoes and gazes at them "as if they were maps"; later, he sees "the prophetic vision of St. Mark, but in reverse" with Miles becoming "some Being clearly not of the immediate region", a winged lion. This virtual experience is in line with Deleuzian ideas of becoming (animal) and difference. Indeed, Miles is "given" a virtual, "aplotic" (i.e., uninflected) potential of understanding wherein one is not able to "tell subject from object" (p.251) as he feels being himself as well as the winged Lion gaining virtual qualities.

Moreover, the steampunk balloonists' encounter with the legion of gnomes when traversing the hollow Earth is yet another virtual event involving Chums. In a portal near the South Pole, "diminutive combatants wearing pointed hats" --namely the local inhabitants of the underground world who have a huge civilization and a virtual-parallel world to the actual surface world-- signal a message to Chums saying that a legion of hostile gnomes have invaded them and seek assistance from Chums (p.117). Chums fight against the horde and narrowly escape the closing Northern portal. Here, "the surface world" is indeed the actual realm, and the underground realm with the miniature critters is the virtual one. However, the portals that connect the virtual, extraordinary underground world with the actual, secular world of humans start to shut down forever. In this fantastical episode of subterranean war, Pynchon verges on a flight of the imagination thus creating a line of flight from the actual world. The Hollow-Earth world, being a replica of the actual

world on the ground, reminds us of the balloonist's dual virtual-actual existence; as Pynchon himself puts it, this is "the aeronauts' dual citizenship in the realms of the quotidian and the ghostly" (p.256).¹

Moreover, Chums can deviate from a virtual existence to an actual one and vice versa by mutating "into imperfect replicas of who they once were", just like "the way ghosts are said to revisit places where destinies took a wrong turn, or revisit in dreams the dreaming body of one loved more than either might have known" (*Against* p.422). Their virtual qualities are even beyond their own imagination as a "brief aberration in their history", the mutation from virtual Chums to actual harmonica players, is quite perplexing to Chums themselves so much so that they have an existential doubt that they may not be the real Chums after all. They think that they might be a replica or mock-up of the real Chums, or even merely readers of the Chums Series helping Chums who are in need (p.423). Nevertheless, their earthly existence does not take long, and they return to Inconvenience, i.e., beyond the actual existence.

Interestingly, these virtual buddies manage to find themselves virtual mates. Chums, crossing the Rockies, find in the air "an invisible repetition of the material terrain beneath them" and "three-dimensional flows of cold air followed the flow of rivers far below". Now, the "Ætheronauts" experience a "moment of spiritual perplexity" while crossing "trajectories" (*Against*, p.1030) and meet girls who are even more mysterious than themselves. Being destined to marry, they encounter the girls who are "dressed like religious novices" with "metallic wings" which "could ever have been mistaken for angels' wings" (p.1030). This sisterhood, similar to Chums, is virtual and even more virtual since "this Ætherist sorority" "by the terms of their dark indenture" has decided to "never descend to Earth" (p.1030). Moreover, the girls' wings are "Æther-aerials" and function according to Ætherodynamics rules which lay beyond the actual world. Æther has virtual and magical qualities, and the girls seem to have harnessed its virtual powers such as the virtual potentiality of dilating the Time and "making Time inversely proportional to viscosity". The girls and Chums couple in "a domesticity of escape and rejection", a line of flight from the terrestrial spaces "which is never entirely dreamed, from other worlds" (p.1030).

In the course of novel, the fate of Chums gets more and more virtual. The Inconvenience, housing Chums and their wives, grows "as large as a small city" with extraterrestrial qualities. It grows "so big that when people on the ground see it in the sky, they are struck with selective hysterical blindness and end up not seeing it at all" (p.1084). Now, the balloon is very similar to the Shambhala Chums had been after for a long time, a virtual world of unlimited possibility, wherein "any wish that can be made is at least addressed, if not always granted" (p.1085). Now that they have completely unshackled from the actual realm, Chums go further and further into the virtual realm where "It is no longer a matter of gravity—it is an acceptance of sky", a virtual realm pregnant with the invisible, transcendence, and "grace": "They know –Miles is certain– it is there, like an approaching rainstorm, but invisible. Soon they will see the pressure-gauge begin to fall. They will feel the turn in the wind. They will put on smoked goggles for the glory of what is coming to part the sky. They fly toward grace" (p.1085). That is, Chums' flight towards grace is a flight from the actual space and time to an alternate dimension, a virtual glorious territory of alternative reality. This final journey takes the balloonists to the other the side of the world which is the unnamable and virtual realm of potentiality, difference, and becoming.

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¹ Another one of the novel's most impressive fantastical events is also experienced by Chums. In the Sahara, Chums face a startling event in which the Earth bifurcates into the Earth and Counter-Earth with Chums being "on the Counter-Earth, on it and of it, yet at the same time also on the Earth they had never it seemed, left" (p.1021).

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A Theme-based Text Analysis of an Academic Abstract in English and Chinese

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Abstract—This paper centers on the employment of Theme-related theories to analyze how academic abstracts unfold coherently in English and Chinese versions. By quantitatively exploring the distribution of these theories and ways they are progressed, the findings show that the two versions adopt simple Themes and multiple Themes in a completely opposite way, and their progressive patterns also differentiate with each other significantly. However, they seem to keep a similar trend of developing unmarked and marked Themes through the two versions of the abstract.

Index Terms—simple and multiple themes, unmarked and marked themes, thematic progressive patterns

I. INTRODUCTION

Academic abstract is the most significant and compacted part of an article, which generalizes the research contents, purposes, approaches and findings within, by and large, two or three hundred words or so. In order to achieve this purpose, it is of vital importance for scholars to present these ideas and at the same time keep the articles' readability in a cohesive and coherent way. Mathesius in Prague school propounds the concept of Theme-Rheme structure, which serves to be one of the important means and then M. A. K. Halliday (1985) in his monograph further develops the structure systematically and applies it into text analysis. Scholars both home (Hu, 1980; Cao & Li, 2015; etc.) and abroad (Halliday, 1967;1968; North, 2005; Leong, 2016; etc.) have employed the theory in analyzing different types of texts. This paper intends to quantitatively analyze an English abstract and its Chinese translation from an MA thesis in psycholinguistics and explores the ways that the Theme-Rheme structures of the abstract are interwoven. Thus, two research questions are raised: 1) how is the theme distributed in the two abstracts? 2) what is the similarity and differences between the two abstracts while the author constructs them?

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Theme is glossed as the point of departure of the message and the speaker or writer (hereafter speaker) uses it as a means to facilitate the addressee or reader (hereafter addressee) to decode the interpretation of the message (Halliday, 2014). Theme-Rheme structure is not only a means of interweaving the textual information, but also an important grammatical device to organize the text as a whole. Theme is an element of the clause, expressing what is known or obvious to addressees. It can be realized by circumstantial elements or the utterances occurred in the context. Therefore, Theme is closely associated with the text.

According to the components of forming a theme, it is sub-categorized into simple Theme, multiple Theme and clausal Theme. Being simple Theme does not suggest that it is simply realized by a word or a group; as a matter of fact, the realization of a Theme can be extended to incorporate more than one group, either nominal groups, or adverbial groups, or prepositional phrases, or even the combination of the three. It is being simple Theme because only one of the three meta-functions (ideational, interpersonal or textual) is realized by all these elements in the clause. For instance, the Themes *These students* and *the personal experience narratives of Chinese college students* in (1) are realized by nominal group and the combination of nominal group and prepositional phrase respectively in the clause; the Theme in (2) is simply realized by the prepositional phrase *you guan xushiyupian yu yuyanchansheng he gongzuojiyi xiang jiehe de yanjiu* (the studies associating narrative text with language production and working memory).

(1) These studies have revealed that the personal experience narratives of Chinese college students exhibit all of the six categories presented by Labov.

(2) 但是, 有关 叙事语篇 与 语言产生 和 工作记忆

Danshi, you guan xushiyupian yu yuyanchansheng he gongzuojiyi

But, have relating narrative text and language production and working memory

‘ However, the studies associating narrative text with language production

相结合 的 研究 还 不 多 见。

xiang jiehe de yanjiu hai bu duo jian.

with associative particle research yet not many see
and working memory are rare at present.’

Multiple theme refers to the one that is composed of more than one functional elements, and these elements are

realized by either adverbial groups or nominal groups. The usual linear order for the co-occurrence of the three metafunctional meanings is textual Theme, followed by interpersonal Theme, which precedes the topical Theme. In actual writing, the co-occurrence of the three functional elements is very rare, so there are scant such cases occurring in the two abstracts. Example (3) illustrates the combination of textual Theme and topical Theme. Clausal Theme refers to the cases that the realization of the Theme is achieved by a clause or a nonfinite clause. For example, *I must say* in (4) is the clausal Theme of the whole clause.

(3) *Finally, SPSS17.0* was used to descriptively analyze these experimental numbers.

(4) Kate, *I must say* this fish is cooked beautifully. (Halliday, 2014, p.110)

Halliday also demarcates the unmarked Theme and the marked Theme. The former is defined as the phenomenon that the Theme and the subject of the clause are overlapping while the latter refers to the case that the Theme is not the clausal subject, but another element of the clause such as the complement or the circumstance. Marked Theme occurs when the speaker is trying to yield some special effect or to emphasize the complement or the circumstance or some other elements. The Themes are markedly realized by *with the development of working memory* in (5) and *Youguan Shiro tichude fanchou* (As to the categorizations proposed by Shiro) in (6) respectively.

(5) With the development of working memory, many scholars are studying language production together with working memory, and received remarkable achievements

(6) 有 关 Shiro 提出的 范畴, 我们[...].
You guan Shiro tichude fanchou, women...
 Have relating Shiro proposed categorization, we...

‘As to the categorizations proposed by Shiro, we...’

Another important concept pertaining to Theme is Thematic progressing, which is initiated by the Czech scholar Daneš (1970, 1974). He first draws attention to the patterned inter-relationships between Themes and Rhemes in the text and identified five various broad patterns. Subsequently, this concept is further developed by M. A. K. Halliday (1967;1968), and underlying the theoretical framework, many scholars in China (Xu,1982; Zhu, 1990; Liu, 2012) have also explored the theory, and proposed their own sub-classifications. The most frequently occurring patterns are Theme-identical pattern, simple linear pattern and Rheme-identical pattern, which together make the abstracts elected coherent.

Theme-identical pattern refers a progressive relation that Themes of two or more than two clauses are identical, but their Rhemes are different. It can be exemplified as (7) and diagrammed in Figure 1. (T for Theme and R for Rheme)

(7) ///The study of personal experience narratives [T1] has received much attention in recent years, [R1] //and [the study of personal experience narratives] [T1] has become part of the work together with language production. [R2] ///

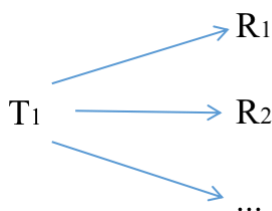


Figure 1: Theme-identical pattern

The simple linear pattern can be defined as the fact that the Rheme or part of the Rheme of the previous clause is employed as the Theme of the next clause and by so doing, the message is further progressed. Consider the example (8) and Figure 2.

(8) ///Sixty students *altogether* from different universities and different majors [T2] participated in the study. [R3]/// This research [T3=R3] adopted Labov’s (1972) six functional categories of narratives and Shiro’s (2003) evaluative language to analyze these produced narratives made by Chinese college students. [R4] ///

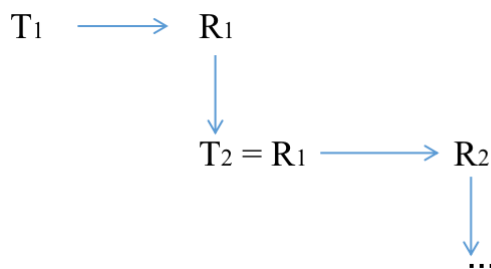


Figure 2: Simple linear pattern

Rheme-identical pattern is contrary to the Theme-identical pattern in that the former refers to the phenomenon that Rhemes of different clauses are the same but their Themes remain different, while the latter’s Themes are similar as

defined above. This progressive pattern is illustrated in (9) and diagrammed in Figure 3.

(9) //We [T1] propose that narratives and language production are closely related, [R1]// *and* so [T1] are narratives and working memory; [R2]// *thus*, it [T2] is necessary to contrast produced narratives with memorized narratives. [R3=R1]//

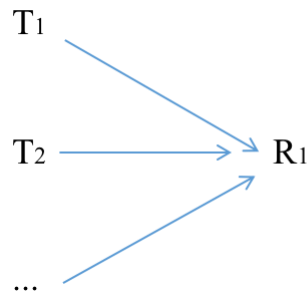


Figure 3: Rheme-identical pattern

What should be expounded here is that ‘identical’ in Theme-identical pattern or Rheme-identical pattern does not necessarily be the same. It might be derived or related in cohesion or some other means.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Material Analysis

An English abstract and its Chinese translation from the CNKI are chosen as the materials of my analysis on the distribution of Themes. Abstracts of the thesis are about the relationship between Language Production and Verbal Working Memory in Oral and Written Narratives of Personal Experience (Zhou, 2010). The detailed analysis of English and Chinese versions is presented in the following and Appendix provides with notational conventions of the two versions.

English version

[Para. One]

///The study of personal experience narratives [1s] [unmarked] [T1]has received much attention in recent years,[R1] //and [2] [the study of personal experience narratives] [1c][unmarked] [T1]has become part of the work together with language production.[R2] /// [Type 1]

///Labov [1s] [unmarked] [T2](1972) has studied the functional categories of narratives [R3]// and [2] [Labov] [1c] [unmarked] [T2]concludes that every narrative should be composed of six categories, that is, coda, orientation, complicating action, result, evaluation and coda.[R4] /// [Type 1]

/// Shiro [1s] [unmarked] [T3](2003) also analyzed the production of narratives from the aspect of the evaluative language,[R5]// thus [2] [Shiro] [1c] [unmarked] [T3]realized the association between language production and narratives.[R6]/// [Type 1]

///With [2] the development of working memory, [1c] [marked] [T4] many scholars are studying language production together with working memory,[R7] // and [2] [many scholars] [1c] [unmarked] [T5=R7]received remarkable achievements (Baddeley, 1986; 2000; 2001; 2003; Baddeley & Hitch, 1974).[R8] /// [Type 2]

/// However, [2] the associative studies [1c] [unmarked] [T6=R7]are rare at present.[R9]/// [Type 2]

We [1s] [unmarked] [T7]propose that narratives and language production are closely related,[R10]// and [2] so [1c] [unmarked] [T7]are narratives and working memory;[R11]/// [Type 1]

///thus [2], it [1c] [unmarked] [T8] is necessary to contrast produced narratives with memorized narratives.[R12=R10]///[Type 3]

///In order to acquire a deep comprehension of narrative characters in the two experiments [marked] [T9], we contrastively analyzed narrative structures and evaluative language in oral and written narratives as well as in memorized oral and written narratives.[R12]///

[Para. Two]

///This thesis [1s] [unmarked] [T1] focuses on the most unforgettable experience made by Chinese college students,[R1] // and[2] [This thesis] [1c] [unmarked] [T1][focuses] extremely on the features of narrative production and working memory.[R2]/// [Type 1]

///Sixty students altogether [2] from different universities and different majors [1c] [unmarked] [T2] participated in the study.[R3]/// This research [1s] [unmarked] [T3=R3]adopted Labov’s (1972) six functional categories of narratives and Shiro’s (2003) evaluative language to analyze these produced narratives made by Chinese college students.[R4] ///[Type 2]

///Finally [2], SPSS17.0 [1c] [unmarked] [T4][was used] to descriptively analyze these experimental numbers.[5]///

[Para. Three]

///These studies [1s] [unmarked] [T1]have revealed that [2] the personal experience narratives of Chinese college

students [1c] [unmarked] exhibit all of the six categories presented by Labov.[R1]/// That is to say[3], Labovian categories [1c] [unmarked] [T1] seem to exist in a non-western language like Chinese irrespective of the oral and written versions or memorized oral and written versions used in the narrative.[R2]/// [Type 1]
 ///The only [2] inconsistency with respect to the Labovian model [1c] [unmarked] [T2]was in the use of “abstract” and “coda” categories in written and oral versions and memorized written and oral versions.[R3]/// The frequency of these categories [1s] [unmarked] [T3=R3]was significantly higher in the written narratives and memorized narratives.[R4]/// [Type 2]
 ///Moreover [2], the use of “abstract” and “coda” categories [1c] [unmarked][T4=R3] seemed optional among Chinese college students,[R5]// whereas [2] the other four categories [1c] [unmarked] [T5]were used obligatorily.[R6]/// [Type 1]
 ///These findings [1s] [unmarked] [T6] are in line with the findings of other studies[R7]// which [1s] [unmarked] [T7=R7] suggest// that [2] not [3] all stories [1c] [unmarked] have abstracts and codas (Johnstone, 2001).[R8]/// [Type 1]
 ///The use of evaluative language [1s] [unmarked] [T8]was also analyzed in terms of the categories presented by Shiro.[R9]/// The two experiments [1s] [unmarked] [T9] found // that [2] the use of evaluative sentences [1c] [unmarked] [T10=T8] is significantly higher in the written version and the memorized written version.[R10]/// [Type 1]
 ///However, [2] the order of occurrence of the evaluative categories [1c] [unmarked] [T11=R9] was found to be the same in both narrative modes and both memorized narrative modes.[R11]/// [Type 2]
 ///Thus [2], the “emotion” category [1c] [unmarked] [T12]was most frequent in both versions in two experiments.[R12]/// However [2], when [2]the frequency of these categories [1c] [unmarked] [T13=R12] is compared in terms of oral and written versions and memorized oral and written versions,[R13]// the use of the “emotion” category [1s] [unmarked] [T14=T12]is significantly higher in the oral and memorized oral narratives.[R14]/// [Type 2] [Type 1]
 ///This [1] [unmarked] [T15=R14]indicates the high emotional state of the oral and memorized unforgettable narratives.[R15]/// [Type 2]

Chinese version

[Para. One]

///近年来[1s] [marked][T1], 个人经历叙事成为了研究关注的焦点, [R1] // [个人经历叙事] [1s] [unmarked][T2=R1]是语言产生研究常涉及的[R2]。/// [Type 2]
 ///Labov[1s] [unmarked][T3](1972)就叙事语篇的功能范畴进行了研究[R3], 并且[2] [Labov][1c] [unmarked][T3]总结出任何叙事语篇都应该由“概括”、“发生”、“发展”、“结果”、“评价”和“结尾”这六大范畴所构成[R4]。/// [Type 1]
 ///Shiro[1s] [unmarked][T4](2003)从评价性语言的角度也对叙事语篇的产生进行了分析[R5], 从而[2][Shiro][1c] [unmarked][T4]实现了语言产生同叙事语篇的相结合[R6]。 [Type 1]
 ///随着[2]工作记忆研究的发展[1c] [marked], [T5]大量学者将工作记忆与语言产生相结合研究[R7], 并且[2]也[2][学者][1c][unmarked][T6=R7]取得了大量的成果(Baddeley, 1986; 2000; 2001; 2003; Baddeley & Hitch, 1974)。
 [R8] /// [Type 2]
 ///但是[2], 有关[2]叙事语篇与语言产生和工作记忆相结合的研究 [1c][marked] [T7]还不多见。[R9]/// 我们 [1s][unmarked][T8]认为叙事语篇与语言产生[1s][unmarked][T9=T7]有着必然联系, 同样与工作记忆也应有一定的关联[R10], 因此[2][我们][1c][unmarked][T10=T8]也很必要将直接产生的叙事语篇与记忆后所产生的叙事语篇进行对比。 [R11] /// [Type 1] [Type 1]
 ///在这两个实验中[marked], 为了更加深入了解叙事特征[marked], [T11] 我们对比分析了口头叙事与书面以及记忆口述与记忆书写个人经历叙事中的叙事结构与评价性语言。 [R12=R11]/// [Type 3]

[Para. Two]

///本研究[1s][unmarked][T1]调查了中国大学生在叙述个人最难忘的一段经历时[R1], 本研究[1s][unmarked][T1]重点分析了这些叙事语篇的语言产生与工作记忆的特征。 [R2]///[Type 1]
 ///共有 60 名来自不同大学、不同专业的大学生[1s][unmarked][T2]参加了该项研究 [R3]。///[本研究][1s][unmarked][T3=R3]采用了 Labov(1972)的叙事语篇的六大功能范畴和 Shiro(2003)的叙事评价性语言范畴对大学生所产生的叙事语篇进行了分析[R4]。/// [Type 2]
 ///最后[2], 我们[1c][unmarked][T4]使用了 SPSS17.0 对实验数据进行了描述统计分析。 [R]///

[Para. Three]

///研究结果[1s][unmarked][T1]显示国内大学生的个人经历叙事都体现了 Labov 所提出的六个范畴。[R1]///也就是[3], 无论[2]何种叙事形式[1c][marked][T2=R1], Labov 范畴都可以在中文中体现出来。 [R2]/// [Type 2]
 ///与 Labov 模型唯一不一致的[marked][T3]就是两个实验中叙事类型的“概括”与“结尾”范畴的使用[R3]。///就这些范畴的使用频率而言[marked][T4=R3], 书写叙事与记忆书写叙事明显要高[R4]。/// [Type 2]
 ///除此之外[2][marked][T5], “概括”与“结尾”范畴在国内大学生中视乎是选择性的出现[R5=R3], 从而[2]其它四个范畴[1c][unmarked][T6=T5]是每一个叙事语篇所必须的。 [R6]///[Type 3] [Type 1]
 ///该实验结果[1s][unmarked][T7]同其它研究结果一致, [R7]///这[1s][unmarked][T7]说明不是所有的叙事都有“概括”

与“结尾”。[R8]// [Type 1]
 //有关 Shiro 提出的范畴[marked], [T8]我们也对评价性语言的使用进行了分析。[R9] //实验结果 [1s][unmarked][T9=R9]发现评价性语句的使用在书写叙事与记忆书写叙事中显著地高于口述叙事与记忆口述叙事[R10]。// [Type 2]
 //然而[2], 评价性范畴的出现顺序[1c][unmarked][T10]在直接叙事模型与记忆叙事模型中是一样的。[R11]//因此 [2], 在每个实验的两种呈现形式中[marked], [T11=R11]“情感”范畴都是使用频率最高。[R12]// 然而[2], [我][1c][unmarked][T12]将这些范畴的使用频率进行比较时, [R13=R12]//口述与记忆口述叙事中“情感”范畴的使用 [1s][unmarked][T12]明显要高。[R13] //这[1][unmarked][T13=R13]也表明难以忘记的叙事语篇所呈现的高情感因素。[R14] // [Type 2] [Type 3] [Type 2]

B. Data Collection

Collection of the data mainly undergoes two steps. The first step is that clauses in the two versions of abstracts are manually annotated. During the process of annotation, I find that embedded clauses and dependent clauses occur frequently in the texts. The embedded clauses are precluded from the analysis, because they are downranked and only function as the modifiers in nominal groups grammatically; while these dependent clauses are included into my analysis because of their being not downranked. The other step is that the frequency of occurrences of each Theme type, markedness and progressive pattern is counted for analysis. The final collected figures are not normalized because the two abstracts are more or less identical in ideation to a great extent.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

From the perspective of the composition of Themes in English and Chinese, multiple theme is preferred than simple theme in English, while the Chinese abstract seems to buck the trend as Table 1 demonstrates. Actually, the finding pertinent to the Chinese abstract echoes Cao and Li's (2015) research on thematic analysis of abstracts taken from the famous international journal of Nature. The simple themes are mainly preferred by these authors, because they are doing their best to make their papers readable and understandable to their readers. Nevertheless, the English version of the abstract is not compatible with previous research findings and some obvious phenomena are found to be present in the English version after scrutinizing the material. 14 out of 21 multiple themes are realized by these common conjunctions and used repeatedly, such as *and*, *thus*, and *however*. This phenomenon implies that the author is not capable of diversifying the multiplicity of the thesis, but he is still trying to employ multiple themes, and hence leads to the high occurrence of multiple themes, which are not appropriate in most cases.

TABLE 1
SIMPLE THEME AND MULTIPLE THEME IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

	Simple Theme (%)	Multiple Theme (%)
English	14 (40)	21 (60)
Chinese	16 (60)	11 (40)

Taking into consideration of the sub-types of Theme, the two versions bear more similarity than the difference. Textual and interpersonal themes are used higher in English version than the Chinese one only in a very slight degree, but the case in topical theme is the other way round. That is, the Chinese version is slightly higher than its counterpart (Figure 4). Figure 4 also tells us that the topical theme is much higher than the other two sub-types of theme, and it is in accordance with M. A. K. Halliday's idea that the topical Theme is obligatory, and textual and interpersonal themes are optional in each clause. When the markedness of these Themes are counted, they keep a similar trend that the unmarkedness is predominantly higher than the marked cases in both versions (Table 2)), which is in accordance with other related researches. For instance, //This thesis [unmarked] focuses on the most unforgettable experience made by Chinese college students, // and [This thesis] [unmarked] [focuses] extremely on the features of narrative production and working memory. // The thesis in both clauses is the Theme and at the same time the subject, and thus the thesis is unmarked. Unmarkedness, as a commonly used means, is in line with the way that natural languages presenting the message and caters to our ability of recognition. It is, on the one hand, helpful for the thematic progression, and on the other hand, facilitates the reader's understanding of the academic papers.

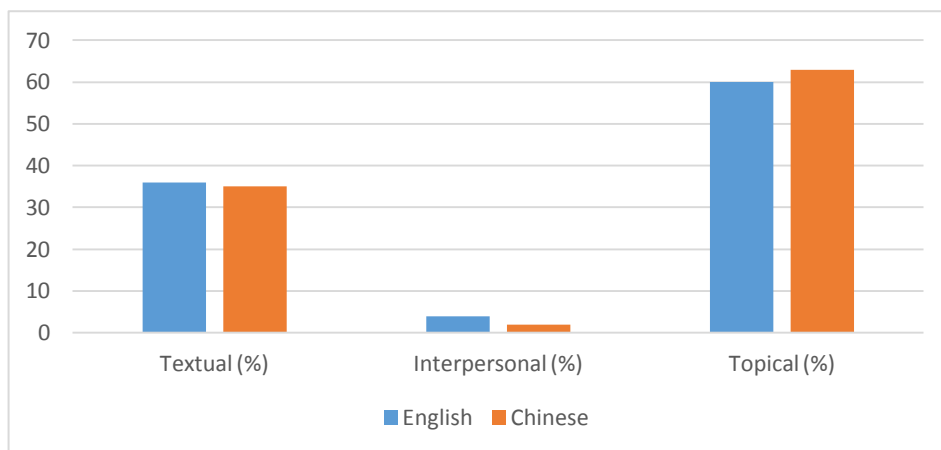


Figure 4: Sub-types of Theme in English and Chinese versions

TABLE 2
THEME AND MARKEDNESS IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

	Theme			Markedness	
	Textual (%)	Interpersonal (%)	Topical (%)	Unmarked (%)	Marked (%)
English	21 (36)	2 (4)	35 (60)	34 (94)	2 (6)
Chinese	15 (35)	1 (2)	27 (63)	23 (68)	11 (32)

TABLE 3
HEMATIC PROGRESSION IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

	Theme-identical pattern (%)	Simple linear pattern(%)	Rheme-identical pattern (%)
	English	10 (84)	1 (8)
Chinese	7 (39)	8 (44)	3 (17)

In terms of the thematic progression, two versions of the abstract are mismatched with one another in that the employment of Theme-identical pattern is obviously higher than that of the simple linear pattern and Rheme-identical pattern in English, while it seems that the trend is varied in the Chinese version (Table 3). The distribution of thematic progressive patterns in English version can provide a vindication of previous research findings, no matter the analyzed text is in English (Cao & Li, 2015) or in Chinese (Zhao & Yu, 2000). Academic papers mostly center on a specific topic, which serves as the Theme throughout the text with different Rhemes functioning as directions that the same topic projects from different angles. As to the reasons why simple linear pattern and Theme-identical pattern are both preferred by the author in the Chinese version, a further scrutinization of the material is required. I find that 75% of the simple linear pattern is accompanied by the marked Themes. To be more exact, the real subject of the former clause (part of the Rheme) also functions as the theme of the latter clause and hence forms the simple linear pattern as exemplified in (10).

(10) //近年来 [marked][T1], 个人 经历 叙事 成为 了[...], [R1] //
 jin nian lai, geren jingli xushi chengwei le [...],
 Recent years person experience narrative becomes ASP. [...],
 ‘The study of personal experience narratives has received much attention in recent years,
 [个人 经历 叙事] [T2=R1] 是 语言 产生 [...] [R2]。 //
 [geren jingli xushi] shi yuyan chansheng [...].
 person experience narrative is language production [...].
 and [the study of personal experience narratives] has become part of the work together with
 language production.’

V. CONCLUSION

It is of great help for scholars to arrange the clauses coherently while constructing the abstract of a paper by getting to know how others do. Comparing the deployment of Theme-based theories in an English abstract with that in its Chinese version, I find that the two versions employ a very different approach to develop their simple and multiple Themes. Besides, they also progress the Thematic patterns in a quite dissimilar means. Finally, a notable similar approach that the two versions of the same abstract adopt is that they both prefer the unmarked Themes to the marked ones for the ease of readers to decode the extremely compacted abstract. However, this paper only confines to a single abstract in English and Chinese, so the tentative conclusion needs to be enhanced by more samples in broader fields.

APPENDIX

Notational conventions:

single underlining	Theme
<u>plain</u>	topical Theme
bold	interpersonal Theme
<i>italic</i>	textual Theme
Type 1	Theme-identical pattern
Type 2	simple linear pattern
Type 3	Rheme-identical pattern

Arabic numerals are used for the convenience of counting the total occurrences.

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Literature Review on Language Learning Strategy Research in China

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Abstract—This paper was intended to sketch the landscape of the LLS researches conducted by Chinese researchers between 2003 and 2018, most of which took Chinese college student as research subjects. These researches covered eight topics, including the investigation of overall/individual features of LLS, comparison of LLS use between different learner groups, LLS instruction and the like.

Index Terms—learning strategy, language learning strategy, foreign language learning strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1975, Rubin first put forward the concept of language learning strategy. Currently, language learning strategy research is the most active field of the course learning strategy research (Gu & Yan, 2017). The Chinese literature involved in this paper is derived from 10 Foreign Language Chinese Core Journals collected by China National Knowledge Infrastructure. We searched the literature on learning strategies from 2003 to 2018 and classified them. It also attempts to describe the research contents, research objects and research methods of language learning strategies in China in the past 15 years. We draw on the classification method of Gu & Yan.(2017), and classify the literature into 8 categories to discuss.

II. RESEARCH CONTENT OF LLS

A. Literature Review

CHART1
 THE CLASSIFICATION OF LITERATURE OF REVIEW

Literature Review in China	Literature Review Abroad	Vocabulary Learning Strategy	Reading Strategy	The Empirical Research	Strategy Training
2	1	1	2	1	1

There are mainly 6 reviews on language learning strategies (Chart1). Gu & Yan (2017) and Zheng (2011) reviewed the studies on language learning strategies in China, analyzed the deficiencies of the research and put forward the prospect for the future. Gu (2015) conducted a diachronic study on foreign language learning strategies to explore the evolution of foreign language learning strategy research paradigm and research methods. Fan, Xia & Wang(2014) explored the overall development trend of the research on vocabulary learning strategies in China. Li & Qin(2005) reviewed the current situation of research on second language reading strategies in China and abroad in the past 30 years since 2015, and analyzed and summarized the achievements and characteristics of the research on second language reading strategies. Then, descriptive review methodology was used to analyze the literature on second language reading strategies from 2006 to 2015 (Li & Pu, 2017). Shen (2012) reviewed the research on second language learning strategy training from 1990 to 2012, and proposed to include strategy training in the teaching plan of L2 courses and carry out teacher training activities which based on learning strategies. Wen & Wang (2004b) reviewed empirical research on English learning strategies in China in the past 20 years, and pointed out the deficiencies in this field and the questions that are worth studying in the future.

B. The Investigation of Overall/Individual Features of LLS

In this kind of research, only Qin & Wang (2007) used qualitative research method (study log) to observe the characteristics of using English learning strategies of non-English major college students. Other studies adopt the quantitative research method by using questionnaire. According to the source of the questionnaire, there are two main types.

1. Oxford (1990) language learning strategy scale was used to investigate

Si, Zhao & He (2005) investigated the usage of language learning strategies among vocational students. Li Songhao (2006) investigated the depth and breadth of vocabulary learning strategies used by junior high school students and analyzed the causes. Gong(2008), after slightly modifying the Oxford language learning strategy scale, investigated the

usage of English learning strategies among undergraduates of English majors and non-English majors, and found that students of different majors have both similarities and differences in the use preferences of language learning strategies.

2. Self-designed or adapted questionnaires

Duan(2006) conducted a survey on extracurricular reading strategies of English major students and found that most students did not plan their extracurricular reading, neither paid attention to the effectiveness of language input, nor the language output of reading and cooperative learning. Gu & Li (2018) designed *the Questionnaire on English Writing Strategies of Junior Middle School Students* and *the Scale of Junior Middle School Students' Self-efficacy in English Writing* to explore the usage of English writing strategies, the level of writing self-efficacy and the correlation between the two. Liu Huijun(2004) and Lu(2006) investigated the relationship between English reading, English writing and metacognitive strategies by using questionnaires.

C. *The Comparative Study on the Use Preference of Learning Strategies among Different Learning Groups*

This kind of comparative study is mainly completed by two research methods.

1. Questionnaire survey is the main method

Liu & Yuan (2005) made a comparative analysis of the differences between high-score and low-score language strategies among undergraduates majoring in English by using Oxford language learning strategy scale. Tao(2009) took the learning strategy system of O'malley & Chamot as the model, and used Wen qiufang' s partial strategy framework to compile a questionnaire. They conducted a comparative study on metacognitive strategies among medical, art and comprehensive students. Miao (2008) mainly used questionnaire to explore the general tendency of English majors and non-English majors in using vocabulary strategies, and to compare their differences and similarities in the use of vocabulary strategies. Cheng, Ma & Dong (2003) designed a questionnaire on English learning strategies based on the theoretical framework of O'malley & Chamot, and studied the group characteristics and inter-group differences of those who passed CET4/CET6 and those who failed in using learning strategies.

2. The hybrid study by using questionnaires and classroom observations and/or interviews

Shang & Wang (2010) took 424 non-English major college students as the research objects, studied the types of English learning strategies, the differences between high-score and low-score students in using learning strategies, and the relationship between English learning strategies and English scores. Wu(2005) studied the relationship between the internal and external personality tendencies of excellent college English learners and the application of learning strategies.

D. *Researches on Language Learning Strategy Training*

At present, the research on learning strategy training in China can be divided into two categories.

1. Theoretical studies based on literature research

Wang & Wu (2017) conducted a meta-analysis of 27 such studies in China and abroad and found that reading strategy training had the greatest impact on students' reading comprehension. Wang & Wen (2003) reviewed the development and current situation of English learning strategy research in China, further understood the principles, models and methods of foreign language learning strategy training, and pointed out the future development direction. Zhu Xianghua(2010) conducted listening strategy training for students in combination with listening classroom teaching, aiming to further verify the teachability of listening learning strategies and explore the reasonable mode and specific operation suitable for college English listening strategy training in China. Fan & Liu's (2008) study aims to explore the effects of vocabulary memory strategy training and explore effective vocabulary memory training models. Yang Jianding(2003) proposed a process teaching model based on strategy training. This teaching mode requires teachers to change their roles, so that teachers could correctly understand the psychological process of listening comprehension, analyze students' needs, integrate strategy training into classroom teaching, and cultivate students' ability of independent learning. Ma & Wang (2010) investigated the English learning strategy training of non-English majors, aiming to verify the effectiveness of strategy training. Yang & Liu (2005) represented the rationale of collaboration learning strategy and the author's practical classroom experiment. They found that applying collaborative learning strategy through the task-based language teaching in college is one of the effective ways to solve the problem of poor teaching efficiency.

2. Empirical researches based on experimental teaching.

a. Holistic strategy training. Li Yu (2008), Xia (2006) and Su(2003) found that language learning strategies were feasible and could effectively improve students' scores after planned language learning strategy training in experimental teaching. However, Guo (2007) found that there is positive correlation only between the training and the usage of social strategies, but it is not too strong. It shows that the training of learning strategies fails to play a positive role in the use of effective learning strategies. Huang & Hu (2009) used mind map to train students' language learning strategies. After two years of teaching experiments, they found that this method was helpful to improve students' scores and the ability of using learning strategies and framing discourse. Based on the listening comprehension model and the learning strategies training model, Li & You (2007) studied the effects of listening strategy training on improving the listening ability of non-English majors. The result shows that the listening ability of the students who received listening strategy training was significantly higher than that of the students who did not receive.

b. Metacognitive strategy training. Liu Ying (2009) and Pan(2006) conducted metacognitive strategy training for non-English majors with poor English reading proficiency. Yang Jianding (2003a) and He (2005) conducted metacognitive strategy training in listening teaching. Liu & Gao (2011) explored the influence of metacognitive strategy training on students' writing. All the results show that metacognitive strategy was not only feasible but also effective. Long & Zhao(2009) introduced multi-modal learning mode and metacognitive strategy into college English listening teaching. The empirical research results show that there is a strong interaction between multi-modal learning mode and metacognitive strategy, and the combination of the two can better promote listening comprehension. Hu & Zhang (2006) conducted a sample survey on the use of metacognitive strategies by non-English majors. It is found that most students still do not possess the ability of autonomous learners whatever in terms of foreign language learning methods or psychological. It is believed that the ability of using metacognitive strategy to most foreign language learners should be conducted through classroom training.

c. Other strategy training. Wang Xiaojing (2016) conducted a one-semester cognitive strategy training teaching experiment on college non-English major students and found that the college English listening teaching model based on cognitive strategy theory can play a positive role in improving students' listening scores.

E. Researches on the Relationship between Learning Achievement and the Use of Language Learning Strategies

In China, the research on the relationship between learning achievement and the use of language learning strategies is mainly conducted through questionnaire survey. From the sources of questionnaire, there are three main types: Oxford scale, the combination of O'mally & Chamot learning strategy theory and Wen Qiufang and other research results, and Aek Phakiti (2003) questionnaire on cognitive and metacognitive strategies. It is found that metacognitive strategy is the main factor affecting English reading or writing scores. Zhang & Tan (2013), Li & Zhang (2013) explored the meta-analysis of the positive correlation between learning achievement and language learning strategies. These researches suggest that strategy teaching, especially metacognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and memory strategy, should be strengthened in English teaching.

F. The Study on the Relationship between Language Learning Strategies and Autonomous Language Learning.

Yang Aiying (2008) believes that the key of autonomous learning is learners' motivation and confidence as well as knowledge and skills. That is the learners' comprehensive quality. These are also the core issues of metacognitive theory. The author further explored the relationship between metacognitive strategies and second language learning, and proved the necessity and feasibility of metacognitive strategies in second language learning. Yue & Shi (2009), Xiao, Wang & Cao (2011), and Shao & Zhao (2011) found that metacognitive strategies are highly correlated with autonomous learning, and improving the level of metacognitive strategies is an effective way to improve students' autonomous learning ability. Zhang Dianyu (2005) and Ni(2010) have confirmed that English learning strategies have a significant impact on autonomous learning through empirical studies. Through questionnaires and interviews, Hua & Leng (2017) explored the current situation of autonomous learning of English majors, the use of motivation control strategy and the relationship between them, and found that there was a significant correlation between autonomous learning behaviors and motivation control strategies.

Lin (2006), Liu & Zha (2010) discussed the correlation between English learning motivation and learning strategies in the network environment. Ling, Yang Meirong&Yang Gaixue (2012), conducted an empirical study on 60 non-English major college students by using listening strategy in an online environment. It is found that the learning strategies that directly affecting listening learning are ranked according to the frequency of use, and the order from high to low is compensation strategy, cognitive strategy, memory strategy.

G. The Theoretical Study of Language Learning Strategies

The theory of language learning strategies can be divided into three categories: Questions about the effectiveness of language strategies, the study of language learning strategy theory, researches on metacognitive strategies. Wen&Wang(2004a) reviewed the effective research findings of second language learning strategies, and questioned the three conclusions: the superior and inferior students have differences in using strategies, learning strategies are predictive of academic record, and strategy training is effective. Wang&Chen(2009) pointed out the main problems in the current study of learning strategies. Xu Shuang (2008) verified the structure of language learning strategies with confirmatory factor analysis, and found that the theoretical structure of Oxford's language learning strategies could be used to measure the English learning strategies of Chinese college students. Yang Aiying (2011) and Xue Xinhua (2011) affirmed the great role of metacognitive strategies in English reading.

H. Researches on the Factors Influencing the Selection and Use of Language Learning Strategies

Wen & Wang (2004b) reviewed on various factors that affecting the operation of foreign language learning strategy system. It focuses on the positive and negative effects of environment and learner factors on learning strategies. Yao & Pan(2004), Xiong & Zhang(2014), Chen & Rukeye (2004), Wang & Yin (2003)found that environment, gender, learners' learning level, interest and confidence, and academic record are all factors that affect the selection and use of learning strategies.

III. REFLECTIONS ON THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES IN CHINA

A. *The General Situation of Language Learning Strategies in China*

In this paper, a total of 72 literature searched in 10 foreign language core journals are reviewed. From 2003 to 2018, language strategies have always attracted the attention of researchers. From the perspective of research content, the research on language strategy training has been focused on. Empirical research based on experimental teaching has always been the focus of research.

CHART 2
THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE LITERATURE

The type of the literature	Quantity
literature review	8
The investigation of overall/individual features of LLS	6
The comparative study on the use preference of learning strategies among different learning groups	6
Researches on language learning strategy training	22
The study on the relationship between language learning strategies and autonomous language learning.	10
The theoretical study of language learning strategies	6
Researches on the factors influencing the selection and use of language learning strategies	5
Researches on the relationship between learning achievement and the use of language learning strategies	9

According to the research objects (Chart 3), among the 49 empirical studies, there are 24 studies on non-English majors, 8 on English majors, and 5 on English majors and non-English majors with bachelor's degrees. In addition, there is one study on adult English learners, one study on non-English majors with master's and doctor's degrees, and one study on college non-English majors and university teachers.

CHART3
RESEARCH SUBJECTS

Research subjects	Quantity
Doctor in non-English major	1
Master	non-English majors English majors
	1
Undergraduate	non-English majors English majors non-English majors & English majors
	24
	8
	3
Vocational students	2
High school students	1
Middle school students	3

B. *Conclusion*

Throughout the 15 years from 2003 to 2018, great achievements have been made in the study of language strategies in China in terms of the number, field and type of studies. The research area is broader, the Angle is diverse. Empirical research is given priority to. And the data collection, processing method is more scientific. But there are still some shortcomings. 1) The experimental data are mostly collected from questionnaire, and the results and conclusions of empirical research lack comparability and universality due to the differences in questionnaire design and sample size. 2) The research objects are almost concentrated in university undergraduates, and there are relatively few studies on primary and secondary school students, and even less on the strategy training of primary and secondary schools. Moreover, the teachers in primary and secondary schools lack theoretical guidance, so researchers need to turn their attention to the research on the use of strategies in primary and secondary schools.

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The Effectiveness of Environment-based Reading Material in Increasing Students' Vocabulary in EFL Learning in the Eighth Grade of Sumbawa District Junior High School

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Abstract—The present study is an attempt to examine the competence of vocabulary of the Eighth Grade of Junior High School in the Sumbawa District. The study used environment-based reading material. The study indicates the levels of English vocabulary among 128 Grade 8 junior high school students in the Sumbawa District. The EFL learners of Sumbawa District were divided into four environment-based groups, namely; environment-based urban, represented by SMPN 2 Sumbawa (n=32), environment-based marine, represented by SMPN 4 Lab. Badas (n=32), environment-based urban, represented by SMPN 1 Moyo Hulu (n=32), and environment-based rural, represented by SMPN 1 Lopok (n=32). The quantitative descriptive research design was used to collect data pre- and post-test. The tests were multiple-choice, using environment-based reading material. Effectiveness was measured by comparing pre-test, post-test, and paired samples t-test. Based on the result of data analysis, it is evident that the Environment-based reading material was significant for Grade 8 of Junior High Schools in the Sumbawa District. Students who participated in an environmentally based reading program recorded an increased competency when compared with students outside the program.

Index Terms—environment-based reading, EFL learners, vocabulary competence

I. INTRODUCTION

The English language has an essential role throughout the world, in the field of education. In Indonesia, English is a foreign language. It is, however, taught as a compulsory subject in junior and senior high schools. Moreover, English is one of the subjects included in the national examination and Indonesian government policy supports the development of English language learning. This is supported by Satyawati (2019, p. 244), states that English as a foreign language is only used for learning at school.

In all language learning, including English as a second language, four skills must be mastered by learners, one of which is reading. This is in line with Asmawati (2015, p. 69), who claims that reading is one of the four necessary language skills for those learning English as a second or foreign language (ESL/EFL). It is also supported by Thao (2014, p. 1283), that reading is an important receptive language skill since it enhances students' pool of information to augment the quality of the product of other language skills.

Reading cannot be separated from daily activity because the main goal of reading is comprehension. Almost all people get information from reading. People read many kinds of text, such as newspapers, magazines, novels, articles, academic books, etc. This is supported by Akyol, (2014, p. 200), who says that, the effective use of these skills in a reading environment enables the reader to comprehend the text. It also supported by Sanati (2020, pp. 82), who says that, reading is the basis of instruction in all aspects of language learning: using textbooks for language courses, writing, revising, developing vocabulary, acquiring grammar, editing, and using computer-assisted language learning programs.

Reading in English as a foreign language is not the same as reading in the student's mother tongue, and teaching material does not allow for differences in students' environment. This means that students often encounter difficulties in vocabulary, structure, pronunciation, etc. which may lead to boredom. In the preliminary study of Grade 8, Lopok Junior High School, some difficulties in reading were found. These were mainly due to the paucity of vocabulary and the lack of relevant, stimulating reading materials. According to Tanyer (2014, p. 37), vocabulary has been problematic for EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners since they need to acquire a large amount of vocabulary to be able to communicate successfully. This is in line with Alqahtani (2015, p. 2), that teaching vocabulary is one of the most discussed parts of teaching English as a foreign language.

Pietilä (2014, p. 26), states that the relationship between foreign language vocabulary knowledge and reading is at least twofold and reciprocal, while Taheri (2014, p. 545) says that learning vocabulary is a part of learning any language,

one should think of the way to achieve that goal. Bai (2018, p. 853), further states that vocabulary is one of the three elements of language, the building material and the basis of language. That the selection of EFL reading materials is equally important, was supported by Mokhtari (2014, p. 163).

Furthermore, foreign language teachers are challenged to provide exposure to language; and to provide opportunities for learning through classroom activities. In class, teachers play a significant role in bringing, to students, the idea that language learning can be fun. Therefore, teachers need to encourage students to develop the skills which will improve their ability and will to read. According to Duff (2015, p. 854), reading text can provide key opportunities for advancement in vocabulary development.

Taking these ideas into consideration, teachers can create effective strategies, for the development of reading programs, in their particular classroom environment, which will create a learning environment which is both exciting and interesting.

Teachers need to employ interesting techniques and methods, which may include new teaching mediums, to motivate students and to promote the enjoyment of reading. While good reading ability will allow students to better understand the text studied. Media can also help to motivate learners. Setyowati (2006, p. 64), takes the view that the use of various media can also help to avoid boredom in the teaching and learning process. Media including games, songs, pictures, flashcards, tape, radio, television, video, film, and slide over projectors can be used in the teaching-learning process, especially in improving vocabulary competence.

The ideas and opinions discussed above form the basis of this comprehensive study of; the effectiveness of Environment-Based Reading Material in Increasing Students' Vocabulary in EFL Learning in the Eighth Grade of Sumbawa District Junior High School.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. *Environment-based Reading*

According to Tabatabaei & Khalili (2014, p. 1368), reading is one of the most useful and necessary skills for daily life. People usually read if they want to gain some information. Teachers need reading text in order to teach reading in the classroom. To enhance students' interest in reading, the teacher must be able to design interesting reading material along with teaching strategies. The environmentally based reading material used in the study was comprised of four different types, namely; urban-based, marine-based, mountain-based, and rural-based reading material.

Environment-based reading material was developed using local topics. Each set of environment-based reading materials covers different topics. Urban environment-based material contained seven topics, namely; airport, shopping center, traditional market, traffic signs, traffic lights, Sultan's palace, Samota bridge, and bus stops. Marine environment-base material contained six topics, namely; coral, boat, fisherman, beach, containers, and cargo ships. Mountain environment-base material contained six topics, namely; waterfall, artificial beehives, deer, bamboo trees, horses, and teak wood trees. Rural environment-base material contained seven topics, namely; carpenter, hut, coconut, cow, rice field, corn plant, and fence.

Through environment-based reading material, students learn how to increase their vocabularies. The reading material contained simple vocabulary and simple sentences, making it easier for the students to understand, internalize and recall.

B. *Vocabulary Competence*

Goundar (2015, p. 292), suggests that, one of the major challenges for the teacher in teaching an EFL classroom is to implement strategies which will enable students to become independent learners. As independent learners, they then have the ability to improve their vocabulary on their own. Syafrizal (2018, p. 40), also suggests that, the teacher needs to manipulate some strategies to support the teaching and learning process.

Vocabulary competence is one of the main elements of EFL learning. Viera (2017, p. 91), states that the knowledge of vocabulary is essential in learning languages, and, similarly, Kumar (2018, p. 115), emphasizes that vocabulary knowledge is widely recognized as a vital aspect of second-language (L2), vocabulary acquisition and proficiency. Learners must achieve vocabulary competence if they want achieve a good language competence. Susanto (2017, p. 183), suggests that a learner with insufficient vocabulary size will not perform well in every aspect of language itself.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

A. *Participants*

Initially, 256 learners, from four different Sumbawa, Junior High School were selected for the study; each school with a different environment-base; that is urban, marine, mountain, and rural environments. The students were all enrolled in Grade 8 in the School Year 2019-2020. Both female and male students within the age range of 14-16 years old were selected, and this experimental group was taught using environment-based reading material. To assess their level of language proficiency the Preliminary English Test (PET), in the form of multiple-choice questions relating to reading text, was administered. From the results of this test 128 students were selected.

B. *Research Instruments*

The study used a quantitative descriptive research approach. Data was collected pre-test and post-test and effectiveness was measured by comparing the results. The tests were multiple-choice, using environment-based reading material. The multiple-choice test was divided as follows: (1) 20 multiple-choice questions based on environment-based urban reading material, (2) 20 multiple-choice questions based on environment-based marine reading material. 3) 20 multiple choice questions based on environment-based mountain reading material, and (4) 20 multiple-choice questions based on environment-based rural reading material. The environment-based reading material will be considered significant or effective if the post-test results are higher than the pretest results.

Descriptive research was used since the study aims to describe, using quantitative information from the result of the test, the participants' levels of English learning and vocabulary competence.

C. Procedure of the Study

The effectiveness of employing visualization for boosting students' reading competence was investigated using the following research methods. Prior to the commencement of the study, the students were assessed as to their suitability to participate, based on their proficiency in the English language. A Preliminary English Test (PET), in the form of multiple-choice answers based on reading text, was used to establish this.

The initial data for the study was collected from a test consisting of 20 multiple-choice answers relating to reading texts provided to the students: its aim being to establish the initial differences between learners. At the conclusion of the teaching program established for this study, a further test, comprised of 20 multiple-choice answers, based on the material and content covered throughout the course, was undertaken by the all students.

D. Data Analysis

The data from the reading test, which demonstrated the level of reading competence of the 8th grade students of the junior high schools involved in the study, was analyzed using descriptive statistics. The SPSS version 24 program was employed to analyze the data.

Two types of statistical analysis were used to process the data derived from pre- and post-test of the participants, namely: descriptive and inferential statistics.

Descriptive statistics were used to gain the total score of each test, mean, minimum score, maximum score, standard error, and standard deviation. Inferential statistics with paired sample t-test were used to ascertain the individual significance of the pre-test and post-test averages.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To address the research questions, at first, descriptive statistics were computed and displayed.

TABLE 1
THE RESULT OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ANALYSIS OF URBAN ENVIRONMENT-BASED STUDENTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	32	35	65	1735	54.22	8.043
Post-test	32	70	90	2600	81.25	4.579
Valid N (list wise)	32					

As can be seen in table 1, on the pre-test, the minimum score was 35, and the maximum score was 65, while on the post-test, the minimum score was 70, and the maximum score was 90. Furthermore, the mean score on the pre-test was 54.22, while on the post-test the mean score was 81.25. The increase of mean score after implementation of environment-based reading material was 49.85%. Based on table 1, we can see that the average rating of a post-test (81.25) was greater than the average score of a pre-test (54.22).

TABLE 2
THE RESULT OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST OF URBAN ENVIRONMENT-BASED STUDENTS

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest - Posttest	-27.031	7.605	1.344	-29.773	-24.289	-20.106	31	.000

Based on the analysis of data displayed in Table 2, the result showed that the paired sample t-test on environment-based urban found sig. (2-tailed) 0.000, value $T_{count} -20.106$, it can be positive, meaning 29.118, and the value of mean paired differences was -27.031. Data obtained that sig. (2-tailed) $0.000 < 0.05$, and value $T_{count} 29.118 > T_{table} 2.744$, for the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ $n = 32$. It concluded that, the use of environment-based urban reading material was significant, on vocabulary competence, for the eighth grade of Junior High School in the Sumbawa District.

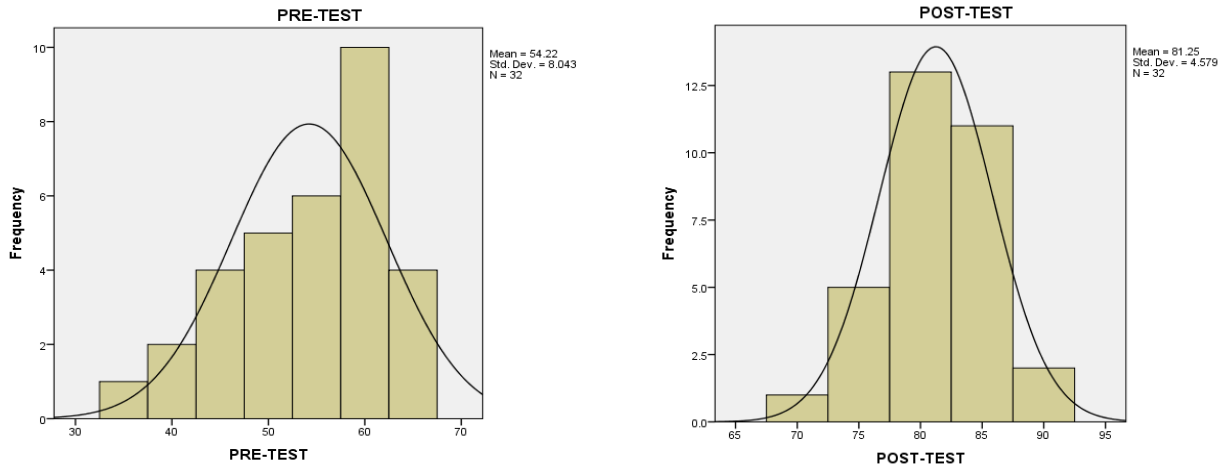


Figure 1. Normality of the distribution of the Data Urban Environment-Based

TABLE 3
THE RESULT OF MARINE ENVIRONMENT-BASED STUDENTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	32	45	70	1735	54.22	6.364
Post-test	32	70	90	2465	77.03	5.215
Valid N (list wise)	32					

Based on Table 3 where the result of descriptive statistics of Marine Environment-Based was the minimum score 45, and the maximum score was 70 on the pre-test, the minimum score was 70, and the maximum score was 90 on the post-test. Furthermore, the mean score on the pre-test was 54.22, and the mean score on the post-test was 77.03 and the increase of mean score after implementation of environment-based reading material was 42.06%. This shows that the average post-test score (77.03) was greater than the average pre-test score (54.22).

TABLE 4
THE RESULT OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST OF MARINE ENVIRONMENT-BASED STUDENTS

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest - Posttest	-22.813	5.527	.977	-24.805	-20.820	-23.350	31	.000

Based on analysis of data shown in Table 4, the result of the paired sample t-test on environment-based marine found sig. (2-tailed) 0.000, value $T_{count} -23.350$, it can be positive, meaning 23.350, and the value of mean paired differences was -22.813. Data obtained that sig. (2-tailed) $0.000 < 0.05$, and value $T_{count} 23.350 > T_{table} 2.744$, for the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ $n = 32$. It concluded that the use of environment-based marine reading material was significant in vocabulary competence for the eighth grade of Junior High School in the Sumbawa District.

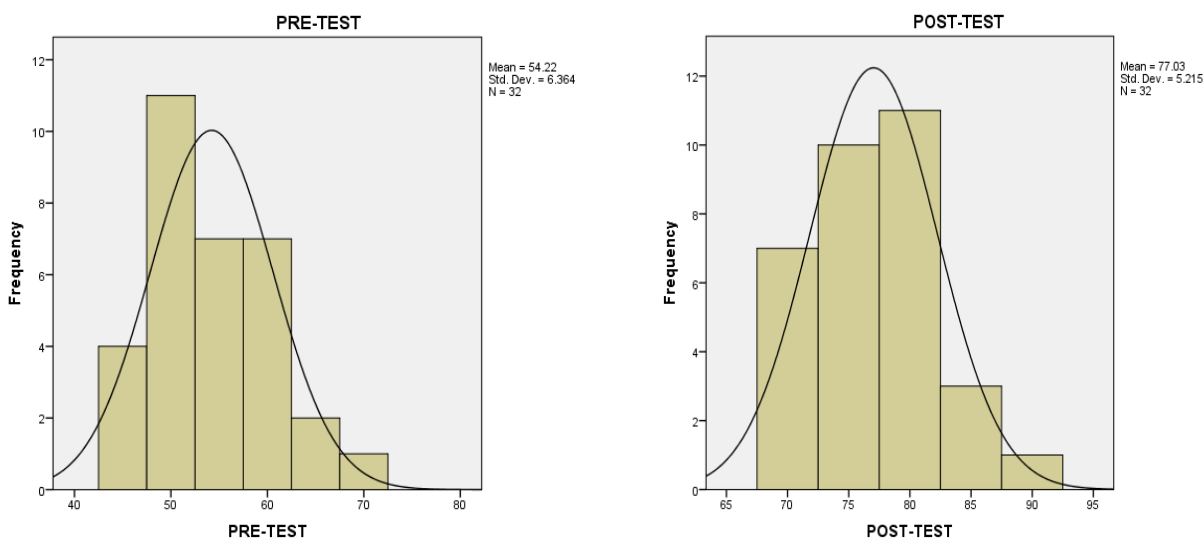


Figure 2. Normality of the Distribution of the Data Marine Environment-Based

TABLE 5
THE RESULT OF MOUNTAIN ENVIRONMENT-BASED STUDENTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	32	40	65	1765	55.16	6.658
Post-test	32	70	85	2470	77.19	4.741
Valid N (list wise)	32					

Table 5, shows that, on pre-test, the minimum score was 40, and the maximum score was 65, and on the post-test, the minimum score was 70, and the maximum score was 85. Furthermore, the mean score on the pre-test was 55.16, and the mean score on the post-test was 77.19. The increase of mean score after implementation of environment-based reading material was 39.93%. This indicated that the average the post-test score (77.19) was greater than the average score of pre-test (55.16).

TABLE 6
THE RESULT OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST OF MOUNTAIN ENVIRONMENT-BASED STUDENTS

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest - Posttest	-22.813	5.527	.977	-24.805	-20.820	-23.350	31	.000

Based on the result of the data calculation, the data shows in Table 6 was found sig. (2-tailed) 0.000, value $T_{count} - 23.350$, it can be positive, meaning 23.350, and the value of mean paired differences was -22.813. Data obtained that sig. (2-tailed) $0.000 < 0.05$, and value $T_{count} 23.350 > T_{table} 2.744$, for the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ $n = 32$. It can be concluded that the use of environment-based mountain reading material was significant on vocabulary competence for the eighth grade of Junior High School in the Sumbawa District.

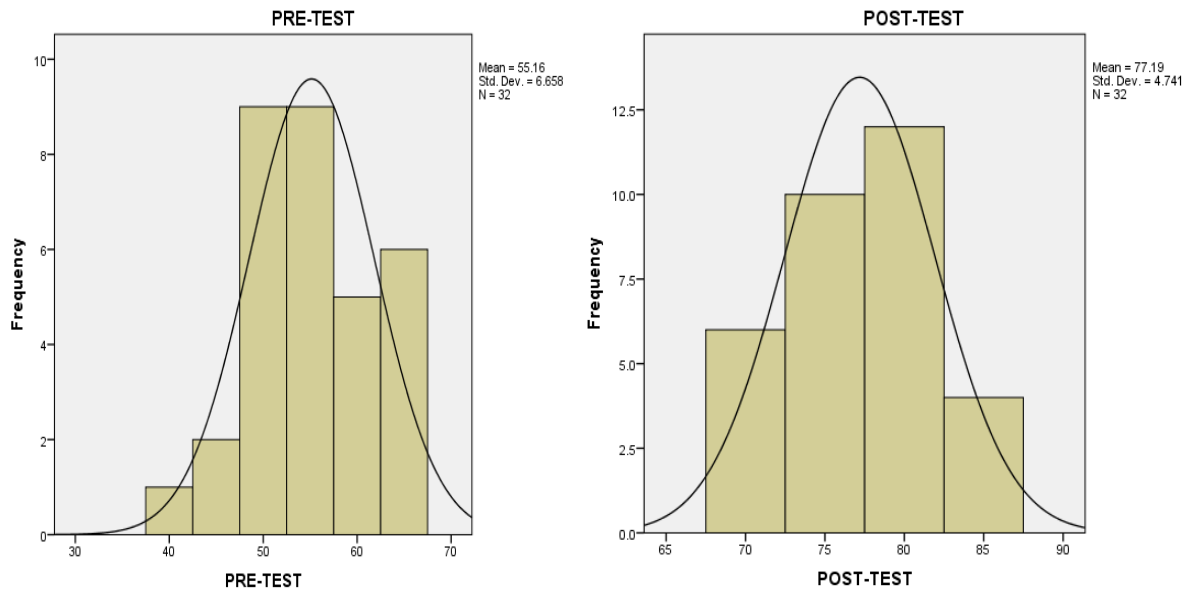


Figure 3. Normality of the distribution of the Data Mountain Environment-Based

TABLE 7
THE RESULT OF RURAL ENVIRONMENT-BASED STUDENTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	32	40	65	1685	52.66	7.404
Post-test	32	70	85	2445	76.41	5.272
Valid N (list wise)	32					

As can be seen in table 7, on the pre-test, the minimum score was 40 and the maximum score was 65, while on the post-test, the minimum score was 70 and the maximum score was 85. Furthermore, the mean score on the pre-test was 52.66 while on the post-test the mean score was 76.41. The increase of mean score after implementation of the rural environment-based reading material was 45.1%. Table 7 shows that the average rating of a post-test (76.41) was greater than the average score of pre-test (52.66).

TABLE 8
THE RESULT OF PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST OF RURAL ENVIRONMENT-BASED STUDENTS

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pretest - Posttest	-23.750	6.350	1.123	-26.039	-21.461	-21.158	31	.000

The data presented, in Table 8, shows that the result of the paired sample t-test on the rural environment-based found sig. (2-tailed) 0.000, value T_{count} -21.158, it can be positive, meaning 21.158, and value of mean paired differences was -23.750. Data obtained that sig. (2-tailed) $0.000 < 0.05$, and value T_{count} 21.158 $> T_{table}$ 2.744 for the significance level $\alpha = 0.05$ $n = 32$. It can be concluded that the use of environment-based rural reading material was significant on vocabulary competence for the eighth grade of Junior High School in the Sumbawa District.

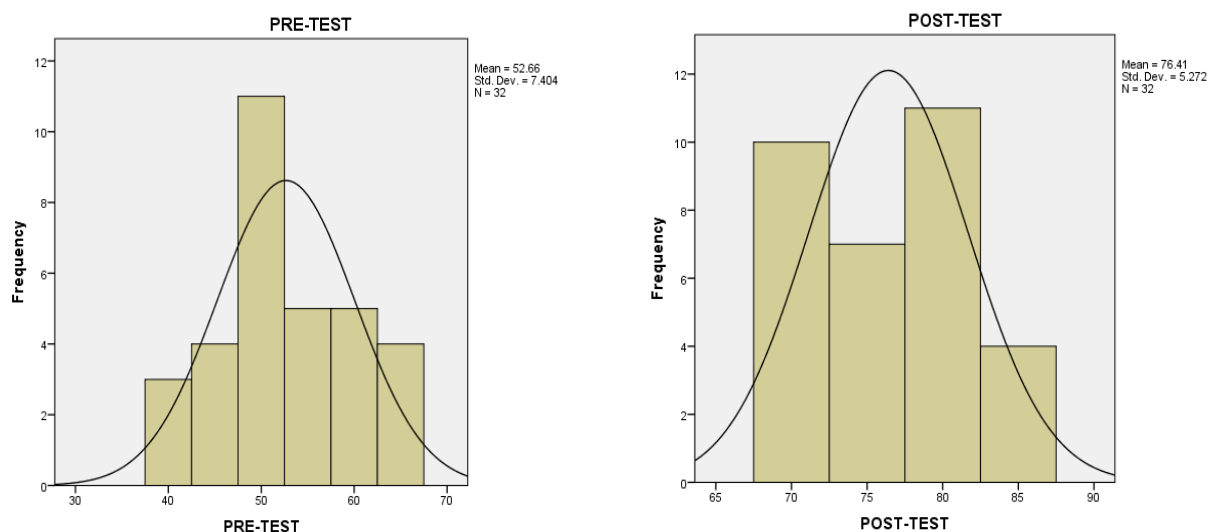


Figure 4. Normality of the Distribution of the Data Rural Environment-Based

V. CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS & SUGGESTIONS

A. Conclusion

Vocabulary is one of the most important elements of language learning. According to Achmad (2013, p. 80), states the English vocabularies are including to the core competence in learning English. In the course of the study strategies and methods were implemented, by teachers, to enhance or increase learners' vocabularies. Some strategies implemented in the teaching and learning process based on the environment-based reading material, were task-based. Namely, vocabulary-learning through activities. This included retelling the story or information contained in the text or visual presentation, such as pictures and drawings, presented to the class. More active tasks were also employed to maintain the students' motivation and enjoyment. These included vocabulary games such as Hangman, and Bingo, as well as songs with appropriate actions, such as, Heads, Shoulders, Knees and Toes.

Based on the result of data analysis, the researcher found that the Environment-based reading materials were significant for the eighth grade of Junior High School in the Sumbawa District. This research also details the planning process and the development of the environment-based reading material that was used in the teaching and learning process. The use of environment-based reading material proved significant in the results of the study. Students who participated in the environmentally-based reading program demonstrated an increased vocabulary competence when compared with to students who did not participate.

B. Implications

The present study has some implications for Sumbawa EFL teachers, students, and those involved in the development of teaching resources. The findings of this study suggest that environment-based teaching material has the potential to impact positively on the vocabulary competence of Sumbawa District EFL learners. In addition, the integration of environment-based teaching material and enjoyable, stimulating language based activities can inspire students to actively participate in the learning process, particularly in vocabulary learning. The research result gives further credence to the basic premise that the use of environment-based reading material has a significant influence on the learning outcomes of students' English vocabulary competence. Development of the environment-based reading material was based on the environment vocabulary of EFL learners who participated, namely; the environment-based urban reading material was based on the environment-based urban vocabulary of the students involved; the environment-based marine reading material was based on the environment-based marine vocabulary on the students involved; the environment-based mountain reading material was based on the environment-based mountain vocabulary on the students involved, and environment-based rural reading material was based on the environment-based rural vocabulary of the students involved.

C. Suggestions

Based on the findings obtained in this study, the following topics were suggested as being worthy of further research.

- Teaching materials; in order to facilitate the enjoyment of EFL learners in the learning process, development of appropriate teaching material is essential.
- Motivation; the exploration and potential use of environment-based teaching material to simulate students' interest and motivate the students' active participation in the learning process of foreign or second language learning.

- Strategies and method; the further development of strategies and methods which encourage the enhancement of students' vocabulary competence and improvement in their reading comprehension.

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Analysis on the Reliability and Validity of Teachers' Self-designed English Listening Test

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Abstract—Language testing plays a vital role in English teaching. It can accurately reflect the teaching effect in a short period of time, and it is also an indispensable teaching method to assess the knowledge of students. The current study takes the final test of adult English listening class in School of Continual Education as an example, under the theoretical language assessment framework of Bachman and Palmer, uses the data collected by the statistical analysis software SPSS to test the reliability and validity of the listening final exam from a statistical perspective. The study found that the reliability and validity of the selected listening test were generally acceptable, the differentiation among students was obvious but it has high item difficulty. Therefore, it is necessary to improve the authenticity of the listening test and the communicative skill of the listening material. This study is conducted to find out the problems of the current listening test in the School of Continual Education, and propose specific solutions based on the basic elements of the language test. It is hoped that the research in this article will play a positive role in designing adult English listening tests.

Index Terms—listening test, reliability, validity

I. INTRODUCTION

The function of language testing is to provide important information for teaching assessment, especially in teaching process. Through the analysis and research at this point, the lecturer can deeply understand the overall knowledge proficiency of students and study whether the test questions are appropriate, so that they can conduct further teaching activities more scientifically and effectively. In order to accurately and objectively evaluate the effects of teaching and learning from the test, teachers are required to scientifically and effectively design the test questions. “An untrustworthy test score is absolutely ineffective. Reliability is a reflection of the quality of test score itself; validity is a reflection of the correct interpretation and use of the test” (Bachman, 1990). Reliability and validity are two essential elements of language testing. To improve the teaching quality of college English involves many factors, scientific analysis of students' achievements comes to the first place. Usually, studies start from the actual teaching process of college English and try to find scientifically reasonable college English test modes, so that the test can truly become an effective means of diagnostic assessment and instructional teaching.

As part of the language proficiency test, the listening test aims to measure the listening comprehension ability of participants. Traditional listening comprehension test is designed to test the language ability of participants by their actual performance in a limited sample of test tasks within a short period of time. However, not all examinations can actually and exactly reflect the real proficiency of participants. As two important elements in language testing or language assessment, it is of great significance to assess the reliability and validity of the selected test. Thus, the current study is conducted in school-based listening test and tries to analyze the reliability and validity of it under the theoretical assessment framework of Bachman and Palmer. The study aims to find out the potential problems in school-based listening tests and try to make improvements in future teaching activities and further studies.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Testing plays an important role in college English teaching. From the purpose of testing, language tests can be divided into proficiency tests, grading tests, achievement tests, and diagnostic tests. No matter which type of assessment we use, the test must be objective, purposeful and meaningful, in other words, its reliability and validity must be highly valued. As Bachman shows that reliability and validity are important qualities for the interpretation of language proficiency. “If we will explain the score of a given test as a mark of personal ability, then the score will be must be credible and valid” (Bachman, 1990). Before we stepped into the current study, it is very necessary to review previous studies on listening test assessment. This part can be divided into the studies on the validity of listening tests,

school-based assessment on listening tests and the potential problems in assessment on listening tests.

Firstly, Peng and Yuan have reviewed domestic studies on the test of English listening. The survey shows that: a. as for participants, in general, the studies mainly focuses on college students; b. most researches focus on nationwide tests rather than regional or school-based tests; c. the major content of the study involves various aspects, but there is a lack of study aligned with English curriculum standard (Peng & Yuan, 2015). Specifically, previous studies mainly focus on the validity of listening tests and very little studies pay attention to the influence of question type upon scores, limited studies focus on the assessment based on authentic English material.

To step further, previous studies on the validity of listening tests can be summarized from two aspects: theoretical studies and empirical studies. To begin with, Zhao (2000) expounds the understanding of validity and reliability from different perspectives on language acquisition and language learning. He believes that modern language testing is biased towards reliability, and language testing should focus on validity requirements and pursue as much as possible on this basis. Besides, Zhang (2003) analyzed listening strategies and test validity from two basic aspects: basic language knowledge and listening tasks. In addition, Song (2011) theoretically explores internal validity, external validity, and constructs validity to reveal the conceptual connotation of evidence of different validity.

On the other hand, empirical studies which mainly focus on how to achieve validity in the practice of listening test. These studies have focused on various exams in university. The university-level examination research mainly discusses the topics related to the validity of listening tests, such as the comparison of new and traditional CET-4 and CET-6. There are also college entrance examinations and school-based examinations.

Secondly, it is necessary to review the assessment on school-based listening tests. The current school-based test research mainly focuses on the academic achievement test of English majors and the research of listening test under the framework of criteria reference language test (CRTs). Wei (2007) conducted her study based on the analysis of Cronbach Alpha, mean, standard deviation, variance, correlation coefficient and factor analysis of a graduation test for English majors. Jiang Lan, Feng Xiaoyuan (2003) studied the validity of teachers' self-designed English examinations, and put forward 9 questions to be explored and researched in terms of propositions, examination implementation and management. Huang Ping (2001) started with diagnostic assessment in college English test and compared the scores between their college English test scores and final English test scores. According to her research, it is considered that a unified test in college English tests is necessary and feasible.

Last but not the least, previous studies have examined the problems in listening tests. Researchers have pointed out the following problems: a. unreasonable test system (Jing, 1999). It is difficult to reconcile the national unified examination standard and regional education differences; b. lack of authentic material (Niu, 2001). The authenticity of the English materials is not enough, for example, lack of titles and instructions, it will affect surface validity of listening tests; c. failed to present multiple question types (Niu 2001; Wang 2004); d. English listening test led by multiple choice questions lacks sufficient construct validity to measure students' listening proficiency effectively; e. the quality control mechanism of the raters needs to be improved (Niu, 2001); f. the school-based tests and classroom tests are not paying enough attention, and the qualities of the questions is worrying (Qian, 2004).

III. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND METHODOLOGY

In this part, theoretical background and methodology will be presented, including participants, research design and research questions.

A. Theoretical Background

Reliability and validity are the fundamental requirements for the quality of language tests and other educational and psychological measurements. They are also called reliability or consistency. In this part, brief introduction of reliability and validity will be introduced at the first place, then, potential factors which would influence them and necessities which can ensure their accuracy will be presented further.

Firstly, reliability refers to the degree to which the test results of a test paper are consistent, that is, the test results are not affected by external factors such as time, proctors, and classrooms. Validity refers to the extent to which a test paper can meet the purpose of the assessment. It is a matter of correctly interpreting the scores purposefully. If a test paper tests several language skills at the same time or the test content exceeds the purpose of the test, its validity will be greatly reduced. Reliability and validity are closely related and inseparable. They are related to the fundamental purpose of the test, namely how to accurately and consistently test the language ability we want to test. These two must be constrained and relatively balanced to serve the basic purpose of the test.

Secondly, language ability itself cannot be measured directly, so the concept of language ability can generally base on the observation of empirical statics or behaviors (Chen, 2011). The traditional view is that test performance is the actual language ability. In most cases, listening tests designer is most interested in assessing the listening comprehension ability of the participants through testing. The effectiveness of the listening test lies in the test itself, whether the results can truly reflect the listening comprehension ability that the participants should have in real life situation or not.

As mentioned above, reliability refers to the stability and consistency of the questionnaire results when the same method is used to study the same group of participants, in other words, whether the test results truly and objectively reflect the actual level of the participants or not. Reliability is an index that reflects whether the test is affected by

non-test factors, and reflects the objectivity and reliability of the test. There are many factors that affect the reliability of the test and they are mainly related to the two aspects of questions and scores. As far as the questions themselves are concerned, their reliability depends mainly on the scope of the test and the amount of questions. To ensure a high degree of reliability, first of all, ensure that the test paper has a certain amount questions. Generally speaking, the greater the amount of questions, the higher the reliability is. At the same time, the scores used as the test results must have a certain degree of dispersion. To meet this requirement, it means that the test paper must be highly differentiated, which can distinguish candidates at various levels, and the difficulty of the questions should be moderate. Too difficult and too easy to distinguish the level is unacceptable.

Meanwhile, validity refers to the degree to which a measure tool or means can accurately measure what needs to be measured, to see if the purpose of the test is achieved, in other words, whether the degree of accuracy and validity of the test results would be ensured. What you test should include what items, not involving irrelevant content. A set of questions must have at least surface validity, which gives first appropriate impression to people. The most important thing is content validity. The language elements and skills that should be examined must be reflected effectively. Then, construct validity which means that a set of tests should be based on a theory of language acquisition or language learning. Whether the test has achieved the purpose or whether the content of the test is what you want to test. Validity is at the core of an exam. There are many types of examinations in China, and the scale is relatively large, but most of them are based on obtaining results, and rarely consider whether these results are reliable and effective. Analysis of test results is rarely required to be explained further. Validity is as important as reliability in a test. If you omit any of them, the quality of the assessment cannot be guaranteed.

B. Participants

To begin with, the selected listening test will be introduced briefly. It is the final examination designed in the School of Continual Education for the first semester in 2019-2020 school year, with 100 points total test score, including 80% in-class knowledge and 20% extra-curricular knowledge. The whole listening test is designed with five parts and students will be required to finish all of them in one and a half hour: fill in the blanks (10 * 2' = 20'), single-choice questions (10 * 2' = 20'), true or false (10 * 2' = 20'), summarize and fill in the blanks (10 * 2' = 20'), and also fill in the blank (extra-curricular knowledge) (10 * 2' = 20'). Listening proficiency of students will be assessed from four general learning strategies and skills: vocabulary spelling, short-term memory, summary and refining, text understanding. After the examination, tests will be assessed by the English teachers of the School of Continual Education, with unified standards and special responsibility. The names and student numbers of the examinees are sealed to be objective and credible.

Therefore, the research object of the current study is the final listening test scores of 20 students in the third grade in the School of Continual Education. Their total scores and sub-question scores will be used for the reliability and validity test analysis. Their scores will be selected in this study to test the reliability and validity of the adult English listening for the final exam.

C. Research Design

This study will use statistical analysis software SPSS to collect the data required for reliability and validity analysis. The score of each subject will be input into SPSS software to test the reliability and content validity of the entire test question.

First, the reliability of the test questions is mainly analyzed by the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficients. The dispersion of the test and the distribution of test scores are analyzed by detecting the mean, standard deviation, and variance; then the author will test the correlation coefficient, including factor analysis.

D. Research Questions

The main issue of the current study is to use the data collected by the statistical analysis software SPSS to statistically test an English listening end-of-term test. The purpose of this study is to sort and summarize the test to help teachers in designing language assessment. In the process of developing listening tests, try to reduce the impact of measurement errors as much as possible, and increase the testing intensity of the listening ability that you want to assess in order to improve the efficiency of listening tests. There are three research questions:

- a. How is the reliability coefficient of the selected listening comprehension test?
- b. How is the dispersion and frequency distribution of the selected listening comprehension test?
- c. How is the validity of the selected listening comprehension test from content validity and factor analysis?

IV. FINDINGS

In this part, reliability and validity of selected listening comprehension test will be analyzed in statistical software SPSS respectively. Data analysis will be presented in Chapter 4.1 and Chapter 4.2.

A. Reliability Analysis

In this part, reliability coefficient, descriptive statistics and frequency distribution will be discussed respectively.

1. Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient

The chosen final English listening test contains 50 questions, totally 100 points, which meet the required number of tests (Li, 1997). Also, the listening test has been divided into version A and version B. These two versions share 80% the same content and the current study is conducted in version A. The topics of the test are common, suitable for students and assess comprehensive language skills for students at the same time. It would be noticed that 80% content of the test is chosen from textbook and the rest of the test is chosen from online resources. Besides, each question is accompanied by clear and concise instructions. Last but not the least, the assessment of tests is the responsibility of the English teacher of the School of Continual Education, under unified standards. Students' names and numbers will be sealed to be more objective and credible. However, as stated by Li & Shao, only by statistical analysis in scientific methods, we can obtain comprehensive, true, accurate and credible statistical Data (2003). For more detailed and accurate evaluation, the current study will make use of statistical software SPSS to measure reliability and validity of the selected test. See Table 1 and Table 2:

Table 1 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.865	.870	48

Table 2 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.818	.816	5

(Warnings from SPSS for Table 1: Each of the above component variables has zero variance and is removed from the scale: item7, item20)

As presented in Table 1, Cronbach's Alpha is 0.865, which shows that the selected listening test has a high reliability between 48 sub-items. Generally speaking, if the Cronbach's Alpha exceeds 0.7, the selected test is regarded as a test with high reliability. For accurately assessment, the author counts score again of each part and tests the Cronbach's Alpha again. The data shows that the Cronbach's Alpha is 0.818 which shows that the selected listening test has high reliability. In other words, the selected listening test has high consistency and the result can reflect students' actual English listening proficiency well. All in all, no matter considers 50 sub-questions or five parts of the selected English listening comprehension test, Cronbach's Alpha is high enough to prove that the listening test has good reliability among each items or each parts.

2. Descriptive statistics and frequency distribution

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Score	20	62	32	94	63.30	15.345	235.484
Valid N (listwise)	20						

When it comes to the descriptive statistics, as stated in Table 3, Mean is 63.30, which meets the standard of 100 points on average. Along with Minimum 32, Maximum 94, the range is 62. The above data shows that there is big variance among students. To step further, the selected listening test has created big variance between 20 participants. At the same time, the Std. Deviation (15.345) also shows that 20 students have very different scores of this test, that is, they have different levels in the items that the teacher wants to test. It is fair enough to infer that the chosen participants have different listening comprehension ability. To analyse further, the frequency table will also present the dispersion between students, see Figure 4:

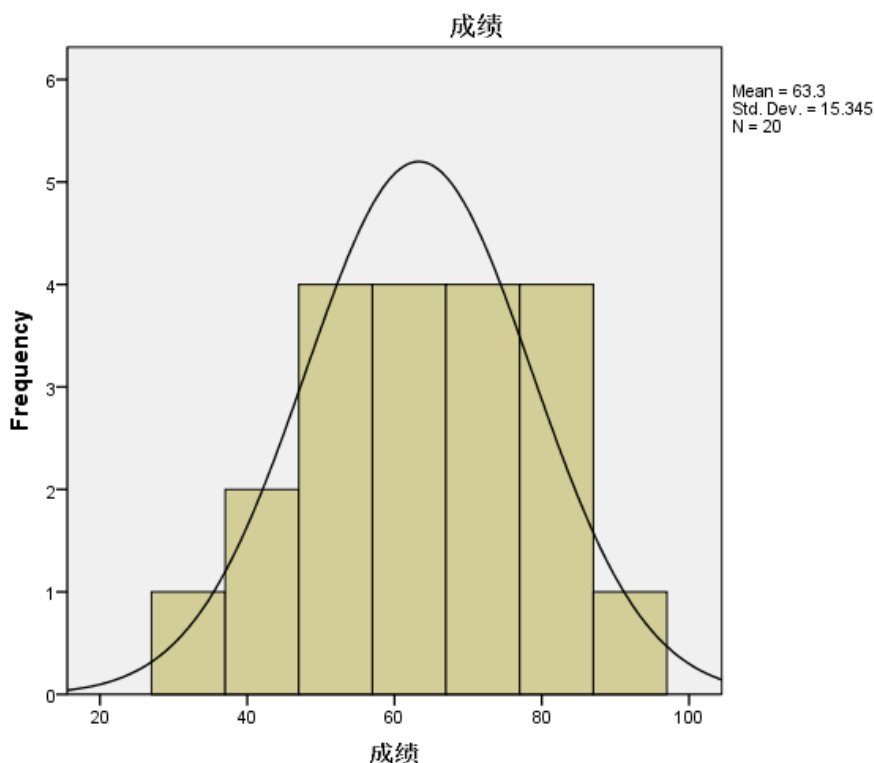


Figure 4 Frequency distribution

As shown in Figure 4, the frequency distribution of scores presents a near normal distribution at the cut-point 60, which again proves that participants have very different listening comprehension ability and the selected listening comprehension test doesn't have a balanced difficulty, which differentiates 20 participants in a bad manner, because the number of students below 60 is roughly equal to the number of students above 60. The distribution is as follows, see Table 5:

TABLE 5
THE DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS' TEST SCORE

	0-59 分	60-69 分	70-79 分	80-89 分	90-100 分
人数	8	5	6	0	1
比例	40%	25%	30%	0	5%

The number of students who get final score lower than 60 and higher than 80 is approximate. Also, the number of students who get 0~59 is the largest. It is not a good result for achievement test which has 40% of students who haven't met the requirement of the given test. Therefore, the selected listening comprehension test failed to keep a balanced difficulty even though it can differentiate students well.

B. Validity Analysis

In this part, content validity, correlation coefficient among five parts and factor analysis will be discussed respectively.

1. Content validity

Firstly, the instructions of five parts in the selected listening test will be introduced briefly to see what kind of listening skills would be tested under each sub question.

“Part I: Write the missing words. You will hear the recording twice. (10 items, 20%)”

“Part II: Listen to each conversation and then choose the correct answer. You will hear the recording twice. (10 items, 20%)”

“Part III. Listen to the following conversations and decide whether the statements are true (T) or false (F). You will hear the recording twice. (10 items, 20%)”

“Part IV. Complete the summary below according to what you hear. Use ONE word only for each blank. You will hear each conversation twice. (10 items, 20%)”

“Part V. Listen to the following passage entitled *The Language of Air Travel*. Fill in the missing words. You will hear the recording three times. (10 items, 20%)”

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the selected listening comprehension test is designed to assess vocabulary spelling, short-term memory, summary and refining, text understanding, etc. Generally speaking, listening comprehension skills

are basically assessed in the final term examination. More profoundly, students will not only be tested to choose and tell facts and details, they are also required to summarize certain sentences and make judgments according to their short time memory. Therefore, the selected listening test has good content validity.

To see further, we will see the differentiation among each part, see Table 6.

TABLE 6
ITEM STATISTICS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
part1	5.80	2.505	20
part2	7.40	1.569	20
part3	7.60	1.957	20
part4	6.35	2.110	20
part5	4.50	1.821	20

As stated in Table 6, part one and part four have higher Std. Deviation than the other three parts. By observing the instructions of each part at the beginning of this part, we can see that both part one and part four are designed to assess students' vocabulary spelling. Students need to listen to the type and then write the missing words, in part four, they are also required to do summary before they write down their answers on the answer sheet. This is a great for students in listening comprehension test than the other objective questions which need students to pick up correct answer.

2. Correlation coefficient and factor analysis

In this part, correlation coefficient among each part and factor analysis will be examined in SPSS. Correlation coefficient ranges from -1 to 1. The higher the value is the higher correlation between two parts or items.

Firstly, as stated in Table 7, part one, part three and part four have relative high correlation with other parts. However, part two and part five haven't presented high correlation coefficient with other parts. The data shows that part one (vocabulary spelling), part three (true or false) and part four (summary and word spelling) share higher correlation coefficient than that of other two parts.

For part two, it has lower correlation coefficient with part four and part five, which is 0.194 and 0.184. In this part, the ability of picking up detailed information will be emphasized, which is different from part four (summary and word spelling), part five (word spelling). The author holds the view that they have different emphasis on the abilities they want to test, which leads to lower correlation coefficient among them.

Similarly, in part five, it has lower correlation coefficient between part two (multiple choice) and part three (true or false), which is 0.184 and 0.295. The author thinks that because of the question type, part five shares higher correlation coefficient value with similar question type, like part one and part four.

TABLE 7
CORRELATION MATRIX

		part1	part2	part3	part4	part5
Correlation	part1	1.000	.450	.477	.701	.669
	part2	.450	1.000	.740	.194	.184
	part3	.477	.740	1.000	.354	.295
	part4	.701	.194	.354	1.000	.637
	part5	.669	.184	.295	.637	1.000

Next, factor analysis is designed to analyse the sub-category in the selected listening comprehension test deeply. SPSS will help us to observe the sub group of selected test. In the current study, two components are presented in factor analysis, which means that the selected listening comprehension test mainly test two kinds of abilities (see Table 8). Specifically, part one, part four and part five share high value in factor analysis, because their question types are very similar---word spelling. All of them have emphasized the vocabulary.

On the other hand, in component two, part two and part three share high values in factor analysis. From the question type, both of them are objective questions. Students are required to choose the correct answer among four descriptions and make judgments according to their listening on each conversation. Thus, the selected listening comprehension test has assessed two kinds of ability: word spelling and the ability for detailed information.

TABLE 8
COMPONENT MATRIXA

	Component	
	1	2
part1	.886	-.186
part2	.646	.689
part3	.733	.558
part4	.778	-.433
part5	.748	-.471

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 2 components extracted.

In conclusion, generally speaking, the reliability and validity of the selected listening comprehension test is good, but there are some improvements in the question types and the source of listening material. It will be discussed in Chapter 5.

V. DISCUSSION

The results in Chapter four has shown that the selected listening comprehension test has good reliability and validity, but there are still some improvements need to be noticed. In this part, the author will discuss the result briefly and hopes to put forward some feasible suggestions, especially in the current adult English listening teaching and assessment.

At the very beginning, the given result has shown that question type should be enriched in the current listening comprehension test, not only the objective questions, see true or false and multiple choices. We have paid less attention to subjective questions. On the one hand, rich question types can be beneficial for content validity for the sake of flexible question design. Tang (2009) has summarized the advantages and disadvantages of multiple choices. She stated that the multiple choice question type is objective and economical, which can increase the amount of test questions and the coverage of the test, and the scores are more objective to give. However, researchers also doubt that multiple choices will influence student's learning style for the sake of they only pay attention to pick up correct answer. As an important part in English learning, listening comprehension ability should be assessed in real life situation and ask students to produce their answers based on real life context. Multiple choices questions would damage students' creativity. And at this point, free response question can be added in listening comprehension test (Tang, 2009). The free answer question type can greatly reduce the impact of guessing and other test skills on the test takers' true language ability.

Additionally, in the listening test, it is important to ensure that the language ability required by the test subject in real life is measured. At this point, the authenticity of English materials should be considered. To begin with, the chosen topics must be consistent with the real life situation. In addition, choosing from authentic English website or conversations can guarantee the authenticity of listening test tasks. Construct is an important guarantee for the validity of the listening test (He, 2005). As for the construct validity, communicative skills have been paid less attention in selected listening comprehension test. As stated in Yan wei and Wang Yong (2008), question type can also influence the reliability and validity in communicative listening comprehension test. Free response is regarded as an important attempt in current listening comprehension test.

As Bachman (1990) stated: "During the design and development of testing, we must consider two points: one is to reduce the impact of measurement errors, and the other is to increase the testing of the language ability we want to detect, to make the exam more complete." Looking forward to the future, the author believes that listening test research can be further expanded from the following aspects: firstly, expand and develop more participants involving high school students and college students. This study is hoped to offer suggestions to adult English listening comprehension test. Secondly, try to enrich the question type in the selected listening comprehension test and choose more authentic English materials. If authentic English conversation can be added in the listening comprehension tests along with free response questions, students' communicative skills will be assessed thoroughly.

VI. CONCLUSION

The current study takes the final test of adult English listening class in School of Continual Education as an example, under the theoretical language assessment framework of Bachman and Palmer, uses the data collected by the statistical analysis software SPSS to test the reliability and validity of the listening final exam from a statistical perspective. According to the test results and analysis of Cronbach's Alpha value, standard deviation, correlation coefficient, factor analysis, etc., from the requirements of the language test, the selected listening comprehension generally has good reliability and validity. However, there is still room for improvement in this test. Special attention should be paid to avoid too simple questions and add up authentic English material to it. Besides, more factors such as communicative listening skills and the ability for picking up complex information should be assessed. Due to the number of participants, there are some limitations in the study, such as the insufficient presentation of frequency distribution. It is hoped that the research in this article will play a positive role in designing adult English listening tests and it can be developed further by involving more participants.

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On the Derivation of the Double Object Construction in Mandarin Chinese

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Abstract—This paper adopts a Labeling approach to the analysis of the double object construction (DOC). In conformity with Chomsky's (2013, 2014, 2015) Labeling Algorithm (LA), a unified account is proposed of the derivation of DOC in Mandarin Chinese. It is argued that the pair-Merged element in a complex verb in the DOC is invisible for labeling and the normal labeling procedure for the Head will apply.

Index Terms—DOC, labeling algorithm, minimal search, simplest merge

I. INTRODUCTION

The following examples (1a) and (2a) are Double Object Constructions (DOC) and examples (1b) and (2b) are Dative Constructions (DC) from Mandarin Chinese and English. These two constructions are collectively referred to ditransitive constructions. The DOC is the focus of this paper.

- (1) a. Zhangsan song Lisi yiben shu.
Zhangsan give Lisi one-CL book
'Zhangsan gave Lisi a book.'
- b. Zhangsan song yiben shu gei Lisi.
Zhangsan give one-CL book to Lisi
'Zhangsan gave a book to Lisi.'
- (2) a. John gave Mary a book.
- b. John gave a book to Mary.

The DOC has always been one of the issues hotly debated in linguistic theory. There are two major problems in studying the DOC from a syntactic perspective. One is the Cases of the direct object (DO) and the indirect object (IO). The other is the relationship of the DOC and the dative construction. Some researchers maintain that there may be some transformational relationship between the DOC and the dative construction. So far, no consensus has been reached whether the DOC is base-generated or is transformed by movement via the dative construction.

The contents of this paper are arranged as follows: section two summarizes the main issues of the study of the DOC, the different analysis methods and the problems of them. The third section introduces the related content of Chomsky's (2013, 2014, 2015) Labeling Algorithm (LA). The fourth section analyzes the DOC in terms of the spirit of Chomsky's LA. The last section serves as a conclusion.

II. RELATED RESEARCHES

The study of the Double Object Construction (DOC) has always been one of the major topics in the literature of generative grammar, such as Chomsky (1975), Kayne (1984), Baker (1988), Aoun & Li (1989), Barss & Lasnik (1986), Larson (1988, 1990), Jackendoff (1990), Bowers (1993), Marantz (1993), Pesetsky (1995), Fujita (1996), Collins & Thrainsson (1996), Radford (1997), Pykkänen (2002), Anagnostopoulou (2003), Harley (2003), Beck & Johnson (2004), Miyagawa & Tsujioka (2004), Soh (2005), etc. have discussed the DOC. The main focuses of those discussions are the generation of the DOC and the problems of Cases of the two objects in the DOC.

The above-mentioned researches on the DOC can be divided into three categories: the transformational approach, the causation-possession approach and the applicative approach. We will tease apart the three categories in detail in the following sections.

A. The Transformational Approach

How is the DOC generated, is it base-generated or is it transformed from the DC? It is the focus of the transformational Approach which prescribes that the DOC and the DC are transformationally related. According to the analysis by Chomsky (1975), the DOC is transformed from the DC. Chomsky (1975) holds that (3c) is transformed from (3b) (DOC) and (3b) (DC) is transformed from (3a).

- (3) a. John [_{VP} a letter [_{V'} sent to Mary]]
 b. John sent [_{VP} a letter [_{V'} t to Mary]]
 c. John sent Mary a letter.

In (3a), the verb 'sent' and the complement 'to Mary' constitute one constituent, which does not contain DO 'a letter'. And then, the verb 'sent' raises to form DC. The generation of the DOC is through dative shift, viz., the IO is moved to the front of the DO.

Barss&Lasnik (1986) finds six kinds of asymmetrical relations between IOs and Dos in DOCs.

- (4) I showed John himself. (anaphor binding)
 *I showed himself John.
 (5) I denied each worker_i his_i paycheck. (quantifier binding)
 *I denied its_i owner each paycheck_i.
 (6) Which worker_i did you deny his_i paycheck? (weak crossover)
 *Which paycheck_i did you deny its_i owner?
 (7) Who did you give which book? (superiority)
 *Which book did you give who?
 (8) I gave each man the other's watch. (each...the other)
 *I gave the other's trainer each lion.
 (9) I gave no one anything. (negative polarity items)
 *I gave anyone nothing.

These six asymmetries between IOs and DOs all involve the structural relationship of c-command, and IOs must c-command DOs. The observations of Barss & Lasnik (1986) have a great influence on the later study of DOC.

Larson (1988, 1990) based on Chomsky's (1975) analysis of the DOC, proposed the concept of VP-shell in order to explain the asymmetry pointed out by Barss & Lasnik (1986). Larson believes that the DC is base-generated, and the DOC is transformed from the DC through passivization.

- (10) [_{V'} give_i [_{VP} a book [_{V'} t₁ [_{PP} to Mary]]]] \rightarrow [_{V'} give_i [_{VP} Mary₂ [_{V'} [_{V'} t₁ t₂] a book]]]]

Aoun&Li (1989) puts forward that the DOC is base-generated, and the DC is transformed from the DOC via passivization and right adjunction.

- (11) [_{VP} give [_{SC} Mary [_{VP} e a book]]] \rightarrow [_{VP} give [_{SC} a book₂ [_{VP} [_{VP} e t₂] to Mary]]]

The transformation analysis seems to solve the problem of the c-commanding relationship between the DO and the IO and explains the reason why the two sentences have similar meanings. However, the differences in verb selection and semantic expression between the DOC and the DC do not support the transformation analysis (He 2003, 2009).

B. The Causation-possession Approach

In view of the problems of the "transformation analysis", some researchers have adopted the causation-possession analysis, and believe that the DOC and the DC have their own internal structures respectively. Researches using this analysis mostly use the semantics expressed by the DOC as the basis for the syntactic derivation. The semantic approach which holds that the basic meaning expressed by DOC is possession (Pesetsky1995, Harley2003 and Beck&Johnson2004).

Green (1974: 156-167), after analyzing the semantic differences between the two constructions, points out that there is a special semantic relationship, that is, ownership (or possession) relationship between IOs and DOs (or possession) in the DOC.

In order to express this semantic relationship, Kayne (1984: 134) once proposes that the verb selects a small clause (SC) in the DOC. This SC indicates that IOs have DOs. However, in this construction, the IO and the DO are sister relations, which does not reflect the asymmetric c-command relationship between the two objects in the DOC.

Pesetsky (1995) absorbs the concept of hierarchical structures in Larson's (1988) analysis to reflect the asymmetries of the syntactic structures. In these two constructions proposed by Pesetsky, the verb chooses different prepositional phrases (PPs) as complements. In the DOC, the head of the PP is an empty preposition 'G' without phonetic representation, which represents the semantic relationship between the two objects, that is, the IO owns the DO, the IO is the specifier of G, and the DO is the complement of G. In the DC, the head of the PP is a preposition 'to' with a phonetic expression, the DO is its signifier, and the IO is its complement.

Harley (2003) proposes the Lexical Decomposition Analysis on the basis of Pesetsky (1995). The ditransitive verbs are divided into CAUSE+HAVE and CAUSE+ GO TO, which appear in the DOC and the DC respectively. The DOC means "the subject makes the IO have the DO". The DC means "the subject moves the DO to the IO".

Beck&Johnson (2004) synthesizes the analyses of Kayne's (1984) SC analysis and Harley's (2003) Lexical Decomposition Analysis. They believe that the DOC and the DC have different internal structures, and there is no transformational relationship between the two constructions (Beck and Johnson 2004: 98). They use the adverb "again" as a test method to implement the in-depth semantic analysis of these two constructions. The conclusion is that there is a SC in the DOC, and the head of the SC is HAVE, which proves that there is no transformational relationship between the DOC and the DC.

C. The Applicative Approach

The applicative approach which argues that APPL construction and DOC have the same underlying structure (Pylkkänen 2002, Anagnostopoulou 2003, Miyagawa&Tsujioka 2004, and Soh 2005). It is argued that DOC and the dative construction are not derivationally related, and that possession meaning may not be representative of the DOC.

The use of Applicative morphemes usher IOs into the applicative construction, i.e., APPL construction in Bantu. The added argument is called the APPL argument. This APPL construction is similar to the English DOC. The difference is that in the APPL construction, the verbs have more complex morphological representations. To add the Applicative affix to the verb stem, for example (12) (Baker 1988: 229; Bowers 2011:1198). The example is Chichewa in Bantu.

- (12) a. Mbidzi zi-na-perek-a msampha kwa nkhandwe
Zebras SP-PASP-hand-ASP trap to fox
'The zebras handed the trap to the fox'
- b. Mbidzi zi-na-perek-er-a nkhandwe msampha
Zebras SP-PASP-hand-APPL-ASP trap
'The zebras handed the fox the trap'

(12a) is the DC and (12b) is the APPL construction in Chichewa. There is the applicative affix 'er' attached to the verb. Baker (1988) and Marantz (1993) believe that the DOC and the APPL construction should have the same internal structure, the DOC should also have an applicative morpheme. The difference between the DOC and the APPL construction is that the former's applicative morpheme is covert, while the latter's applicative morpheme is overt.

Marantz (1993) proposes an analysis of the DOC based on the fact of Bantu corpus. He maintains that there is an applicative head in the DOC, which leads the IO.

- (13) a. [VP DP [V' V [APPLP DP [APPL' APPL [VP [V DP]]]]]]
- b. [VP DP [V' V [VP V [APPLP DP [APPL' [APPL DP]]]]]]

The DOC proposed by Marantz is similar to the following example (13a). In this construction, the APPL head selects the VP, which is composed of the double transitive verb and the DO, as the complement. This head connects the event expressed by the VP and the IO in its specifier position. Marantz holds that the DOC has the causative semantic features due to this head, which also makes the IO own the role of "owner" in the DOC. In this construction, both the causative and possessive semantics are realized, and the structural relationship between the two objects is also reflected. Marantz believes that there is no APPL head in the DC, so there is no causative and possessive semantics.

Pylkkänen (2002) further develops the analysis of Marantz (1993), and argues that there are two APPL heads, which respectively constitute two different types of APPL constructions (Pylkkänen 2002: 19), one is High-APPL construction. The other is the Low-APPL construction. It is believed that the APPL construction in natural language can be divided into these two categories.

In Pylkkänen's analysis, the APPL head in the Low-APPL construction example (13b) indicates the transfer of ownership, and head connects its signifier DP (IO) and complement DP (DO), and its signifier DP can be the receiver (RECIPIENT) or source (SOURCE) of the lower DP. The DOC of English is Low-APPL construction. In the High-APPL construction example (13a), the head of APPL indicates the relationship between the applicative argument (IO) and the event described by the verb. In this case, the VP is selected as the complement by the head of APPL; while in the Low-APPL construction, the DP is selected as the complement. In a language like English, the APPL head connects the applicative argument and the other argument (THEME), indicating the ownership relationship between the two arguments. There is no High-APPL construction in English. Pylkkänen believes that there is no APPL head in the DC, so that the DOC and the DC have an asymmetric structure, and the DOC has one more layer of APPL projection than the DC.

Anagnostopoulou (2003) also adopts the analysis of Marantz (1993) to study the DOC in Greek within the framework of APPL. Anagnostopoulou's research on the cliticization and double cliticization in Greek and other languages provides a theoretical basis for explaining the double cliticization in the DOC.

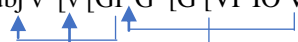
Miyagawa&Tsujioka (2004), based on the research of Marantz (1993), use APPL construction to study the DOC in Japanese. They find that there are also two ditransitive constructions in Japanese through the analyses of quantifier domain and ambiguity in the DOC., and these two constructions have different argument structures (Miyagawa&Tsujioka 2004: 6). There is no transformational relationship between them.

Soh (2005) uses the distributive quantifier 'each' as a test tool and applies the APPL framework to study the DOC in Mandarin Chinese, proving that the DOC has one more projection than the DC.

D. The G-parameter Approach

He (2008) proposes a parameterized functional category 'G' meaning 'transfer' to tackle the issue.

- (14) [vP Subj v' [v [GP G' [G [VP IO V' [V DO]]]]]]



The functional category 'G' is postulated to take on parameterized value as it might be null (as in English) or phonologically realized (as in Chinese, which can also be null). Parameterizing the functional category 'G' is helpful to reveal the universality and idiosyncrasy of the language and to explain the learnability of the language.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

“A general trait of a minimalist approach to language is the endeavour to inspect and reduce any aspects (rules, filters, devices, formatives, etc.) that we regard as stipulative or unprincipled in the hope that such reduction will help us better understand the nature of this species-specific capacity (Gallego 2012: 10).” With this aim of the MP, Chomsky (2013, 2014, 2015) publishes a series of papers to focus on the core syntactic properties of labels and further illustrate its applications in the generative grammar. Chomsky redefines the syntactic properties of labeling from two aspects of “the Third Factor Principle” (computational efficiency and interface conditions) and deeply interprets the theoretical explanatory power of the Labeling Theory and Labeling Algorithm (LA), systematically solving the fundamental theoretical problem of how to obtain the labeling for the merged categories, so that the Labeling Theory can follow the Strong Minimalist Thesis (SMT)¹, which will inevitably have a profound impact on the development of generative grammar theory.

A. *The Simplest Merge*

According to the SMT, the only structure building operation of UG is Merge. Chomsky proposes the operation Merge: “One such operation is necessary on conceptual grounds alone: an operation that forms larger units out of those already constructed, call it Merge (Chomsky 1995: 296).” The labeling is nothing other than third-factor minimal search finding relevant object-identification information within the set that constitutes the output of (simplest) Merge (Epstein, Kitahara, & Seely, 2017).

Merge is maintained in its simplest form in Chomsky (2013, 2014). The output of Merge is a syntactic object, and hence the output of Merge can also be one of the input arguments to Merge (as cited in Epstein et al. 2017). “For a syntactic object (SO) to be interpreted, some information is necessary about it: what kind of object is it? Labeling is the process of providing that information. Under PSG and its offshoots, labeling is part of the process of forming a syntactic object SO. But that is no longer true when the stipulations of these systems are eliminated in the simpler Merge-based conception of UG. We assume, then, that there is a fixed labeling algorithm LA that licenses SOs so that they can be interpreted at the interfaces, operating at the phase level along with other operations (Chomsky 2013: 43).”

Under SMT, therefore, the combinatorial operation of the generative procedure assumes (by hypothesis) the simplest formulation in what comes to be called “simplest Merge”, a set-formation device that takes X and Y , and forms $\{X, Y\}$ (Epstein et al. 2017: 27).

(15) Merge $(X, Y) = \{X, Y\}$

Merge takes two (and only) two objects and puts them into the set $\{X, Y\}$, thereby creating the relation ‘member of’ for X and Y (as cited in Epstein et al. 2017). The operation Merge gives rise to hierarchical syntactic structure. Chomsky (2013) argues that Merge (X, Y) yields $\{X, Y\}$ with no label projection or linear order. Collins (2017) also holds that it contains no information about linear order or syntactic category.

B. *Labeling Algorithm (LA)*

Chomsky (2008, 2013) proposes that Merge $(X, Y) = \{X, Y\}$, and that labels are identified via one of a small number of principles, the labeling algorithm.

For Chomsky (2013, 2014), labeling is the process of finding the relevant information within the set, $\{X, Y\}$, which identifies the categorial status of the entire set generated by simplest Merge. Labeling is “just minimal search, presumably appropriating a third factor principle, as in Agree and other operations” (Chomsky 2013) (as cited in Epstein et al. 2017). The Labeling is not stipulated in that it belongs to the third-factor principle. It is the name given to the result of an independently motivated minimal search procedure (Epstein et al. 2017: 29).

(16) Labeling Algorithm (Rizzi 2015: 321)

a. The category created by Merge receives the label of the closest head.

b. Labeling must be complete at the interfaces.

The LA includes two basic cases of Labeling: $[H, XP]$ and $[XP, YP]$.

(17) If $SO = \{H, XP\}$ where H is a head and XP is not a head, then Label $(SO) = H$.

(18) If $SO = \{XP, YP\}$ and neither is a head, then

a. if XP is a lower copy, Label $(SO) = \text{Label}(YP)$.

b. if Label (XP) and Label (YP) share a feature F by Agree, Label $(SO) = \langle F, F \rangle$. (Epstein et al. 2017)

Suppose first that the syntactic object (SO) is $\{H, XP\}$, H is a head and XP is not a head. Then H will be selected as the label by the minimal search to allow the object $\{H, XP\}$ to be identified as ‘an H ’ at the interfaces. As an example of (16), if Merge (see, {the, man}) = {see, {the, man}}, then Label ({see, {the, man}}) = see. For Chomsky’s labeling analysis, it follows naturally from 3rd factor minimal search and thus endocentricity relative to $\{H, XP\}$ is deduced, and without the postulation of an X-bar level of projection (Epstein et al. 2017).

Suppose then SO is $\{XP, YP\}$, neither a head. Here minimal search is ambiguous; search finds the sets XP, YP , neither of which is a head; it then searches further, finding both the head X of XP and the head Y of YP . It is assumed that this ambiguity is intolerable; left as is (an option available under free Simplest Merge), Full Interpretation (FI) is

¹ The Strong Minimalist Thesis holds that “The optimal situation would be that UG reduces to the simplest computational principles which operate in accord with conditions of computational efficiency. This conjecture is sometimes called the Strong Minimalist Thesis (SMT) (Berwick & Chomsky 2016: 94).”

violated at the interface levels (Epstein et al. 2017). Chomsky (2013) puts forward a solution with two strategies: (A) modify SO so that there is only one visible head, and (B) X and Y are identical in a relevant respect, providing the same label, which can be taken as the label of the SO (Epstein et al. 2017: 31).

To summarize, Chomsky's (2013) analysis assumes that (Epstein et al. 2017: 31):

- (i) Labels are required, but only at the interfaces.
- (ii) Labeling is just minimal search.
- (iii) There must be a single element that serves as the 'identifier' of a syntactic object, ambiguity of identification is not tolerated.

The output of Merge is label-free. Labels are determined by a labeling algorithm and play a role at the interfaces. Chomsky justifies the labeling algorithm by claiming that (as cited in Epstein et al. 2017): "...there is a fixed labeling algorithm LA that licenses SOs so that they can be interpreted at the interfaces... (Chomsky 2013: 43)."

IV. OUR ANALYSIS

The Labeling Theory sheds new light on the analysis of the DOC. We will use the Labeling Theory to provide a tentative analysis for the DOC.

Take (1) a for example, repeated in (18).

- (19) Zhangsan song Lisi yiben shu.
Zhangsan give Lisi one-CL book
'Zhangsan gave Lisi a book.'

A set is formed by using the "simplest Merge": $\text{Merge}(X,Y)=\{X,Y\}$. Suppose 'song Lisi' 'give Lisi' functions as a complex verb, which is X, with 'yiben shu' 'a book', which is Y, as its object. The complex verb itself might be understood as the Pair-Merged SO $\langle \text{song, Lisi} \rangle$, consisting of a verb and an adjunct.

(20) $\text{Merge}(\text{song Lisi, yiben shu})=\{\text{song Lisi, yiben shu}\}$

(21) $\text{Merge}(v(\text{song Lisi, yiben shu}))=\{v\{\text{song Lisi, yiben shu}\}\}$

Take $\text{SO}_i=\{v, \{V, \text{NP}\}\}$, viz., $\{v\{\text{song Lisi, yiben shu}\}\}$. Here 'v' as the label of SO_i by minimal search in that v is unambiguously identifiable by applying (16); the head H in $\{H, \text{XP}\}$ is always found with "less search" than any feature-bearing element within XP. The pair-Merged element 'Lisi' is invisible for labeling in terms of Chomsky (2013, 2015) and the normal labeling procedure for $[v [V, \text{IA}]]$ will apply. As a result, $\{v\{\text{song Lisi, yiben shu}\}\}$ can be transferred and be interpreted at the interfaces of CI.

Next, take $\text{SO}_j=\{\text{NP}, \{v, \text{VP}\}\}$, viz., $\{\text{Zhangsan}, \{v, \{\text{song Lisi, yiben shu}\}\}\}$. According to Epstein, Kitahara and Seely (2014), the minimal search here is ambiguous, locating two relevant heads, N and v. If the labeling of the SO fails and Full Interpretation is violated at CI in that CI cannot find the information it needs to identify the categorial status of this object; such identification of status is hypothesized by Chomsky (2013) to be a necessary prerequisite to CI (properly) interpreting the object. One way to label SO_j is to raise NP to a higher position, which yields (after merger of T to SO_j and subsequent subject raising) $\text{SO}_k=\{\text{NP}, \{T, \{\text{NP}\{v, \text{VP}\}\}\}\}$ (Epstein et al. 2014). Chomsky (2013) takes the single NP (call it α) in SO_k to be in the domain D (in this case, in the set SO_j now embedded within SO_k) if and only if every occurrence of α is a term of D. Given this, NP is taken to be not in SO_j (a term of SO_k) because SO_j does not contain every occurrence of NP as its term; rather, NP is taken to be in SO_k because SO_k contains every occurrence of NP as its term. Informally, the lower copy of NP is "invisible" when minimal search conducts a search for the label of $\{\text{NP}, \{v, \text{VP}\}\}$; it therefore "sees" only $\{v, \text{VP}\}$ when it "looks at" $\{\text{NP}, \{v, \text{VP}\}\}$. Thus, the movement of NP makes the v unambiguously identifiable; that is, minimal search finds the only "visible" head v as the label of SO_j (Epstein et al. 2014: 465-466).

SO_k , namely, $\{\text{NP}, \{T, \{\text{NP}\{v, \text{VP}\}\}\}\}$, viz., $\{\text{Zhangsan}, \{T, \{\text{Zhangsan}, \{v, \{\text{song Lisi, yiben shu}\}\}\}\}\}$, is of the form $\{\text{XP}, \text{YP}\}$. SO_k is a set that contains two non-heads. Chomsky (2013) suggests that in such cases, the ϕ -features shared by the two relevant heads N and T (in finite clauses) can be the label of SO_k ; that is, when there are some prominent features shared by X and Y, minimal search can identify the label for $\{\text{XP}, \text{YP}\}$, namely, the features (in this case, the ϕ -features) appearing on both heads X and Y (Epstein et al. 2014: 467). And then, SO_k is transferred to CI for interpretation. The LA analysis of the DOC in Mandarin Chinese captures the direct-indirect asymmetry familiar from the traditional grammar.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper supplies a tentative study of the DOC in Mandarin Chinese. It justifies that the LA-the minimal search-provides an appropriate analysis of the DOC. The LA analysis of the DOC in Mandarin Chinese captures the direct-indirect asymmetry familiar from the traditional grammar.

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Scrambled Cloze Procedure: Does It Influence EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension and Writing Performance?

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Abstract—The present study investigated the effect of using scrambled cloze procedure on reading and writing among intermediate EFL learners. To fulfill the purpose of the study, 60 participants were tested on a PET test, from whom 48 homogeneous participants were selected and assigned randomly to two groups of 25 and 23, as experimental and control group. Then, both groups were given a pre-test of writing and reading comprehension. During 14 sessions, the experimental group were provided with scrambled cloze samples and tasks while practicing paragraph writing and reading, whereas the control group did not, while they were practicing paragraph writing and reading. At the end, the two groups were tested in reading comprehension and writing, based on a posttest. Two raters scored the writing samples collected from two groups in the pre and posttest. Pearson correlation was used to compute the inter-rater reliability. The results showed the experimental group outperformed the control group in paragraph writing and reading comprehension. However, it was found that gender did not make a significant difference in reading comprehension and writing performance.

Index Terms—scrambled cloze procedure, reading comprehension, paragraph writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Based on the previous studies, a cloze test can measure three types of knowledge: linguistic knowledge, textual knowledge, and knowledge of the world. A standard cloze can be used to measure almost all these types of knowledge (Cohen, 1980), that is, the testees use their linguistic knowledge to deal with the text such as comprehending the text. Textual knowledge is used by the language users to detect the logical intersentential relationships and understand the references within the text. These two types of knowledge are mapped to the content of the text. These different types of knowledge can be tested through using different types of cloze procedure. For instance, in a cloze test in which certain functional words such as articles or prepositions are deleted can measure the linguistic knowledge, or a cloze test in which cohesive devices such as conjunctions, or connectors are deleted can test the textual knowledge.

An important implicit assumption is that cloze tasks produce changes in comprehension over time. For example, some scholars investigated the impact of using cloze tests on comprehension during a period of time (Bloomer, 1962; Heitzman & Bloomer, 1967; Kennedy & Weener, 1973; Schneyer, 1965). However, cloze tasks may have temporary effect on the reading comprehension of the language users, and may not have permanent change in the development of their reading comprehension in the long term. Bloomer (1966) attempted to investigate the learners' reading comprehension after providing them with a single exposure to a cloze task. Unlike past studies, more regular investigations of using cloze tests in reading comprehension and writing classes are required if cloze procedures are considered as a teaching technique for reading comprehension and writing. As Bloomer (1996) claimed, previous studies used questions to assess reading comprehension, which may not provide enough detailed information to assess changes in comprehension processes.

The reputation of cloze tests was in computing readability of texts and language assessment. The validity of cloze tests is under discussion as a measure of comprehension (e.g., Brown, 2013; Chen, 2004; Gellert & Elbro, 2013; Greene, 2001; Kobayashi, 2004; Oller & Jonz, 1994a; O'Toole & King, 2010, 2011; Trace, Brown, Janssen, & Kozhevnikova, 2017). Some other researchers (Alderson, 1979a; Kintsch & Yarbrough, 1982; Klein-Braley & Raatz, 1984; Pearson & Hamm, 2005; Shanahan, Kamil, & Webb Tobin, 1982) claimed that only grammatical and linguistic knowledge can be gauged whereas cloze cannot measure intersentential relationships in a text. Cloze is not a valid measure of text comprehension because it does not measure discourse level knowledge. On the other hand, some researchers (Baker, 2011; Eckes & Grotjahan, 2006) asserted that cloze tests are integrative alternatives to measure reading comprehension. Oller (1973, 1976, 1979) claimed that cloze procedure can measure reading comprehension as well as other language abilities integratively. Brown (2004) stated that in a cloze test, a language user is expected to make correct guesses, which depends on his/her ability to listen, speak, and write. He added that cloze procedure has regained its importance

and become a valid assessment procedure for measuring language skills.

In L1 and L2 setting, while being a controversy among researchers, cloze procedure has widely been used as an integrative measure of reading comprehension. Some researchers claimed that cloze can be an objective, and reliable test of language learners' general comprehension (Bachman, 1982; Clarke, 1979; Cziko, 1978; Oller, 1973). Others questioned the validity of cloze procedure to tackle the intersentential relationships, and they hypothesized that in a cloze test, language users process tasks mainly at the sentence or sub sentence-level and fill in the blanks but they do not reach the intersentential comprehension (Alderson, 1979; MacGinitie, 1961; Miller & Coleman, 1967; Shanahan, et al., 1982). Considering the cloze test as a measure of overall reading comprehension, some researchers (e.g., Klein-Braley & Raatz, 1984; Pearson & Hamm, 2005; Shanahan, et al., 1982) argued that cloze procedure fails to test it. Of course, most of these investigations were done on standard cloze tests in which every nth word is deleted.

However, the proponents of the cloze procedure argued that for performing on a cloze test, testees require to process information at the supra-sentential level (Brown, 2002; Chihara, Oller, Weaver, & Chávez-Oller, 1994; Cziko, 1983; Gellert & Elbro, 2013; Jonz, 1994; McKenna & Layton, 1990). Brown (2004) detected that in standard cloze tests, 56-70% of cloze items are cohesive devices. Jonz (1994) explored that 32% of the cloze items require information beyond sentence levels. Finally, the analyses of item difficulty show that passage-level variables influence the difficulty of individual cloze gaps (Chávez-Oller, Chihara, Weaver, & Oller, 1994; Kobayashi, 2002a; Oller & Chen, 2007; Trace et al., 2017). These critics asserted that standard cloze tests measure para-sentential knowledge.

Reading Comprehension and Cloze Procedure

Many language learners at various levels get into trouble while reading English texts. Several studies demonstrated that most language learners are not able to read English with perfect comprehension (e.g., Lijuan, 2007; Wahyuni, 2000; Wallace, 2001). Such learners are to be helped in comprehending the texts. Assessing reading ability is not limited to only measuring comprehension. There are some more important factors which should be considered while assessing the learners' full understanding in formative classroom assessments. Brown (2004) claimed that if readers fail to comprehend the text, they need to develop some reading strategies to enhance their reading comprehension. For instance, a student may comprehend an academic technical report at the sentence level, but may have a misunderstanding at the discourse level because the learner has not exercised certain strategies. It can be claimed that scrambled cloze tasks involve the learners' mind beyond the separate sentence level, and they need to process the text as a whole, which would be a good practice for them to read and understand the text as a whole or to rewrite or unscramble the sentences as a text.

During the past years, various definitions have been offered for reading comprehension. Reading was defined as "the process of understanding and interpreting information from the text" (Shanahan, 2005; p. 175). Readers are expected to process the integration of several variables in order to understand this complicated language skill. Different researchers considered these factors from separate perspectives which may influence reading comprehension: the familiarity with text, structure and topic, the use of reading strategies, and word recognition (Pang, 2008), lower-level and higher-level processes (Ajideh & Sattarpour, 2014; Grabe & Stoller, 2002), micro skills and macro skills (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010), and task types (Grabe, 2009).

An important goal in ELT programs will be improving reading comprehension. Thus, many activities in learning to read are organized to develop reading comprehension. Cloze procedure, as a technique used to improve comprehension, requires learners to read and understand a text while filling in the blanks within the text at regular intervals (Bormuth, 1966), so that the completed text could make sense. Cloze procedure was originally designed to gauge readability (Taylor, 1953); later was used to help language learners use contextual clues (Kennedy & Weener, 1973); to increase learners' motivation to read (Bloomer, 1966; Heitzman & Bloomer, 1967); and even to help learners improve their reading ability in many studies (Rye, 1982). Many researchers and teachers have used it successfully in improving learners' reading ability.

Heaton (1991) believes that the goal of using cloze procedure is to measure readability and reading comprehension. It indicates that performance on the cloze procedure reflects the learner's ability to use the language context (Rye, 1982), and reflects learners' success in reading (Steinman, 2002). Hence, if the reader can supply the missing words in a cloze, it shows that he/she could understand the text (Daines, 1982). In other words, cloze passage can be used to assess reading comprehension (Yamashita, 2003). Also, cloze procedure is used to assess the learning or reading strategies used by language learners. As Steinman (2002) asserted while practicing cloze procedure, readers get more awareness of meaning, and other reading skills such as scanning and searching, which are not tackled in normal reading. Ahluwalia (1993) claimed that in practicing cloze procedure, readers get involved in more active reading, and are more conscious of their reading strategies during this process. In other words, teaching cloze strategies is, in fact, teaching reading strategies.

Since reading is a very complex and important skill, some measures have been introduced to best measure it. These methods are divided into two main types: traditional and modern test methods (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2010). As Alderson (2000) asserted, in traditional test methods, learners' reading abilities are measured separately and lower-order reading skills such as detecting dates, linking the referring expressions with the antecedents, and finding the grammatical relations are being emphasized. According to Fulcher (2010), based on the traditional test methods, learners' understanding of the text will be generally indicated; however, the cognitive and metacognitive processes

required to comprehend a text will not be revealed. However, more recent approaches are more holistic and integrative by nature, requiring readers to employ a vast set of resources to grasp the text meaning and understand the intersentential relationships (Bachman & Damböck, 2018).

Research in cloze procedure concentrated on reviewing the cloze tests carefully and refining its procedure. Alderson (1979) detected that the deletion rate could affect learners' comprehension. Brown (2002) found different patterns of word deletion could result in different results. Other researchers found that shorter texts could make the cloze test less reliable (Woods, Grafton, Watson, Sicotte & Mazziotta, 1998); and cloze tests would frustrate some testees compared with other measures (Brown, 2002). Reacting to these critical reviews, researchers focused on modifying the original format of cloze tests, while introducing other alternatives for cloze tests. Several studies attempted to refine the cloze procedure, but very little is known if using cloze tests can improve students' reading comprehension. Apsari (2016) found that learners instructed by cloze passages significantly were better than those taught by full passages in terms of reading comprehension. Thus, cloze passages need to be provided in teaching reading.

Writing Skill and Cloze Procedure

Writing proficiency develops gradually during a period of time. Writing, as a language skill, needs to be instructed. Writing involves conveying the ideas, which is hard for a writer to do. In fact, writing will be a personal device, at the most advanced stage, for expressing one's own knowledge and experience (Bereiter, 1980). The more writers get more proficient in writing, the more they move from knowledge-telling to knowledge-transformation (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). The former is the signal of less proficient writers, and the latter is more complex. As knowledge transformer, writers express ideas and reasoning as a vehicle for the development of personal awareness, philosophical ideas, and knowledge.

An autonomous use of lower-level skills such as spelling, grammar, handwriting, punctuation, keyboarding, and proper diction paves the way for the easy utilization of the higher-level writing macro-strategies used for planning, generating, and revising a text (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). If writers are not skilled in the lower-level skills, they will find it difficult to use macro-strategies to produce a coherent summary or a persuasive essay. Command in both these lower- and higher-level skills is vital for writers to be able to write. According to Li (2000), writing is a complex process particularly for elementary and intermediate language learners, which requires learners to focus on only one aspect of syntactic complexity or grammatical accuracy, etc. at the expense of the other one. In fact, language learners find it difficult to attend to form and meaning at the same time.

Creating a successful written text is a complex process which requires "simultaneous control over a number of language systems as well as an ability to take into consideration the ways the discourse must be shaped for a particular purpose" (Celce-Murcia, 2001; p.48). On the other hand, cloze procedure has been extensively investigated from both theoretical and methodological perspectives. Heaten (1990) stated, "performance on cloze test correlates highly with the reading, writing and speaking abilities" (p.17). Hughes (2003) declared, "in doing cloze tests, learners make use of the abilities that underlie all their language performance" (p.139). Nunan and Carter (2001) found strong relationship between testers' performance in integrative tests (such as cloze test) and in the subcomponents of various other test batteries, testing other language skills, such as writing and speaking.

The purpose of this study was to provide information for effective use of a certain type of cloze; namely, the scrambled cloze procedure, in increasing comprehension and writing ability. The study then focused on these questions; what is the impact of using scrambled cloze procedure on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' paragraph writing/reading comprehension? Is there any significant difference between writing/ reading of male and female Iranian EFL learners who practice scrambled cloze procedure and that of those who do not?

II. METHOD

Research Design

The study was based on an experimental design, in which two intact groups participated in the study. The participants were not *selected* randomly; hence, the design was by nature a quasi-experimental one. However, the participants were randomly *assigned* to an experimental and a control group. The independent variable was the mode of instruction, which influenced the two dependent variables under the study. In one group, the researchers presented scrambled cloze tasks to the participants, whereas in the other, they used the current prevalent techniques for teaching reading and paragraph writing. These two dependent variables were measured before and after the treatment to make intra- and inter-group comparisons possible.

Participants

To carry out the study, the researchers selected a sample of 48 participants based on non-random sampling, including both male and female Iranian EFL learners who enrolled in two English language institutes in Tehran. They were intermediate adult learners within the age range of 18-30, who had been learning English for some years. They were divided into two groups: experimental (N=23) and control group (N=25). Both groups took a pretest of reading comprehension and paragraph writing. The writing pretest consisted of a topic, about which the participants were supposed to write a paragraph. The reading pretest consisted of four short reading passages followed by 20 multiple-choice items. The participants in the experimental group received the treatment, which was practicing scrambled cloze tasks during 14 sessions. The control group received no treatment; however, they practiced the traditional way of

learning reading and writing. At the end, both groups sat for the posttest.

Instruments

Language Proficiency Test: A standardized general proficiency test (PET) was used to help the researchers select the homogeneous participants in terms of their language proficiency. From among the participants, a proper sample was needed to be selected for the study. Accordingly, the test was administered to a group of 60 EFL learners. Then, those learners whose scores fell within one SD below and above the mean ($N=48$) were selected. Afterward, the researchers randomly assigned them to two groups. The test consisted of 60 items in different sub-sections, which were administered to the participants in the first session.

Reading Comprehension Tests: Two teacher-made identical tests of reading comprehension were used to measure the participants' reading comprehension before and after the treatment. The difficulty level of the reading passages of the tests were computed based on Fog Index of readability, which was adapted to be at the level of their textbook. Each of the two identical reading comprehension tests consisted of four short reading passages followed by 20 multiple-choice items. The rationale for selecting such tests was to minimize the practice effect in the study. The reliability coefficients for the two reading tests were computed through using Cronbach alpha.

Paragraph Writing Tests: Two teacher-made writing tests were used to measure the participants' performance in paragraph writing before and after the treatment. Since students in both groups were taught how to write paragraphs during the treatment, the researchers designed two identical tests of writing in which they were required to write a paragraph. Their writing samples in the two tests (pre- and posttest) were scored analytically based on Baily and Brown's (1984) scoring scale, in which five main components of writing were given credits. These five components were organization (introduction, body and conclusion), logical development of ideas (content), structure, mechanics (punctuation, spelling, capitalization ...), variety and quality of expression. Each writing task was scored by two raters to ensure the inter-rater reliability.

Procedure

At first, the research instruments were prepared: a test for measuring learners' language proficiency, a pre- and posttest for reading comprehension, and for paragraph writing. The language proficiency test (PET) was administered to the two groups to help the researchers select the homogeneous learners for the two groups.

The pre-tests of reading comprehension and paragraph writing were administered to both groups to enable the researchers compare the two groups before presenting the treatment. Having compared the mean scores of the two groups, the researchers made sure about the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of reading comprehension and paragraph writing.

The treatment was presenting the scrambled cloze passages and tasks to the participants in the experimental group. The treatment lasted for 14 sessions. In the first session, the researchers administered the reading and writing pretest to them. Then, from the second session on, the researchers presented scrambled cloze procedure to the participants in the experimental group. In 14 sessions, fourteen passages were presented to them in the form of scrambled cloze tasks, in which the sentences were scrambled. The participants were required to fill in the blanks first, and then put the scrambled sentences back into the correct order to form a unified and coherent paragraph.

Having accomplished the treatment in 14 sessions, the researchers administered a posttest of reading comprehension and paragraph writing to the participants. This enabled the researchers to collect data from the two groups in the posttest. Thus, the scores in the pretest and posttest were the basis for intra- and inter-group comparisons.

III. RESULTS

The Analysis of the Language Proficiency Test (PET)

The researchers had to check the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of their language proficiency. As shown in Table 1, the descriptive statistics showed that the mean scores of the two groups ($M= 51.21$, $M= 50.32$) and the standard deviations of the two groups ($SD= 3.75$, $SD=2.86$) were close to each other.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST (PET)

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental group	23	51.21	3.75	0.782
PET Control group	25	50.32	2.86	0.573

In order to compare the mean scores of the two intact groups, the researchers used an independent samples t-test. As shown in Table 2, the difference between the two groups was not statistically significant, $t(46) = 2.458$, $p= 0.118$. The results showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups on the PET. Accordingly, the researchers could safely carry out the study with the two homogeneous groups.

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST (PET)

		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
PET	Equal v assumed	.015	.902	2.458	46	.118	2.65	1.08	0.481 4.83
	Equal v not assumed			2.457	45.6	.118	2.65	1.08	0.480 4.83

The Analysis of the Writing and Reading Pretests

Since the main focus was on the EFL learners' reading comprehension and paragraph writing, the researchers had to check the participants' homogeneity in these two dependent variables. Hence, a writing and a reading pretest were administered to the participants. The descriptive statistics as shown in Table 3 indicated that the mean and SD of the experimental group (M= 13.89, SD= 2.20) and control group (M= 12.90, SD= 1.89) were close to one another in writing. In reading pretest, the results showed that these measures in the experimental group (M= 14.45, SD= 2.06) and control group (M= 15.20, SD= 1.94) were also close to one another.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE TWO PRETESTS

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PW pretest	Exp group	2313.89	2.20	.459
	Control group	2512.90	1.89	.378
RC pretest	Exp group	2314.45	2.06	.430
	Control group	2515.20	1.94	.388

In order to make sure that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups in these two skills, an independent samples t-test was utilized. The result of the Levene test indicated that the condition of the homogeneity of the variances was assumed, $p > 0.05$. As shown in Table 4, there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups with regard to their paragraph writing, $t(46) = 1.67$, $p = 0.101$. The difference between the two groups was not statistically significant. Also, the difference between the two groups in reading comprehension was not statistically significant, $t(46) = 1.28$, $p = 0.205$. Thus, the researchers could safely start to present the treatment to the candidates. The treatment was using scrambled cloze samples and tasks in the experimental group, while using common prevalent traditional techniques for teaching paragraph writing and reading comprehension in the control group.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE WRITING AND READING PRETEST SCORES

		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
PW pretest	Equal v assumed	.657	.422	1.67	46	.101	.991	.59	-.199 2.182
	Equal v not assumed			1.66	43.5	.103	.991	.59	-.209 2.192
RC pretest	Equal v assumed	.001	.975	-	46	.205	-.743	.57	-1.908 .421
	Equal v not assumed			-	45.0	.207	-.743	.58	-1.911 .424

The Analysis of the Writing Posttest (Testing the First Null Hypothesis)

An independent samples t-test was utilized to compare the mean scores of the two groups in order to test the first null hypothesis. The descriptive statistics as illustrated in Table 5 showed the means and SDs of the experimental group (M= 16.00, SD= 1.38) and of the control group (M= 14.30, SD= 1.37). The means are somehow different, whereas the SDs are close to one another.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PARAGRAPH WRITING POSTTEST

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PW posttest	Exp group	2316.00	1.38	.28
	Control group	2514.30	1.37	.27

In order to check whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups in their paragraph writing after the treatment, an independent samples t-test was run. The result of the Levene test indicated that the condition of the homogeneity of the variances was assumed, $p > 0.05$. As shown in Table 6, the difference between the

two groups in their paragraph writing, $t(46) = 4.26$, $p = 0.000$, was statistically significant. That is, the experimental group outperformed the control group in paragraph writing; thus, the first null hypothesis restated as “Using scrambled cloze procedure makes no significant difference in Iranian intermediate EFL learners' paragraph writing” is rejected.

TABLE 6
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE PARAGRAPH WRITING POSTTEST SCORES

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	(2-Mean Difference)	Std. Error Difference	Error95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
PW post	Equal v assumed	.182	.671	4.2646	.000	1.70	.39	.89	2.50
	Equal v not assumed			4.2645	6.000	1.70	.39	.89	2.50

The Analysis of the Reading Posttest (Testing the Second Null Hypothesis)

In order to test the second null hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the two groups in reading comprehension. The descriptive statistics included in Table 7 shows the mean scores and SDs of the experimental group ($M = 16.15$, $SD = 1.14$) and of the control group ($M = 14.04$, $SD = 1.39$).

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE READING COMPREHENSION POSTTEST

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RC posttest				
Exp group	23	16.15	1.14	.23
Control group	25	14.04	1.39	.27

These measures in the two groups are different; however, the inferential statistics were used to compare the two groups statistically. In order to check whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups in reading comprehension, an independent samples t-test was run. The results of the Levene test indicated that the condition of the homogeneity of the variances was assumed, $p > 0.05$. As shown in Table 8, there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups in reading comprehension, $t(46) = 5.70$, $p = 0.000$. The difference between the two groups was statistically significant. That is, the experimental group outperformed the control group in reading comprehension; thus, the second null hypothesis restated as “Using scrambled cloze tasks makes no significant difference in Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension” is rejected.

TABLE 8
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE READING COMPREHENSION POSTTEST SCORES

		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
RC post	Equal v assumed	.090	.765	5.70	46	.000	2.11	.37	1.36 2.85
	Equal v not assumed			5.7445	3	.000	2.11	.36	1.37 2.85

Gender Analysis (Testing the Third and Fourth Null Hypothesis)

In order to test the third and fourth research null hypothesis, an independent samples t-test was utilized to compare the mean scores of the male and female participants in paragraph writing and reading comprehension.

The descriptive statistics as demonstrated in Table 9 show the mean scores and SDs of the female group ($M = 15.11$, $SD = 1.72$) and of the male group ($M = 15.12$, $SD = 1.44$) in paragraph writing posttest. Furthermore, the mean scores and SDs of the female group ($M = 15.25$, $SD = 1.50$) and of the male group ($M = 14.67$, $SD = 1.89$) in reading comprehension posttest are also displayed.

TABLE 9
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GENDER DIFFERENCES IN POSTTESTS

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
PW posttest	Female	31	15.11	1.72	.30
	Male	17	15.12	1.44	.34
RC posttest	Female	31	15.25	1.50	.27
	Male	17	14.67	1.89	.45

As shown in Table 10, there was not a statistically significant difference between the female and male participants in paragraph writing, $t(46) = .010$, $p = 0.992$. The difference between the two groups was not statistically significant. Thus, the third null hypothesis restated, as “There is no significant difference between the paragraph writing of male and female Iranian EFL learners who practice scrambled cloze procedure and that of those who do not” is not rejected. That is, male and female participants performed similarly in paragraph writing.

TABLE 10
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE GENDER DIFFERENCES IN POSTTEST SCORES

		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
PW post	Equal v assumed	.665	.419	-	46	.992	-.004	.49	-.99 .98
	Equal v not assumed			.010	38.2	.992	-.004	.46	-.94 .93
RC post	Equal v assumed	.889	.351	1.16	46	.249	.581	.49	-.42 1.58
	Equal v not assumed			1.09	27.2	.285	.581	.53	-.51 1.67

Based on Table 10, the difference between female and male participants in their reading comprehension was not statistically significant, $t(46) = 1.16, p = 0.249$. Accordingly, the fourth null hypothesis restated as “There is no significant difference between the reading comprehension of male and female Iranian EFL learners who practice scrambled cloze procedure and that of those who do not” is not rejected. Female and male participants show homogeneity not only in their writing performance but also in their reading comprehension after practicing scrambled cloze samples and tasks during the study.

IV. DISCUSSION

The findings provided a strong support for the claim that scrambled cloze techniques in language learning classes does improve the participants' reading comprehension and paragraph writing. However, male and female learners performed similarly not only in reading comprehension but also in paragraph writing.

The results of the study were in agreement with those of many studies in the past (Alderson, 1979; Brown, 2002; Woods, et al., 1998). Based on some critical reviews done in cloze-related studies, some modifications in the cloze procedure have been made and some other varieties have been proposed, which have been used in language learning programs. Despite the fact that many investigations were done on the cloze procedure, it is still miscellaneous whether using cloze tests or tasks in language classrooms can help improve reading comprehension (Chávez-Oller, et. al., 1994; Kobayashi, 2002a; Oller & Chen, 2007; Trace, et. al., 2017).

Like scrambled cloze activities, other effective strategies were used by many researchers to improve reading comprehension such as, Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (Guthrie, et al., 1996, 1999, 2000), Students' Achieving Independent Learning (Pressley, Harris & Marks, 1992), Summarizing-Contextualizing-Infering-Monitoring-Corroborating (Hicks, Doolittle & Ewing, 2004), Survey-Question-Read-Recite-Review-Reflect (Richardson & Morgan, 1997), and the Mind Map technique (Buzan, 2000). In most of these studies, the learners' reading comprehension was enhanced. The findings of the present study confirmed the results of the previous studies, which indicated that cloze tasks produce superior comprehension (Bloomer, 1962, 1966; Kennedy & Weener, 1973). Based on the available evidence from the previous studies done on cloze procedure, it has been widely used as an effective technique for developing reading comprehension and writing performance in language classes (Baker, 2011; Eckes & Grotjahan, 2006).

On the other hand, there have been some disagreement in using cloze tests or tasks in language classes to help improve reading comprehension, which may be because of some deficiencies in research methods in this regard (e.g., Brown, 2013; Chen, 2004; Gellert & Elbro, 2013; Greene, 2001; Jongsmá, 1971; Kobayashi, 2004; Oller & Jonz, 1994a; O'Toole & King, 2010, 2011; Trace, et. al., 2017). Concerning the effectiveness of cloze procedure, cloze tests and tasks will produce changes in comprehension, which may lead to an improvement in comprehension. In such studies, however, the researchers did not make clear that cloze tests or tasks can change which reading strategies or processes. The results of the present study contradicted the findings of some other studies which claimed that other reading activities make more effective comprehension than cloze procedure (Heitzman & Bloomer, 1967; Schneyer, 1965).

The change of cloze tasks in comprehension occurs during time. That is, when cloze tasks were used in language classes during several weeks, researchers came up with some change in comprehension (Bloomer, 1962; Heitzman & Bloomer, 1967; Kennedy & Weener, 1973; Schneyer, 1965). Based on these critical views, cloze tasks may have temporary effect on the reading comprehension of the language users, and may not have permanent change in the development of their reading comprehension in the long term. Cloze tests are not sensitive to intersentential constraints and they measure only lower-order skills; that is, measuring grammatical and linguistic knowledge (e.g., Alderson, 1979a; Kintsch & Yarbrough, 1982; Klein-Bráley & Raatz, 1984; Pearson & Hamm, 2005; Shanahan et al., 1982), rather than gauging intersentential and discoursal knowledge.

V. CONCLUSION

In the beginning of the study, the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their reading comprehension. After the treatment, the inter-group comparisons showed that the reading comprehension of the participants in the treatment group differed significantly from those in the control group. Also, the findings of this study showed that the approach in

enhancing writing performance through scrambled cloze activities among learners produced better outcomes. The use of scrambled cloze activities as a technique in language learning classes might be considered as the merits of study, which increased their skill in writing. The finding obtained through the research procedure led to the conclusion that this study supports the use of scrambled cloze procedure.

The results of the study indicated that when samples of scrambled cloze tasks are carefully constructed and the items are supplied with proper words, and when the scrambled sentences are put together to form a unified and coherent paragraph, they can help increase both reading comprehension and writing potential. This teaching technique is quite helpful for poor readers and/or writers. Some more studies are required to investigate the impact of using scrambled cloze procedure on reading and writing in the long term.

The present study aimed to investigate the gender differences while the intervention was being done during the 14 sessions. There was a uniform procedure for measuring the reading comprehension and writing skill of the two groups. Having all the learning conditions and exam administration environments the same, the researchers found that the two groups of learners; that is, the male and female, showed homogeneity in their reading and writing posttests.

The findings of this study are applicable for devising policies and decision making in EFL settings. Teachers and supervisors can include some varied activities in the EFL learners' language learning programs not only to give variety to their materials, but also to motivate them to practice language learning beyond the sentence level; that is, practice language items at the text or discourse level. The findings showed that authorities, material developers and policy makers in charge of EFL instruction should devise new ways to change the attitudes and perceptions of learners from mere traditional ways of practicing reading or writing. They should try to instill the same mentality in learners' minds that exists in their minds. Another implication is the necessity of familiarizing learners with new techniques, strategies and activities for practicing language skills and components, and giving them a realistic picture of how EFL instruction operates. Through teacher education programs, on-the-job training workshops, teachers' and supervisors' meetings, and journal papers used to update teachers' teaching practice and professional development, teachers, supervisors and mentors could share their views, attitudes, and perceptions to updating classroom techniques, which could lead to discussions, constructive arguments, and finally reaching agreements on points of difference.

Interested researchers are recommended to investigate the impact of other types of cloze test procedure such as catered technique, summary cloze tasks, summarizing tests, cloze elide tasks, editing tasks, etc. on language skills and components. Further research could select the sample purposefully from learners of different proficiency levels, and compare them together while including the language level as a moderator variable. Doing a research while using a single research instrument may not be convincing for the researchers who advocate mixed method designs. It is recommended to do some similar studies while using triangulation either in tools, in data or in methods. Some variables have not been controlled in the study, which may be the source of variability in the results compared with some previous studies. It is suggested to replicate the study while controlling for such variables as intelligence, learning style, personality type, attitude, etc.

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A Study of Corrective Feedback in Integrated English Classrooms*

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Abstract—The study is designed to explore the main CF types frequently used by teachers in Integrated English classrooms, whether CF types are related to learner error types and whether there is a discrepancy in acceptability of CF types between teachers and students. Based on the analysis, the major findings are obtained as follows: (1) teachers frequently used recast and elicitation in Integrated English classrooms, which occupied 37.1% and 22.3% respectively; (2) CF types were related to learner error types. Teachers in Integrated English Classrooms adopted recast and explicit correction more frequently to deal with phonological errors, elicitation to correct lexical errors, metalinguistic feedback to do with grammatical errors and explicit correction to treat pragmatic errors; (3) there exists discrepancy in acceptability of CF types across different errors between teachers and students in Integrated English classrooms. Teachers accepted elicitation most to deal with lexical, grammatical and pragmatic errors while students accepted explicit correction to correct these errors. The study results bring implications for teachers to make use of CF to improve the pedagogical effects and help students produce more comprehensive output for the language acquisition development.

Index Terms—corrective feedback, feedback types, error types, Integrated English classrooms

I. INTRODUCTION

In the process of foreign language learning, learners inevitably commit different types of errors when using the target language. However, attitudes towards errors vary a lot. The behaviorists view errors as a sign of language failure, as a consequence, errors must be corrected while supporters of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) hold that over-correction would have effect on the fluency of language expression. Thus, errors can be tolerated. It is believed that learner errors provide evidence of the system of the language that he is using at a particular point, and that errors are significant to teachers, researchers and learners themselves. Therefore, currently errors are treated more as a sign of language learning than a sign of language failure.

Theorists and researchers have recently re-emphasized the essential role of various approaches and methods related to error treatment in language learning and teaching (Iraji, Zoghi & Nemat-Tabrizi, 2014). Among them, corrective feedback has attracted the attention of both SLA researchers and educators. Teachers' in-class CF on their students' oral foreign language production has received considerable attention during the past 20 years. At present, studies on CF have been conducted to demonstrate the types of corrective feedback and learner uptake in different instructional settings at different learner proficiency levels (Panova and Lyster, 2002; Lee, 2013; Lee, 2016). In addition, most studies on CF examine the effectiveness of CF and learner uptake in terms of target language development by means of teacher-learner interaction (Keyu Zhai et al. 2018; Liu et al. 2018).

It can be clearly stated that the relationship of CF type and learner uptake is closely related to instructional settings, learner proficiency levels and so on. Most studies abroad on CF are set in second language classrooms. In China, however, English is learned as a foreign language, whose learning environment is not the same as that of Second Language in which in-class learning is the primary way of language learning. Therefore, teachers' corrective feedback seems to be particularly important to learners. The study is designed to investigate teachers' corrective feedback in Integrated English classrooms, especially aiming to find out the main frequent types of CF applied by teachers, the relationship between the use of CF types and learner errors and whether there is discrepancy in acceptability of CF types between teachers and students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theoretical Foundation

Interaction Hypothesis, proposed by Long (1985), holds that the development of language proficiency is prompted by

* Funded by Integrated English Course Construction.

face-to-face interaction and communication. There are two forms of Interaction Hypothesis: the “strong” form and the “weak” form. The former is the condition that the interaction itself is conducive to language development, while the latter means the situation that interaction is as simple as the way in which learners find learning opportunities whether they make full use of them or not.

Both Krashen (1982) and Long (1985) hold that L2 acquisition relies on the comprehensible input. Krashen (1982) believes that input becomes comprehensible with the help of context or extra-linguistic information, while Long (1985) emphasizes the importance of interactional modifications that occur in negotiating meaning when a communicative breakdown occurs. During the process of interactional adjustments, both participants make their efforts to understand the meaning of each other. However, both the Comprehensible Input Hypothesis and the Interaction Hypothesis more emphasize the role of input, which later is challenged by Swain (1995), who criticizes the two hypotheses for their overlooking the significance of “comprehensible output”.

Swain (1995) maintains that comprehensible input, though important, is not sufficient for learners to fully develop their L2 proficiency. Learners need the opportunity for meaningful use of their linguistic resources to achieve full grammatical competence in the target language. According to her, “Output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, non-deterministic, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. Output, thus, would seem to have a potentially significant role in the development of syntax and morphology” (1995, p.128).

B. Definition of Corrective Feedback

When conducting studies on error treatment, researchers have adopted several terms to describe it. Lyster and Ranta maintain that “the issue of how competent speakers (here referring to teachers) react to learners’ language errors takes on many guises depending on the disciplinary orientation of the researcher such as negative evidence by linguists, repair by discourse analysts, negative feedback by psychologists, corrective feedback or error correction by L2 teachers, and focus-on-form in more recent work in SLA” (1997, p.38). All these terms refer to the same thing and the term “corrective feedback” is used in the study.

CF refers to a pedagogical technique that teachers use to draw attention to students’ erroneous utterances, which could lead to students’ modified output (Suzuki, 2004). According to Ellis (2012), the term “corrective feedback”, used by researchers who draw on interactionist-cognitive theories of L2 acquisition, implies the specific move that corrects a learner’s error.

In a word, CF is any information to learners, provided by teachers, upon erroneous utterances, indicating incorrect or improper use of the target language as well as encouraging the learners to achieve accuracy in target language.

C. Classifications of Corrective Feedback

In the field of SLA studies, different types of CF have been put forward from diverse perspectives.

Doughty (1994) investigates whether or not L2 teachers finely tune their feedback to child language learners. The finely tuned feedback types include: 1) teacher clarification request, 2) teacher repetition, 3) teacher recast, 4) teacher expansion, 5) teacher translation and 6) teacher English.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) identify six corrective feedback strategies used by teachers, which are explicit correction, recast, clarification request, metalinguistic feedback, elicitation and repetition. As their model offers a systematic picture of types of interactional moves between teachers and students, and it has been quoted by other researchers (Panova & Lyster, 2002; Nassaji, 2007; Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011; Lee, 2013; Kartchava, 2013). Therefore, this study also adopts the taxonomy of Lyster’s (1997) and the frame of Lee’s (2013), as indicated in Table 1.

TABLE 1
CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK TYPES (BASED ON LYSTER & RANTA, 1997)

CF types	Definition	Example
Explicit correction	Indicates the teacher provides the correct form and points out what the student said is incorrect.	S: The program will start on May. T: Not on May, in May. We say “the program will start in May.”
Recast	Reformulates all or part of the incorrect word or phrase, to show the correct form without explicitly identifying the error.	S: I have to find the answer on the book? T: In the book.
Clarification request	Indicates that the students’ utterance was not understood and asks that the student reformulate it.	S: What did you spend with your friends yesterday? T: What? (Or, Sorry?)
Metalinguistic feedback	Gives technical linguistic information about the error without explicitly providing the correct answer.	S: There will be some influence people at the party. T: Influence is a noun.
Elicitation	Prompts the student to self-correct by pausing or using questions so the student can fill in the correct word or phrase.	S: This tea is very warm. T: It’s very...? S: Hot.
Repetition	Repeats the students’ error while highlighting the error or mistake by means of emphatic stress.	S: I will showed you. T: I will SHOWED you? S: I will show you.

D. Attitudes towards Corrective Feedback

CF has always been controversial among studies on language acquisition. Krashen (1982), against CF, holds that positive evidence is enough for learners to acquire L2 while negative evidence is useless and may even be harmful to interlanguage development. However, supporters believe that negative evidence can facilitate language acquisition. Schmidt (1990) states that CF makes it possible for learners to catch the opportunity to notice the gap between interlanguage forms and target forms. Lightbown & Spada (2006) provide an evidence that CF is pragmatically feasible, potentially effective, and, in some cases, necessary. Besides, Ellis (2009) examines several controversies relating to CF, for example, whether CF contributes to L2 acquisition, what errors should be corrected, who should do the correcting, which type of CF is the most effective and what is the best timing for CF, and he maintains that CF can play an important role in enhancing both oral and written linguistic accuracy. Therefore, it can be concluded that researchers actually hold totally different attitudes to CF.

E. Relationship between Corrective Feedback Types and Learner Uptake

Most studies on CF examine the relationship between CF types and learner uptake, and results of those studies may vary a little in different situations.

Lyster (1998) conducts a study of the relationships among error types, feedback types, and immediate learner repair in 4 French immersion classrooms at the elementary level. Findings indicate that the negotiation of form proved more effective at resulting in immediate repair than did recasts and explicit correction, especially for lexical and grammatical errors. However, recasts could lead to more phonological repairs.

In 2002, Panova and Lyster carried an observational study of error treatment types in an adult ESL classroom, in which the range and types of feedback used by the teacher and their relationship to learner uptake and immediate repair of error were examined. The findings reveal that the implicit types of reformulated feedback, namely, recasts and translation are preferred and consequently, rates of learner uptake and immediate repair of error are low in this classroom.

Suzuki (2004) presents a study investigating the relationship between CF and learner uptake in adult ESL classrooms. In the study, recasts were used the most followed by clarification requests and the type of CF that led to the repair most was explicit correction with recasts being the second that generated repair.

Among studies on CF, those examining the relationships between CF types and learner uptake occupy a large proportion. And this perspective has been a focus of studies on CF in recent years, however, the results differ greatly as many factors may affect the relationships.

F. Factors Contributing to the Efficacy of Corrective Feedback

There are different factors contributing to the efficacy of CF, among which is proficiency level of learners in choosing CF types (Ahangari & Amirzadeh, 2011). And in that study, the results reveal that the recast was the most frequently used type of CF by teachers at all three levels of proficiency.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) conducted a study of CF and learner uptake in four immersion classrooms at elementary level and the findings showed that teachers overwhelmingly tended to use recasts in spite of its ineffectiveness at eliciting student-generated repair. And parallel findings appear in Esmaili's study (2004) in which recast was the most frequent feedback employed by teachers in three elementary EFL classrooms although it did not lead to a high amount of learner uptake.

However, Suzuki (2004) found that recasts led to a high proportion (94%) of learner uptake, ranking second to explicit correction (100%), and it was the most frequently used type in the two intermediate-level EFL classes.

Lee (2013) investigated the types of CF and learner uptake in advanced-level adult ESL classrooms and he found that the most frequent type of CF was recasts, which generated 92.09% learner repair.

Besides, Zhao Chen (2005,) reported a study of how teachers utilized CF following students' language errors and how the CF affected students' modified comprehensible output. The subjects were 30 China's EFL classes of three proficiency levels. The findings showed that for grammatical errors, explicit correction was more useful for modified comprehensible output in primary classrooms while negotiation of form could bring about more modified comprehensible output in secondary classrooms. So, it can be clearly understood that proficiency levels will have an effect on the choice of CF types and the effectiveness of CF.

Apart from the proficiency levels, some studies focus on other factors such as gender, cognitive styles and so on. Iraj et al (2014) examined the role of teachers' gender in providing CF, which results in learners' uptake of various linguistic features. And the analysis revealed that female teachers use more CF moves than males, however, male learners take up more than females. Su Jianhong (2014) investigates the effects of learners' cognitive styles on the efficacy of CF. And the results indicate that the learning outcome of linear-thinking learners is significantly better than that of nonlinear-thinking learners, but linear-thinking learners do not have an advantage over nonlinear-thinking ones in learning outcome when they receive meta-linguistic feedback.

As the literature shows, CF plays an important part in learning and instructional processes. Studies on CF from different perspectives have been carried out abroad (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Ellis, 2009 and etc.); however, empirical studies conducted in Integrated English classrooms are scanty. Therefore, it is imperative to conduct a study to explore the use of CF in Integrated classroom.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. *Research Questions*

To investigate the application of CF in Integrated English classrooms, the study mainly addressed the following research questions:

1. What are the corrective feedback types frequently used in Integrated English Classrooms?
2. Do teachers use different corrective feedback types toward different learner errors? If so, how are the corrective feedback and error types related?
3. Is there any discrepancy in acceptability of corrective feedback types across different errors between teachers and students? If so, what may account for the discrepancy?

B. *Participants*

The study is designed to choose 2 freshman classes respectively from 3 universities in China, totaling 6 teachers and 174 students. The three universities are selected as the stratified samples to represent universities of different types in China: Hunan University standing for top 39 universities, Hunan Normal University representing top 100 universities and, Central South Universities of Forestry and Technology on behalf of average four-year universities in China. Except observations, questionnaires will be distributed among 6 teachers and 174 students respectively. In addition, 3 teachers and 12 students from the three universities will be given a follow-up interview.

C. *Instruments*

The instruments used in the study mainly included observations, questionnaires, interviews and SPSS software.

The observation instrument will be utilized to investigate the main CF types frequently used by teachers in Integrated English Classrooms. Two questionnaires, one for teachers and the other for students, will be designed to collect data as to whether there is any discrepancy in acceptability of CF types between teachers and students. Follow-up interviews will be used to find out the reasons for the discrepancy, if there is any between teachers and students. SPSS 19.0 will be employed to analyze data collected from the questionnaires.

D. *Materials*

The materials involved are observation scheme, two questionnaires and a follow-up interview.

The observation scheme is designed on the basis of CF model of Lyster & Ranta (1997) to record the errors committed by students and CF types used by teachers across error types. Horizontal grids stand for error types while vertical grids represent CF types.

Two questionnaires are designed based on four out of Hendrickson's five questions (1978), key questions regarding the practice of CF. The four questions are: a) should learner errors be corrected? b) which learner errors should be corrected? c) when should learner errors be corrected? d) how should learner errors be corrected? Questionnaires of similar studies are also referred to (Hao Baogui, 2009). Questionnaires for both teachers and students are the same but from different perspectives. The questionnaires mainly consist of five parts: personal information, beliefs in CF, attitudes towards errors occurring in Integrated English classrooms, the acceptability in the timing of correcting errors, and the acceptability of CF types across different errors.

If discrepancy in acceptability of CF types across learner errors between teachers and students in Integrated English classrooms is revealed through the analysis of questionnaires data, two semi-structured interviews are designed respectively for teachers and students to find out the reasons for the discrepancy. Both interviews consist of eight questions, focusing on 1) their attitudes toward error correction and the reasons behind, 2) the errors to be corrected and why, 3) acceptability of CF types across different learner errors and why the CF types are accepted.

E. *Procedures*

Piloting is done among 3 teachers and 15 students to make sure the length of time required and the comprehensibility of the items. Then revisions have been made based on the feedback from both the students and teachers.

Firstly, in order to collect the classroom observation data concerning CF types frequently used by teachers in Integrated English classrooms, the author will observe 6 teachers from the three universities.

Following the observations, the questionnaires will be distributed to and collected from 6 teachers and 174 students.

Then data collected will be analyzed by SPSS. If there is discrepancy, the interviews for 3 teachers and 15 students will be conducted.

F. *Data Collection and Data Analysis*

Data collected include 18 hours of observations from 6 freshmen Integrated English classrooms, data of 2 questionnaires for both teachers and students respectively, and data of interview. Mann-Whitney Test and Multiple Responses analysis of SPSS will be used to analyze the relevant data.

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

A. *Corrective Feedback Types Frequently Used in Integrated English Classrooms*

CF types frequently used by teachers in Integrated English classrooms are presented in the following table:

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY AND RATE OF CF TYPES

CF Types	Frequency of Moves	Rate of Each Type
Explicit correction	39	17.0%
Recast	85	37.1%
Clarification request	18	7.8%
Metalinguistic feedback	21	9.2%
Elicitation	51	22.3%
Repetition	15	6.6%
Total	229	100%

Based on observations of 6 English teachers, totaling 18 hours of audio-recordings, it can be seen that teachers employed varied CF techniques in Integrated English Classrooms and that comparatively teachers utilized recast and elicitation more frequently, at a rate of 37.1% and 22.3% respectively. The other types of corrective feedback were ranked as: explicit correction (17.0%), clarification request (7.8%), metalinguistic feedback (9.2%) and repetition (6.6%). Thus, recast and elicitation are the CF types frequently used by teachers in Integrated English Classrooms.

B. Corrective Feedback Types across Different Errors

Six Integrated English classrooms yielded 355 error sequences in total, coded as phonological errors, lexical errors, grammatical errors and pragmatic errors. The frequency and rate of Errors of these errors can be seen in the table below.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY AND RATE OF ERRORS

Types of Errors	Frequency of Errors	Rate
Phonological errors	166	46.8%
Lexical errors	93	26.2%
Grammatical errors	69	19.4%
Pragmatic errors	27	7.6%
Total	355	100%

As shown in the table, among 355 errors identified in the 6 Integrated English Classrooms, phonological errors ranked first (46.8%), followed by 26.2% of lexical errors, 19.4% of grammatical errors and 7.6% of pragmatic errors.

TABLE 4
RATE OF FEEDBACK PER ERROR TYPE

Types of Errors	Frequency of Errors	Feedback Received	Rate of feedback
Phonological errors	166	96	57.8%
Lexical errors	93	82	88.2%
Grammatical errors	69	35	50.7%
Pragmatic errors	27	16	59.3%
Total	355	229	64.5%

As for the rate at which each error type received CF, it is illustrated in Table 4 that lexical errors received 88.2% of the teachers' corrective feedback in the classrooms, which was the highest feedback rate of all the error types, while the other three types of errors were corrected at a rate a bit higher than 50%. As a whole, among the 355 error sequences, 229 errors obtained teachers' corrective feedback at a rate of 64.5%.

According to the classroom observations, it can be found that corrective feedback types are related to learner errors. And the distribution of corrective feedback types across different learner errors is revealed in Table 5.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF CF TYPES ACROSS DIFFERENT ERROR TYPES

	Phonological		Lexical		Grammatical		Pragmatic	
	F	R	F	R	F	R	F	R
Explicit correction	21	21.9%	6	7.3%	5	14.3%	7	43.8%
Recast	70	72.9%	5	6.1%	7	20.0%	3	18.8%
Clarification request	2	2.1%	9	11.0%	3	8.6%	4	21.3%
Metalinguistic feedback	0	0.0%	4	4.9%	17	48.6%	0	0.0%
Elicitation	0	0.0%	47	57.3%	2	5.7%	2	12.5%
Repetition	3	3.1%	11	13.4%	1	2.8%	0	0.0%
Total	96	100%	82	100%	35	100%	16	100%

* F: Frequency; R: Rate

Table 5 indicates that the main feedback moves following phonological errors are recast and explicit correction with a percentage of 72.9% and 21.9% respectively. For lexical errors, elicitation is the most-frequently employed CF type,

accounting for 57.3% of all the CF types. Regarding grammatical errors the most frequent CF moves involved is metalinguistic feedback (48.6%), followed by recast (20.0%) while pragmatic errors invited explicit correction more frequently, with a proportion of 43.8% and clarification request ranks the second, occupying 21.3% of all the CF types.

On the whole, teachers used different corrective feedback types toward different learner errors in Integrated English Classrooms. They adopted recast and explicit correction more frequently to deal with phonological errors, elicitation to correct lexical errors, metalinguistic feedback to do with grammatical errors and explicit correction to treat pragmatic errors.

C. Discrepancy in Acceptability

Based on the questionnaire data, the following results can be obtained: 1) teachers' and students' attitudes towards error correction in Integrated English Classrooms; 2) teachers' and students' opinions on which errors should be corrected and the actual error correction in Integrated English Classrooms and 3) teachers and students' acceptability of CF types across different error types.

1. Attitudes towards Error Correction

Items 1 to 4 inquire attitudes towards error correction, dealing with: 1) Oral errors in Integrated English Classrooms should be corrected, which can help students improve the accuracy of expression; 2) Only errors made frequently in students' spoken English need to be corrected; 3) Teachers should only correct errors affecting the success of communication; 4) If teachers correct students' errors too frequently, students may feel frustrated and unconfident. Teachers and students were asked to assess the 4 statements ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The ratings were analyzed to determine teachers and students' attitudes towards error correction.

Firstly, the normal distribution of the two groups was checked through the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. And the following table demonstrated the results.

TABLE 6
NORMAL DISTRIBUTION CHECK

Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
The distribution of Teachers 'and Students' Attitudes towards Error Correction is normal With mean 2.812 and standard deviation 0.58	One Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test	0.00	Reject the null hypothesis

* Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

As displayed in Table 6, the value of Sig. is $0.00 < 0.05$, so the data of the two groups do not distribute normally. Not satisfying the conditions for parametric tests, Man-Whitney U test is utilized to test whether there is discrepancy in attitudes to error correction between teachers and students in Integrated English Classrooms.

TABLE 7
ATTITUDES TO ERROR CORRECTION

Group		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Teachers' and Students' Attitudes Towards Error Correction	teacher	6	40.92	245.50
	student	154	82.04	12634.50
	Total	160		
Test Statistics ^a				
Teachers and Students' Attitudes towards Error Correction				
Mann-Whitney U		224.500		
Wilcoxon W		245.500		
Z		-2.157		
Asymp.Sig. (2-tailed)		.031		

^a. Grouping Variable: Group

Mann-Whitney U test revealed that there exists a discrepancy in teachers' and students' attitudes to error correction since the value of Asymp. Sig. is .031 (< 0.05). Therefore, the results display that it is statistically significant in attitudes to corrective feedback between teachers and students as a whole, which can be shown by Table 8 exhibiting the responses to each statement in the questionnaires.

TABLE 8
ATTITUDES TO EACH STATEMENT OF ERROR CORRECTION

	S1	S2	S3	S4
Mann-Whitney U	371.500	329.000	343.500	232.000
Wilcoxon W	12306.500	350.000	364.500	253.000
Z	-.920	-1.283	-1.247	-2.210
Asymp. Sig. (2 tailed)	.357	.200	.212	.027

Table 8 shows that there is no significant difference in the first three statements: 1) Oral errors in Integrated English Classrooms should be corrected, which can help students improve the accuracy of expression; 2) Only errors made

frequently in students' spoken English need to be corrected; 3) Teachers should only correct errors affecting the success of communication. The values of Sig. are 0.357, 0.200 and 0.212 respectively, higher than the significance value of 0.05. But there indeed exists a discrepancy in attitudes to whether correcting errors very often will affect students' enthusiasm in speaking English in class since the value of Sig. is 0.027, lower than 0.05. And Table 9 can show clearly the frequencies of teachers and students' responses to the fourth statement.

TABLE 9
VIEWS ON FREQUENTLY CORRECTING ERRORS

	Teacher		Student	
	S4		S4	
	Count	%	Count	%
Strongly agree	1	16.7%	10	6.5%
Agree	4	66.7%	40	26.0%
Unclear	0	0.0%	20	13.0%
Disagree	1	16.7%	74	48.1%
Strongly disagree	0	0.0%	10	6.5%
Total	6	100%	154	100%

66.7% of the teachers agreed that correcting errors too frequently would affect students' enthusiasm in class while almost one half (48.1%) of the students showed a disagreement on this view, holding that correcting too often would not make them feel frustrated and depressed.

2. Views on Errors to be Corrected

Items 5 to 8 investigate what errors should be first corrected by teachers, and what errors are actually most frequently corrected by teachers, what errors are made most frequently by students and what errors are repaired most easily by students. And the tables below demonstrate the distinct views on each respectively.

TABLE 10
VIEWS ON ERRORS IN INTEGRATED ENGLISH CLASSROOMS

	Errors corrected first	Errors corrected most frequently	Errors made most frequently	Errors repaired most easily
Mann-Whitney U	397.000	435.000	232.500	307.500
Wilcoxon W	418.000	456.000	12167.500	328.500
Z	-.616	-.261	-2.143	-1.470
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.538	.794	.032	.141

It can be seen from the table that there is no difference in views on errors to be corrected first by teachers, errors corrected most frequently by teachers and errors repaired by students as the values of significance are larger than the significance level of .05. But as for the errors made most frequently by students, teachers and students showed different opinions as is shown by the value of significance (.032), lower than the significance level of .05. Table 11 reveals in detail the frequency of teachers and students' attitudes to what errors were made most frequently by students.

TABLE 11
VIEWS ON ERRORS MADE MOST FREQUENTLY

	Teacher		Student	
	Errors made most frequently		Errors made most frequently	
	Count	%	Count	%
Phonological errors	0	0.0%	48	31.2%
Lexical errors	0	0.0%	23	14.9%
Grammatical errors	3	50.0%	47	30.5%
Pragmatic errors	3	50.0%	36	23.4%
Total	6	100%	154	100%

Table 11 clearly shows that all teachers believed students made grammatical and pragmatic errors most frequently while students held that they made more phonological errors, followed by grammatical errors and pragmatic errors.

To sum up, there is discrepancy in views on errors made most frequently by students between teachers and students. 50% of the teachers hold that students made grammatical errors most frequently and 50% view that students made pragmatic errors most frequently, while the highest proportion (31.2%) of the students think that they made phonological errors most frequently. As to errors corrected first and corrected most frequently by teachers, errors repaired most easily by students, both teachers and students shared similar views.

3. Discrepancy in Corrective Feedback Types across Different Errors

Multiple-choice tests were used in the questionnaire to check whether there is a discrepancy in acceptability of CF types (Lyster & Ranta, 1997) across error types between teachers and students in Integrated English Classrooms. The results are presented through the multiple response analysis of SPSS software in terms of these four types of errors involved.

As for phonological errors and lexical errors, the frequency of different corrective feedback types accepted by teachers and students is illustrated in Table 12.

TABLE 12
ACCEPTABILITY OF CF TYPES REGARDING FOUR TYPES OF ERRORS

		Group		Total	
		teachers	students		
Phonological errors ^a	explicit correction	Count	1	41	42
		% within Group	16.7%	26.6 %	
	recast	Count	2	59	61
		% within Group	33.3%	38.3%	
	metalinguistic feedback	Count	0	70	70
		% within Group	0.0%	45.5%	
	repetition	Count	4	47	51
		% within Group	66.7%	30.5%	
	clarification request	Count	1	36	37
		% within Group	16.7%	23.4%	
elicitation	Count	4	68	72	
	% within Group	66.7%	44.2%		
Total	Count	6	154	160	
Lexical errors ^a	explicit correction	Count	3	79	82
		% within Group	50.0%	51.3%	
	recast	Count	0	47	47
		% within Group	0.0%	30.5%	
	metalinguistic feedback	Count	4	46	50
		% within Group	66.7%	29.9%	
	repetition	Count	1	43	44
		% within Group	16.7%	27.9%	
	clarification request	Count	1	33	34
		% within Group	16.7%	21.4%	
elicitation	Count	5	57	62	
	% within Group	83.3%	37.0%		
Total	Count	6	154	160	
Grammatical errors ^a	explicit correction	Count	2	75	77
		% within Group	33.3%	48.7%	
	recast	Count	0	44	44
		% within Group	0.0%	28.6%	
	metalinguistic feedback	Count	0	46	50
		% within Group	0.0%	29.9%	
	repetition	Count	3	38	41
		% within Group	50.0%	24.7%	
	clarification request	Count	1	33	34
		% within Group	33.3%	20.8%	
elicitation	Count	5	67	72	
	% within Group	83.3%	43.5%		
Total	Count	6	154	160	
Pragmatic errors ^a	explicit correction	Count	2	79	81
		% within Group	33.3%	51.3%	
	recast	Count	0	50	50
		% within Group	0.0%	32.5%	
	metalinguistic feedback	Count	0	43	43
		% within Group	0.0%	27.9%	
	repetition	Count	3	32	35
		% within Group	50.0%	20.8%	
	clarification request	Count	2	36	38
		% within Group	33.3%	23.4%	
elicitation	Count	5	65	70	
	% within Group	83.3%	42.2%		
Total	Count	6	154	160	

Percentages and totals are based on respondents.

^a Dichotomy group tabulated at value 1.

Regarding phonological errors between teachers and students, Table 12 shows clearly that there exists difference in terms of the acceptability of CF types. 66.7% of the teachers accepted repetition and elicitation, while 45.5% of students accepted metalinguistic feedback most. And 33.3% of the teachers and 44.2% of the students considered recast and elicitation as a second option when dealing with phonological errors. Although students preferred metalinguistic feedback among the CF types to handle phonological errors, none of the teachers tended to accept this corrective strategy. Therefore, it can be concluded that the most acceptable CF type for phonological errors in teachers' eyes is repetition or elicitation, and metalinguistic feedback for students. The least acceptable CF type of students is clarification request with a percentage of 23.4%, while that of teachers is metalinguistic feedback.

For lexical errors, teachers and students also showed different views on the acceptability of CF types. The crosstab

vividly depicts that teachers most accepted elicitation taking up 83.3%, followed by metalinguistic feedback (66.7%) and explicit correction (50.0%), while it is easier for students to accept explicit correction at a rate of 51.3%. In a word, to treat lexical errors, teachers most accepted elicitation while students may prefer explicit correction. And none of the teachers accepted recast to deal with lexical errors, but students least accepted clarification request regarding lexical errors.

As is shown in the crosstab, in terms of grammatical errors teachers' most accepted type of CF was elicitation (83.3%), while no one favored recast or metalinguistic feedback dealing with grammatical errors. However, students' most accepted CF types were explicit correction and elicitation, with only 33/154 selected clarification request to handle grammatical errors. It can thus be concluded that actually the acceptability of CF types regarding grammatical errors between teachers and students in Integrated English Classrooms is also various.

As for pragmatic errors, teachers and students also showed discrepancy. Teachers most accepted elicitation (83.3%), but no one preferred recast or metalinguistic feedback to deal with pragmatic errors. However, the students' most accepted CF type was explicit correction (51.3%) while the least accepted was repetition (20.8%).

Therefore, it can be summed that there exists a discrepancy in acceptability of CF types across different error types between teachers and students in Integrated English Classrooms, which can be demonstrated in Table 13 below:

TABLE 13
THE MOST AND LEAST ACCEPTABLE CF TYPES ACROSS DIFFERENT ERRORS

	The most acceptable CF type		The least acceptable CF type	
	teachers	students	teachers	students
Phonological errors	repetition/ elicitation	metalinguistic feedback	metalinguistic feedback	clarification request
Lexical errors	elicitation	explicit correction	recast	clarification request
Grammatical errors	elicitation	explicit correction	recast/metalinguistic feedback	clarification request
Pragmatic errors	elicitation	explicit correction	recast/metalinguistic feedback	repetition

As is shown in the table, teachers and students did not reach an agreement on the most and least acceptable CF types across different errors. For phonological errors, teachers most accepted repetition or elicitation and least accepted metalinguistic feedback, which was exactly students' most acceptable CF type in terms of phonological errors. Besides, it can be seen that teachers preferred elicitation to treat lexical, grammatical and pragmatic errors, but students more accepted explicit correction. In the meantime, recast and metalinguistic feedback were not favored by teachers across the four error types, and clarification request was least acceptable CF type in the eyes of students.

D. Reasons for the Discrepancy

4 teachers and 12 students from the 3 universities received the follow-up interview and yielded some information which can help further illustrate as to why teachers and students accepted some CF types more and some less.

1. Reasons for Teachers' Acceptability

As shown above, teachers in this study preferred elicitation most among the 6 CF types, and the observations reaffirmed their actual practices in Integrated English Classrooms as elicitation was at a rate of 22.3%. Besides, the questionnaires revealed that teachers accepted recast and metalinguistic feedback least to respond to students' errors in Integrated English Classrooms. In order to explore what might account for this phenomenon, 4 teachers were interviewed. What the teachers said during the interview can serve as thick description about their most and least acceptable CF types.

First of all, 3 out of 4 teachers interviewed held that corrective feedback should be orientated at making students notice their own errors and correct themselves. Elicitation is a good way to achieve that goal, which can help students gradually realize that they have made linguistic errors in speaking:

Giving students a chance to find out their linguistic errors and then repairing them by themselves is more beneficial to the development of spoken English. Sometimes, they indeed cannot notice their errors, so teachers may help them through elicitation. And excellent teachers should make students find out their errors and correct them by themselves (Teacher 1, from Central South University of Forestry and Technology).

Besides, teachers believed that elicitation can get students involved in the classroom interaction and help them arouse interest in English learning. It is informed that actually the students do not show great interest in learning when they first came to the university after years of hard work in the middle school, therefore, the motivation for English learning need to be inspired. Thus, teachers would consider CF types which do not discourage students' participation, and elicitation is a compromising method to realize the aim.

I really hope that students can find out the linguistic errors prompted by me and repair them on their own initiatives. Besides, elicitation would not frustrate the students to learn English (Teacher 2, from Hunan Normal University).

Moreover, students would have senses of success in correcting their own errors with the help of teachers. They would be encouraged to participate in more classroom interactions.

I use elicitation a lot because students can feel a sense of achievement when they can answer my questions if I elicit

them. And they would be more interested in interacting with me, so I like to use elicitation to correct their errors (Teacher 3, from Hunan University).

And teachers least accepted metalinguistic feedback and recast among the CF types. In the interviews, teachers conveyed that metalinguistic feedback was rather boring, which would affect the enthusiasm for English learning and it could not help teachers build a lively atmosphere. In addition, recast cannot help students notice the corrected words or expressions if the students do not listen carefully.

2. Reasons for Students' Acceptability

As mentioned above, the students' most accepted CF type was explicit correction and their least accepted was clarification request. The interview transcriptions of the 12 students disclosed the reasons why they preferred explicit correction and tended not to accept clarification requests.

9 out of 12 students pointed out that explicit correction could make them easily and clearly understand what errors they have made, where they went wrong, and how they had to correct their errors with the help of teachers:

In my opinion, error correction should be explicit and direct. I just hope teachers to explain to me where I was wrong and how to correct the errors. And I don't think I would feel embarrassed. I think it's natural to make errors or mistakes when learning a language (Student 7, from Hunan Normal University).

Besides, 6 students stated that by explicit correction they could obtain accurate and professional answers from teachers, which could impress them, and they felt they could learn directly:

When the teacher gives explicit correction, I can feel that I have made some errors and she is correcting my errors. And the correction can make me impressed and remember deeply. Moreover, teachers' suggestions would be more professional and helpful (Student 5, from Hunan Normal University).

Additionally, a few students held that explicit correction could save a lot of time in figuring out the errors:

I like explicit correction as it is direct, so I could use my brain less, which saved me a lot of time (Student 1, from Hunan University).

In terms of the least acceptable CF type, the interviewed students gave their explanations why they least accepted clarification request. 10 out of 12 of the students conveyed that clarification request was vague and unclear in that clarification request did not help them realize what the errors were, and they did not understand the intentions and purposes of teachers.

In fact, I really don't like clarification request because it fails to provide any useful information for me, and it also makes me feel confused and puzzled when the teacher says "Pardon?" or "Sorry?" to me. I might consider that whether my voice is too low or the teacher did not listen to me carefully. And I won't realize I have made some errors just now. So, I do not think this way can help me a lot (Student 2, from Central South University of Forestry and Technology).

Overall, 12 in-depth follow-up interviews confirmed the reasons for the discrepancy in acceptability of CF types between teachers and students in Integrated English Classrooms. Students indicated that they most accepted explicit correction rather than the frequently-used recast, as explicit correction can assist in recognizing students' linguistic errors quickly and get accurate and professional answers from teachers directly. Conversely, the students pointed out that they least accepted clarification request since it was vague and inconspicuous feedback, which is hard for them to notice their own errors and difficult to understand the corrective intentions and purposes of teachers. Therefore, the students insisted that clarification request is not of great help in correcting errors in spoken English.

V. CONCLUSION

Based on the results and discussion above, some major findings concerning the three research questions can be obtained, and some pedagogical implications can be suggested.

A. Major Findings

First of all, in Integrated English Classrooms the most frequently-used CF types were recast and elicitation, up to 37.1% and 22.3% respectively of all the feedback moves.

Secondly, Teachers used different CF types to deal with different learner errors. Teachers adopted recast and explicit correction more frequently to deal with phonological errors, elicitation to correct lexical errors, metalinguistic feedback to do with grammatical errors and explicit correction to treat pragmatic errors.

Thirdly, there was a discrepancy in acceptability of CF types across error types between teachers and students, with teachers accepting elicitation most to deal with lexical, grammatical and pragmatic errors while students accepting explicit correction to correct these errors. Additionally, teachers accepted metalinguistic feedback or recast least to treat the four types of errors, however, the students' least accepted CF type is clarification request.

Lastly, there was also a discrepancy in teachers' acceptability of CF types and their actual classroom CF practices. Teachers accepted elicitation most to treat phonological, grammatical and pragmatic errors, however, in actual classrooms, concerning students' emotions, language proficiency, class hours and other factors, they used recast most frequently to correct phonological errors, metalinguistic feedback to deal with grammatical errors and explicit correction to handle pragmatic errors.

B. Pedagogical Implications

Firstly, phonological errors make up the largest proportion of all the errors (46.8%). Integrated English teachers should be encouraged to provide students with more CF to deal with phonological errors because the students interviewed persisted that most of them were confronted with phonological problems in their spoken English.

Secondly, teachers in Integrated English Classrooms are obliged to utilize more explicit correction to deal with all errors since explicit correction was the most acceptable CF type among students.

Finally, in order to promote the efficacy of foreign language teaching and learning, teachers should equip themselves with more information about CF and communicate more with their students to know the preferences of students for CF types across different errors.

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The Art of Questioning in English Classroom in Junior Middle School

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Abstract—Questioning in English classroom plays a very important role in improving teaching quality. It is one of the most commonly used teaching methods in English classroom in junior middle school. It cannot only stimulate students to report clear answers, but also activate students' imagination and encourage their thinking. Therefore, how to question in the classroom teaching is of great practical significance. However, there are lots of problems: most of questions are ineffective; the ways of questioning are simple; the wait-time is too short and the questions are not prepared well; the feedback to the students is too general and the evaluation is not profound and teachers control the whole class and students have no right to ask questions. So teachers should focus on the effectiveness and skills of questioning to achieve teaching objectives and make questioning become an art. This article describes how to question from three aspects of ways of questioning, content of questioning and skills of questioning.

Index Terms—questioning, English classroom, effectiveness, art

I. INTRODUCTION

With the development of the reform in new teaching course, methods and teaching practice, more and more scholars do lots of research on classification of questions. According to Einstein (1994), raising a question is always more important than solving a question. There is also an old saying in China: Learning comes from thinking, which results from questioning. There is the closed relation between knowledge and questioning. If there is no questioning, knowledge will end.

Questioning in English classroom is an important part of English teaching and is one of the most frequently used teaching tools (Stern, 1983). It's also a good way to exchange information between teachers and students. Teachers can get information from students' answers, and then improve the teaching. Students also can express their thoughts about learning. The relationship between teachers and students will be well strengthened (Nunan, 2001). Questioning in English classroom is one of the most common forms of classroom interaction.

The questioning-centered classroom teaching has been regarded as one of the most effective means to stimulate students to learn. If teachers lack good design on the ways and skills of questioning, it'll decrease the effectiveness of questioning. Because of the role, questioning has become a kind of art. It requires many strategies to make questioning effective. Teachers should ask more effective questions and activate students to think and solve questions. This paper mainly states the strategies of questioning from many aspects in line with teaching experience.

II. THE CURRENT SITUATION OF QUESTIONING

Each question the teacher raised has its own function. In EFL classroom, most teachers often start a class with several questions and wan to review the content learned in the last lesson. Some of them usually ask questions at the transition of presenting old and new contents. Nowadays, there are a lot of problems in questioning in English classroom in junior middle school. Generally, questioning usually takes up too much of the whole class teaching. Teachers raise lots of questions most of which are not effective and closed and display questions. The answers are already known to students and many of them are simple yes/no questions. They ask questions not for achieving teaching aims but just for questioning. Some questions are even not related to the lesson at all. Some teachers get used to using questions to punish students who are not listening to the teacher.

The ways of questioning are simple. Teachers often call one student to answer. If he or she fails to answer the question, teacher will answer by himself or call another student. The other students in class cannot be involved in answering. In other word, they focus their attention on the other thing, but not the question. As a result, most students have few opportunities to participate the class and their ability of language communication cannot be well cultivated.

The wait-time is too short. After the teacher poses a question, the student is required to answer it within 1 second. Students do not have enough time to think about how to form the answers.

The questions are not prepared well. When teachers prepare the lesson, they usually do not take questions into account. So the teacher raises many ineffective questions in classroom. The time that teachers pose questions is not suitable. The questions occur to them in any time and they will ask students to answer them. They ask question, no matter whether the questions benefit the teaching and it's suitable to ask students questions.

The feedback to the students is too general and the evaluation is not profound. After students answer a question, most

teachers usually praise students with “good”, “well done”, “excellent”, “good job” and other words like that. To a certain extent, it may build up confidence for students. It’s a pity that they lack detailed analysis and evaluation of students’ answers after the praise. Some students may not know which is right in their answers or whether they are completely right. If things continue this way, students will think that the teacher’s praise is merely formal. The enthusiasm of answering questions will be influenced. Some teachers get used to interrupting students’ answer just because there are some mistakes about pronunciation and words and others. It’s easy to cause psychological pressure for students.

Teachers control the whole class and students have no right to ask questions. The cramming education makes students have few opportunities to ask questions. The traditional class is teacher-centered, now it has changed a little, but only a little. Students in class are still passive receivers (Wang, 2016). They are so busy in answering teachers’ questions that there is little time to think about asking questions.

III. THE ART OF QUESTIONING

Questioning in English classroom is one of teaching techniques used frequently by teachers. It’s also a kind of teaching art which has real influence over the whole classroom teaching. Teachers adjust and control the class, and students cooperate with teachers well through questioning (Wan, 2017). So questioning is considered as an art. Teachers want to make questions effective and they should focus on these aspects below: ways of questioning, content of questioning, skills of questioning.

A. *Ways of Questioning*

In order to enliven the English classroom, enrich the teaching contents, stimulate students’ interest in learning and improve students’ ability of communication, the way of teachers’ questioning cannot be simple. Teachers should use various flexible ways of questioning.

Generally question is in some ways. Individual answer is to ask one of the students to answer by himself; group-discussion is that the group members discuss together, then one of them answers and the others in the same group can complement his answer; whole-discussion is that the whole class discuss the same question, express their own ideas, encourage and recruit each other and widen their trains of ideas. Teachers can also ask students to answer questions one by one in a group. Every student should get involved in answering questions, and then it can activate the teaching atmosphere. Different kinds of new, special and even creative opinions will be brought in a relaxed environment.

Sometimes teachers should create real situation, and make students participate in it. It’s good for improving students’ communication ability. For instance, after learning the key sentence “How much is it?”. The teacher creates a real situation: the place is in a clothes store. One student plays as a customer, and the other is a shop assistant. They are talking about something. The teacher asks two students in a pair to make conversations and show them in front of the whole class.

When no one volunteers to answer questions, the teacher has to nominate students. They don’t like nomination, for it can cause their tension and anxiety and when they don’t raise their hands, it might mean that they don’t prepare well enough. Sometimes to answer the questions by the whole class is also acceptable, by which everyone can participate in the class. As for teachers’ self-answering, it is necessary when no one can make a perfect answer.

B. *Content of Questioning*

The content of questioning should be related to the content of teaching and it must be beneficial for achieving teaching aims. The questions should draw most students’ attention and the content should be related to their daily life and times.

For instance, when students learn the new word “NBA”, the teacher asks students to translate the sentence: Yao Ming is a basketball player of NBA. Most students are familiar with the sports star, so they will focus their attention on this sentence quickly.

Teachers’ questions should face the whole students. If the teacher poses a question which is so difficult that nobody can answer it, the question will be meaningless for the English teaching. Teachers should learn about every student’s abilities, levels, minds and characteristics. Then teachers can prepare questions which fit different students. Teachers need to choose different students to answer according to different content. For instance, easy questions are answered by less capable students and difficult ones are answered by more capable students. By this way, it can fully stimulate the students’ initiative and cover the whole class.

C. *Skills of Questioning*

Every question raised by teachers must be effective and benefit for the teaching objectives. The teachers should learn skills about how to make questions effective.

1. Preparation of questions

Some teachers don’t even prepare a set of questions carefully. They even don’t know displaying questions and referential questions. And they never think when to ask displaying questions and when to ask referential questions. Some teachers care little about whether the questions they asked are related to the content that they are teaching. And

these questions can make students puzzled. For many teachers, they don't think preparing for questions requires more effective than preparing for other kinds of teaching. Usually, questions are not planned at all. They usually pose a question which occurs to them spontaneously. Such ideas are wrong. It needs many efforts to plan questions, which is just like planning for other types of lessons.

For instance, when we learn a new lesson unit 3 How do you get to school?, teachers should prepare some questions: How do you get to school? How does he get to school? How long does it take to get to school? How far is it from your home to school? Teachers should predict the mistakes students will make when they answer these questions. For example, they may not tell the difference between "how far" and "how long" and the use of "by bus" and "take the bus" will confuse them. When teachers prepare the questions, they should predict the content of students' answers, and suppose the mistakes students may make in their answers. According to this, teachers design a set of solving scheme.

2. Wait-time

Wait-time is an important factor in English classroom questioning. To make students involve in the classroom activities is the purpose of teacher's questioning. It is clear that wait-time can trigger students' participation and improve their communicative ability. That is something that teachers should not forget. Students always complain about not giving enough time for them to finish their answers. As it is known that the time in class is limited, teachers cannot wait too long for the students to give answers.

Teachers should give different wait-time according to the types of questions. They will give longer wait-time after giving the students referential questions and higher-level questions than after giving displaying questions and low level questions. That is because the former ones usually need more time for students to think or form their opinions.

If the students cannot answer the questions immediately, teachers ought to wait for a while and can also give some hints to make the students succeed in answering the questions.

The length of wait-time will affect students' answers. The question according to 2b of section B of book 7B "Why do you think their dream will come true?" is posed. The teacher asks one student to answer it and gives the student around 30 seconds to think it. The student presents the answer: Because they will work hard to build a bridge. The same question is raised in another class. The teacher nominates a student almost in the same level with that student. The wait-time given is about 1 minute and the student's answer is "Because they hope to have a bridge. Where there is a will, there is a way and maybe the government will build a bridge for them". Apparently, the length of wait-time should be longer for students to answer referential questions. The longer wait-time teacher gives, the better answers students present.

Now that wait-time plays an important role in promoting students' responses, teachers should pay special attention to the use of it in teaching. Slowing down and making a pause longer between questions and answers should be useful.

3. Feedback of questioning

Feedback can either be positive or negative. Most teachers agree that positive feedback is very useful, and they usually repeat students' responses, which usually means that their responses are excellent. After students answer the questions, it's good for teachers to give right feedback properly. The feedback should be encouraged, for it can build up confidence for students and activate them to answer next question. Sometimes they can use gestures or eye-gazing as an encouraging way. The students may feel relaxed and be more confident to answer questions.

A lesson "Do you have a soccer ball?" is studied in a middle school. When the teacher asks students to finish 1a in section A, a student is asked to answer it and he or she doesn't know the Chinese meaning of "volleyball". The teacher poses the gesture of playing volleyball with smile. Then the student speaks out the right answer immediately.

While effective feedback is not always positive. If it is necessary, teachers should provide error-correction. Students have to know what the mistake exists.

After students answer questions, the teachers can also get students' feedback how much they have learned and whether they have completely mastered the teaching contents. Teachers can adjust teaching strategies according to the feedback, and then achieve the teaching objectives.

When we learn unit 6 I'm Watching TV, the teacher asks students to answer questions according to the pictures in 3a "What's the boy doing?", a student's answer is "He doing his homework". Apparently, the student doesn't master present progressive tense. The teacher gets important feedback from students' responses. Thus the teacher focuses on the teaching of tense and asks students practice more key sentences. Therefore, the feedback of questioning is very important either for students or teachers.

4. Relationship between teachers and students

It is very important to build up a good relationship with students. Junior middle school students are still very young, they are adolescences, and they are pretty emotional. That is because they mostly act according to what they feel rather than what they think. Therefore, if they like the teacher, they will like the teacher's lesson, they will like to answer questions in class and pay more attention on the teacher's questions, just because they also hope that their action can catch teacher's eye. But if they don't like the teacher, they will not answer questions even sometimes they know the answer and some even quit the subject.

A real example can prove the importance of relationship between teachers and students. A student is punished in English classroom for his or her violation of class rules. After that, the student has psychological inversion in English classroom and loses the interest in learning English. However, after the teacher communicates with the student for many

times, the student becomes active in English class and high on answering teacher's questions. So the teacher should communicate with students frequently and get to know their viewpoints better after class. This is an important way of building up good relationship between teachers and students.

IV. THE STRATEGIES OF QUESTIONING

The traditional class is teacher-centered, now it has changed a little. The education ideal is taking teachers as the leaders and students as the cores. The students are participants in English classroom, and they should be given more opportunities to ask questions. Students should be positive in answering questions and asking questions. Then it forms an environment of student-centered questions.

A. *Providing Equal Opportunities*

Teachers always focus their questions on the active students or excellent students or students in front row in the real teaching classroom. As a consequence, it will discourage students to participate in answering questions. If things continue this way, what's worse is that they will develop an idea that the teacher will not nominate them. They will ignore teachers' questions, and some students even think they are bystanders and wait for other students' responses.

Both teachers and students think that everyone in class should be given equal chances to participate in answering questions. If active students occupy the class, there will be many more students losing interest in learning English, and they may feel teachers are not caring about them. After the teachers raise a question, they should run their eyes over the whole class and make sure that every student can get the opportunity to answer the question. Students can enjoy the success and the ability of thinking can be well cultivated.

In most cases, it is not necessary to nominate students, and then they can ask students to answer questions one by one, pair by pair, row by row, group by group or the whole class answer questions together. If so, more students can get involved in answering questions and make every student have opportunity to answer questions. For instance, when we learn 1a of section A in unit 6 I'm Watching TV., students are required to match the activities with the pictures within 1 minute. After they finish it, the teacher asks students in a row to answer questions one by one. Students read these phrases and match them with the pictures, then translate them.

1. watching TV ____
2. cleaning ____
3. reading a newspaper ____
4. talking on the phone ____
5. listening to a CD ____
6. using the computer ____
7. making soup ____
8. washes the dishes ____
9. exercising ____

Students answer the questions actively and they are willing to answer questions. Thus students who are less active in class can get involved in the activity. If teachers nominate active students frequently, the other students will ignore teacher's questions, and they will focus on other things. Therefore, teachers should provide equal opportunities for the whole students to reach the goal of questioning.

B. *Encouraging Students' Questioning*

Generally teachers raise questions and students answer them. Students hardly ask questions to their teachers or other students in classroom. They are afraid of being laughed at if their question is very easy to be answered by other students. They also think it is hard and they do not know what to ask and how to ask. Sometimes, they are not brave enough to ask the teacher for help and there are not always chances for them to conduct question as well. Teachers also think the time is limited.

Asking questions by students is important and useful for learning English. If someone has doubts on the contents or other students' answers, they should ask questions to the teacher or the students in classroom. Teacher should offer opportunities for students to ask questions and encourage them to ask question. Students are the cores in English classroom. They should ask more questions actively and let teachers know what they are confused about.

The teachers need to encourage them to raise more questions and cultivate their ability to think. If things go on like this, they will develop the habit of asking questions voluntarily. To a certain degree, asking the peers questions may be more effective. For instance, students can be divided into groups. Students in one group can ask student in other groups who is required to be the first one to answer them. Then the teacher takes down how many questions the groups have answered and which group will be the champion group, and then praise the students in champion group in front of the whole students.

It is an effective way to foster students' interest in learning English for middle school students through questioning in a competitive game. For instance, when we learn the conversation in 2d in unit 2 section A of book 7B Go For It! , we choose one group to design questions. The questions are as follow:

- (1)When dose Scott work?

(2)What time does Scott have breakfast?

(3)What time dose Scott exercise?

(4)Is Scott usually late for work?

The students in other group are required to answer the questions, and the teacher will call the students who raise their hands immediatly. In this way, students will be interested in questioning in English classroom.

V. CONCLUSION

As a second language, English is a tool of communication and questioning in English classroom is a means of communication between teachers and students. So it is of great importance to learn English through asking questions in English classroom. The study explores some questioning skills about English teaching in junior middle school from these aspects: preparation of questions, wait-time, feedback and relationship between teachers and students. There are many strategies to be researched to make questioning become an art. Teachers should focus on the design of questions and guide students to raise effective questions by themselves.

It is proved that questioning in English classroom in junior middle school plays an important role and is an art as well as a teaching method. It's also one of the most fundamental and important forms used to create activities between teachers and students.

Questioning can help teachers get information from students and adjust the process and design of teaching. When a class has gone on for a long time and students feel tired about the teaching, questioning at this time plays an important role of drawing students' attention and livening up atmosphere in the class. By the end of a class, questions are commonly used to summarize the key points presented in the lesson. Questions can strengthen the relationship between teachers and students and let students active. It helps to achieve the teaching aims. In the long term, students may make it habit to think and cultivate students' innovative thinking. Questioning plays an essential role in EFL classroom. Therefore, it's necessary for teachers to pose effective questions.

Teachers should know more about the current situation on questioning in English classroom and avoid raising useless questions. In the long run, it is very helpful to improve teachers' professional skills. There are more strategies of questioning to be researched to make questions effective. It means a lot for us to explore and research more.

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Pragmatics and Language Teaching

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Abstract—The main goal of language teaching is that at the end of the period of learning, the learners should be able to communicate in that language effectively. The main source of language is language use. The students must therefore be given plenty of opportunity to use the language. This is where the principles of pragmatics come into language teaching. Pragmatics provides ample opportunities for the students to learn English language communicatively and practically. In this study, I shall focus particularly on the application of pragmatics to language teaching with emphasis on Gricean pragmatics and Searle's speech acts. The question of why pragmatics should be assigned a more prominent place in language teaching syllabus is also sufficiently and adequately addressed.

Index Terms—pragmatics, language teaching, speech acts, communicative skills

I. INTRODUCTION

The major target of language teaching is that at the end of the period of learning, the learners should be able to communicate in the target language effectively. The new priorities of language teaching are the real uses of language, especially social uses. In the recent years, communicative approach has started gaining grounds. Finochiaro and Brumfit (1983:9) aver that the two assumptions that underlie this approach are: "that we are concerned in the classroom with language use, not language knowledge; the second is the view that we learn language most effectively by using it in realistic situations". In this approach, far less attention is given to systematic mastery of sounds and structures. Also, the focus is not on skills of reading and writing. This is because whether you engage your students in the systematic mastery of sounds and structures, or reading or writing, you are guiding your students towards the same target. The main source of progress is the actual use of language.

The implication of the above submission is that the students must be given plenty of opportunities to use the language. The language teacher must evolve a strategy of involving the students in frequent and effective practice of the target language. Dekert (1987:18) asserts that the teacher's strategies of involving the students in frequent and effective practice of the target language begin with any one or combinations of the following; (i) regular use of the language to conduct class activities, (ii) dramatic demonstration of different practice devices for obtaining functional use of the language, (iii) appropriate discussion of how people in general and different individuals in particular best learn another language, (iv) class statement of the more appropriate roles of memory work in the acquisition process (v) resolute prevention of the thoughtless copying of illustrative language samples in place of active listening to another, (vi) systematic assignment of homework tasks that elicit creative though imperfect, uses of language, (vii) frequent use of short quizzes of communicative character, both oral and written, (xiii) gradual inclusion of original communicative tasks on major examinations, and (ix) careful avoidance of test items for which fixed answers might be anticipated and memorized.

From the above, we can glean the fact that the ability to use language in a communicative way includes the ability to produce and understanding utterances that are many sentences long and to engage in verbal exchanges of great variety and that is why pragmatics is very important in communicative language teaching. Farinde (2010) argues that part of the job of pragmatics is to describe how longer utterances and verbal exchanges cohere internally, what kinds of communicative functions they perform and how they are rule governed. Its domain of analysis, in short, is ultimately discourse, not sentence.

But before going to pragmatics and language teaching proper, it is necessary as a first step to review communicative approach properly with a view to show its relationship with pragmatics and language teaching.

Advancing Communicative language teaching

It is as a result Chomsky's criticism of structural linguistic theory in his classic book 'Syntactic Structures' (1957) that led to the birth of communicative language teaching. Chomsky had suggested that the current standard structural theories of language were incapable of accounting for the fundamental characteristics of language-the creativity and a uniqueness of individual sentences.

According to Richards and Rodgers (1995), British applied linguists, then, emphasized another fundamental dimension of language that was inadequate in addressing current approaches to language teaching at that time-the functional and communicative potential of language. They saw the need to focus in language teaching on

communicative proficiency, rather than on mere mastery of structures. Scholars who advocated this view of language, such as Christopher Cardin and Henry Widdowson, drew on the work of British functional linguist (e.g. John Firth, M.A.K. Halliday), American work in sociolinguistics (e.g. Dell Hymes, John Gumperz and William Labov), as well as work in philosophy (e.g. John Austin and John Searle).

In addition to this, D.A. Williams (1972) also proposed a functional or communicative definition of language that could serve as a basis for developing communicative syllabuses for language teaching.

Another linguist theory of communication favoured in communicative language teaching is Halliday's functional account of language use. According to Halliday (1970) Linguistics is concerned with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning brought into focus. His powerful theory of functions of language is as cited by Richards and Rogers (1995):

1. The instrumental function: using language to get things;
2. The regulative function: using language to control the behaviour of others;
3. The interactional function: using language to create interactions with others;
4. The personal function: using language to express personal feelings and meanings;
5. The heuristic functions: using language to learn and discover;
6. The imaginative function: using language to create a world of the imagination;
7. The representational function: using language to communicate information.

Richards and Rodgers (1995; 70-71).

Finochiaro and Brumfit (1983) cited in Farinde (2010) outline all the properties underlying communicative approach and they are enumerated below:

Communicative language teaching

- i. Meaning is paramount
- ii. Dialogs, if used, centered around communicative functions and are not normally memorized.
- iii. Contextualization is a basic premise.
- iv. Language learning is learning to communicate
- v. Effective communication is sought.
- vi. Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
- vii. Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
- viii. Any device which helps the learners is accepted-varying according to their age, interest, etc.
- ix. Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning
- x. Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
- xi. Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
- xii. Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
- xiii. The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
- xiv. Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately)
- xv. Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology
- xvi. Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest.
- xvii. Teachers help learners in any way and that motivates them to work with the language.
- xviii. Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.
- xix. Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
- xx. Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
- xxi. The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use.
- xxii. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

(1983:91-3)

II. PRAGMATICS AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Ekpa (1996:179) reiterates that the communicative approach has some overriding advantages. One of which is that it emphasizes the teaching of fluent English. While other methods promote the teaching of accuracy, that is the ability to produce correct sentences, the communicative approach ensures that the learner is able to speak and write with ease and is also able to engage in continuous speech that is intelligible rich in grammar, vocabulary and shows a good command of intonation.

Ekpa (1996:179) advises that students in elementary and secondary schools should be made aware of the factors of social acceptability of language use which is a major premise of communicative competence. Since the communicative approach emphasizes situationalization of language as opposed to emphasis on form, Ekpa suggests that students should be taught to recognize the situations and circumstances in which different kinds of language are appropriate and should be given practice in using the proper linguistic forms according to those contexts.

From the discussion above, we can observe the fact that the principles of pragmatics are so indispensable in communicative language teaching. In order for communicative language teaching to be highly effective pragmatics is a

very crucial discipline for language teachers to understand and be using in the classrooms. In support of this, Zagarac (2002:12) states that 'it is difficult to see pragmatics as irrelevant to a profession so centrally and essentially concerned with people and language use. Teaching and learning are always mediated through language; so, theories of communication precisely expressed by those trained philosophers who have turned their attention to the practical instinct interest to all teachers cannot but be highly useful. For language teachers, however, they are of relevance not only for insight into the process of teaching and learning through communication but also for a consideration of what is being taught'.

Nunn (2006) affirms that Pragmatics is applicable to language teaching because classroom language teaching is an occupation which essentially uses language in a social context. English language teaching practitioners should therefore much more than before consider the ever-increasing variety of contexts in which users across the globe are learning and using English pragmatically. According to Nunn, theories of practice that shed light on how language is used in context and how people negotiate understanding, however different they may be in ability, culture, and status are essential to our social and professional understanding. In this discussion, We shall focus on Gricean pragmatics in relation to language teaching

Cooperative principles and their maxims according to Nunn (2006) were never intended to be seen as a set of rules to be obeyed but could ostensibly still serve as useful guiding principles for teachers. Teachers and students, as normal human beings, deliberately flout them or unwillingly violate them, but it is still useful to have them as a point of reference. The cooperative Principles (CP) and their conversational maxims are presented below according to Grice (1975). The principle focuses on four major areas- relation, quantity, quality and manner.

III. COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE (GRICE 1975)

Make your conversational contribution such as it required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk-exchange in which you engage.

1. Relation-Be relevant
2. Quality- Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say that which you lack evidence
3. Quantity- Make your contributions as informative as is required. For the purpose of the exchange, do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
4. Manner- i avoid obscurity of expression
 - ii avoid ambiguity
 - iii be brief
 - iv be orderly.

Tswana (2010:339) affirms that 'to Grice and his adherents, one reason why what is said in conversation discourse makes sense in spite of the missing implicit element is the cooperative principle which usually operates between speaker/hearer and writer/reader in interactive conversation'. Goffman (1976) also supports this by noting that communication cannot truly work unless participants generally observe four major norms of cooperation: relevance, truthfulness, quantity and clarity. We will take the maxims one after the other for proper discussion on their relevance to language teaching.

A. Maxim of Relevance

This maxim orientate interlocutors to organize their utterances in such a manner that they are relevant to the ongoing discourse: Be relevant at the time of utterance. Let us consider the following two examples from Ogunsiji and Farinde (2010: 90-91):

1. A: Where is my box of chocolates?
B: It is in your room
2. A: Where is my box of chocolates?
B: The children were in your room this morning.

Example (1) above is relevant in a straightforward way. In (2) B's remark can as well be made relevant to A's question on the ground that supposing A does not know the answer, B's reply will nevertheless help 'A' to discover the answer by implicating that the children may have eaten the chocolates or at least may have known where they are. But in the following example, there, there is a violation of this maxim:

- Kunle: How are you getting along with the work?
Dele: There is a party tonight.

On face value, Dele's reply seems unrelated to what Kunle has asked. In this regard, Dele has flouted the maxim of relation. This maxim of relevance is highly useful in language teaching particularly in the teaching of writing skills. According to Hatch (1992) in writing, only one person is building the text, trying to put information into an appropriate sequence so that the pieces most highly related to each come together. Writers can use paragraph markers to do some of the work. Each new paragraph shows a slight shift in focus so that the sentences within it relate more directly to each other. Each paragraph in turn relates in some organized way to the overall topic of the discourse.

A language teacher can use this maxim of relevance to advantage in the teaching of writing. White (2001) provides a detailed description of a course design based on Gricean maxims showing how the maxims of spoken interaction can be

applied to the teaching of writing, as cited in Nunn (2006). The qualities White refers to – clarity, brevity, relevance and sincerity- are arguably usefully by any writers. Nunn (2006) also notes that writing often tends to be more efficient than speech and Grice's theory as well as relevance theory might seem to be almost more suited to issues of efficient written communication.

In a similar manner, Tswana (2010) also examines the impact of training intervention on improving writing competence of advanced ESL/EAP students through the use of Grice's maxims of quality, quantity, relevance and manner. The result shows that training and sensitization on Grice's maxim of cooperative principles impacted positively on students' writing competence.

From the above, we can see that Grice's cooperative principle particularly the theory of relevance can benefit writing a lot. In the primary and secondary schools, students essay writing will be meaningless if what they are writing are not relevant to the overall theme of the essay question. In Twanya's study, he discovers that experimental groups taught with Grice's cooperative principles produce better reader-friendly writing which meets the reader's expectation of clarity, brevity and sincerity. Their written products were also more devoid of superfluousness often characteristics of inexperienced and poor writers. Also, for teachers to be efficient in their teaching, they must teach what is relevant to their students.

B. Maxim of Quality

Maxim of quality emphasizes the virtue of truthfulness. Interlocutors are expected to say only what they believe to be true and to have evidence for what they say. Gough (1984) affirms that when we violate truthfulness, we often do so using special intonation for sarcastic, for teasing, or for playfulness.

This maxim is also very important for language teaching. It is highly useful for language teachers in the sense that a teacher's prolixity or sarcasm could become a norm for defining or checking the maxim of quality. Apart from this, maxim of quality is indispensable in the teaching of young children. This is because the ability to take on another role in pretence appears very early in child development. Hatch (1992) affirms that, learning how to move in and out of 'truthfulness' with appropriate marking may be acquired early in life but the successful execution and recognition of irony, teasing, and joking is not an easy matter even in adulthood. The markings are not always easy for language learners to recognize. Pretence, teasing, and joking may be quite difficult for many learners. The knowledge of the maxim of quality will be highly helpful here for both the young and adult learners in these areas.

C. Maxim of Quantity

It is normally assumed that people are going to provide an appropriate amount of information but it is not always so because everyone wants to have his or her 'fair' share of talk time. However, speakers are expected to give as much information as is necessary for their interlocutors to understand their utterance but to give no more than is necessary. In speech, this is always difficult for interlocutors. Let us consider the following example from Yule (1996:36):

Man: Does your dog bite?

Woman: No

(The man reaches down to pet the dog. The dog bites the man's hand)

Man: Ouch! Hey, you said your dog does not bite

Woman: He doesn't. But this is not my dog

(Yule 1996:36)

In the example above, from the man's perspective, the woman provides less information than expected. This maxim is also very important in the teaching of writing to language learners.

Hatch (1992) maintains that in writing, some of us are very long-winded, while others are too brief. It is difficult to judge exactly how much inferencing or reading between the lines' we can ask our readers to do. We want to be brief, but not so brief that our message isn't clear.

D. Maxim of Manner

This maxim relates to how what is said is to be said. It also supports the maxim of relation. It tries to avoid obscurity and ambiguity. It is as well tries to be brief, clear and orderly in presentation. In classroom teaching, especially the teaching of writing compositions and essays, this maxim is indispensable. It is so important that almost what the teachers need on students' essays and compositions are embedded in it. Orderliness, clarity, avoidance of obscurity and ambiguity are always specified by language teachers in the teaching of writing of compositions and essays. Let us take the following example from Finegan (2014:309)

A birthday cake should have icing; use unbleached flour and sugar in the cake; bake it for one hour; preheat the oven to 325 degrees; and beat in three fresh eggs.

In the above example, what is actually wrong in it is that it does not follow a chronological order of events in its description. Further examples that buttress the fact that orderly and logical presentation of ideas is very important in writing are:

1. *The policeman died and was struck down by a hit and run car.*
2. *Dele and Kemi had a baby and got married.*

What is odd in the above examples are the simple fact that the two examples do not follow the rule of orderliness in sequence of events which maxim of manner is advocating.

It is normal to say:

1. *The policeman was struck down by a hit and run car and died*
2. *Dele and Kemi got married and had a baby.*

From the discussion above, we can glean the fact that it is very important that students should construct their essays and compositions in an orderly way. They should also make sure that their writings are clear, unambiguous and not obscure. Language teachers must be made to be aware that this is what the maxim of manner is teaching and they should always be making use of it in the classroom.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper has considered the application of Gricean maxims to language teaching. Language teachers can benefit from precision and rigour provided by trained philosopher such as Grice as an aid to understanding and operationalizing key concepts such as Gricean maxims. This study has attempted to outline the relevance of pragmatic theory to language teaching. A detailed awareness of the pragmatic meaning of maxims of relevance, quality, quantity and manner precisely defined within a coherent theory of communication can provide important insights into how to provide the kind of classroom activities and tasks that are both of practical interest and based on a sound theory of communicative practice.

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Conversational Analysis from the Perspective of the Cooperative Principle—Taking the Film *Twelve Years A Slave* as an Example

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Abstract—In 1967, the American language philosopher Grice has put forward a famous theory of the cooperative principle at the Harvard University. He believes that in the process of people's communication, conversations between the two sides in naturally or unconsciously follows a principle in order to effectively complete the task of communication. Grice proposed that people in communication must follow the general principles of authenticity, information, relevance and clarity. This paper analyzes words which are from movie *Twelve Years a Slave* based on the cooperative principle. By means of combination between the sentence meaning and the specific context, audiences are easy to understand characters and theme of the film. What's more, it is important for people to better understand, grasp and use the cooperative principle.

Index Terms—the cooperative principle, maxims, conversational analysis, *Twelve Years a Slave*

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1967, American language philosopher Grice put forward the famous theory of cooperative principle for the first time and made the following statement: any communication has its own purpose, and in order to achieve this purpose, the communication participants will follow the cooperative principle naturally or unconsciously. After that, Grice proposed four maxims, namely, the maxim of quality, the maxim of quantity, the maxim of relation and the maxim of manner. In recent years, linguists who use the cooperative principle to analyze film conversations have made great achievements. These linguists take the film conversations as a starting point, and discover the way in which people understand and grasp the world from the conversations of characters. As the main content of pragmatics, the cooperative principle has attached great importance by scholars both at home and abroad. Sperber & Wilson (1995), Wang Junmin (2008) have made a series of research on the application of cooperative principle in advertising. Qian Guanlian (1999), Feng Guangwu (2006), systematically analyze philosophical basis and view of the cooperative principle.

Hollywood movie *Twelve Years a Slave* won Best screenplay Award in the seventy-first Golden Globes and won three more awards of Best Motion Picture, Best Supporting Actress and Best Adapted Screenplay in the eighty-sixth Oscar awards. The success of film lies not only in the actor's consummate acting skill also in the classic conversations inspiring people. This movie is selected to remember the past wars and cherish the memory of the people who suffered from racial discrimination. Each of us should face up to this history and arouse national consciousness. Although this history is long gone, it still applies to those who love freedom and respect for dignity.

This paper analyzes words which are from movie *Twelve Years a Slave* based on the cooperative principle. By means of combination between the sentence meaning and the specific context, audience are more easier to understand characters and theme of the film, also, it is important for people to better understand and use the cooperative principle.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In 1967, the American language philosopher Grice making a speech at the Harvard University has put forward a famous theory of the cooperative principle. He believes that in the process of people's communication, conversations between the two sides in naturally or unconsciously follows a principle in order to effectively complete the task of communication. This principle consists of four maxims: the maxim of quality, the maxim of quantity, the maxim of relation and the maxim of manner. The specific contents are as follows:

(1) The maxim of quantity

- A. Make your contribution as informative as required (for the current purpose of the exchange).
- B. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

(2) The maxim of quality

- A. Do not say what you believe to be false.
- B. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

(3) The maxim of relation

Be relevant

(4) The maxim of manner

- A. Avoid obscurity of expression.
- B. Avoid ambiguity.
- C. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
- D. Be orderly.

The domestic and foreign scholars have carried on the supplement to the cooperative principle, such as Leech's "politeness principle", Levinson's "QIM three principles", and the domestic Suo Zhenyu, Zhou Liquan also making positive efforts. The domestic scholars' attention to this theory began with Hu Zhuanglin. He has first introduced the cooperative principle into China in his book of Pragmatics.

All of us not always abide by the cooperative principle and its four maxims in daily life. People will break the rules and lie. What's more, it also promotes conversational implicature. The following are several cases that violate the cooperative principle.

- (1) Violation of the maxim of quantity.
- (2) Violation of the maxim of quality.
- (3) Violation of the maxim of relation.
- (4) Violation of the maxim of manner.

III. THE APPLICATION OF THE GRICE'S THEORY IN THE MOVIE *TWELVE YEARS A SLAVE*

This section will be divided into two parts: Observing the cooperative principle and violating the cooperative principle by choosing some conversations from the movie. Movie has already become a part of people's life. It is not only the content of people's entertainment, but also helps people understand the world. The movie *Twelve Years a Slave* narrates a story during the Civil War. In this period, the United States has experienced a great social change: the rapid development of capitalism, which had a great influence on the ideas, psychology and behavior of the American. This movie provides us with a window to explore the perspective of American society in the nineteenth century. English movie appreciation is an effective way to further strengthen cultural exchanges and promote people's understanding in different countries. Because the film has been in recent years, there are few pragmatic studies on it. Guided by Grice's cooperative principle, this paper makes a systematic discussion on the conversations between characters. On the one hand, it is easy to understand the story by following the cooperative principle. On the other hand, violating the four maxims will help the plot develop and make the film more attractive. In theory, the perspective of Grice's cooperative principle can be an effective way to analyze the film, and this research will also contribute to broaden the perspective of the related research.

A. *Observing the Cooperative Principle*

1. The maxim of quantity

In the Analysis of Conversational Implicature and Cooperative Principle, Che Xinyu (2017) said that according to Grice's theory, people need to follow a series of basic principles of cooperation (cooperative principle) in order to achieve the purpose of communication. Grice proposed that people in communication must follow the general principles of authenticity, information, relevance and clarity.

Example 1:

Solomon: "This is the way our president left the world."

Solomon: "The whole morning, solemn bell rang through the sky and funeral mourning announced soon. Our city, together with our whole country, has been summoned to the great fall and mourning: William-Henry-Harrison."

Margaret: "Can you read it again?"

Anne: "Now can't, baby."

Margaret: "Thank God, give us food to fill the hunger, give us rest. Let memory never forget."

Solomon: "Margaret, the prayers are beautiful."

There are some conversations between Solomon's couple and their daughter before dinner. Solomon has read the news about the death of the president, which attracts the attention of Margaret, so she begs her father to do it again. And then, her mother makes a short response to her. Seeing the delicacy dinner cooked by her mother, Margaret can't help praying. Her prayer words are sincere and pure. Solomon immediately praises her due to the beautiful prayers. The conversations are concise and there is no extra information in the process of conversations. These refined words reflect a happy life in the family before Solomon was arrested. So these conversations follow the maxim of quantity of Grice's Theory. Ironically, Solomon is concerned about the death of the president of the country and her daughter thanks the Lord, which makes a strong contrast with Solomon being trafficked into slave. The conversations among the family are short and compares to what Solomon said after being a slave. The former conversations are easy and pleasant, while the latter are full of despair and repression.

2. The maxim of quality

Example 2:

Bozzie: "Hey, boy, how do you feel?"

Solomon: "I'm Solomon Northup. I am a free man; I live in Saratoga, New York. Living with my wife and children, they are also free. I have a proof document. You don't have the right to detain me."

Bozzie: "You're not."

Bozzie: "Now that you say so, take out your proof."

These are some conversations between Solomon and Bozzie after Solomon is arrested. Although Solomon's statement is a bit long during the conversations, these words follow the maxim of quality. That is to say, he is telling the truth and there is plenty of evidence. After being imprisoned, he wanted to take out his own legal documents to prove that he was a free man while the file has already been taken away by Bozzie. However, he asked Solomon to take out legal documents. Obviously, the violation of the maxim of quality appears in the discourse. In fact, Bozzie knows that Solomon has been trafficked by others. Driven by interests, however, he becomes ruthless and without a trace of humanity. In the conversations, Solomon gives a detailed description of his life, but the words violate the maxim of relation, because Bozzie is just asking his feeling. From here we can see the fear and unrest of Solomon.

3. The maxim of relation

Example 3:

Mrs. Ford: "let me see them..."

Mrs. Ford: "This is crying. Why does she cry?"

Ford: "Separated from the children."

Mrs. Ford: "Oh, my God."

The conversations take place between the slave owner Ford and his wife. Their words are short but refined. This passage follows Grice's maxim of relation. It can also be seen that Mrs. Ford's ambivalence to both sympathy and helplessness of slaves. As a woman, Mrs. Ford knows what the child means to a mother. So when Ford has told her why the black woman cried, she sighed. In such a large background, the Ford couple can do nothing but powerless sympathy. Here, the short language is more capable of showing their helplessness.

4. The maxim of manner

The maxim of manner is that the conversations should be clear, avoid obscure and ambiguous. In the play, there is often a case of replacing regular expression with a particularly obscure expression, with the following session as an example.

Example 4:

Solomon: "Ford is a decent man."

Ilisa: "He's a slave owner."

Solomon: "No, no."

Ilisa: "Because he favors you, you're blusk."

The conversations took place between Solomon and Ilisa. The whole conversations are very short and orderly. In order to make the conversations go smoothly, the conversations between the two sides of the communication must have relevance. Otherwise, the conversations will be blocked or terminated. Because the slave owner has separated Lisa from her children, she hates all the slave owners. However, Solomon is particularly listening to Mr. Ford, which was the reason why Lisa quarreled with him. Solomon regards Mr. Ford as a person who has a good heart, but in the eyes of Ilisa, Ford is just like any other slave owners. Missing children too much, Ilisa is in deep sorrow throughout the conversations. Her words are full of resentment. As a man, Solomon does not understand Ilisa's mood at all. She has no reason to judge anything in the world.

B. Violating the Cooperative Principle

1. Violation of the maxim of quantity

Liu Zhen (2011) said that people often violate principles on the basis of complying with the cooperative principle to convey a potential real intention in the paper Multi-level Cooperation -- from Speech Act Theory to Discourse Cooperation.

The maxim of quantity requires that the information provided by the two sides must be equal and mutually necessary.

Example 5:

Judge Turner: "Is it Platt? Have you ever planted sugarcane before?"

Solomon: "No, sir."

Judge Turner: "You start very quickly, as if you were born. Are you educated?"

Solomon: "Niggers are hired to work, not to read and write."

When Judge Turner asks Solomon if he has been educated, Solomon does not answer the question directly, but he talks about the status of the blacks as a whole. Obviously, Solomon's answer does not follow the maxim of quantity. Here, Solomon lies to the judge because he has been educated in the north. His answer is the helplessness of himself as a black man. In order to survive, Solomon does not give a long answer when talking to the slave owner, and he knows that a black slave would never say he has been educated. Under such a social background, black people are completely reduced to tools. They have no dignity. It can be seen from the above conversations that Solomon is both a clever man and a persistent man. He believes that one day he will be able to get out of this dark place.

2. Violation of the maxim of quality

Wang Min (2017) said that the proposal of cooperative principle is of great significance to the study of linguistics in his passage of violation of the cooperative principle in communication. In daily communication, people always try to abide by the cooperative principle. However, there will be a violation of the principle. For example, the speaker has

deliberately provided false information which is cannot be found by others.

Example 6:

Hamilton: "I am Mr. Brown's assistant, an internationally known magician."

Brown: "We're going back to join the gang. We left a few days from the circus. We wanted to perform a few games and make a little money."

Hamilton: "We have to ask Mr. Moon because of..."

Brown: "Yes, we want to play music for the performance. It's a great effort for this. Really talented people seem to be rare."

Solomon: "Thank you, sir..."

Brown: "If we could convince you to go to New York with us... Play with us, pay you one dollar a day for each day, and pay three dollars a night. In addition, we also offer travel expenses enough for you to return from New York to Saratoga."

In the conversations, Hamilton and Brown gain the trust of Solomon by elaborating lies, and these lies make Solomon excited. Then he follows them arrives in south, away from his wife and children. If it were not for their deceit and lies, Solomon would not have been a slave for twelve years. Solomon is a kindhearted man. He is grateful to the tricksters' lies. It was the violation of the maxim of quality that made Solomon's life bumpy. For the sake of their own interests, two white men make Solomon into the dark abyss. In front of money, they have no human nature. In the eyes of these white people, money is more valuable than free. They venerate God, but they treat the chosen people of God cruelly.

3. Violation of the maxim of relation.

Guo Min (2017), in the Interpretation of Verbal Humor from the Perspective of the Cooperative Principle, said that following the cooperative principle and its four principles will help the smooth progress of conversations and the effective communication of information. But in actual conversations, the participants often intentionally violate the cooperative principle.

Example 7:

Margaret: "I've all jumped here. You do it, too."

Anne: "I don't want to destroy my skirt. Catch me!"

In the movie when the children and her husband Solomon encourage Anne to skip the mud, she does not answer because she doesn't want to ruin her skirt. Obviously, she cares about her skirt. In the cooperative principle, Anne's answer seems to be little irrelevant. From this conversations, we can feel that the family live happily before he has been sold. Their lives are surrounded by affection and love.

4. Violation of the maxim of manner

Example 8:

Clemence: "I think so, no matter what we used to... Well, it's now, and then we'll be shipped to the south. I dare to guess that it is New Orleans. When we arrive, we will be sent to the market. Well, once I went to the state of slavery, I think there's only one end."

Clemence envisions Solomon's next situation, but in fact he thinks of what he would do. His innermost feelings can be realized in his disorderly discourse. The whole part consists of two different outcomes. The violation of the maxim of manner shows their position. Although this phrase is a conjecture, it appears to be a mess in the language organization. In slavery society, once the blacks are sold as slaves, there is no dawn of freedom. Clemence knows this, so he could conceive of his future fate. Although the words are a little messy, he thinks of all the possibilities. Clemence's words seem somewhat ambiguous, but it exposes the fact that once the black people are sold to the south, their situation is bound to be very bad. In the society where slavery prevails, the black people who are trafficked are helpless about their own destiny. They are like commodities.

IV. CONCLUSION

In the present situation, black slavery has long been canceled, but racial discrimination still exists in American society. For example, in some industries in the United States, it is difficult for blacks to get a very high position even if they are capable. But not because it is defined as a lower ethnic group means to yield, or to change his fate and the ethnic group by their own resistance. Death is the relief of those who are free and unable to be saved, and the consolation of those who cannot be relieved of time. The distance between life and death is very close. Some people can't bear the setbacks and blows in life, so they choose the quiet death. But those who carry their hopes are more romantic. It is easy to die; but it is difficult to live. Life is so long, setbacks and pain are the required courses for everyone. The hero of the film inspired everyone, especially words he said after he was trapped. So the film's conversations are worth studying. Consequently, film's conversations, as a language phenomenon, have drawn much attention of many language scholars.

The purpose of theoretical research is to use. The cooperative principle has caused a strong repercussion in China, for example, people have applied it to the appreciation of literary works. Through the combination of analysis and synthesis, these articles have achieved good results.

This article is a good material for learning cooperative principle through a small part of the movie *Twelve Years a*

Slave. If we can spend some time using the CP theory to analyze the conversations of these popular movies, we can better understand American culture. In addition, in the course of our daily communication, everyone should comply with the principle of conversational cooperation as much as possible so that we can communicate more smoothly. There are many kinds of conversations in real life and many phenomena worth studying. For example, the communication can not be carried out normally because of the different background of knowledge. Although the existing theories are not perfect, they complement the cooperative principle from different angles. This movie is selected to remember the past wars and cherish the memory of the people who suffered from racial discrimination. Each of us should face up to this history and arouse national consciousness. Although this history is long gone, it still applies to those who love freedom and respect for dignity.

The article is pragmatic analysis based on the cooperative principle of Grice. It can be seen that one way to expand the plot of literary works is to build a conversations between characters. Although some of the dialogues in this movie are violating the cooperative principle from the perspective of pragmatics, this is to better describe film characters' journey of the heart from the perspective of literature.

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