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A Study of First-Year English-Major Students' Basic Clause Structures for the Development of their Sentence Skills

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Abstract

This study aimed to 1) investigate thirty-eight first-year English-major students' use of eleven basic clause structures before and after the instruction of them, 2) explore the students' ability in using simple, compound, and complex sentences before and after the instruction of the clause structures, and 3) suggest how teachers should help them to improve their sentence skills. The research instruments were a pre/post test, and a questionnaire. The sample was thirty-eight first-year English majors at Rajabhat Pibulsongkram University in the 1/2015 semester. The data analysis employed frequencies, means, standard deviations, and a p-value. It was found that 1) the students heavily used structures 1, 6, and 7 in the pretest and structures 1, 6, 7, and 9 in the posttest, 2) there was a larger distribution of clause structures in the posttest, 3) the students' clauses became more similar to those of the target language in the posttest, 4) there was a statistically significant difference with regard to grammatical or acceptable clauses, though the posttest S.D. was not satisfactory (pretest mean = 4.21, posttest mean = 6.13, pretest S.D = 3.21, posttest S.D.= 3.60, and p-value = .002), 5) the students' simple and compound sentences did not increase in the posttest, but their complex sentences almost doubled, and 6) the students thought that the knowledge about the eleven clause structures and three types of sentences helped improve their writing skills. Finally, based on the findings and literature review, it is suggested that teachers find a teaching method that combines internalist and externalist perspectives.

Keywords: clause, basic clause structures, types of sentences, sentence skills, Thai EFL students

Introduction

Theory of first language acquisition reveals that children acquire language through listening and then speaking first. When they start to read and write, they certainly exploit vocabulary and sentence structure from listening and speaking. By nature, thus, sentence structure is transferable from one skill to another. Many theorists from various disciplines have either directly or indirectly supported this notion of natural transfer. They view language as an effect of society. For instance, Dewey (1997) from the field of education supports learning from doing. For Dewey, it could be assumed, sentence structure is a matter of experience. Next, Van Dijk (1993), specializing in discourse analysis, points out that the ability to express ideas can be learned from the grammar and vocabulary found in reading. Finally, Wang (2014) from the context of English as a foreign language (EFL) asserts that lexico-grammatical features, especially nominal groups, found in large numbers in reading, are transferable to students' writing. Assertions of these socialist or externalist perspectives are convincing.

A famous theory which contrasts sharply with the idea of language as a social effect is the Chomskyan Universal Grammar (UG). The UG is thought to be the core of a language shared by all languages. Chomsky claims that every healthy child is endowed at birth with an innate structure or the UG that aids him/her in producing numerous sentences in his/her native languages (Akmajian, Demers, Farmer, & Harnish, 2001; Clack, 2009; Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). Several studies support this notion by pointing out that young children acquire language as chunks or units of thought. For example, Greenfield and Smith (1976, as cited in Kennison, 2014) illustrate that young children not only acquire individual content words first but also think of them as classes. Very young children's one-word utterances, or "holophrases," imply an action, a doer, or a patient, which later develop into a verb, a subject, and an object respectively in adult speech. Two-word utterances, emerging when a child is a few months old, are at first imperfect chunks (Brown, 1973, as cited in Kennison, 2014), such as "ball bucket" and "ball small." Through modification, these will finally become "the ball in the bucket" and "a small ball."

While modification may be influenced by society, such examples by Brown show that children think in chunks or units of words, and these become parts of sentences. And after these parts are stable, that is, after children attain the grammatical word order, they can use the structure as a tool to utter an immense amount of language. One very strong argument furthered by the UG theory is that children are only a little exposed to the language but have a marvelous ability to produce language. With the UG, they can produce sentences they have never uttered before. This claim especially makes one think of language as containing many structures, which are of different levels, including phrases, clauses, and sentences. A phrase is "a group of semantically and grammatically related words which have an internal structure" (Eppler & Ozón, 2013, p. 8). A clause is "a sentence that contains one lexical verb and whatever other sentence elements this verb requires" (ibid., p. 9). Thus, "Jack laughed" and "Pat is fat" are clauses. A sentence could be one word, one clause, or, when becoming complex, more than one clauses (ibid.). Theorists of the UG claim that these structures are part of the UG.

With evidences provided by theorists, either side of the nature-nurture debate, whether language acquisition is given or learned, is persuasive, and it seems a waste of time to decide which to agree more. However, one cannot deny the importance of sentence structures. As suggested above, they are the part of a language that is transferred from one skill to another. They are, therefore, indispensable in all skills, and so they must be developed and fortified in students. When they are mature in them, they can do more with them. For instance, Yau and Belanger (1984) state that non-clausal embeddings found in advanced students' writing can

express more complex relationships. Nevertheless, in the EFL context, where the main aim of English education is to build up linguistic competence for education and business (Amad & Rao, 2013), this development and fortification of sentence structures should be a gradual, constant, or even life-long process for any EFL learner.

The present article reveals the findings of a research study aimed at investigating the basic clause structures of thirty-eight first-year English-major students at Rajabhat Phibulsongkram University in the first semester of 2015. The study was to provide information useful for the preparation of courses related to syntax, grammar, and writing, and also for the revision of the English program curriculum at the Faculty of Education. It was also hoped that the findings would provide useful information for other English teachers in Thailand to design their courses, especially those related to syntax, grammar, and writing. Curriculum and course designers should have some background knowledge about students' ability before designing a curriculum or a course.

The present study focused on eleven most common clause structures including 1) subject + be + adjective (I am happy), 2) subject + be + subject complement (Tim is a soldier), 3) subject + be + prepositional phrase (they are in the box), 4) subject + linking verb + adjective (you look young), 5) subject + linking verb + subject complement (Tony became a writer), 6) subject + intransitive verb (I coughed), 7) subject + transitive verb + direct object (Henry has a beautiful house), 8) subject + transitive verb + indirect object + direct object (she showed me her new car), 9) subject + transitive verb + direct object + object complement (I call him Jack, we painted the room green, I want you to die), 10. Expletive It (it is nice to see you, it is a good idea to go shopping), 11. Expletive There (there's no water in the faucet, there will be a concert). The study also examined whether the teaching of the eleven clause structures helped improve the students' basic sentence ability, particularly in three types of sentences, namely, simple, compound, and complex.

Research Objectives

The research study aimed to 1) investigate the students' use of the eleven basic clause structures before and after the instruction of them, 2) explore the students' ability in using the three types of sentences (simple, compound, and complex) before and after the instruction of those clause structures, and 3), based on the findings and related literature, suggest how teachers should help them to improve their sentence ability.

Theory, Hypothesis, and Research Framework

The study drew on Chomskyan transformational grammar. The study relied on the knowledge from this theory about the eleven basic clause structures and the three types of sentences. The hypothesis was that in the pretest the students would perform all three kinds of sentences but not all eleven clause structures. In the posttest, however, they would produce more compound and complex sentences and also more basic clause structures. In addition, the study had an experimental dimension in it, an investigation of whether explicit and exclusive teaching of basic clause structures can improve the students' sentence skills. The independent variable was the explicit, exclusive instruction of the eleven clause structures, and the dependent variable was the improved sentence skills.

Literature Review

All theories in English Studies as a field could be divided into two groups. The first group emphasizes structure and control. A well-known theory called “structuralism” holds that “codes, signs, and rules govern all human social and cultural practices, including communication. ...each is a systemized combination of codes (signs) governed by rules” (Bressler, 2003, as cited by Kaewnuch, 2009, pp. 20-21). As for language, structuralists view sentences as governed by the order of words, which essentially differ in parts of speech and functions, e.g. determiner, noun, verb, and indirect object (Alduais, 2012). Those categories of words are explained in Chomskyan transformational grammar, widely known as the UG. They come with invariant principles that operate them (White, 2003). Due to the principles, to create a sentence, one must put a group of words into an acceptable order. “We did the homework” is acceptable, but “the we homework did” is not. Sentences are, thus, controlled by orders. However, orders of words may differ from one language to another.

As all languages supposedly share the UG (Pesetsky, 1999), the present study drew on this theory in explaining the students’ sentence structure, in particular how they developed from simple, smaller structures to more complex or larger ones. However, it did not focus on individual words but on the parts that make a sentence complete. Thus, the sentence “I love you” consists of three parts (subject + transitive verb + direct object), and the sentence “I love the boy who played the ball” consists of the three too, but now with the direct object modified by an adjective clause. Dividing sentences into parts like this is the main task of transformationalists. Transformational grammar involves “segmenting and classifying the physical features of utterances...with little reference to the abstract underlying structures” (Abushibab, 2008, p. 302). By dividing sentences into parts, one can decide if they give a sense of completeness, and in this study, completeness was the key criterion in deciding the students’ sentence structure. Focusing on parts, not words, the present study, thus, made use of the UG, particularly in its explanation about, as Alduais (2012) points out, “how [smaller] elements combine to make larger elements or how they relate to each other” (p. 217) and “how the whole elements (S) are/is split into parts and yet how these parts are combined to form larger elements till they reach to the highest level which is the sentence” (p. 217).

In the EFL context, it is interesting to examine how exclusive teaching of sentences as made up of parts in the names of phrases and clauses affects students’ writing ability. The study can be conducted to see either how the teaching of phrases affects clause ability or how the teaching of clauses affects sentence ability. However, in a foreign context, such studies must be conducted with care. All languages share similarities and differences. For example, English and Thai share the subject + intransitive, subject + be + prepositional phrase, subject + transitive + direct object structures. These can be taught to students and have a positive effect. However, teachers must be careful when teaching Thai students English structures do not exist in Thai, such as the subject + be + adjective, subject + transitive verb + indirect object + direct object structures because they can have a negative effect.

Whether structural similarities and differences are considered or not, the teaching of sentence parts relies solely on cognition, or internal ability, and so is questionable if is convinced, too, by the idea that society plays an important role in language development. Teachings that focus on internal ability, grammar, and structure have received derogatory comments. The current-traditional rhetoric in the field of Composition, which emphasizes form and correctness (Crowley, 1998; Kaewnuch, 2014), has been blamed for its indifference in the rhetorical situation of the writing. Similarly, the UG, the focus of this paper, has been attacked for not accounting for the psychological effects conveyed with sentences and the variation in structure of languages

at a certain point (Enrico, n.d.). The focus on the grammatical elements within sentences may lead our students to produce some structures that are syntactically correct but meaningless, such as Chomsky's example "Green colors sleep furiously" (Kennison, 2014), and "Getting up early is happy" and "I have happiness today," which often appear in Thai students' writing. Being attentive to sentence parts, students may not be aware of the deep meaning of a sentence or the cultural use of some expressions in the target language. The sentence "I have happiness today" is grammatically correct and understandable, but native speakers of English say "I am happy today" instead.

However, despite criticisms of the UG, the theory does have its merits. There are assertions that grammar or sentence structures are called upon for presenting the experiential concepts or categories (cf. Kravchenko, 2001, 2002; Svorou, 1994). Givon (1995, as cited in Kravchenko, Dundik, & Zelberg, 2001) points out that the mind can keep both concrete and abstract concepts and categories, and sentences contain both kinds of them, represented by names of nouns, noun phrases, adjectives, adjective clauses, and so on. Givon asserts that the mind can memorize and visualize the form and location of concepts, be they concrete or abstract. As a result, we can substitute a word for a word, or a clause for a word or a phrase of the same part of speech or function. For example, the blank in this sentence "I love _____ very much" can be filled with "cookies," "your Italian syrup," "walking with my dog Joey," or "that you play the guitar for my son." These are conceptually equal; they all can act as a noun. One of the benefits of the UG is also the ability to create a structure to replace another structure that does not necessarily belong to the same part of speech or grammatical structure. In this sentence "Although my parents are divorced, they still help take care of me very well," the first clause is a concessive clause showing a contrast and can be replaced with a prepositional phrase beginning with "despite" or "in spite of" which also shows a contrast. The two prepositions are always followed by a noun, so the sentence could be revised as "Despite their divorce, my parents still help take care of me very well." In short, the UG clearly explains the functions of sentence parts and thus increases the ability to revise and monitor sentences. Stephen Krashen claims that English as a second language (ESL) learners always use the Monitor Device to avoid errors (Mitchell, Myles, & Marsden, 2013). No doubt, EFL learners do so, too. An both groups make use of the UG to check their sentences.

The UG alone, however, is not enough for use in the EFL context. Learning another language (L2) involves similarities and differences between two languages, and these affect the acquisition of the L2. Similarities, e.g. similar sentence structures, usually cause positive transfer from the native language (L1) to the L2, or aid acquiring the L2. On the other hand, differences cause negative transfer, or features that delay acquiring the L2 (Wang, 2009). Both Thai and English have the subject + intransitive verb, subject + transitive verb + direct object, subject + linking verb + adjective, and subject + be + prepositional phrase structures. These cause positive transfer. However, there are many differing features between the two languages. For example, there is the reversion of words in the noun phrase. If Thai words are translated one by one and placed in their Thai orders, the results will something like "center rice regional northern" and "sister beautiful my." In addition, Thai sentences are borderless (Thep-Ackrapong, 2005). There is no use of capitals and periods. Even in writing, the subject can be missing. However, wordiness can send the message across.

The differences in grammar and sentence structure between two languages have brought about approaches such as Contrastive Analysis (CA) and Error Analysis (EA). CA compares an L1 and an L2, while EA describes how errors are made in the process of learning an L2. Both approaches introduce many terms for describing the phenomena involved in learning the two languages. An “interlanguage” refers to the language system developed by the learner that contains both L1 and L2 features and that keeps developing to be on a par with the target language (Ellis, 1997), while “overgeneralization” refers to producing errors by extending an L2 grammatical rule to all members of a grammatical class (Ellis, 2000 & Wei, 2008). This error “She tall* very much” by a Thai student shows a feature of an interlanguage, the use of an adjective as a verb. This error “I am happy very much” shows L1 interference. In Thai, an adverb never appears before an adjective. These examples show just a few of many difficulties faced by a foreign language learner. Every learner has his/her own problems, systems, or strategies during the process of acquiring the L2. They may produce errors characterized as misinformation, omission, addition, misordering, and severe error (Bennui, 2008; Kaewnuch & Boonsue, 2013; Ting, Mahadhir, & Chang, 2010).

The second group of theories in English Studies involves the influence of society on language acquisition. Yet a branch of study that does not totally leave the role of cognition is cognitive linguistics. Cognitive theories are functional approaches to language teaching drawing on theories such as metaphor theory, mental space theory, frame semantics, and cognitive grammar (Fairclough, 1989; Fowler, 1991; Hart & Luke, 2007). Cognitive linguistics describes the interplay of the mind, experience, culture, and linguistic structure in creating feelings. For example, in “Our parents’ love stays with us day and night, on warm, bright days, and in rains,” the phrase “day and night, on warm, bright days, and in rains” signifies that the parents never leave, thus intensifying the feeling that parental love is great. The punctuation marks also help create rhythms that empower the language. The personification of “love,” too, helps make the expression of the feeling strong. Personifications, metaphors, and similes not only offer more possibilities for describing a phenomenon but also allow one to express more feeling.

Cognitive linguistics, however, does explicate how the mind might tackle sentence structure, though indirectly. The mind can go anywhere, imagine up a place we have never been to or an object we have never seen, and create an imaginary world. It can divide reality into tiny parts. It can understand information holistically. Turner (1991) states that the mind can visualize the movement and exchange of power on a continuum and that a person can imagine which side, left or right, obtains more power. Such a claim is believable, as everyone knows from experience that the mind can recall the location and appearance of an object although it was taken away from its location a long time ago. Such power of the mind can be applied to learning sentences, too. If students are taught to memorize the parts in the basic sentence structures and recall them when writing, they might write better.

When language is not viewed as the effect of cognition, it is viewed as the effect of society. Social theories view learning as process assisted by society. Learning sentence structure is surely part of this process. As Van Dijk (1993) and Wang (2014) claim above, learners can absorb sentence structure from reading, and readings are the works of others. A lot of theories in English Studies, such as deconstructionism, poststructuralism, postmodernism, contact zone, collaborative learning, and post-process writing incorporate the notion that knowledge is socially constructed (cf. Bressler, 2003; Bruffee, 1997; Matsuda, 2003). In terms of acquiring sentence structure, one should see these theories as facilitators because their strategies can help students to absorb sentence structure. Most of their strategies are dialogic. They support learning from various texts and encourage students to attract knowledge from

various channels, such as television, videos, movies, interviews, and so on. While these activities are aimed at building up desirable social characters in students, they are surely good for learning and acquiring sentence structure.

Procedure

The study was conducted in the first semester of 2015 with 38 first-year English-major students of the Faculty of Education at Rajabhat Pibulsongkram University. A pretest, which was writing a paragraph of ten sentences, was given to the students. The test was to find out how good they were at the eleven basic clause structures and also at the three types of sentences. After that, the students were taught the eleven structures explicitly. Due to insufficient time, they were taught the three types of sentences only a little. Then, they were given the posttest, writing a paragraph of ten sentences on the same topic as that of the pretest. The test was to find out whether they became better at the eleven structures and also at the three types of sentences. They were finally given the questionnaire.

After that, the data from the two tests were analyzed based on the following criteria, explanations, and stages:

1. The period signaled the end of a sentence.
2. Seventy-six paragraphs, thirty-eight from the pretest and thirty-eight from the posttest, were analyzed.
3. First, each grammatical or acceptable clause in all sentences was labeled with the number of the type of the clause listed in the introduction above. Only clauses that contained all the basic parts in their structures and that were not severely ill-formed, seriously ungrammatical, and obscure were counted. Most unacceptable errors were related to a wrong subject form, a wrong tense, a wrong verb form, a wrong subject-verb agreement, and a wrong adverb form; in other words, errors within the core parts or those adjacent to them were rejected. Acceptable errors were less serious ones, such as the missing a, an, the, -s, and -es, mostly in parts far from the core parts. Examples what were counted and what were not are below:
 - John reads a book every days*. √ (One minor error)
 - I had a good job, but Jack didn't. √ (Grammatical shortened clauses were counted.)
 - Students read book* together in the library. X (Error in the core part)
 - I saw John walked* in the garden. X (Wrong object complement form)
 - My cat ^ beautiful. X (Lacks one part)
 - Dack will ^ happy. X (Lacks one part)
 - Students study very good*. X (Wrong adverb form)
 - I can will to eat food now. X (Severely ill-formed)
 - She isn't* do homework. X (Wrong auxiliary verb form)
 - The boy can reading* books. X (Wrong verb form)
 - They eat* the food yesterday. X (Wrong verb form)
4. The classification of the three types of sentences was based on these criteria:
 - 4.1 A simple sentence generally consists of one clause, but it may be counted as two clauses when there is a compound verb, as in “Jack was frightened and ran away quickly” (subject + be + adjective/subject + intransitive verb). Compound subjects, adjectives, and adverbs were not counted as two clauses, as in “She is beautiful and smart.”

4.2 A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses joined with one or more co-ordinate conjunctions (and, or, nor, but, yet, so, fore). The subject and verb of each clause must be visible, as in “I had a problem, but he didn’t.”

4.3 A complex sentence consists of one or more dependent clauses and one independent clause. The dependent clause or clauses begin with a subordinate conjunction (because, when, where, why, that, although, until, so that, etc.), as in “Before he went to bed, he had done his homework.”

5. All sentences were analyzed and those that were acceptable were labeled “simple,” “compound,” or “complex.” To be accepted, the sentence had to follow the definitions in 4.1, 4.2, or 4.3 above and contained acceptable clauses as explained in 3 above.
6. In this study, run-ons, comma splices, and compound-complex sentences were not assigned a sentence type.
7. The unraveling of the sentences in 3 and 4 was conducted with a form, whose heading is shown and how the sentences were analyzed below:

Sentence Number	Simple	Compound	Complex	Clause 1	Clause 2	Clause 3	Clause 4
1			√	6	7		
2	√			5			

The findings from the pretest and the posttest were then compared. The numbers of each type of sentences were compared, and so were the numbers of each basic sentence pattern. The comparison showed whether the students became better in the basic sentence structures and the three types of sentences.

The data from the questionnaire were analyzed to support the comparison, in other words, to see whether the students’ opinions agreed with the findings from the comparison. The questionnaire consisted of ten statements; the students were to specify the levels of agreement with them. A five-point rating scale was used, in which 5 referred to highest, 4 to high, 3 to medium, 2 to low, and 1 to lowest. The statements were about 1) the importance of the basic sentence structures, 2) the students’ prior knowledge of parts of speech, functions of sentence parts, basic sentence structures, and 3) the students’ current knowledge of sentence structures and sentence ability.

Finally, the researcher, based on the findings from the pretest, the posttest, the questionnaire, and knowledge about the UG and social theories in the literature review, discussed and suggested how teachers should teach and help students to improve their sentence ability.

Findings

From the form in 7 above, the data from the pretest and posttest could have been analyzed in many ways. The researcher, however, chose to do the following:

1. Compare the numbers of grammatical or acceptable clause structures produced by each student in the two tests, as presented in tables 1 and 2 below:

Table 1: Numbers of grammatical or acceptable clause structures in pretest and posttest (To save space, some data have been removed.)

Student No.	Pretest	Posttest
1	3	3
2	5	12
3	3	10
4	1	7
5	3	0
34	2	11
35	4	4
36	1	8
37	12	14
38	10	10
Total	160	233
Mean	4.21	6.13

Table 1 shows an increased mean of the grammatical or acceptable clause structures in the posttest. What should also be noted from the table is that the teaching of basic clause structure might work well with a large number of students but not with a small number of students.

Apart from the results in table 1, to ensure that the explicit teaching of the eleven structures positively affected the students' overall writing ability, the two sets of scores in table 1 were run in an SPSS program to discover if there was a statistically significant difference between the two tests. The results appear in table 2:

Table 2: Statistical difference between pretest and posttest

	N	M	S.D.	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pretest	38	4.21	3.21	-3.36	.002
Posttest	38	6.13	3.60		

Table 2 shows that there was a statistically significant difference between the two tests at a .01 level. The p-value was .002, which was lower than .01, meaning that the treatment could make a positive change to the students' performance in the posttest.

2. Compare the numbers of the types of grammatical or acceptable clause structures produced by each student in the two tests, as presented in table 3.

Table 3: Numbers of the types of grammatical or acceptable clause structures in pretest and posttest (To save space, some information has been removed.)

	Pretest											Posttest											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
1						2			1			1	2					1					
2						5						2	2	1			3	4		1		1	
3							3					3	2					6		2			
4							1					4	2				1	2			2		
5					3							5											
34						1	1					3	1			1	1	7				1	
												4											
35	1					2	1					3	1				1	1				1	
												5											
36						1						3			1		1	3		3			
												6											
37	3	3				3	2	1				3	1	1	1	2		8		1			
												7											
38	1					4	4		1			3	1					5		1	2	1	
												8											
Tot	1	8	2	0	3	4	7	2	4	2	2		3	9	3	4	1	3	11	0	2	9	5
al	9					6	2						6					3	0		3		

Table 3 exhibits not only an increased number of grammatical acceptable clauses after explicit teaching of the basic clause structures but also a wider distribution of the use of the clause structures. In addition, the table shows that the heavily used structures were structures 1, 6, and 7. The likely reason for pattern 1 is that they had been familiar with it or had been taught this structure a lot prior to coming to university. The likely reason for structures 6 and 7 is that they are shared by English and Thai; they are SVO languages (cf. Eppler & OzÓn, 2013). Structures 2 and 3 should have appeared more because they are similar in terms of word order and meaning to Thai sentences. The reason why they appeared only in small numbers must have been because the topic of the writing, “The differences between a university and a school,” did not allow them to appear in large numbers. What one can also see from the table is that structures 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, and 11 appeared in small numbers in the pretest but generally in larger numbers in the posttest, especially pattern 9. This means that the explicit teaching of the eleven basic clause structures had a positive effect on the students’ writing ability.

In addition, one important claim that can be made with regard to the students’ sentences structures or clauses is that they became closer to those of the target language. Clauses such as “In schools, teacher* take care of students,” “It make* students happy,” and “A university is an extensive social*,” which contain minor errors, were found in a lot more in the posttest but were not counted, and this is the reason why the numbers of grammatical or acceptable clauses did not increase obviously in the posttest.

3. Identify the types of grammatical, acceptable, or recognizable sentences produced by each student in the pretest and posttest, as shown in table 4.

Table 4: Types of grammatical, acceptable, or recognizable sentences (To save space, some data have been removed.)

	Pretest			Posttest		
	Simple	Compound	Complex	Simple	Compound	Complex
1	6		2	1	5	1
2	1	2		2	1	8
3	5	1	2	3	3	1
4	6	1		4	7	
5	10			5	6	
34	8			3	6	3
				4		
35	6		1	3	7	1
				5		
36	4	1		3	9	
				6		
37	5		5	3	4	5
				7		
38	7	1	1	3	6	3
				8		
Total	213	15	36	200	11	60

Table 4 shows that in terms of numbers the treatment did not really make a noticeable change in simple sentence ability; in fact, the number of acceptable or recognizable simple sentences dropped from 213 to 200 in the posttest. This might have been that the students had attempted to produce the other types of sentences or had been more worried about producing errors. As said above, they were taught the three types (simple, compound, and complex) for a short time (around weeks 14, 15, and 16), and the instruction must have affected them in one way or another.

In terms of numbers too, the instruction did not increase compound sentences, although the writing topic, “The differences between a university and a school,” should have allowed the students to produce more of them after they were taught compound sentences. The total number of complex sentences, however, was almost doubled in the posttest. A claim, thus, may be made that the students had developed their writing skills due to the treatment.

What is interesting with regard to the types of sentences that could be a claim that the students had developed their writing skills is that the numbers of subjectless and verbless expressions and also fragments dropped dramatically in the posttest. Subjectless expressions, such as “Have many teachers” and “Study 2-3 subjects,” verbless expressions, such as “Don’t free time” and “I happy,” and fragments, such as “1 hour per course” and “Many subject at school” were found in large numbers in the pretest but in much smaller numbers in the posttest. Run-ons, wrong word orders, and comma splices were identified more too in the pretest. A large number of obscure or illogic sentences, such as “Schools have many friends” (At school, you have many friends) and “University must help themselves” (At university, students must help

themselves) were also found in the pretest. Furthermore, a quite big number of functionless words, such as “Schools* we have many friends” and “University* we have freedom” were discovered in the pretest. All of these features were not the focus of this study, but they were found to decrease dramatically in the posttest. This claim agrees with the above claim that the students’ clauses became more similar to those of the target language, though still ungrammatical.

Finally, the findings from the questionnaire showed a correlation, or agreement, of the students’ opinions and the findings from both tests. Table 5 below shows the means of the students’ opinions about the development of their sentence skills.

Table 5: Students’ opinions about the development of their sentence skills

Statements	Means
1. We should learn English naturally and that the memorization of the sentence structures is unnecessary.	2.41
2. I cannot write well if without the knowledge about the basic sentence structures.	3.91
3. My knowledge about parts of speech of words had been good prior to taking this course.	2.91
4. My knowledge about the functions of sentence elements had been good prior to taking this course.	2.79
5. I had good knowledge about the basic sentence structures before taking this course.	2.75
6. Now, I can distinguish between a complete sentence and a fragment.	3.45
7. Now, I can place sentence parts in their positions correctly.	3.12
8. The knowledge about the basic sentence structures enables us to write sentences better although English has numerous grammatical rules.	3.79
9. The knowledge about the basic sentence structures enables us to identify errors more easily.	3.87
10. The knowledge about the basic sentence structures is useful for checking errors when sentences become more complex.	4.08

Table 5 shows that the students thought that the memorization of the basic sentence structures was necessary and also that the basic sentence structures were very important for writing well (The mean of statement 2 is 3.91 out of 5.00). They generally believed that they had a fair sentence ability prior taking the course (The means of statements 3, 4, and 5 were a little lower than 3.00). Finally, they thought that the basic sentence structures allowed them to write better, in more complete sentences, more correct orderings of sentence parts, more grammatically, and with fewer errors (All means of statements 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 were above 3.00). The mean of the last statement showed that they had exploited the basic clause structures in checking errors.

Discussion and Teaching Implications

Although the research could have been better-planned and more accurate in its findings (100% accuracy was impossible to reach), the findings of this study showed that explicit and exclusive teaching of basic clause structures yields a positive effect on students’ writing skills. It can help students to write more complete and more grammatical clauses, and to produce a variety of sentences, thus enhancing the chance for them to become more successful writers. Explicit and exclusive teaching of clause structures relies mostly on the teacher’s knowledge of the

English syntax and the ability to explain. In other words, it applies the traditional method. This study has proved this method useful, so one should reject it only because many say that it does not work, or that it is suppressive. The grammar translation method is viewed by many as making students passive learners. Instead, it should be viewed useful for a period of time, for some purposes, and in some situations. Explicit and exclusive teaching of clause structures could be a remedy for a group of students, or could be suitable for a short workshop.

For the EFL context especially, it should be useful for EFL students whose exposure to English is inadequate. The literature review above showed that English education has now turned to the social aspect of learning. However, the teaching of the basic clause structures in a short time could be the foundation from which students can expand. In reality, people always need something to start with so that they are more confident to start. In addition, this claim that clause structures could be the foundation does not lack support. Many theorists argue for structure, and even many of those who call for teaching language as a social effect does not openly reject the instruction of grammar and structure. For example, Kent (1993) distinguishes between what can be codified or taught and what cannot, and he does not reject the former.

The benefits of teaching of the basic clause structures having been pointed out, it is time to think of how to incorporate the findings and theory with teaching. By accepting that teaching the basic clause structures is useful, one not only accepts that the explanations of the UG and cognitive linguistics are valid but also that one may adopt the strategies of those theories. The owner of theory, Chomsky, heavily uses tree diagrams to explain how words are connected into phrases, clauses, and sentences. However, tree diagrams, containing abbreviations of words, are old-fashioned and on the surface difficult to follow. Therefore, some other kinds of charts or diagrams may be adopted. But as the literature review suggests, teaching should always include the social aspect. In other words, learning from the mind is not enough. So, with regard to sentence ability development, students may be asked to read a text appropriate for their level and then put the main parts of the clauses they find in the text in whatever charts or diagrams they create and can understand themselves. In this way, students can exploit not only what they already have *within* their heads, a kind of education Dewey (1997) strongly disagrees, but also what they have not known, or learning from *without*, or from the outside of the head, which Dewey strongly supports.

Next, to adopt the power of the mind in memorizing the functions of blank or mental spaces in the development of sentence ability, as explained by some theorists of cognitive linguistics, students should be taught to do many things. They might start from learning the basic clause structures from their teachers. After they are familiar with those structures, they may be asked to replace some parts within clauses with words, phrases, and clauses of the same functions. In fact, this is generally done in grammar exercises, but for Thai students the substitutions are usually at the word and phrasal levels, not the clause level, and unfortunately those exercises are not intended for students to see all clause structures as a whole, or for them to develop from clauses to types of sentences. Another interesting activity to make use of mental space ability is to have students divide Thai sentences into memorized clause structures by using slashes (/) or by writing Thai words into lines of boxes and then translate the words into English. This activity may solve the problems of wordiness, subjectlessness, and borderlessness in the Thai language. And to incorporate society, students may be assigned to work together to learn from each other. There are still many other creative activities to use mental space ability to develop sentence skills.

Finally, to fully incorporate the social aspect of learning as a way to develop sentence skills based on the theories and strategies of, for example, postmodernism, deconstructionism, and post-process writing, teachers can have students study from various texts and also from the media. Just as very young children absorb the language from their parents the people around them, so students grip language from these channels. All activities conducted through speaking, reading, listening, and writing can help add knowledge as well as increase familiarity of the language. Thus, it is correct and appropriate now to say that in the development of sentence skills, the teaching of basic clause structures is the base and the contribution of society is put on top of it. With one of them missing, one will not be really successful.

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The Binary Opposition in ‘James Bond’ and the Deconstruction by Parodying in ‘Johnny English’

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Abstract

This article discusses movies that parody the spy genre. ‘Johnny English’ is one of them. Using the notion of deconstruction introduced in Jacques Derrida, the article comparing ‘Johnny English’ and the James Bond movies. Spy movies use binary opposition approach to create the plot, especially the binary of good – represented by the main character – and bad – represented by the ‘other’ as well as the binary opposition between male and female in order to reproduce stereotypes of male and female. The key finding is that the spy movie ‘Johnny English’ deconstructs and blurs the boundaries between good and bad and parodies male and female stereotypes.

Keywords: Spy movie, Binary Opposition, Deconstruction

The notion of deconstruction in James Bond spy movies

Some believe that spy movies are only for entertainment and are not embedded with social values. In fact, main character's actions reflect social values such as the scene that the main character does good things and, as a result, defeats the villain by the moral act. This reassures the audience that the good character will win over the bad character in the end.

According to Umberto Eco's *Narrative Structures in Fleming*, Eco proposes that the structure of Fleming's story leads to a conclusion that James Bond, the hero, will be sent to protect his country from destructive plan of the "unidentified" terrorist (i.e. the nationality is unknown). Moreover, among these fights Bond will encounter with attractive beauties and pursue his romantic relationship(s) with them and at the end he is the winner as always (Eco, 2009: 160). Thus, this type of plot might reflect social values. James Bond series are not only justifying the moral of spy, but also the wickedness of the terrorist or the villain.

To investigate Eco's comparison between *James Bond* series and the movies, Bond would fall into the same plot structure (formula) as every movie series does. This phenomenon, I argue, establishes psychological security among the audiences by employing these spy-film patterns encoded in motion pictures. Ultimately, it is the objective of all spy movies – the *binary opposition* of fictional agents who seem to be categorized either in "white" or "black" characters determined by their main role since it is used as the means to define the notion of "self" for the good characters, outcasting other men as "vicious".

However, we can examine the spy-movie formula further by looking closely on what is omitted or what is left insignificant in the movies. These small elements could make the concept of binary opposition in the films questionable as we might not be able to clearly distinguish "black" from "white". Babara Johnson wrote about the notion of *deconstruction* introduced by Jacques Derrida in "The Ambiguous World in Crime Fiction: Deconstruction Concepts in Sherlock Holmes Book Series":

Derrida reading the text in his context does not mean that we can read it for the literal meaning but we have to focus on the elements that are not highlighted in the story. So Derrida would be interested in the gaps, discontinuity, contradiction, and ambiguity of the text (Johnson 46).

We can apply this concept to analyze James Bond movies by deconstruct it into binary manner in order to identify the layers of the spy agents and villains who do not only complete the entertaining elements of spy movies but also demonstrate how their identities are constituted. Further, there are many spy movies that fit in this concept with the use of parody and comic features of the characters to narrate the story. On the surface, these comedic spy movies may not be anything but silly "laugh-out-loud" movies for the audience. Due to the lack of high quality and skill of the "real" spy, the main (male) character appears completely different from James Bond. Despite completing his mission graciously like a real gentlemen spy, he would be portrayed as a total fool who is good for nothing and incapable of fighting the villains. However, I propose that the comic elements of the movies are the tools to deconstruct the binary opposition in allowing the audience to question whether we can clearly identify these characters in either side of the canvass. In the following section, I discuss about the Binary opposition in James Bond movies.

Binary oppositions in James Bond

The binary opposition in James Bond movie can be deconstructed into two main sets. First set is the opposition of self and other. Second is the opposition of male and female.

a. The binary opposition of 'self and other'

Normally, spy movies will employ binary opposition concept which completely distinguishes between "black and white" characters. In James Bond movies, they clearly demonstrate that James Bond is more superior as of his "Self" identity who is the main male character rather than being the inferior one. The vicious guys, as the "Other," may include female character. If we employ Eco's statement on binary opposition in James Bond literary works and apply it with the movies, it is not necessary that the relation of opposite agents, the superior and inferior, is not clearly identify; the movies, I argue, try to avoid showing these two sides of the characters. For example, James Bond is an orphan trained to be an ultimate spy with style so that he can engage himself into upper class without any troubles and indeed he sacrifices his life to protect his homeland. Eco mentioned about Mathis, Bond's assistant, that,

They are easier to fight for than principles. But don't let me down and become human yourself. We would lose such a wonderful machine." With this lapidary phrase Fleming defines the character of James Bond for the novels to come. From *Casino Royale* there remains the scar on his cheek, the slightly cruel smile, the taste for good food, and a number of subsidiary characteristics minutely documented in the course of this first volume (...) Bond is to abandon the treacherous life of moral meditation and of psychological anger, with all the neurotic dangers that they entail. (Eco, 2009: 145)

What Mathis told Bond reflects the image of a spy as a killing machine that has no feelings for anything. With several scars on his body, his cunning smile and elegant stylish manner, these become his unique traits since the first novel, *Casino Royale*. Moreover, he has to get rid of sentimental acts of normal human being in order to become an upper-class assassin and undertakes his missions. For instance, in *Casino Royale* he accidentally drinks a poisoned whiskey given by Le Chiffre's beloved woman while he was playing poker – another mission to defeat Le Chiffre. He merely escapes his fatal death but he had made it through this critical moment and wins over Le Chiffre.

The portrayal of Bond as a killing machine emphasizes his sacrifice and strong determination in completing his mission; this puts him on the superior side of the binary poll. However, Bond also shows his emotional moments with his forever-loved Vesper and wants to resign from his spy organization; this signifies how he wants to erase his image of a killing machine to become a real human being with feeling and morals. Moreover, the movie shows that he has fallen into a great grief when he realizes that Vesper is a Russian spy who has been using him all along. This means letting alone his toughness and lack of sentimental acts, he is still a man with feelings, not just a heartless machine.

Eco also wrote about the portrayal of the villains that in every James Bond series these bad guys are either half-blood, whose nationality is unidentified, psychopath or a Russian. Though they distinctively sophisticated than the others they will never wins and our hero will terminate them eventually.

Bond represents Beauty and Virility as opposed to the Villain, who often appears monstrous and sexually impotent. (...) The Villain is born in an ethnic area that stretches from Central Europe to the Slav countries and to the Mediterranean basin: usually he is of mixed blood and his origins are complex and obscure. He is asexual or homosexual, or at any rate is not sexually normal. He has exceptional wealth and by means of which he usually works to help Russia. (Eco, 2009: 151)

Eco's observation is similar to the image of Le Chiffre who works for the Russian who has no specific nationality but only a pale white skin and his bleeding eyes. However, he is not pictured as a psychopathic queer agent as he has a female girlfriend. Another significant point of this spy movie is the idea of social classes in James Bond series. When the evil criminal is portrayed as mixed blood, he is, *per se*, regarded as an inferior figure compared to the pure blood. With the social norm that associate the upper class with pure blood, the villains blurs the boundary of upper and lower class by belonging in both criteria (and actually, we do not know where James Bond comes from exactly). The audiences only see how Bond was brought up as a well-trained and sophisticated spy. This seems like the director would like to erase the part that could hint the origin of Bond by replacing him in a sport car and a luxurious tuxedo which is the image of a spy with supremacy. In another word, this representation of these two binary opponents suggests the idea of social classes among the characters. Therefore, we cannot decisively pinpoint the binary opposition between the spy and the evil. In the following section, I will discuss about another binary opposition matching, male and female.

b. The binary opposition of male and female

In order to analyze how gender is portrayed through male and female characters, we look into the relationship between Bond and Miss Money Penny (as known as "M"), and Bond's romantic relationships with all main female characters. Eco notices a significant link between Bond and M as follows:

We can, therefore, see that M represents certain other values such as Duty, Country, and method (as an element of programming contrasting with Bond's own inclination to rely on improvisation). If Bond is the hero, hence in possession of exceptional qualities, M represents Measure, accepted perhaps as a national virtue. (...) The Bond – M relationship presupposes a psychological ambivalence, a reciprocal love – hate." (Eco, 2009: 148)

From Eco's claim that M represents the mission of the nation, their betwixt-and-between relationship can be seen as a mother-and-son bond. At first, M seems to be a tough female boss with a motherly trait. We can see how she is bossy and always complains about him, but she also fixes all of his troubles after each mission. At this point, her nickname M may actually stand for mother -- the mother who can powerfully assign her child to achieve the mission and he has to follow her leads. For example, in the Skyfall episode, M is the one who puts him back on the spy mission track though he has failed his physical examination. From this point, she signifies the power of female agent who is able to control Bond and has a authority over patriarchal system in the story. In the same token, Bond has to risk his life to protect M as if she was his own mother. Moreover, the "body" of M can be regarded as the motherland (the British Empire) that needs protection from a male character like Bond himself. Thus, the power relations between M and Bond are shifting back and forth according to their complexity and ambiguity of gender system in this movie.

Another significant agent in this film is Miss Money Penny, Bond's intelligent and beautiful secretary who helps him through all hardships and fatal quests. Despite her support for him, she is under his control as she has followed his orders strictly. Her image in the film is very similar to a male figure who dresses and thinks "like a man". For Bond, Miss Money Penny seems to be his younger brother who is different from other Bond's girls such as Vesper or Le Chiffre's girl whose dresses clearly show their femininity. This suggests that female characters in Bond's movies are in the lesser position compared to Bond and this image ensures Bond's victory (under M's legacy).

Perhaps, he exercises masculinity and his image of a Casanova who treats women like his toys as he always has the flirtatious look to seduce women for his benefit. And once they know the truth, they would end up death or being left by Bond. They are nothing but a toy, an object in his possession. This can be said that the patriarchal figure, James Bond, is superior than female agents, as Eco wrote:

The general scheme is (i) the girl is beautiful and good; (ii) she has been made frigid and unhappy by severe trials suffered in adolescence; (iii) this has conditioned her to the service of the Villain; (iv) through meeting Bond she appreciates her positive human chances; (v) Bond possesses her but in the end loses her (Eco, 2009: 154).

If the traumatized events that the female characters experience during her childhood make her take side with villains, Bond would be a savior who restores her faith in humanity and live her life happily ever after again. Eco seems to support that Bond just simply projects the sense of superior masculinity over femininity of those women. But if we look closely to these female agents though they are portrayed as weak and vulnerable, many of them become "femme fatale" towards Bond. For example, while the girls are waiting for Bond to save them, they can be, at the same time, fatal and cunning especially when Bond was fallen into her "trap" and could barely escape from it. He is, therefore, used as the bait by the femme fatale whom Bond eventually leaves for his own good. For instance, Bond takes a risk to save Vesper who is captured by Le Chiffre and successfully rescues her. He quits being a spy due to his love for her, but is betrayed by her when she tries to run away to her lover with Bond's money. Therefore, claiming that male power is more superior than female's is not always legitimate in terms of power relations in Bond movies.

Additionally, spy movies intentionally place female characters as the object of the gaze. According to Laura Mulvey's work "Visual Pleasure and Narrative Cinema", she claims that gender inequality plays important part in gender categorization in which male figures are active and female agents are passive as they are the desirable objects of the gaze.

In a world ordered by sexual imbalance, pleasure in looking has been split between active/male and passive/female. The determining male gaze projects its phantasy on to the female form which is styled accordingly. In their traditional exhibitionist role women are simultaneously looked at and displayed, with their appearance coded for strong visual and erotic impact so that they can be said to connote to-be-look-at-ness. (Mulvey, 1975)

With the link to *Casino Royale* the relationship between Bond and Vesper is both similar and different from Mulvey's notion. While Vesper is used as an object of the gaze to draw attention from other male characters in the scene – she appears in a very exposing elegant gown; she become the object of the gaze for both male characters and male audience (female audience will act as male gaze). In the same taken, Le Chiffre uses his woman to fight with Bond as she

slips a poison in Bond's drink and she also dresses in the same manner as Vesper does – showing her boy... her “fatal” femininity.

However, as Mulvey suggested about male gaze, there is one scene where Bond becomes the object of the gaze in which he is slowly emerged from the ocean. Thanks for the creative use of light, the camera works almost freeze upon his body in order to capture his muscular body that also captures everyone's attention in and out of screen. This does not completely differ from the scene where Vesper elegantly dresses up and puts make up upon her face while the camera also shows how Bond suits up his style as well. From the comparison of these two dressing scenes, I propose that the object of the gaze and desire is not applicable on female characters only, but also projected through male bodies as well. From all of this, the relationships between Bond and his girls: Miss Money Penny and other female characters are not completely a binary opposition; rather it is an ambiguous phase where both genders challenge and support each other systematically. In the following section, I discuss about another spy film ‘Johnny English’ as **the deconstruction by parodying**

The Application of Parody as Binary Deconstruction in Johnny English

Another spy movie that will be discussed in this paper is Johnny English (2003), directed by Peter Howitt, a former comedy actor who has later changed career path to a director. He employs the comedic elements as the highlights in his movies. Moreover, in the making of this film, he was inspired by the James Bond movie series as he gave an interview with BBC that “I am [a fan of James Bond]. Not as much as when I was a kid, but that's understandable. I think that the James Bond films have become a little bit samey and have slightly run out of ideas, after 20 years”. From this conversation, it can be argued that Howitt, perhaps, would like to add more colors and freshness in the movie he directed (Johnny English) which was inspired by the 007 series. For more than two decades, spy movies become popularized and formularized, so he believes, I propose, adding comedic features to this film genre would make Johnny English a parody of spy movies. And this concept of parody is the key of the binary opposition of the traditional spy movies.

This movie is the story of Johnny English who was assigned to search and serve information for the “real” spies. He admired a spy named 001 (Double O One) so much and after 001's death on his mission, many spies were brutally killed in a blast. From this unfortunate event, English accidentally becomes a real spy for a mission on protecting the Queen's crown from the villains. He registers his new identity with his boss, Pegasus, and was assigned to guard the exhibition of the crown in Pascal Sauvage's place. He is a wealthy French man who owns several prisons in many countries and also relates to British royal family. In Sauvage's palace, English meets a mysterious girl named Lorna Campbell whom English gazes his eyes upon and wants to know her. But when it is the time to show the crown to the audience, it is missing from its place. Then, English and his right-hand man Bough try to tell Pegasus that Sauvage is behind all of this. Not only assuming English's claim is nonsensical, he also dismisses English from this mission. Later, Lorna reveals that she is also a spy while she is saving English and Bough. Lorna does her best to reveal Sauvage's plan and eventually arrests him.

Many features in this movie is a parody to all of James Bond series where Pegasus is M, English represents Bond and Sauvage who is a mixed-blood villain. Moreover, the mission English is assigned for is related with British national security which is very similar to Fleming's works. However, the comic elements in Johnny English challenge the traditional binary opposition and blurs the line of the good and bad -- the hero and the underdog.

As I mentioned in the previous section, male secret agents are usually portrayed as a strong, well-trained and smart killing machine who is programmed to sacrifice their life for country, but Johnny English is absolutely opposite to these characteristics as we can see from the opening scene in which he is daydreaming of being a real spy by mimicking his colleagues' posture and gesture and eventually his dream comes true despite his lack of "quality" of being a good secret agent. He is promoted to be in a real mission very easily due to the mishap event. This demonstrates that the glory and standard of spy agency is lowered when the really spies are actually get killed easily and tackles the normative spy movies like James Bond, the undefeatable.

With eco's proposition on how male spy is portrayed as a heartless killing machine which can sacrifice things to complete his mission, Johnny English is totally different from these agents; he shows all emotions as we can see in several scenes in which he shows his foolish side when he makes a mistake. For example, he satyrizes Sauvage when they first meet, he is fooling around in a man's funeral, he mistakes the doctor and nurses as Sauvage's men, and even he accidentally pinches himself with muscle relaxant. These cemedic scenes always occur during English committing ridiculous deeds. Thus, he signifies the "real" human being who can make mistake unlike the perfect Bond who will never fails at anything.

All the scenes that depict English's failure reflect the parody elements of this film with several interesting camera works. To explain this, the director always places English standing towards the audience while all the "foolish" events happen behind his back. This is the irony found in this film when the English's audience (in and out of the screen) know that he would make another mistake before he even realizes that as he is actually turning his back against his "mission". Therefore, the picturization tackles the idea of a near-perfect secret male agent. Moreover, English comedic manner reflects this irony when he says "you are in the safest area in England" and then a bomb explodes. He also unknowingly turns his back towards the villains when they try to steal the crown and lastly English mistakenly jumps on the wrong building and arrests doctor and nurses; the scene shows that SAUVAGE building is right behind him.

For the criminal's depiction, Pascal Sauvage, I tend to compare eco's statement on the villains in traditional spy movies and those in Johnny English. In this context, Sauvage seems to be different from what eco wrote on his work; Sauvage's physical appearance does not obviously project his vicious manner in the first place. He appears with hospitality and generosity in the scene when he does not hold a grudge after being insulted by English in his exhibition. He does not physically reveal his disturbed psychological behavior in the public. In other words, he is portrayed as a well-mannered French man – an ancient enemy of Great Britain, and is also related to English royal blood. Howeve, in the movie the fact that he is a relative of the Queen is not truly emphasized since in the scene where he falls from the crown and English takes his place. The way that the crowds in the hall rejoice in happiness suggests that British people are not very happy with the idea that the French rule their country though they sees how English makes several foolish mistakes. Eventually, Sauvage is called a maniac which is contrast to his well manner in the very first scene. It is as if his relation to the British royalty is omitted from the story by blaming him for his psychopathic disorder which is not different from how the British Empire destroyed the invader who threatens the greatness of this country.

To investigate in the gender of the characters in this movie, it shows that the relations between male and female agent is not entirely a list of binary contrast where masculinity has more authoritative power than femininity. For English, he is depicted as a joke from the start: Sauvage told him says that English was funny; and Sauvage's henchman Vendetta calls him "idiot". This illustrates English's lack of proper masculinity that can really threaten the villains. If

we take a look more closer on his portrayal in every fight scene where he has to use a gun, he absurdly never fires his shots that is contrast to the image of traditional male secret agent in other movies that they all are able to use their phallic weapon signifying phallus and the toughness of masculinity of that particular person. Thus, the main reason why he cannot use his gun symbolically means that he cannot appropriately exercises his masculinity that is weakened and castrated.

Likewise, there is no a single scene in this movie that shows how English uses his physicality to defeat his enemies by himself alone. He is an opposite image of James Bond who can totally win over the bad guys with his marvelous strength. In the contrary, Johnny English displays his comic (foolish) acts throughout the film from capturing the wrong guy to singing in the restroom like a clown in the beginning of the story. All these elements complete the film's mission on entertaining the audience in every way; meanwhile, demystifying an unrealistic image of a "killing machine" who cannot be defeated at all.

Another important point of this film is how English, as well, is depicted as the object of the gaze. We will see this concept when Sauvage secretly installs surveillance camera in English's room to spy on him and he shows the footage to his men. Watching him imitating a fighting gesture in the toilet, seeing him being insulted by his boss and collapsing on the ground, Sauvage observes him in every manner through this surveillance eyes. Or when English mistakenly grabs the wrong footage and plays it in the ceremony. Everyone across the world sees him acting crazily on the camera and laughs at him when he dances with the song "Does Your Mother Know?" of ABBA. According to Mulvey, these scenes demonstrate how English become the object of the gaze instead of other female characters. When he tried to show his masculinity on his camera (like Bond does in every movie), we see only his skinny and unattractive physicality of a middle-aged man. English, at this point, replaces femininity in terms of being the object of the gaze and the agent who is weak, incapable, and inferior compared to other male figures in this film.

Referring to Bough, English's sidekick who always supports him to undergo his mission. We will see that English has to have a partner with him all the time which is very different from what we perceive James Bond, a lone wolf who takes fatal risks all by himself. Meanwhile English and Bough are lessened their manliness and transform into two idiots who do not know anything. Instead of solving the crime, both of them make things more complicated due to their lack of intellect though eventually they manage to complete their task. However, it is only because of luck; English does not really have to fight with Sauvage directly.

In addition, the main female character, Lorna, is a well-trained, sophisticated and attractive young female agent whose qualification equals to "traditional" image of male spies and she seems to be much superior than English in every way. She rides a big motorcycle, fights with several men as if she was a man. And in this film, it is Lorna only who can do all of those actions. Lorna, here, borrows the masculinity to protect English and Bough. Her entity is equal (or even superior) to male characters in this story. Further, when she appears in her nice and beautiful outfits. The clothes do not reveal her body like other female object of desire. According to Laura Mulvey, female character will interrupt the narratives of the story as she said:

The presence of woman is an indispensable element of spectacle in normal narrative film, yet her visual presence tends to work against the development of a story line, to freeze the flow of action in moments of erotic contemplation. This alien presence then has to be integrated into cohesion with the narrative. (Mulvey, 1975)

Mulvey asserted that how female character appears on the screen, sometimes, interrupt the flow of the story, but in Johnny English this female character's trait is slightly different from Mulvey's concept. In other words, Lorna, a young, smart and gorgeous woman, has never been seen as a girl in her dressing room or the desirable object of male gaze. She is always helping and saving English's life all the time. Moreover, she can be seen in fight scenes in which she actually uses her physical strength to defeat the enemies. When she appears, she is not made as a to-be-look-at-ness body for other characters as well as the audience. Since in this spy movie, she is absolutely not objectified by male gaze; she is the one who drives the story when she is capable of saving English from being killed by Sauvage's men.

In conclusion, some may believe that spy movies are the movie genre which made only for entertaining. When Babara Johnson applied Jacque Derrida 's theory of using the notion of deconstruction, she focused on some elements which not literally appear in text. Thus, I use similar approach in applying this theory to James Bond movies which focusing on the contradiction and ambiguity of the characters.

The binary opposition of self and other In James Bond movies clearly demonstrate that James Bond is more superior as of his "Self" identification who is the main male character rather than being the inferior one. James Bond is the vicious guys, while all female characters are the "Other" If we analyzed closely in the binary opposition of male and female, we can see the ambiguous elements in relationship between male and female character. In their relationship we usually see that male character is more superior than female character but also male character must get help from female character in order to achieve the mission.

The parody film, Johnny English, has employed all comic elements that have been embedded in the story which project the idea of a binary opposition of characters' representation in traditional spy movies. These features both challenge and endorse the notion of deconstruction and binary opposition so that we cannot completely pinpoint and categorize them into the binary formula: good vs bad, black vs white, or even male vs female. And if we compare James Bond movie series, the spy movies which produced in traditional patterns where the spies are completely superior to the villain and male characters are more important than female agents.

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Capturing the Ambivalence: The Non Creative Fiction as an Emergent Literary Form in Philippine Migration Literature

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Abstract

Migration has come to play an increasingly significant role in basic social foundations such as politics, economics, geography and culture. Movement of people has had a remarkable effect on literature as well. The development of a new kind of writing called migration literature is a manifestation of this impact. Themes and issues of home, identity, alienation, nationalism and hybridity have always characterized migration literature. The nature of ambivalence encompasses all of these concepts, necessitating their definition and conceptualization. As this kind of literature develops, new forms or genres also emerge. Creative nonfiction, with its nonconformity to traditional forms and with which cannot be categorized according to the rigidity of formalism, captures the ambivalence of the migrants' experiences and affirms the authors' identity as migrants as they straddle two spaces of conflicting cultures. The narratives of migration can be best captured in this emergent form and in the process, ambivalence can have meaning and forms of its own. Thus, literary forms are not only products of creative processes but are influenced by and outcomes of cultural processes as well.

Keywords: Creative nonfiction, Philippine Migration Literature, international migration

Employing Online Interactions in English Critical Reading Classroom

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Abstract

With the multilingual societies at the present time, English plays the most important roles to communicate to one another. Similarly, the rapid advancement of technology, innovation of English language learning with diverse instruction both synchronous and asynchronous techniques is promoted and implemented in order to encourage the students to achieve their learning. Moreover, it is really important for all teachers to find out the ways to encourage them to learn both inside and outside the classroom. For reading instruction, even it is a passive skill, it can develop to be active and interesting. That is why interactivity is promoted to reading classroom with the reason to promote the students reading ability. For critical reading, it is quite important if the students can generate, discuss, and exchange their ideas with the others. With this in mind, online interactions were employed in this study. The instruments used for this study were: the observation note, the pre- and post- tests, and the focus group interview. The results of this study showed that during the teaching and learning process, the students were satisfied with the activities the teacher employed online interactions. They were enthusiastic to read, discuss, and exchange their ideas with their peers. They had more flexibility to make understanding with the reading texts. They revealed that they could perform their understanding to the whole class and were brave to share and brainstorm their ideas. Moreover, they could apply their critical reading skills to the authentic environment. When the lessons were completed, it was found that the results of employing online interactions in English critical reading classroom comparing between pre- and post-tests met the significance level .05. That meant the online interactions were effective to the English critical reading classroom. They are also supported the students critical reading skills. In addition, online interactivities are enhanced the students' English critical reading ability. Moreover, online interactivities make the classroom flexibility, affordances, and autonomy.

Keywords: Online Learning, Interactions, Critical Reading

1. Introduction

In the midst of the world change of globalization, education is one of the important factors to develop the country and add people's quality of lives. With this circumstance, education, together with, teaching and learning methodologies, especially, are developed rapidly. This makes technologies emerge and play the most significant role in all educational aspects. Spears et al. (2012, p. 7) supported that technologies make it possible to collect and exchange information with peers, to interact with others while maintaining anonymity; to experiment with new identities, to develop a sense of community and to explore social acceptance.

Apart from that, computers or other technological tools are increasingly a part of students' lives; meanwhile, they are also used by teachers to deliver instruction. This is because they play an essential role in how individual work, live, and learn (Shelly et al., 2004, p. 1.01). For students, themselves, operating in the computer-driven environment is challenging and supportive. They seem to be flexible and convenient to access what they need to learn via technology. Similarly, teachers are also applied technology into their classroom in order to respond the students' desire and support their students' learning achievement.

Online learning is one of the popular and effective choices to use in the classroom. In order to design online instruction, one of the important components to be considered is interactivity. It can be prominently seen that one of the key components of good teaching and learning online is interaction (Woo and Reeves, 2008, p. 180). Apart from that, Juwah (2006, p. 1) mentioned that interactivity has been performed as the key success factors underpinning the pedagogy of online education. Moreover, it helps contextualize and authenticate learning and to promote reflection.

Many studies identified that frequent, meaningful, and 'just in time' planned interactivity in an online course helps to keep students motivated and to make them feel like part of a learning community. Besides, interactivity is the best supported the student's ability to create their own knowledge and responds to all different learning styles (Cannell, 2012, p. 2). It is also supported the students to select their educational material and study at the place, time and pace that suits them as individuals, enabling them to be active learners (Palacios and Evans, 2013, p. 1).

Furthermore, Su et al. (2005, p. 14) concluded that interaction, in all its varied formats, is perceived as an effective means for learning. Students tend to vary in their preferences about additional interaction in their online courses. Such variations tend to be related to individual personalities or learning style differences.

2. Getting to Know Interactivity for Online Instruction

There are many ways to define the interactivity for online instruction. First of all, interactivity can be defined as the level of communication and participation as well as feedback between learners and instructors (Mahle, 2007, p. 47). As similar to Savenye (2005, unpagged), it can be considered to be communication among the participants in the course, especially the students and the instructor. Moreover, Muirhead (2000 as cited in Muirhead and Juwah, 2004, p. 13), the interactivity which refers to communication, participation, and feedback involves participation by the learner in online communication with other learners and with their instructors.

Heeter (1989, 2000) and Liu & Shrum (2002, as cited in Lustria (2007, p. 767) added more similar idea that, with different aspects to define the interactivity, it can be based on three main dimensions: reciprocity/communication exchange, active user control, and synchronicity. First, reciprocity or communication exchange can be referred to the ability of media to allow two-way interaction through feedback input devices, and means to communicate with the system, other users, or with the content providers. Next, active user control represents the ability of the media to allow the user active control over their online experience. Lastly, synchronicity can be referred to the amount of time it takes for the system to allow feedback (Lustria 2007, p. 767).

There have been many researches to supplement that interactivity in online instructional environment is considered to play a significant role in student learning and referred to as a significant component for successful online learning (Mahle, 2011, p. 207). Moreover, Zundel (2006, p. 122) believed that in order to make online instruction effective and interesting, it is important to integrate interactivity which can enhance the students' learning.

There are several ideas to classify the interactivity in online instruction. Most of the researchers designed it in different ways. However, three types of interactivity were mainly focused on: student, teacher, and content. Each category leads to encourage students to be active learners and have successful learning. This was supported by Moore (1989, as cited in Bernard et al, 2011, pp. 82-103) who disclosed that there were three types of interactivity which are student-student (SS), student-teacher (ST), and student-content (SC). For SS interaction, it is the interaction among individual students or among students working in small groups. It can be both synchronous and asynchronous. Meanwhile, ST interaction refers to a focus on classroom-based dialogue between students and the instructor. It can be synchronous and asynchronous. Last but not least, SC interaction refers to students interacting with the subject matter under study to construct meaning, relate it to personal knowledge, and apply it to the problem solving.

3. How to Employ Interactivity in Online English Reading Classroom

In order to support the interactivity in the online classroom, it is important to concentrate on the technologies which can be used to order to enhance each category of interactivity in online classroom. There are some researchers who recommend the appropriate technologies in the online instruction.

Firstly, Ngwenya, Annand and Wang introduced more technologies that support each type of interaction in online learning environments in the year 2004. The first type is student to student which can be facilitated by the use of e-mail, telephone/pager/voice mail/online chat. Second, teleconference, desktop audio, video conferencing, class e-mail, discussion boards, and computer conferencing can be used to support student to class type. The third type is instructor to class which can be applied by teleconference, videoconference, class e-mail, discussion board, and computer conferencing. The last one is student to instructor type which can use online chat, telephone, pager, voice mail, and e-mail to facilitate.

Furthermore, Su et al (2005, p. 4) showed some technologies that can highly promote interaction in web-based course: textbooks; multimedia that combines text, images, and audio either through Internet or CD Rom; streaming audio and video; and synchronous and asynchronous communication tools, such as discussion boards, instant messaging, and voice chatting, and file-sharing (McGreal, 2004).

It can be concluded that the technologies used in online learning environments are various, so there would be really necessary to choose them differently and place them appropriately to each type of interaction for effective online classroom.

4. Purposes of the Study

The purposes of the study were as follows:

1. to explore how online interactions enhance the students' English critical reading ability.
2. to study the result of employing online interactions in English critical reading ability.

5. Methodology

Participants

The population of the study was undergraduate students at Mae Fah Luang University. The samples were 100 first year students who studied Upper Intensive English course at Mae Fah Luang University in the first semester, academic year 2016. This course was held before the first semester started during June 27-Aug 8, 2016. All of them were non-English major students and they were selected by purposive sampling based on the classes assigned for the researcher by the University registrar's office.

Research Instruments

For this study, there were three instruments: the observation note, the pre- and post- tests, and focus group interview.

1. The observation note

It was designed in order to investigate how online interactions are promoted in English critical reading classroom. The format of the observation note was open-ended items to note down whether three interactivities: SS, ST, and SC were powered up.

2. The pre- and post- tests

They were designed in the form of multiple choices consisting of four reading texts with thirty questions evaluating the students' critical reading ability. The questions used in the test were involved with the topics of the course of Upper Intensive English. And the test was used for both pre- and post- tests with three-hour period of time. There were topics to be evaluated based on the course as shown in the followings:

Topic 1: Making Inferences

Topic 2: Identifying Writer's Purposes

Topic 3: Differentiating between facts and opinions

Topic 4: Analyzing tone and attitudes

Topic 5: Understanding figurative languages

3. The focus group interview

It was designed for eliciting the information from the students about applying online interactions in English critical reading classroom. The interview topics were formed into questions. The areas of questions were involved with their attitudes towards applying online interactions in English critical reading classroom.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

Three types of instruments were evaluated by the experts. For the observation note and the focus group interview, the experts were asked to evaluate the topics used, the completeness of the topics, and the appropriateness of language use. For the pre- and post- tests, they were asked to ensure the content validity and the appropriateness of language use. Then, they all revised before collecting the data.

6. Data Collection

For the study, there were four steps to be followed:

Step 1: Before the classroom began

The teacher presented the instructional process to all students focusing on the amounts of the weeks they must be attended (during June 27-Aug 8, 2016) and the ways that they students could participate in the English critical reading classroom. The students were assigned to read six online articles in the classroom via their smartphones or laptops. That meant one online article was read per one week. They could apply their smartphones or laptops with them. Before studying, the pre-test was administered to all students in order to evaluate their critical reading ability.

Step 2: During the classroom

The students were assigned to read one article in the classroom. During the reading process, they have freedom to spend their time concentrating the article. They could talk to the teacher, peers, or even study by themselves. This could be for the teacher to encourage three interactivities: SS, ST, and SC interactivities) to be applied for. During the teaching and learning in the classroom, the observation note was employed in order to evaluate their learning performances in the classroom. The teacher was observed their performances and wrote down after the classroom was finished in every week.

Step 3: After the classroom

The post-test was also administered to all students after they completed their lessons. After they completed their six lessons, the post test was distributed to them. Moreover, they formed as a small group to have a focus group interview expressing their opinions towards the interactivities they used in the classroom.

7. Data Analysis and Statistical Procedures

1. Observation Note

The content from the observation note about how the interactivity was promoted in English critical reading classroom was analyzed by categorizing with the similarities and differences and summarizing.

2. Pre- and Post-Tests

The post-test was similar to the pre-test. The data obtained from the pretest and posttest was statistically analyzed by arithmetic mean, standard deviation, and t-test in order to compare the differences in reading ability before and after promoting interactivities in English critical reading classroom. In case the score of the post-test is higher than the score of pre-test, it was described that the students gained their critical reading achievement. In addition, the data obtained from the pre-test and post-test showed the students' critical reading ability based on topics used in the course.

3. Focus group interview

The data obtained from the focus group interview involving their opinions towards the interactivities they used in the classroom was analyzed with content by categorizing with the similarities and differences and summarizing

8. Results

There were two findings found in this study:

1. To explore how online interactivities enhance the students' English critical reading ability.

According to the observation note, it was obviously noticed that the students had flexibility to make understanding with the reading texts. They expressed that they felt more comfortable to generate their ideas with their peers in class. When they were hesitated, they could absolutely ask their teacher to explain and answer their questions. Moreover, in some situations, they could check their understanding with their friends. And they also could explain for those who did not understand the text clearly. Moreover, during six weeks, SS interactivity was all applied during the classroom activities. One more interesting point was that they could perform their understanding in the whole class. In addition, they were brave to share and brainstorm their ideas.

The data obtained from the focus group interview revealed that the students were very satisfied with online interactive activities. They preferred to read, discuss, and exchange their ideas with their peers. The teacher was like a facilitator to encourage the students to reach the critical reading objectives. Also, the teacher was questioned to them in order to lead them to generate their ideas by themselves. Moreover, they could apply their critical reading skills to the authentic environment.

2. To what extent online interactivities enhance the students' English critical reading ability.

For the comparison of English critical reading ability of 100 Thai EFL students by employing interactivities in the English critical reading classroom, all students were asked to complete both pre-test and post-test before and after learning. The t-test Dependent Sample was used for evaluating the comparison of English reading ability of 100 Thai EFL students. Below showed the statistics:

Table 2 The Average Score for Comparison of English Critical Reading Ability of EFL Students by Employing Online Interactivities by Pre-Test and Post-Test Scores

Scores	n	\bar{x}	S.D.	t	P
Scores for Pre-Test	100	15.45	4.835	9.30	*.000
Scores for Post-Test	100	17.24	4.744		

*Significant level at .05

From Table 2, it was observed that the students' English critical reading ability before promoting online interactivities in the classroom is 15.45 (4.835) and the mean level of English critical reading ability after promoting online interactivities is 17.24 (4.744). This means it is at the significant level .05.

9. Discussion and Conclusion

It was discussed into two main areas as follows:

1. To explore how online interactivities enhance the students' English critical reading ability.

It was obviously observed that three types of interactivities: student-student (SS), student-teacher (ST), and student-content (SC) were integrated in the English critical reading classroom. According to the experiment, the students felt free to spend their time comprehending the reading texts. Basically, student-content (SC) interaction was started to set up their knowledge. Then, student-student (SS) interaction was applied to brainstorm and exchange their understanding between peers. Moreover, in order to endorse their ideas, the teacher was acted as a helper or a facilitator to guide and encourage them to expand their knowledge. This makes the classroom natural and motivated. This is also supported by Haomin (2012, p. 2) that the classroom is expected to become increasingly interactive and flexible. Technology advancement not only opens up more affordances for interactivity but also changes the ways people interact with the media and with one another through media. Moreover, the students can perform their critical reading ability and they expose their skills to the classroom. They are not afraid to express their ideas to the whole class, and they can construct meaning, relate it to personal knowledge, and apply it to the problem solving.

2. To what extent online interactivities enhance the students' English critical reading ability.

According to the implementation of the online interactions in the English critical reading classroom, the results of the implementation after completing the pre-test and post-test met the significance level .05. That meant the implementation was affected significantly to the students. Obviously, online interactivities are enhanced the students' English critical reading ability. Moreover, they make the classroom flexibility, affordances, and autonomy. Moreover, it is similar to Abanomey (2012, p. 9) that the dominance of technology, especially among new generations, necessitates the integration of such technology into language teaching pedagogy. Internet based technologies are increasingly being integrated into daily life; and there are new web-based products, strategies and theories being developed each day making it a useful educational tool inside language teaching classroom as has been proved by the results of the current study.

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Opinions and Problems Related to the Teacher Indirect Feedback in Promoting Grammatical Accuracy of Thai EFL Students

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Abstract

This study investigates the opinions and problems of students concerning with teacher indirect feedback. The participants were two intact classes of students at one medium-sized university in the north-eastern region of Thailand. After the errors of the target grammatical features in three narrative paragraphs were underlined by the teacher, one group of the students corrected the errors with their partner, and the other group of students edited their errors individually. A questionnaire and a structured-interview were used to get the data for this study. The findings showed that the students were positive about the teacher indirect feedback. One of the problems that they encountered after receiving the teacher indirect feedback was their inability to understand and edit the errors. Another problem was their unfamiliarity to the teacher indirect feedback. This study also revealed that the error editing conditions slightly affected how the students perceived the teacher indirect feedback. The results suggest that the teacher indirect feedback is not a problem free technique. Even though students had positive opinions about it, it is important for teachers to be aware of the problems the students might have during their revision activity. Suggestions on errors editing from teachers can help increase the effectiveness of the teacher indirect feedback.

Keywords: grammatical accuracy, opinions, problems, teacher indirect feedback

1. Introduction

The ability to write effectively in L2 writing is one subset of communicative competence (Ferris, 2010), and grammatical competence is one important type of knowledge needed to write successfully (Hyland, 2003). Thai learners were found to have problems in grammatical accuracy in their writing (e.g. Bennui, 2008; KhaoUrai, 2002). The errors that they frequently made include linguistic items, such as articles, tense, verb forms, and errors on syntax and lexicon (KhaoUrai, 2002; Bennui, 2008). The problems above cause writing in English problematic for Thai EFL learners.

Feedback has been adopted and used widely by L2 practitioners believing that it helps students write grammatically. From a number of studies on the effects of direct and indirect feedback on grammatical accuracy improvement, many studies (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Erel & Bulut, 2007) not only found that the indirect feedback was more effective than the direct feedback in promoting grammatical accuracy, but it also led to a greater level of accuracy over time (Chandler, 2003; Bitchener & Knoch, 2008), engaged students in guided problem-solving and allowed them to take more responsibility for their own progress (Alroe, 2011).

The literature reviewed above shows how beneficial the indirect feedback is in promoting grammatical accuracy. However, there were a number of variables that affect how students benefit from the teacher feedback. Sheen (2011) suggests that students' learning context may affect how students perceive the teacher feedback. In addition, language proficiency level, learning style, personality of the subject, and motivation may be factors affecting students' attitudes towards the teacher feedback (Conrad & Goldstein, 1999). Storch and Wigglesworth (2010) added that the effectiveness of written corrective feedback depends on the type of errors made and the learners' level of proficiency. They also suggest that learners' attitudes, beliefs and objectives are essential factors for learners to benefit from feedback. The data above suggest that L2 teachers cannot generalize that students are having the same opinion about the teacher feedback. Therefore, studies have been conducted to investigate learners' opinions and problems concerning with the teacher indirect feedback.

Findings from many studies (e.g., Lee, 2008; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2002) found that students who received the teacher indirect feedback find this type of feedback beneficial for improving their writing even though they faced a number of problems while editing their errors. Lee (2008) investigated the reactions of the Hong Kong secondary school students to the teacher feedback and found that these students had positive opinions about the teacher indirect feedback. The participants reported that they understood the teacher indirect feedback given by their teacher. They also added that they found the teacher indirect feedback useful for grammatical accuracy and it helped them correct their errors. On the other hands, students encountered problems editing their errors even though they receive the feedback from the teacher. The first problem was their inability to solve the complex errors when they felt that they did not receive enough information (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2002). They added that with their limited level of English language proficiency, they could not understand the feedback nor find the teacher

indirect feedback beneficial for language improvement. Especially when they could not recognize the errors they made, they did not know how to edit the errors. They were not confident if their revision or correction was accurate. Another problem that made the error correction problematic for the students was the learners' unfamiliarity with the feedback. The unfamiliarity of the feedback may prevent the learners from becoming successful revisers (Shirazi & Shekarabi, 2014). The students who were not familiar with the feedback neither knew what the feedback required of them nor how the errors should be edited.

Due to the importance of learners' perspectives on the teacher feedback, it was necessary that the studies be conducted to investigate the opinion and problems of this learning strategy in improving L2 writing accuracy. In addition, in order to learn to what extent the situations of editing the errors after the students receive the teacher indirect feedback affect the opinions of students on the teacher indirect feedback, this study intends to answer the following question.

Research Question 1: What were the opinions of the students about the teacher indirect feedback to promote grammatical accuracy after they edited their errors either individually or in pairs?

Research Question 2: What were the problems that the students encountered when they received the teacher indirect feedback to promote grammatical accuracy?

2. Method

Participants

The participants of the study were two intact classes of second year undergraduate students at Loei Rajabhat University, consisted of 27 and 30 respectively, who enrolled in a Basic English Writing course, one of which objectives is to develop the learners' writing accuracy at both sentence and paragraph levels.

Research Instruments and Materials

1. Questionnaire

In order to obtain students' opinions concerning the teacher indirect feedback, a questionnaire was used. The questionnaire's items were adapted from Padgate (1999) and Lee (2008). This questionnaire included questions concerning the participants' comprehension of feedback (questions 1, 2, 3, 4) and satisfaction of feedback (questions 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10). Each questionnaire item had four rating scales ranging strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree, and each rating scale had its own value (i.e., strongly disagree-1, disagree-2, agree-3, and strongly agree-4). In addition, in order to provide the participants with enough space to write freely about problems that they encountered during their revision activity and some other opinions about the teacher feedback, two more open-ended questions were provided. The questionnaires were translated into Thai in order to avoid any misunderstanding that could be caused by language problems.

To ensure the consistency of the participants' opinions in the questionnaires, the test-retest method was applied. The answers of both sets of questionnaire received from each participant were compared item by item, and the percentage of overall agreement was calculated. Table 1 showed the consistency of the participants' responses to the questionnaire and the number of the students' in each range of agreement. The information derived from one group of participants showed that the agreement of the responses of most students (18 out of 27) was 70 percent and above, indicating that their responses were rather consistent.

Table 1: Consistency of Participants' Responses to Second Questionnaire

Percentage of Agreement (%)	Number of students
50	1
60	8
70	10
80	5
90	3

2. Structured Interview

Even though the second questionnaire contained questions asking about the problems that the students encountered when they received the teacher indirect feedback, to ensure that the information concerning with the learners' problems were obtained, the interview was conducted with all participants. A set of predetermined open-ended questions was written to elicit the problems concerning the teacher indirect feedback of the participants. In order to avoid any misunderstanding caused by the language problem, the interview questions were translated into Thai. The interview was conducted with participants only one time right after they submitted the final draft of the third writing task used for the study purpose.

In order to ensure the reliability of the data obtained from the interview, the interview was digitally recorded and the students also received a piece of paper containing the interviewed questions. After the interview data was transcribed, to increase the reliability and validity of the interview transcriptions, the researcher listened to the audio records and transcribed the interview data for the second time three days after the first time. After that, the transcribed interview data was compared to the data received from a piece of paper containing the interviewed questions that the participants wrote after they finished participating in the interview. When any mismatch between the interview transcriptions and the data that the participants wrote in a piece of paper containing the interviewed questions was found, the participants were invited to clarify their given data.

Data Collection Procedures

The data was collected in the first seven weeks of a normal classroom schedule. Students were scheduled to meet once a week in their regular learning schedule assigned by the academic section of Loei Rajabhat University. The participants received three narrative writing prompts which were developed by the researcher. ~~After they~~ revised their first draft according to the teacher feedback on content and organization; the teacher gave indirect feedback in the form of underlining for any errors made in the target grammatical features which were limited to those found in narrative passage. The narrative text was used because it is thought to be the most universal (Hatch, 1992) and was the genre known in every culture (Schiffrin, Tannen & Hamilton, 2006). The target grammatical features included definite and indefinite articles, copula 'be', past tense form of the verb excluding the auxiliary verbs, the temporal and locative prepositions, the cohesive ties which included pronoun references, conjunctions, and conjunctive adverbs.

In order to avoid students misunderstanding the correct use of the grammatical features other than the target ones, the direct correction was given to any errors related to the non-target forms. Both classes were asked to look at the errors that were underlined. One group of students revised their work with their friend (experimental group) while the other group edited their work individually (control group). The participants in both groups were not allowed to consult the dictionary, books or any websites while editing their errors. After they handed in the final draft of the third writing task, to obtain data on opinions and problems concerning the teacher indirect feedback, they received the questionnaire and were invited to participate in the interview.

Data Analysis and Statistical Devices

The data obtained from the four rating scale questions of the questionnaire were converted into average score (\bar{x}) and the average of the 4 ratings was used to represent the students' opinions about the teacher indirect feedback. The following criteria were used to interpret the levels of the students' opinions: 1.00 - 1.75 very negative, 1.76 - 2.50 negative, 2.51 - 3.25 positive, 3.26 - 4.00 = very positive (Srisa-ard, 2002). However, because the questionnaire item number 10 was in negative direction, the interpretation of the data obtained from this item was converted to opposite direction before the analysis, indicating that the 'very negative' valued 3.26 - 4.00, the 'negative' valued 2.51 - 3.25, the 'positive' valued 1.76 - 2.50, and the 'very positive' valued 1.00 - 1.75. For the qualitative data, the transcribed interview data was analyzed with open coding (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The percentage was used to calculate the consistency in the participants' answering of the questionnaire, and the average was used to display the students' opinions about the teacher indirect corrective feedback.

3. Results

The Opinions of the Students about the Teacher Indirect Feedback

Based on the criteria used to interpret the levels of the students' opinions, the average mean score of all the questionnaire items given to the participants in the control group and the experimental group, as shown in Table 2, revealed that the students in both groups have positive opinions toward the teacher indirect feedback.

Table 2: *Students' opinions about teacher indirect feedback*

Item	Statements	Control Group (N=27)			Experimental Group (N=30)		
		\bar{x}	SD	Level of Opinions	\bar{x}	SD	Level of Opinions
1	When I received the feedback from my teacher, I understood it.	3.70	0.55	Very positive	3.10	0.48	Positive
2	When I read the feedback, I often had problems understanding it.	1.96*	0.65	Positive	1.93*	0.58	Positive
3	The feedback that I received was clear enough.	3.22	0.51	Positive	3.23	0.43	Positive
4	It was necessary for the teacher to give feedback to my writing more clearly.	1.81*	0.56	Positive	1.87*	0.68	Positive
5	I was satisfied with how the feedback was given.	3.26	0.66	Very positive	3.23	0.43	Positive
6	The feedback on each piece of my writing was helpful for me to write better in subsequent drafts.	3.52	0.58	Very positive	3.27	0.52	Very positive
7	I liked how the teacher gave feedback to my pieces of writing.	3.44	0.51	Very positive	3.17	0.38	Positive

Item	Statements	Control Group (N=27)			Experimental Group (N=30)		
		\bar{x}	SD	Level of Opinions	\bar{x}	SD	Level of Opinions
8	How the teacher gave the feedback was suitable.	3.44	0.51	Very positive	3.20	0.48	Positive
9	How the teacher gave the feedback helped me improve my grammatical accuracy.	3.48	0.51	Very positive	3.37	0.49	Very positive
10	How the teacher gave feedback to my pieces of writing made me frustrated with my error correction.	1.93*	0.73	Positive	1.90*	0.76	Positive

The data obtained from the questionnaire items asking the opinions regarding perceived comprehension of feedback (Items 1-4) revealed that both groups had slightly different opinions about the teacher indirect feedback. The students in the control group were very positive with the item saying “When I received the feedback from my teacher, I understood it.” (Item 1), and they were positive with other items. On the other hand, none of the four items were rated at the ‘very positive’ level by the students in the experimental group; all the questionnaire items were at ‘positive’ level.

For the opinions regarding the participants’ satisfactions of the teacher indirect feedback (Items 5-10), the participants in the control groups seemed to be more satisfied with the teacher indirect feedback than the participants in the experimental group. For the control group, four out of six items of the opinions were at ‘very positive’ level and the other two were at the ‘positive’ level. The students in the control group were most positive toward the items saying “The feedback on each piece of my writing was helpful for me to write better in subsequent drafts.” (Item 6), and least positive with the item saying “How the teacher gave feedback to my pieces of writing made me frustrated with my error correction” (Item 10). However, only two out of five items of the opinions of the students in the experimental group were at ‘very positive’ level, and the other four were at ‘positive level’. The students were most positive toward the item saying “How the teacher gave the feedback helped me improve my grammatical accuracy” (Item 9), and were least positive toward the item saying “How the teacher gave feedback to my pieces of writing made me frustrated with my error correction” (Item 10).

Besides the data obtained from the questionnaire, the students provided additional comments in the open-ended questions regarding the teacher indirect feedback. The data obtained show that the students were both positive and negative about the teacher indirect feedback. The students' positive comments were mainly on the ability of the feedback in helping them know their errors. Some of the comments obtained from the participants in both groups (N=57) can be seen in their comments below. The students wrote their comments in Thai, which were later translated into English by the researcher.

Student 1, "The feedback helped me know what my errors were."

Student 2, "The feedback helped me know that I was very poor at English grammar."

Besides the positive opinions, the additional comments obtained from these open-ended questions reported by twelve students (21.05%) confirmed the information obtained from the questionnaire items that the teacher indirect feedback caused them some learning problems. Some of the problems were reflected in the statements below.

Student 1, "Even though my errors were underlined, I didn't know how to correct them"

Student 2, "I didn't understand the errors."

Student 3, "The feedback was not clear enough for me."

It can be concluded from the data obtained from the questionnaire that even though the students in both the control and the experimental group reported some problems after they received the teacher indirect feedback, they were positive with this kind of feedback as shown by the average mean scores of both groups, suggesting that the students thought that the teacher indirect feedback was helpful for their grammatical improvement.

The Problems Related to the Teacher Indirect Feedback

Based on the interview answers, a few problems that the students in both groups (N=57) encountered while revising their errors. These problems are reflected in the statements below.

The first problem was the participants' low level of language proficiency. Because of their limited level of language proficiency, they lacked self-confidence on editing the errors. Some of the comments from twenty students who reported this problem were translated below.

Student 1: "Because I'm not good at English grammar, I was not confident that the errors I edited were correct."

Student 2: "I decided not to correct the errors because I was afraid that I would not be able to correct them."

Their low level of language proficiency also resulted in their inability to understand and edit the errors. Seven students (12.28%) expressed their concern that they did not understand the feedback, probably due to their limited English proficiency, thus, unable to correct or edit the errors as they commented below.

Student 1: “I found editing errors difficult because I didn’t have enough grammatical knowledge to edit them.”

Student 2: “Because I didn’t understand why the words were incorrect, I didn’t know how to correct them.”

Student 3: “The feedback was not clear enough.”

Students 4: “I didn’t understand why my teacher underlined some grammatical points which I thought were correct, and because I didn’t know why they were incorrect, I did not know how to edit them”.

The second problem, as reported by seven students (12.28%), was on the trust of the students on the effects of the feedback in helping them to write more accurately in the subsequent drafts. Some of their comments were as follows.

Student 1: “The feedback didn’t help me write more accurately, and I still made the same errors in the subsequent drafts.”

Student 2: “I didn’t only make the same errors, but I also made the new errors in the subsequent drafts even though I got the feedback.”

Because of the problems understanding and editing the errors that the students had after they received the teacher indirect feedback, seven students (12.28%) reported that they wanted the teacher to give an explanation on the errors and to tell them how to correct those errors. Some of the comments were shown below.

Student 1: “I wanted the teacher to write me the correct forms for the errors that I produced if I still made the same errors in the subsequent drafts.”

Students 2: “I wanted the teacher to explain to me why the words I used were incorrect and how I should correct those errors.”

The last problem was on the learners’ unfamiliarity with the feedback. One student commented, “I was not familiar with this kind of feedback, so it was difficult for me to correct my errors.”

It can be concluded that the problems that the students encountered after they received the teacher indirect feedback in the form of underlining were their low level of language proficiency that led to their lack of confidence on editing the errors and their inability to understand and edit the errors, the trust of them on the effects of the feedback on grammatical accuracy, and their unfamiliarity with the feedback.

4. Discussion and Conclusion

Opinions of Students about the Teacher Indirect Feedback

The findings of this study show that the students in this study had positive opinions about the teacher indirect feedback regardless of the editing condition they had after receiving the feedback. The opinion of the students about the teacher indirect feedback in this study was in line with those of the participants in the study by Lee (2008) who investigated the reactions of the Hong Kong secondary school students to the teacher feedback and found that these students had positive opinions about the teacher indirect feedback in terms of their understanding of the teacher feedback, their ability to correct their errors, and their view of the usefulness of teacher indirect feedback.

The explanation of the students' positive opinions about the teacher indirect feedback in this study was probably due to the participants' preference for the focus of the task, which was the grammatical errors of their writing, rather than on the teacher indirect feedback itself. This explanation is supported by scholars (Leki, 1991; Saito, 1994) who stated that the students' positive opinions about the teacher indirect feedback may result from the form-focused activity that the feedback provided. Even though the teacher indirect feedback may not be comprehensible to every student, particularly those with a low level of language proficiency (Ferris & Roberts, 2001), the students who realized the importance of writing accuracy and wanted the teacher to point out the errors they made may be satisfied with the feedback they received (e.g., Lee, 2005; Leki, 1991).

Even though the students were positive about the teacher indirect feedback, they still reported that this type of feedback caused them some problems. The students at beginning levels may feel frustrated at the effort they need to put in to solve the problems they have when they have discovered the nature of their errors (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). In other words, even though the students had positive opinions about the teacher indirect feedback, this does not guarantee that they will benefit from the indirect feedback.

The Problems Related to the Teacher Indirect Feedback

Even though the students reported that they were positive with the teacher indirect feedback, they reported some problems that they encountered after receiving the feedback. A main factor that caused them learning problems was their low level of language proficiency. With their limited level of language proficiency, they had problems understanding and editing the errors and were not confident enough to edit their own errors. Because they lacked confidence in their skill, they either left the errors unedited or guessed the correction after receiving the feedback. These problems later prevented them from learning from the feedback, and they still made the same errors in the subsequent drafts. A possible explanation was the inability of the students to solve the complex errors when they felt that they did not receive enough information (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 2002). These scholars added that with students' low level of language proficiency, some learners might not be able to understand the feedback nor find the

teacher indirect feedback beneficial for language improvement, especially when they could not recognize the errors they made, did not know how they had to deal with any detected errors, and were not confident if their revision or correction was accurate. Students may not benefit from the teacher indirect feedback, and the same errors may resurface in subsequent drafts. In addition, they may not perceive the teacher indirect feedback as being a useful tool in helping them write more accurately.

Another problem that made the error correction problematic for the students was the learners' unfamiliarity with the feedback. The unfamiliarity of the feedback may prevent the learners from becoming successful revisers (Shirazi & Shekarabi, 2014). Shirazi and Shekarabi investigated the effects of direct and indirect feedback on writing performance of EFL students where their students received one of the three indirect feedback types in order to see which type of feedback improved grammatical accuracy of students' essays. They found that the students who were exposed to feedback, in all, performed better than the participants who were not. In addition, Mackey, Kanganas and Oliver (2007) found that the EFL students who worked in pairs on the tasks that they were familiar with both content and procedure had more opportunities to use feedback and showed more accurate use of feedback. The students who were not familiar with the feedback neither knew what the feedback required of them nor how the errors should be edited.

Recommendations for Further Studies

One limitation of this study was the small number of writing tasks that the students received. Due to this, the students might not become familiar with the kind of feedback received. Therefore, the same research methodology should be replicated using a longer period of time and with a greater number of writing tasks. Another limitation of this study is the number of students in the study. Due to the small member of participants, the findings from study may not be generalized to other contexts. Therefore, the same research methodology should be replicated using a greater number of participants.

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An Investigation of Noun Phrases Used in Online Political News

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Abstract

Noun phrases are considered a linguistic structure that shows complexity in written language. A number of research studies have investigated the complexity in written texts, but mostly focusing on the language produced by native English speakers. This study fills a gap of such studies by exploring noun phrases used by non-native speakers in comparison to native English speakers in written genre. The study aimed to investigate types of noun phrases used in online political news written by English non-native (or Thai) writers of Bangkok Post and English native writers of The New York Times. The samples of this study were ten online political news articles: five from Bangkok Post and five from The New York Times. The corpus of this study included a total of 10,239 words. Noun phrases were identified and classified into different types using the noun phrase framework by Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan (1999). The results revealed that there were 696 noun phrases used in the corpus. Among this number, all types of noun phrases, as included *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber, et al., 1999), were used by both native and Thai news writers. These included *adjective as premodifier*, *participial as premodifier*, *noun as premodifier*, *relative clause as postmodifier*, *ing-clause as postmodifier*, *ed-clause as postmodifier*, *to-infinitive clause as postmodifier*, *prepositional phrase as postmodifier*, and *noun phrase in apposition as postmodifier*. Moreover, native English news writers used more noun phrases as well as more complex noun phrases than Thai news writers.

Keywords :Noun phrases, Online news, Political news, Language complexity, Corpus-based study

1. Introduction

Noun phrases is one of the key elements of written production and is commonly found in many varieties of English (Schilk & Schaub, 2016). This grammatical structure also gives a structural foundation for different genres of language, e.g. academic language in textbooks (Fang, et al., 2006) and news (Biber, et al, 1999). However, this structure has been used in different ways by English users with different language backgrounds.

Among a number of studies on noun phrases, one important study was conducted by Biber, Grieve and Iberri-Shea (2008). The study investigated noun phrases used in newspaper reportage in American English (AmE) and British English (BrE) over the past three centuries by comparing the preferred patterns of noun phrase modification across the two varieties .They stated that written registers in English have undergone extensive stylistic change over the past four centuries in order to response to changes in the purposes of communication, the demographics of the reading public, and attitudinal preferences of authors .One linguistic domain reflecting the historical development is the choice among structural devices used to modify noun phrases .The results showed that AmE and BrE underwent similar shifts in the preferred patterns of noun phrase modification over the past centuries .Nevertheless, AmE has generally been in the lead in the increasing reliance on compressed styles of noun phrase modification.

Although the studies focusing on the complexity in written texts revealed interesting results, most of them relied on the language produced by native English speakers. There is a lack of such studies using texts written by non-native English speakers. This paper aims to bridge the gap by investigating noun phrases used in online political news, particularly in produced by non-native English writers, in comparison with native English news writers.

2 .Framework/Theories/Underlining principles

2.1 Noun Phrases in Written Texts

Noun phrases are an important linguistic structure to be used in constructing texts .Noun phrases are one type of grammatical resources that gives a structural foundation for academic language in textbooks (Fang et al, 2006) .According to Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan (1999), Zimmerman (2009), and Zwiers (2008), academic language could be defined as a register of English .Register can be defined as a variety of language according to the use .For example, the difference of language pattern use in informal conversation, newspaper article, or university research could be defined as distinct registers of English (Halliday & Hasan, 1985) .In addition, register is also defined as varieties of spoken and written language use in specific context and defined by lexical choices and specific patterns of grammar (Biber, 1995) .However, the written academic register found in the language of textbooks is very different from everyday conversation (Biber, 2006; Fang & Schleppegrel, 2008; Halliday, 1989). One of grammatical or syntactical features such as noun phrases could be used to separate the written academic language or register from everyday language (Fang et. al., 2006).

2.2 Noun Phrase Types (*Theoretical Framework*)

The theoretical framework of this study was adopted from *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999). It was used to be a criterion for determining noun phrase types appearing in online news articles used in the present study. Biber et al (1999) divided noun phrases into two broad types :Premodifiers and Postmodifiers which included many subtypes as follows:

Premodifiers

- Adjective as premodifier
= *A **special** project*
- Participial as premodifier
= ***Hidden** variables, **speaking** class*
- Noun as premodifier
= *The **bus** strike, the **police** report*

Postmodifiers

- Relative clause as postmodifier
= *That job **I was doing last night***
- Ing-clause as postmodifier
= *The imperious man **standing under the lamppost***
- Ed-clause as postmodifier
= *A stationary element **held in position by the outer casing***
- To-infinitive clause as postmodifier
= *Enough money **to buy proper food***
- Prepositional phrase as postmodifier
= *Doctors **at the Johns Hopkins Medical School***
- Noun phrase in apposition as postmodifier
= *The Indian captain, **Mohammed Azharuddin***

2.3 Underlining principles

The underlining principles of this study were adapted from Biber, Grieve and Iberri-Shea (2008) as they investigated noun phrases in newspaper reportage which was similar to this study. In Biber, Grieve and Iberri-Shea (2008)'s study, the patterns of variation focus exclusively on newspaper reportage, based on an analysis of two major corpora. For the analyses of earlier historical periods, they used the ARCHER Corpus which was designed to represent a range of written and speech-based registers in English over the past four centuries and represent the differences between AmE and BrE. This sub-corpus is quite small by present-day standards so that it is not suitable for the analysis of rare grammatical features or lexical patterns. Nonetheless, these samples adequately represent the distribution of more common grammatical features, and ARCHER has been used for many previous studies of historical register variation. In addition, the principles of the study are as follows.

Firstly, for the present-day comparison of AmE and BrE newspaper reportage, they constructed a larger corpus of newspaper texts published in 2006. They selected only news articles including mostly 'metro' news. All newspapers sampled for the 2006 corpus are formal newspapers with strong reputations, published in major cities (e.g., New York, Washington, London). The AmE sample (750,000 words) was collected from ten major newspapers, while the BrE sample (450,000 words) was collected from five major newspapers. (All 2006 Newspaper articles were downloaded from World News Access.)

Secondly, the linguistic analyses were based on 'tagged' texts. The 'tagger' used for the analyses was written in Delphi-Pascal; it has both probabilistic and rule-based components, uses multiple large-scale dictionaries and runs under Windows. This tagger has been developed with three primary considerations: (1) achieving high accuracy levels, (2) robustness across texts from different registers, and (3) identification of a large set of linguistic characteristics.

Thirdly, for the most part, they used automatic techniques to identify and count the linguistic features. However, the major exception is for the use of prepositional phrases as noun modifiers. This is because there are no automatic methods that reliably and accurately distinguish between prepositional phrases functioning as adverbials and those functioning as noun modifiers. Thus, for this feature, they carried out hand-analyses on a sample of prepositional phrases immediately following a noun. Approximately 2,000 prepositional phrases were coded by hand: 1,000 sampled from each variety. Prepositional phrases were chosen using random selection techniques, so that the sample included the full range of prepositions.

In this paper, two corpora of non-native and native English news articles published in online newspaper are compiled. Since the corpora are smaller than the ones used in the previous study, a manual tagging and hand analysis of noun phrases are applied. To investigate noun phrases types used in online political news. In particular, this study focuses to compare the use of noun phrases by Thai and native English news writers in two newspapers published in Thailand and in an English-speaking country.

This objective poses two research questions:

1. What are noun phrase types used in Thai and native English online news articles?
2. Are there any similarities and differences in using noun phrases between Thai and native English news writers? If there are, what are those similarities and differences?

2. Method

The corpus of the present study was collected from ten online political news under the same topic: *U.S. President Election 2016*. In the political news corpus, five news were taken from Bangkok Post and the other five were from The New York Times. Each news article was saved as a .doc file. The total words from the ten news were 10,239 (4,043 words from the news written by Thai writers and 6,196 words from those written by native English writers). Due to a small number of samples, the written texts were analysed manually. First, the data were first classified as noun phrases. The occurrences of the noun phrases were normalized to 1,000 words to make the two sub-corpora (i.e., Bangkok Post and The New York Times) comparable. After that, the noun phrases were coded as different types of noun phrases, using the noun phrase framework by Biber, et. al. (1999). For a reliability purpose, two coders first worked together in both steps in order to ensure an agreement on the noun phrase classification and coding, then they separately worked. The inter-coder reliability was finally calculated, and it was at .91.

3. Results

This section was organized in order to answer two research questions.

3.1 Results for RQ1: What are noun phrase types used in Thai and native English online news articles?

The investigation of the occurrences of noun phrases showed that there were 696 used in the political news corpus. Table 1 shows the number of noun phrases found in the political news. 248 noun phrases were found (out of 4,043 total words) in the news taken from the Bangkok Post, while 448 noun phrases were used (out of 6,196 total words) in the news taken from the New York Times. In other words, out of 1,000 words 61 noun phrases were used by Thai news writers whereas 72 noun phrases were used by English native writers.

Table 1: *Noun phrases used in the Political News Articles corpus*

Press Association	Noun Phrases	
	Frequency	Frequency (normalized per 1,000 words)
Bangkok Post	248	61
The New York Times	448	72
Total	696	133

The analysis of the types of the 696 noun phrases in the corpus showed that all types of noun phrases were found. Table 2 shows the frequency of each type of noun phrases found in the Bangkok Post and New York Times sub-corpora. The most frequent type of noun phrases used in the Bangkok Post was *adjective as premodifier* (71 noun phrases or 18 noun phrases per 1,000 words). The second was *noun as premodifier* (42 noun phrases or about 10 per 1,000 words). (The third one was *prepositional phrase as postmodifier* (31 noun phrases or about 7.66 per 1,000 words), followed by *noun phrases in apposition as postmodifier*)24 noun phrases or 5 per 1,000 words), *to-infinitive clause as postmodifier*)23 noun phrases or about 5 per 1,000 words), *participial as premodifier* (20 noun phrases or about 5 per 1,000 words), *relative clause as postmodifier* (18 noun phrases or about 4 per 1,000 words), *ing-clause as postmodifier*)17 noun phrases or about 4.2 per 1,000 words), and *ed-clause as postmodifier*)2 noun phrases or about 0.49 per 1,000 words.

In the New York Times sub-corpus, the most frequent type of noun phrases used in the Bangkok Post was *adjective as premodifier* (115 noun phrases or 19 noun phrases per 1,000 words). The second was *noun as premodifier* (75 noun phrases or about 12 per 1,000 words). (The third one was *relative clause as postmodifier* (70 noun phrases or about 11 per 1,000 words), followed by *to-infinitive clause as postmodifier*)53 noun phrases or about 9 per 1,000 words), *prepositional phrase as postmodifier* (46 noun phrases or about 7 per 1,000 words), *apposition as postmodifier*)38 noun phrases or 6 per 1,000 words), *participial as premodifier* (30 noun phrases or about 5 per 1,000 words), *ing-clause as postmodifier*)16 noun phrases or about 3 per 1,000 words), and *ed-clause as postmodifier*)5 noun phrases or about 1 per 1,000 words), respectively.

Table 2: *Noun phrases used in the Bangkok Post and New York Times news articles*

Types of Noun Phrases	Bangkok Post		The New York Times	
	Frequency	Normalized per 1,000 words	Frequency	Normalized per 1,000 words
1. Adjective as premodifier	71	17.56	115	18.56
2. Noun as premodifier	42	10.38	75	12.10
3. Prepositional phrase as postmodifier	31	7.66	46	7.42
4. Apposition as postmodifier	24	5.93	38	6.13
5. <i>to</i> -infinitive clause as postmodifier	23	5.68	53	8.55
6. Participial as premodifier	20	4.94	30	4.84
7. Relative clause as postmodifier	18	4.45	70	11.29
8. <i>ing</i> -clause as postmodifier	17	4.20	16	2.58
9. <i>ed</i> -clause as postmodifier	2	0.49	5	0.80

3.2 Results for RQ2: Are there any similarities and differences in using noun phrases between Thai and native English news writers? If there are, what are those similarities and differences?

In order to answer this question, the numbers of noun phrases used in online political news from Bangkok Post and The New York Times were compared to see differences of the frequency of noun phrases occurring in both sub-corpora. Table 3 ranks the most frequent types of noun phrases found in each newspaper. It shows that there were both similarities and differences in using noun phrases in Bangkok Post and The New York Times. The top two most frequent types of noun phrases in both newspapers are *adjective as premodifier* (about 19 occurrences per 1,000 words in The New York Times and about 18 occurrences in Bangkok Post) and *noun as premodifier* (about 12 occurrences per 1,000 words in The New York Times and about 10 occurrences in Bangkok Post), respectively. The two least frequent use of noun phrases in both sub-corpora were *ing-clause as premodifier* (about 2 occurrences per 1,000 words in The New York Times and about 4 occurrences in Bangkok Post) and *ed-clause as premodifier* (about .80 occurrences per 1,000 words in The New York Times and about .49 occurrences in Bangkok Post), respectively. Other types of noun phrases (i.e., *prepositional phrase as postmodifier*, *noun phrases in apposition as postmodifier*, *to-infinitive clause as postmodifier*, and *participial as premodifier*) were used similarly in both sub-corpora.

The most distinct use of noun phrases was the use of *relative clause as postmodifier*. In The New York Times, more noun phrases (about 11 occurrences per 1,000 words) were used in a form of relative clauses to modify nouns in a sentence than those used in the Bangkok Post (about 4 occurrences per 1,000 words).

Table 3: Comparison of noun phrases used in Bangkok Post and The New York Times news articles

Bangkok Post			The New York Times		
Type	Frequency	Normalized per 1,000 words	Type	Frequency	Normalized per 1,000 words
Adjective as premodifier	71	17.56	Adjective as premodifier	115	18.56
Noun as premodifier	42	10.38	Noun as premodifier	75	12.10
Prepositional phrase as postmodifier	31	7.66	Relative clause as postmodifier	70	11.29
NP in apposition postmodifier	24	5.93	To-infinitive clause as postmodifier	53	8.55
to-infinitive clause as postmodifier	23	5.68	Prepositional phrase as postmodifier	46	7.42
Participial as premodifier	20	4.94	NP in apposition as postmodifier	38	6.13
Relative clause as postmodifier	18	4.45	Participial as premodifier	30	4.84

Bangkok Post			The New York Times		
<i>ing</i> -clause as postmodifier	17	4.20	<i>ing</i> -clause as postmodifier	16	2.58
<i>ed</i> -clause as postmodifier	2	0.49	<i>ed</i> -clause as postmodifier	5	0.80
Total	248	61	Total	448	72

The results have shown an interesting point regarding the different use of *relative clause as modifier* in Bangkok Post and The New York Times. To look at it in more details, the analysis revealed the results presented in Table 4. Table 4 shows relative clauses used to modify nouns in the two sub-corpora. It can be seen that more relative clauses were used in The New York Times (more than twice) than those in Bangkok Post. Moreover, there seem to be more various relative pronouns used by native English news writers (e.g. who, where, that, which, whom, etc), while only four relative pronouns (i.e., who, which, whom, in which) were used by Thai news writers. This shows that native English writers used more variety of relative clauses and relative pronouns to modify nouns in their writing.

Table 4: Examples of Relative Clause as Premodifier used in Bangkok Post and The New York Times news articles

Bangkok Post			The New York Times		
Relative clause	Frequency	Normalized per 1,000 words	Relative clause	Frequency	Normalized per 1,000 words
who	12	2.96	who	33	5.32
which	2	0.49	where	10	1.61
whom	2	0.49	that	8	1.29
in which	2	0.49	which	6	0.96
			∅	5	0.81
			whom	3	0.48
			whose	2	0.32
			where	2	0.32
			in which	1	0.16
Total	18	4.45	Total	70	11.29

4. Discussion and Conclusion

The present study investigated the use of noun phrases in the online news articles published in Thai (Bangkok Post) and native-English (The New York Times) newspapers. The study used the theoretical framework of language complexity (Biber, Gray, & Poonpon, 2011) and classification of noun phrases in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999). The results of the study showed that the two broad types of noun phrases (i.e., premodifiers and postmodifiers) were used in the two groups of online news articles. In other words, all nine types of noun phrases were found (i.e., *adjective as premodifier*, *participial as premodifier*, *noun as premodifier*, *relative clause as postmodifier*, *ing-clause as postmodifier*, *ed-clause as postmodifier*, *to-infinitive clause as postmodifier*,

prepositional phrase as postmodifier, and noun phrase in apposition as postmodifier). This means that the writers used noun phrases to convey a message in news articles. The notion is in line with what Biber et al. (1999) said that in academic prose, expanded or complex noun phrases carry a significant information load through their premodifier and postmodifier. The noun phrases found in the study are the evidence of a linguistic feature representing lexical density used in academic texts (Bailey, 2007). In addition, the results support the view regarding academic writing in that it uses a heavy load of nouns to convey information and is then likely to have a higher lexical density than everyday language (Biber, 2006; Biber, et al., 1999; Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008; Halliday, 1989; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). (The more the noun phrases are found in written texts, the more complex the texts, especially the academic texts, seem to be (Biber, Gray & Poonpon, 2011).

The analysis also reveals a greater number of noun phrases used in the native English news articles than those in Thai news articles. This is supported by Schilk and Schaub's study (2016) which found that noun phrase complexity occurs in a variety of English. There seem to be some differences of English used in different countries. In this study, different uses of noun phrases reflect language complexity found in the online news articles written by news writers with different native languages. It could be summarized that the language in news articles written by native English speakers is more complex than that written by Thai news writers.

To conclude, the investigation of noun phrase types used in online political news in Thai and native English newspapers revealed that noun phrases were used in The New York Times more frequently than they were in Bangkok Post. Moreover, the differences in using noun phrases between Thai and native English online political news, based on Biber, Gray, and Poonpon (2011)'s study, indicated that the written language produced by native English news writers was more complicated than that written by Thai news writers. The former groups of writers use longer and more complicated noun phrase structures in their written production. However, the study only focused on political news from two online sources: The New York Times and the Bangkok Post and also used a small number of samples with one specific topic. Further studies should include a larger size of samples from other sources, and probably a variety of topics to obtain more reliable results.

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