ABSTRACT
This paper aims to describe the use of video as a medium in teaching Indonesian for speakers of other language (TISOL) that is so-called BIPA. The material was intended for BIPA students with business specialty. The study uses a qualitative descriptive method. The data were taken from interview and simple questioner. It is based the learners need. The material consists of a syllabus with topics related to specific purposes in business field. The media will increase their proficiency Indonesia for foreign learners. The purpose of this article is (1) to describe the syllabus required in BIPA teaching in the field of business, and (2) to identify cultural expressions, terminology, and language expression often used in Indonesian communication for BIPA learning, (3) to describe the implication of the use of video on BIPA learning. The results of the study show several findings. First, the required topics in the syllabus consist of teaching materials in business world. They are about how to do communication in the bank, in working space, in the meeting, at the receptionist desk, in job interview, in stock exchange, and in TV commercial. Second, the video media has significant implication in order to use up their right brain understanding. Third, the cultural expressions are often used in the communication, such as, greeting, choice of words, and addressing people in working place.

KEYWORDS
BIPA, video, business, medium, teaching
INTRODUCTION

BIPA is a teaching program for foreign speakers or TISOL (Teaching Indonesian for Speaker of Other Language). The program gives not only language teaching but also cultural knowledge. There are many aspects needed in the process. The process involves to improve both learners’ competency and skill. However, it is not easy to make teaching materials that provide a perfect picture of the most ideal teaching material. There are many methods and enrichment of teaching materials that can be done. That can take the form of teaching in the form of print, audio, supplements, and audio visual.

Teachers who use instructional video report that their students retain more information, understand concepts more rapidly and are more enthusiastic about what they are learning. With video as one component in a thoughtful lesson plan, students often make new connections between curriculum topics, and discover links between these topics and the world outside the classroom.

Of the various issues regarding the BIPA program, regarding the provision of teaching materials is an issue that needs special attention and handling. The importance of this adequate teaching material is quite dominantly discussed at various BIPA meeting forums. Besides, the issue of teaching material in learning indeed has an essential and strategic role in the BIPA program. The role of teaching materials in learning is mainly related to efforts to create the achievement of learning objectives. In the BIPA program, ideal teaching materials relate to teaching and learning processes that can be observed by the mechanism and its results (Long, 1987; Rodgers, 1990; Baradja, 1994). In fact, it is empirically stated that the problems often arise in the implementation of BIPA programs. They mostly originate from learning problems with teaching materials that are not on target (Kartomihardjo, 1996).

There are some previous investigations dealing with BIPA teaching. First, Wirawan (2019) presented his idea on the use of literary texts as a means of supporting Indonesian language learning for foreign speakers. Literary texts serve as an additional supplement in Indonesian language learning for foreign speakers. The use of literary texts in this BIPA study will add variations of Indonesian texts learned by BIPA learners. Literary texts are more complex than non-literature text will also increase the foreign learner’ Indonesian proficiency Second, Mawadi et al. (2017) discussed teacher uses learning media particularly in writing skill. Learning media in teaching writing for TISOL students can use film, local music, picture, demonstration media, and real life of community. Furthermore, learning outside the class is conducted so that students are
learning material directly in understanding local culture and improving writing skill. Third, Ridwan (2019) elaborated Teaching BIPA (Bahasa Indonesia Untuk Penutur Asing) for Sudanese; Lesson Learned in Bridging Indonesia and Sudan. The study discussed lesson learned obtained during the implementation. This includes best practices and challenges. Furthermore, In Sudan particularly, teaching BIPA has been conducted prior to DIKTI initiatives. Both Embassy staff and Indonesian students working as Staff Assistant at the embassy involved in the program. This initiative should be sustainable to more internationalize our Bahasa Indonesia around the globe. Fourth, Mulyanah (2019) studied teaching material for foreign workers in business register. The result shows that there are certain syllabus that are required for BIPA learners in business field.

However, there are not many research dealing with video teaching for foreign workers, especially in business field. Therefore, the writer believes that it will be significant to investigate how a video medium can give a better BIPA teaching. The writer thinks why video teaching material is significant for learning because there are many benefits to use video in education as shown in several decades of research. The transformative way of video can influence to teaching and learning. It can also encourage students to have good imagination on topics which learners can understand lecture content at their pace and explore content more deeply before the class ends.

LITERARY REVIEW

The section is divided into two parts: The syllabus for BIPA in business field and the benefit of video. The syllabus for business cited in Mulyanah (2018) can be seen in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO</th>
<th>TERMINOLOGY</th>
<th>BANKING TERMINOLOGY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Bunga</td>
<td>bunga andalan, bunga bank, bunga biasa, bunga debit, bunga ditambahkan, bunga harian, bunga majemuk, bunga pasti, bunga terantisipasi bunga bank, bunga majemuk, bunga prosentase tahunan (BPT), bunga perkenalan.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Kartu</td>
<td>kartu afinitas, kartu bank, kartu bisnis, kartu debit, kartu debit plus kartu kredit, kartu kredit berca gahungan, kartu kredit berjaminan, kartu pembelian, kartu prabayar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Kredit</td>
<td>kredit kepulitan, kewajiban utang kredit, kredit investasi kredit konsumsi kredit macet, kredit dengan agunan kredit pemilikan rumah, kredit tanpa agunan (KTA), kredit retail, laporan kredit layak kredit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Pinjaman</td>
<td>pinjaman atas permintaan, pinjaman perseorangan berangsuran, pinjaman beragunan pinjaman berjaminan, pinjaman berjaminan agunan, pinjaman berjaminan tabungan, pinjaman dasar tunai, pinjaman multi guna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Pancarupa</td>
<td>agunan, akad kredit, anjungan tunai mandiri (ATM), aset, batas kredit, biaya keuangan, biaya layanan, biro kredit, buku simpanan, cek melambung, debit debitur, deposito, dokumentasi kredit, fasilitas kredit, jaminan, jaminan bank, jaminan pinjaman, jatuh tempo pembayaran, kaji ulang kredit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Many people recognize that each person prefers different learning styles and techniques. Learning styles group common ways that people learn. Everyone has a mix of learning styles. Some people may find that they have a dominant style of learning, with far less use of the other styles. Others may find that they use different styles in different circumstances. There is no right mix. Nor are your styles fixed. You can develop ability in less dominant styles, as well as further develop styles that you already use well.

Related to the use of video, The use of video within teaching is well-known and well-documented. Willmot (2012), Shepard and Cooper (1982) ; Mayer and Gallini (1990) cited from
Bradshaw (2016) say that videos increase student motivation and aid the development of learner autonomy. The trend towards flipping the classroom in recent years has resulted in greater use of video and, consequently, it is a medium that students are familiar with. There is evidence to suggest that there is a connection between memory retrieval and visual cues. For students who need to learn a new process or technique, video allows them to learn actively by pausing, rewinding and replaying parts of the recording (Galbraith, 2004), so that they can understand the material at their own pace. In cases where students are actively involved in creating the videos, this further helps the material to stick in their minds, as well as providing them with transferable skills such as research, team working, problem solving and technological and organisational skills (Hakkarainen, 2009).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS
This research is trying to discuss the use of video in learning BIPA in business. Accordingly, the following research questions are taken into consideration:
What is the syllabus required in BIPA teaching in business field?
What is cultural items and certain terminology as well as expressions used in Indonesian communication for BIPA teaching?
What is the implication of the use of video on BIPA teaching?

METHODOLOGY
This research method uses descriptive method with a qualitative approach (Taylor & Bogman 1984:5). The technique used is using questionnaires and interviews. In making teaching materials using the literature study method. There are five respondents in the data.

Data collection technique
In exploring information about language skills, knowledge of work culture in Indonesia, and banking knowledge in Indonesian. The data were collected by three techniques, namely placement tests, questionnaires, and in-depth interviews conducted with the foreign workers (TKA) and translated into English. Questionnaires and interviews using English because in general the TKA did not understand Indonesian.

Data analysis
Both data are analyzed with the following steps.
Students’ language proficiency are their ability to hear, read, write, and grammar are assessed then given a rating of A1-C2.
The video media are presented into two types: the video taken from the real situation (in the bank, the TV news program, etc.) and video shooting. However, the topics are taken from the needs analysis. Data from interviews and questionnaires are calculated and made in the form of percent. The interview data consisted of knowledge of work culture and knowledge of banking terminology in Indonesian.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Syllabus for BIPA in Business Field
From the results of interviews with respondents, the data obtained by the author are as follows. The teaching materials needed by foreign workers in Indonesia in Indonesia that is so-called TKA are in the form of pragmatic material (C/advance). However, the language abilities of the TKA are very diverse, namely A1 (basic1), A2 (basic 2) and B1 (intermediate 1). TKA with sufficient language skills (A2 and B1) are TKA with work contract extension. The scope of material needed in the work environment is related to the banking world, namely the themes of the pragmatic realm (C1-C2). To facilitate learners in understanding the material, the questions are in simple sentences.

The foreign workers have diverse abilities. The need for teaching materials with banking themes is material for advanced level (C). This makes it difficult for instructors to provide material that is in accordance with the abilities of foreign workers. However, the difficulty faced by teachers is the content of the discourse that must be authentic according to their needs in real life. The materials are advertising, office language, understanding numbers, banking terms, company terms, and receipts.

Teaching material for BIPA is Indonesian for specific purpose. It covers some functional texts, such as, advertisements, job vacancies, announcements / memos, graphs, diagrams, tables, job application letters, brochures, and labels.

Language competency includes communication skills. They are reading, writing, speaking, listening, grammar, and language expressions. The language expressions are at the bank, in working space, in the meeting, at the receptionist desk, in job interview, in stock exchange, and in TV commercial.

B. Language Use
This section elaborates the contents of video that are taken from the interviews. The video consists of two parts: real situation taken from internet and role-play video recording done by models.
C. Students’ Response on Video Media

The video medium gives positive responses. The students have answered interesting findings. The video shown on has significant implication in order to use up their right brain understanding.
Based on the interview, the teaching becomes easier, more interesting, less boring, and creative. Watching the video allows them to guess the meaning by observing the situation and the setting. The result can be seen in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>VIDEO IMPLICATION</th>
<th>PERCENTAGE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Video makes teaching easier</td>
<td>8.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Video makes teaching less boring</td>
<td>9.05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Video makes teaching more interesting</td>
<td>20.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Video makes creative thinking</td>
<td>12.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Video can show the real conversation among native speakers</td>
<td>5.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Video can make a lot of chances to guess meaning</td>
<td>13.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Video can create imagination</td>
<td>9.13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Video can trigger to do self-learning</td>
<td>5.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Video can be as a mood booster</td>
<td>5.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>Video can represent working culture in Indonesia</td>
<td>11.16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the respondents, we can see that the impact of video has made teaching material more interesting. The percentage of data is 20.56%. The video also shows significant findings that it creates creative thinking. 12.15% of respondents believe that it makes them creative. The significant thing is the process of teaching-learning that makes it more fun. 13.15% of respondents think that they can guess meaning by observing visual images. The most beneficial impact is that video learning can represent working culture in Indonesia (11.16%).

The video has given positive impact for students by creating imagination (9.13%), making teaching less boring (9.05%), making teaching material easier (8.10%), observing native speakers’ conversation (5.10%), triggering to do self-learning (5.50%), and giving mood booster (5.10%).

From interview, it also gains some findings dealing with video teaching. The finding shows that the video is useful in order to take students around the globe, to meet new people and hear their ideas, to illustrate complex, abstract concepts through animated, 3-D images how experiments that can’t be done in class bring great literature, plays, music, or important scenes from history into the real world.

Teachers are able to reach children with a variety of learning styles by exploiting the medium’s power to deliver lasting images. They especially work out for visual learners, and students with a variety of information acquisition styles. They can engage students in problem-solving and
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CONCLUSION
From the results and discussion section, we can conclude the following conclusions. They are as follows. First, the required topic in syllabus is language expressions in business register. They consist of teaching material taken place at the bank, in working space, in the meeting, at the receptionist desk, in job interview, in stock exchange, and in TV commercial.

Second, the topics are related to the cultural expressions, terminology, and language expression. They are often used in the communication, such as, greeting, choice of words, cultural habits. The cultural habits are commonly acceptable in Indonesian communication, including, addressing someone such as, Mas, Mbak, Pak, Bapak, and Beliau. There are also expressions that are usually used among Indonesian. Indonesian have different nickname when addressing people in workplace. The rank of addressing people depends on the position in the company.

Third, from the respondents, we can see that the impact of video has made teaching material is more interesting. The percentage of data is 20.56%. The video also shows significant findings that it creates creative thinking. 12.15% of respondents believes that it makes them creative. The significant thing is the process of teaching-learning that makes it more fun. 13.15% of respondents thinks that they can guess meaning by observing visual images. The most beneficial impact is that video learning can represent working culture in Indonesia (11.16%).

The study will give contributions for those who are involved in BIPA or TISOL (Teaching Indonesian for foreign Speakers). There should further research to more respondents, more various BIPA students, and to more complex teaching material.

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Ade Mulyanah

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THE EFFECT OF TWO TYPES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK IN FLIPPED CLASSROOMS IN IMPROVING ENGLISH TENSES AND PROMOTING PRE-INTERMEDIATE EFL LEARNERS' WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

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ABSTRACT
Flipped classroom is an educational technique in which students have been given a chance to be actively questioned instead of being passively told by teacher's instruction in classroom. Adopting flipped classroom as lecturing outside of the class in forms of videos or screencast provides learners with the opportunity to have more time in class to cooperate with teachers and peers to improve their grammatical problem as well as improving their willingness to communicate. Despite the potential benefits of using flipped instruction in second language learning, very few studies have investigated whether prompt and recast in flipped classroom led to improvement of grammatical problem and willingness to communicate of Iran’s L2 Learners. To identify effective pedagogical instruction, this study drew on the construct of ‘willingness to communicate’ and the notion of ‘corrective feedback strategies’ to analyze both the processes and the learning outcomes of learners’ cooperation and knowledge construction during a flipped classroom. For this purpose, pre-test, immediate-test and delayed-test were used to collect quantitative data as well as observation and interview so as to collect qualitative data. The findings serve as the evidence to confirm the effectiveness of prompts and recast as the corrective feedback to improve EFL learners’ knowledge and performance of grammar tenses and improvement of willingness to communicate in flipped classroom.

KEYWORDS: Flipped classroom, corrective feedbacks, willingness to communicate, prompt, recast.
INTRODUCTION

It is with no doubt that introduction and utilization of new and emerging forms of technologies will affect learning in classrooms of the future. From common classroom computers and tablet to new and emerging platforms like mobile phones and iPads, student exposure to technologies and new innovative teaching approaches so employing these technologies is certain to increase. These forms of instructional technology have the potential to change and reshape classroom learning for students in various ways. Moreover, shedding light on the idea of the appropriateness of syllabi, their ability to boost students’ thinking level and rising up traditional thinking habits is intermittent. In latest years, several researchers have found out the success of many students in learning and adopting transformation of traditional teaching to flipped classroom strategy that is one of the result of improving technology in teaching. Increasing learner-centered practice in modern methodology has recently highlighted the students’ communication in class rather than face to face training time in which teachers and trainers instead of being a guide on the side become sage on the stage. However, the change in general education program institutes in Iran from traditional, face-to-face to use flipped format has conducted for many periods and surprisingly students, despite their twenty-first-century technology skills, are not fully aware of how to shift their study practices from reliance on the instructor to self-regulated learning.

Classroom learning is seen as a positive climate that could nurture student involvement. This highlighted the importance of finding real solutions to encourage oral communication among L2 learners in their classroom. However, the heuristic willingness to communicate (WTC) model, emerged from situations related to L2 use. Generally, there is a need to understand the various relevant linguistic, situational, individual, and communication strategies factors that play a vital role in students’ WTC in L2. According to McCroskey and Baer (1985), willingness to communicate is the degree of engaging in communication once free to decide to communicate. Lim (2002) pointed that willingness to communicate is not only communicative competence rather it is a kind of psychological preparedness to communicate.

Many research studies have investigated the importance of corrective feedback. According to Lyster and Ranta (1995), “increasing number of SLA studies show that different kinds of corrective feedback play a role in L2 development”. Lyster and Saito (2010) also mentioned that “Russel and Spada (2006) draw no conclusion about the relative effectiveness of CF types, acknowledging that despite the increasing number of observational and experimental studies on efficiency of various corrective feedback, sufficient data to arrive at such conclusion are lacking”. Mackey and Goo (2007) emphasized “the need for greater theoretical specificity or practical motivation in making claim about superiority of one feedback type over another” (p.440). Although Lyster and Saito (2010) mentioned that CF has proven its general effectiveness with differential effects depending on age (Lyster & Saito 2010), data collection context (Li, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007), learning context (Li, 2010), promoting noticing and conducive to L2
learning (Mackey & Philp, 1998; Sheen, 2006) as well as effectiveness of different types of corrective feedback (Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, Lyster, 2004a; Lyster Izquierdo, 2009), there is no research about adopting CF in flipped classroom settings, where superiority of feedback types over the other examined. Despite ongoing debates regarding priority of CF over each other, especially prompts over recasts and vice versa (Lyster, 1998, 2002; Yang & Lyster, 2010; Egi, 2007; Ellis & Sheen, 2006), on the one hand classroom studying generally show more benefits for prompt over recast (Lyster, 2004a; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Lyster and Yang, 2010), on the other result obtained from laboratory studies have not yielded similar result and focus on benefits of recasts over prompts.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE
Recent progresses in technology have engendered a new direction in education. The flipped classroom, also known as reverse or backward classroom is a new pedagogical movement that reverse the traditional paradigm of class lecture and homework (Correa, 2015). In this new method teacher-center approach has shift into lecturing outside of classroom in the form of videos or screencast while students can watch it at home so class time will be dedicated to more interaction among learners and the teacher. Theoretical foundation of the flipped classroom comes from a large body of literature on student-centered learning while highlighting the theories of cognitive conflict of Piaget (1976) and the Zone of Proximal Development of Vygotsky (1987). Many researches indicate the connection between peer-assisted learning with these two theories (Tudge & Wnterholff, 1993). They conclude that collaborative learning from Piaget’s theory and cooperative learning from Vygotsky’s Zone of Proximal Development are framework of peer assisted learning and students-centered learning theories. Main tenet of these theories is that face to face teaching time will spend actively learning through practical task and peer discussion to consolidate students learning, then students will take responsibility for their own learning and as a result teacher will teach based on group work or discussion. Mazure (2012) also worked on a teaching strategy in which student had a chance of being actively questioned instead of being passively told. Bergmann and Sams (2012) worked on motivation behind the flipped classroom. Zappe, Leicht, Messner and Lee (2009) have investigated the flipping classroom to explore active learning in a large undergraduate course. However, watching lecture and reading materials at home have been examined by Boucher, Robertson, Wainner, Sanders, (2013). As an illustration, Basal (2015) conducted a research to investigate the perceptions of prospective English language teachers at a state university in Turkey on the flipped classrooms and to introduce the implementation of a flipped classroom into an English language class. Findings of the study showed the positive perceptions of teachers toward the use of the flipped classroom as an integral part of face to face courses. Al-Harbi and Alshumaimeri (2016) conducted a research to investigate the impact of the flipped classrooms strategy in teaching English grammar on
secondary school students’ performances, perceptions, and attitudes for learning English independently.

The concept of willingness to communicate, defined as the probability of speaking when free to do so (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; MacIntyre, Celement, Dorneyei, Noels, 1998), help orient our focus toward a concern for “….micro level process and the sometimes rapid changes that promote or inhibit L2 communication” (MacIntyre, 1994). Willingness to communicate is conceptualized as the probability of engaging in communication when free to choose to do it. However, as Kang (2005) mentioned “There are many variables that have the potential to change an individual’s WTC. These variables are the degree of acquaintance between communicators, the number of people present, the degree of evaluation of the speaker and the one which is very related to this study is the familiarity of topic of discussion”. In the literature, two orientations toward the study in the field of WTC can be seen. The first studies pay more attention to a trait-like predisposition for WTC; however, later studies paid more attention to the situational construct for WTC (Kang, 2005); nevertheless, WTC is considered as being a dual characteristic construct (Cao & Philp, 2006), namely trait-like WTC and situational WTC. In a study by MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, and Conrod (2001), it has been found out that social support from friends is related with higher levels of WTC outside classroom, but not inside the classroom, because this way, students have less feeling of anxiety and high self-confidence, so this is an evidence that WTC in the authentic context is influenced by interlocutors. Clement, Baker, and MacIntyre (2007) say that WTC model does not explicitly deal with situations in which status-based linguistic accommodation and other social pressures might create L2 use against the personal preference of the speaker. For fostering WTC a set of strategies can be found that may come in handy: Enhancing students’ interest in different cultures and international affairs and activities, as well as reducing anxiety, and building confidence in communication (Yashima, 2002). Letting the learners know that their errors and mistakes are not considered as negative and weak point for them (Riasati & Noordin, 2011). Using technology and avoiding adherence to the traditional ways of teaching for example the use of on-line chat for problem-solving, because it provides a more comfortable environment and enhances students’ WTC and the use of digital on-line group games because they are able to increase students’ enthusiasm, lower anxiety, and improve WTC (Reinders & Wattana, 2011). Acknowledging that the ultimate goal of these studies is to improve L2 development, it is timely to probe the deficiencies of these researches. Some of these researches are only based on quantitative studies and there is no voice of students. However, there is no specific research evaluating the effect of the flipped classroom on increasing WTC or whether corrective feedback can improve WTC or not. This study will not only obtain quantitative result but also explain such result in more detail, especially in terms of detailed voices and participant perspective because little is known about the mechanism behind the flipped classroom effect on improving WTC through different kinds of corrective feedback.
Notwithstanding the richness of CF literature, a disproportionate number of studies have investigated the effects of CF. According to Lyster and Satio (2012) since form-focused instruction was proposed in the early 1990s (Lightbown & Sapa, 2006), corrective feedback has been given much attention from both theoretical and pedagogical perspective. Considering second language development, CF has proven its general effectiveness with differential effects depending on age (Lyster & Satio, 2010), data collection contexts (Mackey & Goo, 2007), learning contexts (Li, 2007). As it is mentioned the effectiveness of CF has been demonstrated in many studies. The learning mechanism of CF are explained by several L2 acquisition theories such as skill acquisition theory (DeKeyser & Juffs, 2005; Lyster & Sato, 2010), the output hypothesis (Swain, 1998), and interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996). There has been some recent investigation toward CF. Lee and Lyster (2016b) investigated the effects of CF on L2 speech perception training. Despite the number of researches in evaluating the effectiveness of CF, there is no study examining the CF types’ impact on improving WTC in the flipped classroom instruction.

METHOD

Participant
The participants of the present study consisted of 40 pre-intermediate level EFL learners drawn from a private language school. To ensure the homogeneity of participants, a standard language proficiency test was conducted prior to the study. The participants (aging between 18-25 years old) were assigned into 2 groups of a recasts mediated group (n=20), a prompts mediated group (n=20).

Material
Quantitative data collection materials
Pre-test: One comprehensive grammar test: in the form of multiple and fill-in-the-blank questions. The purpose of this pretest is to make sure that the participating students do not have knowledge about the grammar tense and find out their weak points. This test will include 30 fill-in-the-blank test items and 20 multiple-choice questions and have a good coverage of all grammar tense, vocabularies and texts.

Immediate-test: Grammar test in form of multiple and fill in blank questions in similar content but different order with pretest was administered. This test was administered to check students’ immediate comprehension after teaching grammar trough screencast. The immediate post-test was used to measure grammar learning and recall of the students in short-term memory and check whether students can use the grammar tense immediately to a new context in test.
Delayed post-test: This test was administered among the experimental group with 4 weeks interval in form of multiple and fill in blank questions. The answer sheets were collected after administration of post-test and the results were used to evaluate the mediation.

Qualitative data collection materials:
Interview
Observation

Procedures
In quantitative phase, to understand students’ progress in learning knowledge of the grammar tense which included “To be present and Past, present and past simple, presents and past continuous, present and past perfect and future”, instructor examined their initial knowledge to realize the effectiveness of this method. To this end, one comprehensive test including different kinds of grammar tense supposed to be covered within the course checked students’ primary knowledge in form of multiple-choice questions and fill-in-blank form. The purpose of this test was to find out which parts of these tenses are more difficult for pre-intermediate level students. The results were used to analyze and evaluate the progress of learning at the end of course. After this pre-test, students watched an online screencast/video recorded by instructors of Institute in the evening before each class. For this assignment students were asked to log into their account which was created before the course by IT department of the institute. Students watched a short clip, about 15 minutes to 20 in the form of video and each video focused on central point of grammar tense and followed by a multiple choice test or fill in the blank test which probed students’ understanding of the idea just presented. Each conceptual test included 10 questions and students had 10 minutes to formulate individual answers. To this end, Essential Grammar in Use by Raymond Murphy, a reference and practice book for the pre-intermediate class was used. Students were not graded on their answer to the concept test, but received small amount of credit for participation consistently over the semester. They had a strong incentive to participate because the midterm and final exam included a significant number of concept test like questions. After the submission deadline or 10 minutes, student logged into their account to see the correct answers and will check their own answers. Each class’ instructor reviewed students’ answers before class and discussed them later in class once required. However, for checking the proficiency of students, delay post-test was assigned 3 times during the course, to cover all grammatical points which have been presented prior in videos. Again as a reference book, the delay post-test questions were selected from Essential Grammar in Use book which include final checking questions for each unit.

Keeping with Mackey and Goo (2007), learners who noticed the corrective nature of feedback improved more than those who did not, the first experimental group was provided with prompts the second with recasts. Lyster (2004) showed that recasts are considered effective because they
provide learners with opportunities to notice the gap between interlanguage forms and target forms, whereas prompts are considered effective because they provide L2 learners with signals to retrieve target forms on their own and thus to engage in practice opportunities that lead to a restructuring of their L2 interlanguage system. Recast was operationalized as instructor’s reformulation of students’ ill-formed utterance that contained grammatical errors while prompt pushed learner to self-repair which include four feedback types as Repetition, Metalinguistic Clue, Clarification Request, Elicitation.

In this study the researcher as an observer attended in all classes and recorded and observed responses with respect to the research goals. In keeping with grounded theory the required data was gathered systematically and sorted and categorized for data analysis. The participants’ feedbacks and responses were observed and recorded once instructos negotiated with them or treat them. As students had special entrance interview at the beginning of course, there was a final interview and the observer interviewed each student individually to understand their attitudes towards the course. A unique, semi-structured interview protocol (Merriam, 2009) was utilized for each individual interview. Structured interviews protocols help to focus the conversation, reduce superfluous information and also serve as a way to standardize the interviews amongst different research participants so that common research themes and patterns might emerge (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The dialogues between students and the observer were recorded and audiotaped for further analysis and comparison with the initial interview. Although students were exposed to English treatment in classes where special attention is given to English as a language of instruction, students were allowed to speak Persian while the interview was done in order to avoid difficulties they may have in expressing their feeling about WTC. Referring to the frequency of words and sentences students declared, the observer recorded them with respect to their theme and feeling.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
To find out whether prompts in the flipped classroom lead to improvement of grammar tenses and raising up the degrees of willingness to communicate inside the class an educational intervention based on prompts was administered among the experimental group and it was revealed that there was significant difference from pre-test (M=44.50) to post-test (M=52.30) state of grammar tenses among the participants under the present study with SD=3.33. This difference serves as the evidence to confirm the effectiveness of prompts as the corrective feedback to improve EFL learners’ knowledge and performance of grammar tenses.
A paired samples test was conducted in response to the research question and it was revealed that the administered treatment during the study caused significant differences between the pre-test and post-test state of learners’ knowledge and performance of grammar tenses. According to the obtained results P value is less than .001 that is p < .001 which serves as the evidence of the observed difference as a result of the administered treatment in the present study.

To find out whether recasts in the flipped classroom lead to improvement of grammar tenses and raising up the degrees of willingness to communicate inside the class an educational intervention based on recasts was administered among the experimental group and it was revealed that there was significant difference from pretest to posttest state of grammar tenses among the participants under the present study. This difference serves as the evidence to confirm the effectiveness of recasts as the corrective feedback to improve EFL learners’ knowledge and performance of grammar tenses.
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Table 4: EFL Learners’ Performance differences between pre-test and Post-test (recast)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To find out the participants’ attitudes towards the effectiveness of the adopted corrective feedbacks each experimental group was separately interviewed and the elicited responses were sorted and categorized into three types of Yes/To Some Extent/No. In response to the interview question asking about the effectiveness of the adopted educational intervention 100% of the interviewees had positive opinions (70%=Yes and 30%=to some extent).

Table 5: EFL Learners’ view about effectiveness of adopted methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did you find the applied educational intervention useful?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>70.0</td>
<td>70.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To find out the participants’ attitudes towards the effectiveness of using videos to enhance willingness to communicate each experimental group was separately interviewed and the elicited responses were sorted and categorized into three types of Yes/To Some Extent/No. In response to the interview question asking about the effectiveness of the adopted educational intervention 100% of the interviewees had positive opinions (69%=Yes and 31%=to some extent).
Table 6: EFL Learners’ view about effectiveness of adopted videos

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Did the videos help you improve your willingness to communicate in the class?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>72.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To find out the participants’ attitudes towards the effectiveness of the adopted corrective feedbacks each experimental group was separately interviewed and the elicited responses were sorted and categorized into three types of Yes/To Some Extent/No. In response to the interview question asking about the effectiveness of the adopted educational intervention 100% of the interviewees had positive opinions (83%=Yes and 16%=to some extent).

Table 7: EFL Learners’ view about effectiveness of adopted corrective feedbacks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you consider corrective feedback as a facilitative technique to enhance your willingness to communicate?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To some extent</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the results it can be argued that the majority of the interviewed participants had positive attitudes towards the effectiveness of the adopted corrective feedbacks for the purpose of developing learners’ knowledge and use of grammar tenses and the willingness to communicate. Therefore, they should be used in future EFL instructions to improve language teaching in terms of grammar tense and willingness to communicate in flipped classrooms

Discussion

The findings of the present study confirm the studies conducted previously in Iran. For example, Ghahari and Piruznejad (2016) examined the effect of explicit and recast corrective feedbacks on young L2 learners’ grammar uptake and willingness to communication. The results of the grammar post-tests revealed that implicit CF was more effective than explicit correction on the development of L2 knowledge.
This finding is on par with those of Lyster (2001), Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Sheen (2004). It contradicts, however, with the findings of some other researchers like Ellis et al. (2008), Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen (2009), and Rassaei (2013). Regarding the effect of feedback on young L2 learners’ WTC, the findings were also in favor of implicit correction. The t-test results showed that recasts lead to students’ willingness to participation in classroom activities and communicative tasks more than the explicit CF. This finding is compatible to the idea of some researchers who believe that explicit correction is anxiety provoking and might lead to negative psychological outcomes (Leeman, 2003; Trofimovich et al., 2007). One can argue that the findings of the study are also verification to the traditional claim made by Krashen (1985) that learners learn best through unconscious acquisition and that conscious learning does not lead to acquisition. However, this study made use of partial recasts which, as Ellis et al. (2006) argue, may not be considered as an implicit or even a relatively implicit technique. In partial recasts, only the erroneous part of the sentence is repeated by the teacher, which helps learners to locate the error. Partial recasts are considered to be more effective than full recasts by many researchers (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Kim & Mathes, 2001; Loewen & Philp, 2006; Rassaei, 2013). Another reason for the superiority of the implicit correction in the present study might be the rather long treatment the students experienced (950 mins over 19 sessions). In most studies in which explicit CF had a better effect over the implicit one, the length of the treatment was very short (e.g., Ellis et al., 2006; Rassaei, 2013). Therefore, we may conclude that although explicit correction might lead to immediate L2 development (i.e. intake), as some other studies have shown recasts have a more enduring effect (Rassaei & Moinzadeh, 2014; Shirazi & Sadighi, 2012). In addition, contrary to most studies which compared the effect of the two feedback types on adults, in this study we had a sample of young learners. Standing at the implicit end of CF continuum, recasts are characterized by saving class time and being less than any other feedback threatening to the learners’ self-confidence (Loewen & Philp, 2006).

The findings of the present study are in keeping with the following studies:

In a flipped classroom-based research on the effectiveness of corrective feedback, Lyster (2004) found that corrective feedback-initiated instruction contributes to better performance than the one with no CF in practice. According to Lyster (2004), in form-focused instruction, prompts are more effective than recasts. Exploring the effect of recasts and prompts in the acquisition of grammar, Ammar and Spada (2006) demonstrated that the groups receiving corrective feedback had a better performance in comparison to the control group. However, the group receiving prompts significantly outperformed the recast group. Ellis et al. (2006) also investigated the effectiveness of recasts and metalinguistic feedback on the acquisition of regular past tense forms in English. The study was conducted for the purpose of examining whether the learners’ exposure to two different corrective feedback types that foster explicit knowledge could lead to the development of implicit knowledge. In this study, it was shown that the metalinguistic feedback was more effective than recasts. According to Sheen (2007), the learners provided with
metalinguistic correction had a better performance than those instructed with recast and their high scores were associated with specific variables such as language analytic ability and attitudes towards corrective feedback. Thus, explicit correction accompanied by metalinguistic information resulted in higher levels of accuracy than the mere provision of recasts (Sheen, 2007). The present study bears the limitation that the contents were held in a single institute in Tehran which may limit the generalizability of the study to other institutes of Tehran and other cities as well. The number of the participants also, refers to this problem. Another major limitation of this study lies in the researcher’s dependence in two types of corrective feedback and ignoring the other ones.

With regards to the limitation above, further studies may be done by observing learners’ learning style inside schools’ classrooms, measuring relationship and effects of other types of corrective feedbacks and their influences on WTC which might provide further insights into these variables. It would be also worthy to examine the research questions among larger samples and even higher level of EFL learners.

CONCLUSION
In addition to making current knowledge and initiative available to a wider group of the educational community, more preference requires that new question be posed, existing conceptualization deepened and some dilemmas identified and addressed (Basal, 2015). In order to reach such a far aim, teachers should be more aware of the peers’ differences and varieties of approaches that students undertake inside the class. Supporting this idea, the present study consider different learning and teaching styles of grammar among 40 students and assess its relationship with WTC. The main purpose of this study, in the qualitative phase, was to evaluate and explore how different models of treatment will lead to improvement of L2 knowledge and in the second exploratory follow up phase, the tentative plan was to explore learners’ WTC while having different model of treatment inside the classroom. Although this study includes some limitation like the contents and classes which were held in a single institute in Tehran and the number of the participants as well as the researcher’s dependence in two types of corrective feedback and ignoring the other types, the findings of this study confirm previous conducted study in Iran which focused on recast and explicit feedbacks on L2 learners especially their grammar and their willingness to communicate. The obtained results of the grammar post-tests show that implicit CF was more effective than explicit correction on the development of L2 knowledge and students were more eager to communicate. However, tests’ results show that recasts lead to students’ willingness to participate in classroom activities and communicative tasks more than the explicit CF.
REFERENCES


INVESTIGATING RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FLUID AND CRYSTALLISED INTELLIGENCE AND VOCABULARY SIZE IN STUDENTS LEARNING FRENCH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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ABSTRACT
In this study, the relationship between fluid and crystallised intelligence and vocabulary size was investigated among Iranian students learning French as a foreign language. Studies emphasised on the importance of vocabulary size and language comprehension and tried to discover mental and intelligence factors related to this issue. To administer the present quantitative study, the Persian Adaptation of Baddeley’s (1968) Grammatical reasoning Test for Fluid Intelligence, Persian Test of Baghaei and Tabatabaee (2015) for Crystallised intelligence, and Nation’s (2012) Test of Vocabulary Size were instrumented. Population of the study was 100 intermediate learners of French language from three branches of Safir institute in Tehran. Data was analysed using SPSS and correlational tools to specify the variables correlation. Result showed that there is a significant relationship between crystallised intelligence and size of vocabulary (p<0.1), while there was no significant relationship between fluid intelligence and vocabulary size (p>0.5). It was concluded that fluid intelligence does not predict learners’ vocabulary size, but crystallised intelligence as grows gradually determines learners’ vocabulary size. One implication of this finding is that we could expect to see an increase in second language learners’ vocabulary size regardless of their fluid intelligence. Results of this research revealed the correlation of crystallised intelligence with second language learners’ ability to expand their vocabulary size and its significant impact on their learning achievement.

KEYWORDS: crystallised intelligence, fluid intelligence, vocabulary size, memory, language learning, French language

INTRODUCTION
The impact of multiple intelligences on learning was emphasised by Howard Gardner (2000), but a decade back, it was Raymound Cattell, that for the first time introduced fluid and crystallised
intelligence as effective intelligences on language learners. As discussed by Yusufşen and Mesut Kuleli (2015) in Cattell’s (1963) the term, fluid intelligence, was considered as “the ability to reason and to solve new problems and difficulties independently by previously acquired knowledge” (p. 556) useful for variety of cognitive tasks influential on language learning. Crystallised intelligence as an influential intelligence on educational tasks refers to “memory or information saved and stabilised in long term memory which required to be revived immediately” (Sen & Kuleli, 2015, p. 556). According to Cattell (1963) crystallised intelligence refers to acquired knowledge and information added to memory during the time. Many studies emphasised on the importance of fluid and crystallised intelligence on learning at school (Haavisto & Lehto, 2005) and attributed it to non-biological environmental factors (Rindermann et al., 2010).

Marja-Leena and Lehto Juhani (2005) studied the fluid and crystallized memory and its effect on working memory and indicated that “verbal WM might be related to verbal ability and learning at school, while visuospatial WM is relatively strongly related to nonverbal reasoning and spatial visualisation” (p. 1). They argued that inelegances work together and studding them may not provide reliable result.

Students’ vocabulary size develops over time and by growing older, it is discussed that their crystallised and fluid intelligences would be stronger. It is hypothesised that by growing the age and having bigger vocabulary knowledge the correlation between fluid and crystallised intelligences with individuals’ vocabulary size increases. While studies (Nation & Waring, 1997; Laufer & Nation, 1999; Nassaji, 2004; Uena & Kuleli, 2015; and Assadi & Vaskehmahalleh, 2017) emphasised on the influence of vocabulary size on students’ developing four language skills, the problem is that previous studies did not reveal the influence of fluid and crystallised intelligence on students’ vocabulary size specifically. In addition, scholars have tested the relationship between variables of vocabulary size, reading comprehension, and fluid and crystallised intelligences separately. Such devotion to examining vocabulary size resulted in developing standard tests examining vocabulary size. One popular test of vocabulary size was developed by Nation (2012) classifying words into 14 categories so that from each category with 1000 words, 10 words can be chosen for testing the size of vocabulary. Accordingly, the test involves 140 multiple-choice questions. The test can be similitude for other languages as the present study in which the same test was organised for French language so that the entire testing algorithm was taken into account. This test was used to examine the possibility of correlation between crystallised and fluid intelligence; the relationship between crystallised and fluid intelligence and vocabulary size was examined among French students of Safir institute in Tehran. To measure fluid intelligence the Persian Adaptation of Baddeley’s (1968) Grammatical reasoning Test was implemented and for crystallised intelligence the Persian Test of Baghaei and
Tabatabaee (2015) was applied. To measure the size of vocabulary a French version of Nation’s (2012) test was organised and implemented.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**

There are two major components of intelligence, which are distinguishable and amenable to precise operational or empirical descriptions (Chamorro-Premuzic & Furnham, 2005; McGrew, 2009). Fluid intelligence (GF), a term known as General Factor for intelligence introduced by Raymond Cattel (1971), was defined as the ability to reason and to solve new problems and difficulties independently by previously acquired knowledge. According to Kamphaus et al (2005) GF is abbreviated of Fluid Intelligence because once it was considered as a general intelligence factor. Gf is critical for a wide variety of cognitive tasks, and it is considered one of the most significant factors in learning. Fluid intelligence is related to educational and professional success. Another intelligence that is necessary for educational tasks is crystallised memory (General Cognitive or GC) means information saved and stabilized in long term memory which required to be revived immediately. According to Cattell (1971) crystallized intelligence in psychology is considered as indication of general cognitive and relies on acquired knowledge and information added to memory. McGrew (2009) defined fluid intelligence (Gf) as “the use of deliberate and controlled mental operations to solve novel problems that cannot be performed automatically” (p. 5). Gf is highly related to general intelligence (g), the ability to learn and acquire new knowledge and skills (Ackerman, Beier, & Boyle, 2002; Blair, 2006). Crystallised intelligence (Gc) is defined as “the knowledge of the culture that is combined by individuals through a process of acculturation. Gc is obviously described as a person’s breadth and depth of acquired knowledge of language, information and concepts of a specific culture” (p. 5). Usually, intelligence tests were designed to forecast individual differences in achievement, such as educational and occupational performance (in particular, school success). A body of research has established that intelligence is the best predictor of educational performance (Gottfredson, 2002; Kuncel et al., 2004).

In the Iranian context some studies investigated the relationship between multiple intelligence and different language skills. For instance, Yeganehfar (2005) studied multiple intelligence and language proficiency, and Rahimian (2005) in a study specified multiple intelligences and learning style that correlated language proficiency. In addition, Akbari and Hosseini (2008) have investigated the connection between the use of language learning strategies and multiple intelligences. Also, recent studies (Mahdavi, 2014) emphasized on vocabulary learning and intelligence. However, fluid and crystallized intelligences influence on language learning and vocabulary acquisition is not investigated.
The previous literature lacks studies exploring interaction between vocabulary knowledge and EFL learners’ crystallised and fluid intelligence and it is not clear to what extent crystallized and fluid intelligences are significant indicators for student’s vocabulary size. Having proper knowledge about such intelligences, learners would be able to build up the size of their vocabulary through promoting and activating their crystallised and fluid intelligences. Accordingly, in the present study, the role of crystallised and fluid intelligences on the vocabulary size of Iranian EFL learners was examined.

As Primi et al. (2010) discussed fluid reasoning abilities encompass the set of basic cognitive processing abilities necessary to assimilate and integrate critical information about a problem or decision. According to Kensinger (2009) crystallised abilities, in contrast, involve an understanding of culturally based values and knowledge about the world. There exists a large and growing body of research to suggest that as one pass through adolescence into adulthood and old age, these dual intellectual capacities undergo change (Baltes, 1987; Li et al., 2004). Crystallised abilities (world knowledge) increase throughout young adulthood and middle-age, and then plateau, showing little or no growth into old age (Li et al., 2004). Financial knowledge can be thought of as one of many different subtypes of crystallised abilities. Fluid abilities, in contrast, show a pattern of increasing development throughout young adulthood, but then a slow pattern of decline beginning in middle-adulthood, which continues throughout old age (Li et al., 2004).

Laufer and Nation (2001) presented results from her previous studies proposing a vocabulary threshold of 3000 word families for effective reading and incidental vocabulary learning from context. Nation (1988) believes that language learners need a minimum vocabulary size of 2000 word families and a good knowledge of academic vocabulary to cover about 90% of simplified English texts. Even with this vocabulary size, the learners may need to deal with a number of unfamiliar words, comprising 10% of the words in the text. Although the ratio of the required vocabulary differed according to the nature of the text, e.g., fiction works call for the use of a larger variety of vocabulary items, a minimum vocabulary size of 3000 word families seems to be the threshold for successful L2 reading.

Based on the assumption that both fluid and crystallised abilities jointly contribute to our ability to make complex financial decisions (Li et al., 2013), it is plausible that younger and older adults demonstrate differing degrees of financial competence at their respective points in the life span for different reasons. That is, when making every day financial decisions, older adults facing declines in fluid abilities would be expected to rely more heavily on crystallised knowledge gained through personal experience. Younger adults, on the other hand, would be expected to rely more heavily on fluid reasoning abilities when confronted with a novel financial problem, given their (relative) lack of domain-specific knowledge. Consistent with this notion of trade-offs between fluid and crystallised abilities, Agarwal, Driscoll, Gabaix, and Laibson (2009) concluded...
that financial mistakes surrounding a variety of different credit behaviours is minimised around the age of 53, which is when crystallised knowledge has nearly peaked and fluid abilities have yet to substantially decline. One implication of this finding is that we could expect to see increases in within-person variability in the quality of individuals’ financial decisions as we stray from the 50s (Laibson, 2011), with poorer performance (i.e., increased decision error) down the age range into the 40s and 30s (due to limited experiential knowledge), and up the age range into the 60s and 70s (due to declining fluid resources).

Another factor believed to influence financial decision-making, is domain-specific financial knowledge that has been found to be one of the most powerful determinants of financial decision-making performance. One’s experiential knowledge of a financial task (i.e., expertise), in the form of habits, computational strategies, or decision-making scripts (Hershey, Jacobs-Lawson, & Walsh, 2003), is in most circumstances likely to outweigh the relative value of more general crystallised knowledge and fluid abilities.

Fry and Hale (2012) indicated that domain-specific knowledge increases in a cumulative fashion over the course of adulthood, as individuals encounter different types of financial tasks and have repeated experiences with many of the same types of decisions. The slope of this knowledge-acquisition function is presumably steeper for some and flatters for others depending on the nature of their exposure to, interest in, and involvement with different types of personal financial decisions.

The major role of vocabulary size in reading comprehension is distinct and essential (Al-Nujaidi, 2003). It may be an exact predictor of the complication of a particular text despite the fact that it is not the only component which leads to reading comprehension (Nation & Coady, 1988). There is no consensus about the amount of vocabulary that individual should achieve in order to decode a text. In the domain of second language, the amount of vocabulary size depends on a factor like genre. Laufner and Hulstijn (2001) suggested the threshold of 3000 word for efficient reading in a text. On the other hand, the threshold of 2000 word and adequate vocabulary’s knowledge for ninety percent of texts were proposed by Barnard (2003). Furthermore, about 10 percent of the words are related to the unknown words in the context that learners might encounter. In fact, the amount of vocabulary depends on the type of text. According to successful L2 reading, the threshold of 3000 word families may be sufficient. Evaluation of the needed vocabulary size indicates the importance of vocabulary in reading problems (Laufner, 1997). Insufficient vocabulary knowledge affects reading comprehension since, it is an essential limitation in predicting the meaning a word (Laufner & Nation, 1999).

In Uena and Kuleli (2015) “vocabulary size and vocabulary depth were both significantly correlated to reading performance, but vocabulary depth predicted reading performance better”
This study emphasised on both size and depth of vocabulary. According to Uen and Kuleli (2015) depth refers to “dimension, which could involve such components as pronunciation, spelling, meaning, register, frequency, morphological, syntactic, and collocation properties, each interacting with the others so that the best comprehension can be achieved. In this regard, Nassaji (2004) found that lexical analysis skills and strategies used by students are related to the depth of vocabulary. It indicated that understanding of the text at first depends on depth of vocabulary then size of vocabulary.

The study performed by Assadi and Vaskehmahalleh (2017) showed that “there was a strong relationship among vocabulary size, text coverage, and reading comprehension test at different genres” (p. 49) that implies the importance of vocabulary size and its importance in reading the second language; therefore, acquisition of language and understanding the text depends of the vocabulary economy the learners have. Also, Sen and Kuleli (2015) indicated that, longitudinal studies could obtain data from students from lower level to higher level, measuring their size of vocabulary, depth of vocabulary and reading performance in each level of English learning and coming up with findings regarding how much vocabulary helps students achieve higher performance in reading and when students’ depth of vocabulary starts to improve and even surpass breadth of vocabulary, in this way predicting their reading performance better. (562)

The present orientation as the studies indicated has been devoted to considering both size and depth of vocabulary. However, measuring the size of vocabulary is not a simple task that is discussed here. There are some suggestions for testing the size of vocabulary. Nation’s (2012) vocabulary size test was used to measure the vocabulary size of the participants. The test includes 140 multiple-choice questions that from every 1000 words 10 words is presented to measure the words with the same range of difficulty and the final score will be multiplied in 100 scores to determine the size of words.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

According to the framework of the study and consideration of research variables, the following questions were proposed:

Q1: Is there any significant relationship between Iranian French Learner’s crystallised intelligence and their vocabulary size?

Q2: Is there any significant relationship between Iranian French Learner’s fluid intelligence and their vocabulary size?

Q3: How well can fluid or crystallised intelligences predict Iranian French Learner’s vocabulary size?
METHODOLOGY

In this study, 100 French Learners from Safir institutions in Tehran were selected based on Morgan’s table. The participants were selected from both genders with the age ranging from 17 to 35. They underwent three tests: Persian Adaptation of Baddeley’s (1968) Grammatical reasoning Test for Fluid Intelligence, Persian Test of Baghaei and Tabatabaee (2015) for Crystallised intelligence, and Nation’s (2012) Test of Vocabulary Size.

To measure the participants’ fluid intelligence the Persian Adaptation of Baddeley’s Grammatical reasoning Test was administered. The test is a translation of the original Baddeley’s (1968) Grammatical reasoning Test into Persian. The test consists of two parts. One part asks about the personal information such as name, gender, age, field of study and the other part asks provided 64 statement items using the two verb of “follow” and “proceed” using different time expressions to measure fluid intelligence. The items are in True or False type and the participants have to decide which item is true and which one is false. The time allocated for the test was three minutes. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability of the test is reported .91 as measured by Eckes and Baghaei (2015) and to ensure the applicability of the test, it was examined using the result of present test.

To measure crystallised intelligence individuals should perceive words in the sentence even if spelling of the word is not clear or left blank intentionally. Baghaei and Tabatabaee (2015) used a standard test for measuring the crystallised intelligence and since it was implemented in the Iranian context using Persian language, it was used in the present study intact. The test includes four paragraphs in which each paragraph has 20 black spaces for incomplete words that are known as a gap fill test. The term that might be used in gaps is related to the specific topic. The total score of the exam is 80 due to 80 gaps, the amount of crystallised was measured from 100% in the study. Individuals were given four minutes time to complete the test.

The French version of Nation’s (2012) was used to measure the vocabulary size of the participants. The test includes 140 multiple choice questions that must be answered in forty minutes. The test is designed so that from every 1000 words 10 words is presented to measure the words with the same range of difficulty. Accordingly, the test includes 14 multiplies 10 words. To specify the vocabulary size the final score will be multiplied in 100 scores to determine the size of words that are out of 14000 words. In multiple questions a term is used and four meaning is provided so that participants should select the most relevant answer. The test is organized from simple to the most difficult. The participants are given forty minutes to answer the items on the test. The Cronbach’s alpha for reliability of the test was measured by Beglar (2010) and it was .832 that is a reliable test of measuring vocabulary size to be used in the current study.

The result of the test was measured using SPSS software. At first, Cronbach’s alpha reliability of the vocabulary test, the C-test, and Baddeley’ grammatical reasoning test were tested, and then
normality distributions was examined. Then the regression test for correlations between variables was tested, then multiple coefficient test to examine the Beta weight of variables. Finally, based on the result of the experiments research questions were answered.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The results of data analysis are reported based on measuring relationship between variables. First, the descriptive statistics are presented and then the analysis related to each research question is reported separately.

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, variances, minimum, and maximum for each of the variables in the study. Since the nature and the number of items in each test are different the tests cannot be compared directly. In all tests, for each correct response one point was awarded. The Cronbach’s alpha reliability of the vocabulary test, the C-test, and Baddeley’ grammatical reasoning test were .92, .69, and .95, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Baddeley</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>C-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>30.2400</td>
<td>38.0600</td>
<td>46.4400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median</td>
<td>29.0000</td>
<td>37.5000</td>
<td>47.0000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode</td>
<td>15.00</td>
<td>33.00a</td>
<td>47.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>13.90525</td>
<td>15.39567</td>
<td>10.62522</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variance</td>
<td>193.356</td>
<td>237.027</td>
<td>112.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Range</td>
<td>59.00</td>
<td>70.00</td>
<td>52.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>17.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>62.00</td>
<td>84.00</td>
<td>69.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The normality of the distributions of all the tests used in the study was checked. Skewness and Kurtosis values for the distributions were calculated. Skewness is a measure which shows the extent to which a distribution deviates from symmetry around the mean while Kurtosis shows the "peakedness" or "flatness" of a distribution. Skewness and Kurtosis values of zero indicate the data are perfectly normally distributed. However, values between ±1 are considered “very good” and values between ±2 are considered acceptable. As Table 2 shows all values are within the “very good” range (West, Finch, & Curran, 1995). Therefore, the normality of the distributions for all the tests in the study can be assumed.
Table 2: Test of normality for the measures used in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Skewness Statistic</th>
<th>Skewness Std. Error</th>
<th>Kurtosis Statistic</th>
<th>Kurtosis Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baddeley</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>-.55</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-Test</td>
<td>-.43</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 depicts the correlations between the vocabulary size, the grammatical reasoning test, and the C-Test.

Table 3: Matrix of correlations between the variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Baddeley</th>
<th>C-Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>.284**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baddeley</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.275**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C-Test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Q1: Is there any significant relationship between Iranian French Learner’s crystallised intelligence and their vocabulary size?
H01: There is no significant relationship between Iranian French Learner’s crystallised intelligence and their vocabulary size.

Crystallised intelligence was measured by a Persian C-Test. As Table 4.3 shows there is a positive and significant correlation between the vocabulary size test and the C-Test (r=.28, p<.01). Therefore, it can be concluded that null hypothesis indicating lack of significant relationship between Iranian French Learners’ crystallised intelligence and their vocabulary size is rejected. Therefore, there is a significant relationship between crystallised intelligence and vocabulary size test, though the magnitude of the correlation is rather small.

Q2: Is there any significant relationship between Iranian French Learner’s fluid intelligence and their vocabulary size?
H02: There is no significant relationship between Iranian French Learner’s fluid intelligence and their vocabulary size.
Fluid intelligence was measured by the Persian version of Baddeley’s grammatical reasoning test. Table 4.3 shows that the correlation between vocabulary size test and the grammatical reasoning test is .19, which is not significant (p>.05) it means that the null hypothesis is approved and there is no relationship between learners’ fluid intelligence and their vocabulary size.

Q3: How well can Fluid or Crystallised Intelligences predict Iranian French language Learners’ vocabulary size?

To answer the third research question multiple regression analysis was used. The variables representing fluid intelligence and crystallised intelligence, i.e., the grammatical reasoning test and the C-test were entered as independent variables and the vocabulary size test as the dependent variable. Results showed that the model explains a small but significant portion of the variance in the vocabulary size scores (F (2, 97) = 5.09, p< .01, R² = .10, adjusted R² = .08. That is, the two independent variables explain about 8 % of the variability in the vocabulary size test. The analysis showed that Gf, as measured by the grammatical reasoning test, did not significantly predict vocabulary size test (Beta = 0.12, p=0.21) but the C-Test did significantly predict vocabulary size (Beta = .24, p< .01). Table 4 shows the beta weights, their t-values, and significance for the independent variables.

Table 4: beta weights for the variables in the regression analysis and their significance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardised Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardised Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>17.090</td>
<td>6.833</td>
<td>2.501</td>
<td>.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BaddelyTotal</td>
<td>.140</td>
<td>.111</td>
<td>1.256</td>
<td>.212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Total</td>
<td>-.361</td>
<td>.146</td>
<td>2.477</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the contribution of fluid and crystallised intelligence to foreign language vocabulary size. To this end, a vocabulary size test along with relevant measures of fluid intelligence and crystallised intelligence were given to 100 students of French as a foreign language. The intelligence tests were the Persian adaptation of Baddeley’s grammatical reasoning test and a Persian C-test.

Correlational analysis showed that only the crystallised intelligence measure, i.e., the C-test, had a small correlation with the vocabulary size test. Regression analysis also showed that only the C-test is a significant factor that can explain vocabulary size.

Result of the study implies that fluid intelligence does not predict vocabulary size, it means that students with different level of fluid intelligence may have the same degree of fluid intelligence,
while crystallised intelligence by its stabilising feature regarding growing of age and increasing of crystallised intelligence predicts students’ size of vocabulary. Accordingly, discerning vocabularies and learners word economy grows with growing older. Previous studies (Baltes, 1987; Li et al., 2004; Kensinger, 2009) emphasized on differences between crystallised and fluid intelligence in predicting language learning ability. Throughout these studies result of this study is in line with that of Li et al. (2004) indicating that crystallised intelligence growth from adulthood to the end of middle age (not old age), while fluid ability grows throughout young adulthood and declines by the beginning in middle-adulthood and declines towards old age.

**CONCLUSION**

This study investigated the relationship between fluid and crystallised intelligence on French learners’ vocabulary size. Participants were at the same level of language learning and their level of fluid and crystallised intelligence and their correlation with vocabulary size was important. Result indicated that there is a significant relationship between crystallised intelligence and vocabulary size and it is due to growing of age and experiences in exposure to language (Kensinger, 2009). Testing relationship between fluid intelligence and vocabulary size indicated that there is no significant relationship between these two variables that it was emphasised in previous study by Li et al. (2004) indicating that fluid intelligence does not predicts vocabulary knowledge. Agarwal et al., (2009) performed a study measuring the effect of fluid and crystallised intelligence on financial mistakes and reported a reversal relationship between two as the result achieved by Li et al., (2004) respecting language learning and the two intelligences indicating that crystallised intelligence predicts vocabulary size while by growing of age and becoming older the fluid intelligence declines. However, current study approves previous results and determining effect of crystallised intelligence was not so strong, other factors such as educational quality, efforts and environmental factors might be in work in predicting the influential factors on learners’ vocabulary knowledge. The present study was limited to learners from 17 to 35 years of age and may not be able to claim the influence of fluid and crystallised intelligence in the middle age or old age. It referred to general linear relationship between the results of previous studies, accordingly large population of participants with different rages of age are required to answer the arising gaps.

**REFERENCES**


LEARNING VOCABULARY THROUGH OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING

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email: nafise.maleki1@gmail.com

ABSTRACT
Vocabulary has always been one of the important issues related to both teachers and learners of learning a foreign language. This study aimed at exploring if Observational Learning (OL) Theory was helpful for EFL learners’ English vocabulary development and recall in comparison to direct translation. 40 intermediate learners were selected to take part in this research from Pishro Danesh institute in Nowshahr. In order to make sure that participants were at the same level of proficiency, an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered. Then, 30 students were selected as the main participants. They were divided into two groups: Experimental Group (EG) and a Control Group (CG). The EG was taught 60 English vocabularies from the book “504 Absolutely Essential Words” through modeling and observational learning strategy, and the CG was taught English vocabularies from the same book through a traditional method of teaching, direct translation. Results of the study confirmed the vocabulary development of EG as a result of receiving OL procedure. The results of independent samples t-test comparing the performances of the CG and EG in the posttest indicated that participants who learned vocabularies through OL performed better than those who learned through direct translation. In the most of EFL context, second language learners feel successful EFL learners are those who know more number of words. Considering language learning, vocabulary is central to language and of great importance to typical language. Experimental group outperformed the control group in the vocabulary recall.

KEYWORDS: Observational learning, modeling, EFL learners, vocabulary recall

INTRODUCTION
Many scholars state the importance of vocabulary too. For instance, McCarthy (1990) underlines the importance of vocabulary by saying: “No matter how well the students learn grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way. One of the components to master English as a foreign language is vocabulary mastery. It means that the
students have ability in understanding and using the words and meaning. The students know the words and their meaning. It also plays an important role in English language skills. The greater vocabulary students master, the better they perform their language. By having limited vocabulary, the students will find difficulties mastering English skill. Even though researchers, teachers, and writing materials are agreeing on the importance of vocabulary knowledge for a second language acquisition, they still do not know the best methods that help learners acquire vocabulary.

Statement of the Problem
In learning a foreign language vocabulary is the element that links the four skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing all together. In order to communicate well in a foreign language, students should acquire an adequate number of words and should know how to use them accurately. Even though students realize the importance of vocabulary when learning language, most Iranian students learn vocabulary passively because they usually only acquire new vocabulary through new words in their textbooks. This traditional way of teaching vocabularies makes the class boring for learners and causes them to not focus on their teaching-learning activity, so they usually do other activities like talking, playing and socializing with their friend. Giving more enjoyable classroom with the activation of observational learning theory to teach students also helps the teacher in teaching-learning process. Teacher can stand as alive or verbal instructional model in the classroom. It can increase the students’ motivation and interest to study new words in English. Remembering vocabularies that students had learned before is another difficulty which they encounter in English language class.

Observational learning with different models such as teachers, adults or students has proven to be effective in various school subjects including mathematics, reading, writing, speaking and listening. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of observational learning on vocabulary learning and vocabulary recall of Iranian intermediate EFL learners. It offers the theoretical foundation for using modeling in teaching new vocabularies. This study has three variables. The OL is the independent variable; the vocabulary development and vocabulary recall are dependent variables.

Significance of the Study
Since there is a kind of ambiguity in applying OL for teaching vocabulary in EFL classes, this study tried to provide tailed understanding of conducting this theory in teaching vocabulary as a general goal. Nowadays teaching English in its traditional ways makes EFL class tiresome for both learners and teachers; so they are seeking for some new ways of teaching.
LITERATURE REVIEW

Vocabulary Acquisition Process
Studies have shown that the average educated adult native speaker of English knows around fifteen to twenty thousand word families. Many L2 learners of English also know thousands of word families. This section will explore the question of how English language learners can acquire such a large amount of vocabulary. Native English speakers learn vocabulary through simple exposure during the course of language use which is called incidental learning and through formal education which called explicit learning. Second language learners also acquire English words through the same processes, but in different contexts.

Regarding the way in which new vocabulary/words are acquired, Hatch and Brown (1995) explain the five steps in the vocabulary acquisition process: (1) encountering new words, (2) getting the word form, (3) getting the word meaning, (4) consolidating word form and meaning in memory, and (5) using the word. In the first step of the vocabulary acquisition process, learners will meet new words in different contexts such as television, music, books, movies, etc. Then, they will connect the sound with the word form and this can be done by reading the word out-loud. Then, in order to get the word meaning students can use bilingual or monolingual dictionaries or guess the meaning from context. After that, to combine the word form and meaning in memory, students can complete a number of exercises such as, matching or translating words, filling in gaps, cross word puzzles, memory games, etc. Finally, to learn the uses of a word, students might be asked to write sentences or texts, answer questions that require the use of the word.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies:
There are several vocabulary learning strategies that have been shown in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy group</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DET</td>
<td>Analyze part of speech</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DET</td>
<td>Analyze affixes and roots</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DET</td>
<td>Check for L1 cognate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DET</td>
<td>Analyze any available pictures or gestures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DET</td>
<td>Guess meaning from textual context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DET</td>
<td>Use a dictionary (bilingual or monolingual)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC</td>
<td>Ask teacher for a synonym, paraphrase, or L1 translation of new words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC</td>
<td>Ask classmates for meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC</td>
<td>Study and practice meaning in a group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOC</td>
<td>Interact with native speakers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEM</td>
<td>Connect word to a previous personal experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Determinant strategies (DET), Social strategies (SOC), Memory strategies (MEM), and Cognitive strategies (COG), and Metacognitive strategies (MET) (Schmitt, 2000).

The Role of Memory in Vocabulary Acquisition
Students do not necessarily learn what teachers teach them because memory has a great influence on language learning. Teachers should recognize that teaching does not necessarily cause, teachers should provide opportunities in which the students can frequently meet the target words. Schmitt (2000) states that students forget most of the new words after the end of the learning session, so it is important to have a review session soon after the learning session. The expanding of rehearsal could help to transfer the new words from the short-term memory to the long-term memory learning. Short-term memory is used to hold a small amount of information while it is being processed. Long-term memory stores unlimited amount of studies have also shown that receptive knowledge does not decline dramatically, and when it does, it is usually affects unimportant words, such as low-frequency on-cognates (Weltens & Grebdel, 1993, as cited in Schmitt, 2000). On the other hand, productive knowledge is more apt to be forgotten.

Recall
Recall in memory refers to the retrieval of events. Along with encoding and storage, it is one of the three core processes of memory. There are three main types of recall: free recall, cued recall, and serial recall. Psychologists test these forms of recall as a way to study the memory processes
Maleki, N

of humans and animals. Attention, Motivation, Interference, Context, State-dependent memory, Gender, Food consumption, Physical activity, Trauma and brain exposure are the factors that affect recall.

Observational learning and School psychology

Rashmie Bhagwanin (2008) conducted a study to investigate effects of observational learning and modeling (Bandura, 1986, 1997; Rosenthal & Zimmerman, 1978; Schunk, 1987, 1991, 1995, 1998). Observational learning, with either teachers, adults or students as models, has proven to be effective with students of various ages and in various school subjects, such as mathematics (Schunk & Hanson, 1985, 1989a, 1989b), reading (Couzijn, 1995, 1999), writing (Couzijn, 1995, 1999; Graham & Harris, 1994; Graham, Harris & Troia, 1998; Schriver, 1992), and speaking and listening (Sonnenschein & Whitehurst, 1984). It has been proven to be effective not only in school subjects, but also in a wide range of other issues including sport training, animal training, people with disabilities and so on. Observation of models also can raise observers’ self-efficacy, or personal beliefs about their capabilities to learn or perform behaviors at designated levels (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Schunk and his colleagues (Schunk & Hanson, 1985, 1989a; Schunk et al., 1987; see also Schunk, 1998, p. 148) reported effects of (various) models on students’ self-efficacy, which in turn influenced learning and achievement. “Observational Learning in Instructional Second Language Writing”. This study investigated whether observational learning as teaching method can be successfully applied to writing in a second language. The experiment was conducted in which forty students wrote experiment manuals. These manuals were executed by peers. This was videotaped. After seeing these video recordings the students revised their versions. There were two observational learning conditions. One group of students observed readers of their own manual. The other group of students observed readers of their peer’s manuals. The results show significant effects of observational learning. The students performed better on the revised version. It does not matter whether students observe readers of their own manual or someone else’s manual. It does not have any effect on the improvement of the manual.

There is much research about the effects and conditions of Observational Learning and modeling. Some of these studies have been shown in Table 2.
Table 2: Studies on effects and conditions of Observational Learning and modeling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Researcher(s)</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Title</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nelson, D.L</td>
<td>1979</td>
<td>Remembering pictures and words: Appearance, significance, and name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widdowson, D. &amp; Dixon, R &amp; Moore, D</td>
<td>1996</td>
<td>The effect of teacher modeling of silent reading on students' engagement during sustained silent reading</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mwthe, S.A &amp; Hintze, J.M</td>
<td>2003</td>
<td>Evaluating teacher modeling as a strategy to increase student reading behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rashmie Bhagwan</td>
<td>2008</td>
<td>Observational learning in instructional second language writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jason Kok Khiang Loh</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Teacher modeling: Its impact on an extensive reading program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aslihan Emirmustafaoglu &amp; Dilek Uygun Gokmena</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>The effect of picture vs. translation mediated instruction on L2 vocabulary learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

This research was conducted to answer the following questions:
Does teachers’ use of observational learning in class have any significant effect on Iranian students’ vocabulary development?
Does teachers’ use of observational learning in class have any significant effect on Iranian students’ vocabulary recall?

**METHODOLOGY**

30 Iranian male/female EFL learners (Table 3) who were studying English at intermediate level in an institute in Mazandaran, Iran during the spring semester of 2016 participated in this true-experimental and quantitative study. Five reading comprehension passages were selected from “504 essential words” book as instructional materials. After informing the participants about what
OL is and how a teacher can execute modeling in teaching new words, researcher conducted the research. Participants were randomly divided into the experimental and control group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EG (N=15)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CG (N=15)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Data Analysis**

The quantified data were given to SPSS software, data were analyzed through calculating independent sample t-test between the score of the experimental and control groups. Final results rejected the first and second null hypotheses of this study.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Statistical report of data for first research question**

Research question 1: Does teachers’ use of observational learning in class has any significant on Iranian students’ vocabulary development?

| Table 4: Descriptive Statistics of Control Group (CG) |
|-----------------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| N                                            | Mean   | Std.Deviation |
| pretest                                       | 15     | 13.47  | .786   | 3.044 |
| Immediate-posttest                            | 15     | 46.53  | .804   | 3.114 |
| Valid N (Listwise)                            | 15     |         |        |        |

| Table 5: Descriptive Statistics if Experimental Group (EG) |
|-----------------------------------------------|--------|--------|--------|
| N                                            | Mean   | Std.Deviation |
| Pretest                                       | 15     | 12.93  | .831   | 3.218 |
| Immediate-posttest                            | 15     | 50.60  | .809   | 3.135 |
| Valid N (Listwise)                            | 15     |         |        |        |

Tables 3 and 4 show that the basic descriptive statistics of the participants’ vocabulary knowledge in the pre-test and immediate posttest phases. These tables reveal the mean scores, standard deviation, and standard error of mean of the experimental and control groups. Mean scores of CG and EG in the pretest stage were 13.47 and 12.93 respectively, which shows that
these two groups had equal vocabulary knowledge in the pretest stage. Mean scores of EG in the immediate posttest was 50.60 (SD=3.218), while it was 46.20 for the CG (SD=3.044)

Comparing the mean scores of EG and CG in the immediate posttest stage showed considerable difference. It indicates that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups’ mean scores on the posttest of vocabulary knowledge test. Learners who were in the EG acquired higher scores in the posttest than learners who were in the CG.

**Statistical report of data for second research question**

Research Question 2: Does Teachers’ use of observational learning in class has any significant effect on Iranian students’ vocabulary recall?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed posttest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 7: Descriptive Statistics of Experimental Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delayed posttest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As above tables show, mean score of CG in delayed posttest is 43.67 (SD=3.177) and mean score of EG in delayed posttest is 49.67 (SD=3.638). Comparing the mean scores of EG and CG in delayed posttest stage shows considerable difference. It indicates that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups’ mean scores on the delayed posttest of vocabulary recall test. Learners who were in the EG acquired higher scores in the posttest than learners who were in the CG.

As it can be seen, the participants’ performance in the experimental group was better than performance of control group, that is the difference between the two groups’ vocabulary recall was statistically significant on the delayed posttest.

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Discussion

The first null hypothesis was “Teachers’ use of observational learning in class does not have any significant effect on Iranian students’ vocabulary development.” Based on the results of the study, the first null hypothesis was rejected in immediate posttest stage, it means that OL had significant and positive effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Participants who learned new vocabularies through models of OL performed much better than who learned new words through equivalents in Persian. The second null hypothesis that was “Teachers’ use of observational learning does not have any significant effect on Iranian students’ vocabulary development.” was rejected based on findings of the study. It means that OL had significant and positive effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners vocabulary recall. Participants who learned new vocabularies through models of OL performed better in recalling words after passing one month.

CONCLUSION

The present study was designed to in investigate the effect of observational learning on vocabulary development and recall of Iranian EFL learners. The research was conducted with 30 students at intermediate level. The participants’ vocabulary learning performance in both experimental and control groups were collected and measured. By comparing the participants’ performance in the pretest and posttest, the impact of models on the vocabulary learning was determined. Results showed that there was a relationship between attention to models and vocabulary development in second language learning. By comparing the participants’ performance in the posttest and delayed posttest, the impact of models on vocabulary recall was determined, too.

In general, these findings revealed that learning vocabulary through models could be used as a teaching strategy to improve learners’ vocabulary mastery. The present study suffered from some limitations, not permitting to videotape the sessions was the main one. Another limitation was about limited number of participants, such limited number of participants limited the generalizability.

It was concluded that there was a positive relationship between modeling and L2 vocabulary development. Another finding of this study was that OL has a positive effect on students’ vocabulary recall. It can be said that modeling engages learners in more cognitive activity, deeper processing, and higher retention in vocabulary learning. The impact of OL models on the vocabulary recall was also determined through comparing the participants’ performance in the posttest and delayed posttest. The findings revealed a positive relationship between attention to
the models and vocabulary recall in second language learning. Thus, it can be said that learning vocabulary through models could be used as a teaching strategy.

REFERENCES


TEACHING ENGLISH VIA TECHNOLOGY IN THE FUTURE

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ABSTRACT
Considering the abundant use of technology in language learning and the developing autonomy of language learners, this study aimed to analyze the chance of replacing teachers of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) with technology in Iran within 15 years. Qualitative data was collected from 10 recordings of interviews with EFL experts. Causal Layered Analysis (CLA) as one of Futures Studies (FSs) methodologies, was employed and four alternative scenarios of English Language Teaching (ELT) were envisioned. After inspecting the four layers of CLA, the results revealed that Iran’s culture would not allow the replacement of EFL teachers with language learning technology within 15 years. Iran, as a hierarchical, collectivist, and restrained society with a normative cultural orientation and preference for avoiding uncertainty cannot accept technological innovation so immediately replacing EFL teachers. The findings implied that the application of this study in other countries, with similar cultural patterns to Iran, may lead to similar results. However, further studies are needed to perform this study with consideration of a longer time span and to explore the probable consequences.

KEYWORDS: ELT, CLA, FSs, language learning technology

INTRODUCTION
Although language teachers/learners have benefited from technology innovations since the 1960s, the present technological assistance to language learning varies in a number of ways. Teachers can incorporate various forms of technology to support their teaching, engage students in the learning process, provide authentic examples of the target culture, and connect their classrooms to the classrooms in other countries where the target language is spoken (Beatty, 2010).

The application of the Internet technology has developed a new field for autonomous English learning that is becoming more and more popular everyday (Benson, 2013). Some jobs have been eliminated and replaced by technology and are not coming back. By looking at all the present
symptoms, we see ELT is challenging the same phenomena. This implies the probability of elimination of EFL teachers in not a far future.

With the advancement of technology and the World Wide Web, people from different countries communicate with one another through English more than ever. As a result, English the international language, hires a great range of EFL teachers around the world. However, if the technology itself can fulfill the need of English language learners, many EFL teachers, and stakeholders face employment problems. with the fast pace of technological development, more ways would be invented to help people learn a foreign language in an easier way.

**Purpose of the Study**
The present study aimed to find a suitable answer to the dilemma that may exist in the minds of most of the present and the future EFL teachers about the role of technology in the future of ELT.

**LITERATURE REVIEW**
Second-language pedagogy has been sponsored by technology for many years. In the 1960s and 1970s, language laboratories supplied drill-based practice to support audiolingualism that was the dominant instructional approach of the day (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). In the 1980s, videotapes became increasingly common, and computers made their first appearance in the second-language classroom (Higgins & Johns, 1984). However, in the 1990s, with the explosion in the Internet use and the emergence of the Worldwide Web, technology became ubiquitous (Warschauer, 1999; Beatty, 2010).

The roles played by technology in second-language learning can be stated to be as a provider of content and an instructional tool, as a learning management tool and as a communication tool. It can be acting as a carrier of content when the computer presents learners with listening and reading input, and information on pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar (Nunan, 2010).

The second role, as an instructional tool, is becoming increasingly significant in second-language pedagogy, particularly with the spread of proprietary software, such as Blackboard and Moodle. These learning management software packages enable teachers to carry out many learning managements tasks more efficiently and effectively than traditional face-to-face methods (Nunan, 2010).

The third major role played by technology in language learning is as a communication tool. One of the greatest frustrations for learners attempting to acquire another language in a foreign rather than second-language context is finding opportunities to activate their language by interacting with
other people in that language. One of the greatest benefits of technology is that it can bridge
distance and time, enabling learners to interact with native speakers and other learners who are
living, working, and learning in a wide range of cultural contexts in different parts of the world. At
present, the most common technology-based means of communicating for purposes of language
learning are email and text chat, although voice chat and webcam are becoming increasingly
common. Online virtual worlds can be a good example that uses these features to their utmost.
They are becoming important tools in foreign/second language instruction because of the fact that
they enhance learner motivation, promote autonomy and social presence in a 3D environment.
Virtual worlds are a type of reality in which students can meet and communicate with other
learners in the target language using text, voice or video as well as share ideas related to language
learning. Besides, virtual worlds provide learners with the opportunity to take part in virtual
language courses or lessons as well as visit places connected with the target language
culture.

All of these roles played by technology are done through devices like computers, smart mobile
phones, tablets etc. Use of multimedia flourished with the rise of the Internet and CMC. They
reshaped the uses of computers for language learning at the end of the 20th century. With the
Internet growth, use of computers changed from only being a tool for information processing and
display to a medium of communication. Thus, a language learner had the possibility to
communicate with the target language learner or speaker in either synchronous (with all users
logged on and chatting at the same time) or asynchronous model (with a delayed message system
such as electronic mail) (Warschauer & Healey, 1998). Access to authentic target language
information became unbelievably easy for a language learner via World Wide Web. Not only
having access to information but also publishing information internationally, using it as library,
interactive television, telephone etc. made it something that one could not help not using.

Although the possibility of substituting EFL teachers by technology in future has not been the
center attention of any study (to the authors best knowledge), some researchers have mentioned
their viewpoints about this issue. A futurist named Thomas Frey, in his lecture at TED Reset
Conference in Istanbul, Turkey in 2012, predicted that over two billion jobs would disappear by
2030. He named five industries in which jobs probably would be gone (or replaced with) over the
coming decades. These industries are power industry, automobile transportation, education, 3D
printers, and Bots. Frey (2012) stated that courses are becoming a commodity; because of e-
learning and online free courses, teachers only would need to teach once, record it, and then proceed
to the next topic. “We are transitioning from a teaching model to a learning model” (Frey, 2012,
education section, para. 6). “Teaching requires experts. Learning only requires coaches. With all
the assets in place, we are moving quickly into the new frontier of a teacherless education system” (Frey, 2012, education section, para. 7 & 8).

Another study that mentioned the issue was a study by Warschauer (2000). It surveyed three consequences of Informationalism to be likely to affect ELT. They were the growth of global English changing employment patterns, and the development and spread of technology.

“English in the Digital Age, Information, and Communication Technology and Teaching of English” is another study that surveyed the issue of language teaching and technology in a practical way by Goodwyn (2000). He claimed that “Computers will not replace English teachers, but they can certainly do some things better than any teacher; and they can, without doubt, improve the quality of our students' learning in English” (Goodwyn, 2000, p: xii).

Nevertheless, he did not refer to any specific study providing this claim. In addition, a study done by Bateman (2014) was focused on the emergence of teachers’ images of the future that were articulated, challenged and reconsidered through provocations that occur as a result of children’s learning. The method had been narrative analysis and as the researcher mentions, futures narratives. According to his study, teachers had not been able to generate the images of future. They had outlined technological advances, environmental crises, and further globalization as “things that are going to happen in the future” (p.47) and were out of their control. Bateman (2014) stated that while the teachers felt excited about possible advances in technology, this also had led to fear and anxiety about their future.

However, Bateman did not mention any further details and disclosed this issue. In addition, Language teacher robots have made a different impact on the presupposed teaching. Their efficiency has been confirmed in various studies (e.g., Meghdari et al., 2013; Lee, Lee, Lee, Lee, & Noh, 2011; Chang, Chao, Chen, Lee, & Wang, 2010). Their characteristics are repeatability, flexibility, digitization, humanoid appearance, body movement, interaction, and anthropomorphism (Chang et al., 2010).

In a study entitled “Emerging Technologies for Autonomous Language Learning”, Warschauer and Liaw (2011) discussed the use of different language learning technologies in four areas: speaking and listening, collaborative writing, reading and language structure, and online interaction. language learner in every age and circumstance that promotes autonomous language learning.

An interesting study by Gialamas, Nikolopoulos, and Koutromanos (2013) had used a questionnaire to investigate student teachers’ perceptions about the impact of the Internet usage on
their learning and future jobs. They concluded that student teachers’ perceptions regarding the impact of the Internet usage on their learning and future jobs were positive. Most of the students believed that the Internet use in university study made learning more interesting and effective, and that possessing the Internet skills would assist their future job prospects.

This study was interesting because it claimed that it had investigated student teacher’s perceptions about the role of the Internet in their future job, however, the questionnaire did not include any statement about students fear and anxiety about the Internet replacing their future job. The statement only considered the positive affect and help of the Internet to their job.

A paper by Hismanoğlu (2010) aimed finding out the attitudes of language teachers towards the Internet-based foreign language teaching. The findings of the study revealed that most of the teachers had positive attitudes toward using the Internet and they were aware of the potential of the Internet implementation in language education by going far beyond the traditional concepts and methodologies.

A study by Kruk (2012) had investigated the effectiveness of using online activities and a browser-based virtual world in teaching the second conditional (grammar) in English. He used a treatment and control group with using 27 participants and a background questionnaire as well as an evaluation sheet. He concluded the treatment students benefited from the instruction with the benefits being visible not only immediately after the treatment but also after four and eight weeks later.

While an utmost attempt was applied to find every related study to the future of ELT concerning language learning technology, none was found. Most studies supported the assistance of language learning technology to ELT, however not a specific study minded language learning technology influence on the future of ELT profession.

**RESEARCH QUESTION**
What will ELT be like in 2030 in Iran? (Litany Level)

**METHODOLOGY**

*Participants and Setting*
Two groups of EFL experts were asked to participate in this study. The first group included professors of English of Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran (n=eight; one female, seven males).
Their major was either Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) or English Language Translation. The second group comprised Ph.D. graduates of English Translation and Linguistics who taught English or owned English language institutes in Mashhad, Iran (n= two; one female, one male).

**Instrumentation and Procedure**

To collect the necessary data, the researcher framed the interview questions based on the review of the recent literature on English language learning technology. A list of suggested questions was developed mainly based on Inayatullah’s CLA methodology. CLA consists of four layers: The litany, Social/systematic causes, discourse/worldwide, and myth/metaphor. The interviews were recorded and the obtained data were submitted for data analysis to supervisor of this thesis. Each participant’s answer to the research question was analyzed separately to preserve his/her viewpoints in each layer of CLA in support of their stated claims. CLA was chosen for analyzing data because it has the ability to manifest and interpret the qualitative data by deconstructing and reconstructing it in separate, specific layers. CLA four different layers as an iceberg viewing the problem from the most visible symptoms to the root have been shown in Figure 1.
Figure 1: CLA Four different layers as an iceberg viewing the problem from the most visible symptoms to the root.
RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

*Litany Level*
This layer reveals practitioners’ views about the alternative futures of ELT profession considering the vast development of technology. The participants’ viewpoints were a reflection of the discussions above. They believed that, technology could influence English teaching a great deal, but they also presumed that, it could not replace English teaching within 15 years in Iran. They assumed that, this phenomenon depends on many factors.

*Systematic Causes*
This level is concerned with systematic causes, including economic, cultural, political, and environmental factors and their roles in language learning technology use. These factors are mostly interconnected.

*Economic factor*
“economic factor” was the one pointed out by almost all participants in the study (when they were asked about the most influential effect). They all believed technology use is costly for both the government and families, from affording expenses for supplying the devices and tools to preparation of softwares and their maintenance. welfare status of families, seems to have a great role in supplying language learning technologies at home for autonomous learning. Nevertheless, it seems better to see it from Steve Jobs’ viewpoint in 1985. He predicted that, in the future middle-class families would spend a lot to buy a personal computer to connect to nationwide communications network (Internet). This is happening in Iran now. Statistics suggest that, more than half of Iran’s population is familiar with the Internet. According to Mehr news agency, the Internet penetration rate in Iran has reached 53.29 percent in June 2014. Out of 75,149,669 people living in Iran, 40,046,787 people use the Internet.
Table 1: Systematic Causes Influencing Factors on ELT Technology Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Systematic causes</th>
<th>Factors mentioned by participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Economy Factors</td>
<td>No financially equal learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expensive technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Demographical, Social</td>
<td>Too many learners, not enough facilities for all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Factors</td>
<td>Not enough knowledge to use tech equally everywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Political Factors</td>
<td>Country’s educational policy toward globalization and relocation</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Some websites’ filtering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Personality Factors</td>
<td>Different kind of personalities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Iranians preference for group activity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Worldview Level

This level underpins the belief systems and hidden assumptions. It manifests particular views of the participants about the substitution and danger of technology for ELT profession in the future. This deeper analysis helps explain why the participants believe that the imminent and present technology will not harm the profession of English teachers in Iran much, in 2030 (Table 2.).

Because of the mentioned factors and cultural dimensions (Figure 2), a kind of “Technophobia” exists among Iranian people that can be referred to as the reason for beholding beliefs about the future of technology in Iran and its outcomes.
Dator’s model was used for exploring this uncertainty about the future of EFL. This model classified all social change issues into four scenarios:

1. Continuation
2. Decline and Collapse
3. Limits and Discipline

4. Transformation

As time passes, technology grows, looking at the development of EFL technology, it can be seen that it has significantly progressed through the past 15 years. Laptops, smartphones, and some applications have been developed. If the same progress of technology, economic, social, and political system growth keeps developing through the next years, the EFL profession would be replaced by technology in the future.

Based on the second scenarios, the crisis in economic and political systems could lead either to the extinction or to a lower stage of technology development than it currently is. In Iran, it could occur because of sanctions. Economic downfall would directly relate to less technology availability so learners would have much less access to up-to-date technological devices, software, etc. Accordingly, teaching profession can be continued because of using less technology by learners.

Based on the third scenario, Discipline and Collapse, it can be said that, because people in Iran value culture, traditions and social norms this is in contrast with continued growth, the less technology is used. In Iran, teaching profession is sacred and traditional, it may be glorified and respected more than it is now.

Transformation is the fourth scenario. Huge technology changes need economic growth. Power of technology especially robotics and artificial intelligence (AI), genetic engineering, nanotechnology, teleportation, space settlement is transforming. If these changes can occur for the language learning technology, learning a foreign language would be available through using AI services or EFL teacher robots. Thus, the need for EFL human teachers will decrease and the EFT profession will be decreased.

Myth/Metaphor Level

In this level, an attempt is made to uncover hidden and explicit mythologies, narratives, symbols, proverbs, and metaphors in Iran about “future” and about “teaching and teachers”.

There are three popular sayings that can reveal so many facts about society’s conception about teacher’s profession. Here are the translations:

1. Teaching is the job of the prophets.
2. We get our bodies from our father, but our bright spirits from our teacher.
3. The teacher’s stick is a flower. Whoever is not punished with, is an idiot.
Moreover, a proverb about the concept of the future:

5. When tomorrow comes, we will think about it then.

With respect to the mentioned proverbs and sayings in Iran, the future of ELT profession is hard to see through people’s visions because, on the one hand, they value teachers’ status in society so much that their extinction never occurs to them and they do not accept any harm to this holy profession, and on the other hand reluctance to know the future does not let them think about it.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed at exploring the future of ELT profession concerning the role of technology on language learning. CLA, as a FSs methodology, was used to analyze the collected data. At the first layer (Litany Level), primarily the problem was perceived through experts’ visions and their various perspectives were stated. They believed that by using technology, learners could reach an amount of autonomy that would encourage them to learn English language through self-study. Clearly, this phenomenon can result in their fewer language classes’ attendance while so many EFL teachers are trained at universities expecting to make a living out of their profession. All participants of the study believed that this event is not likely to happen in Iran within 15 years based on economic, social factors, political, and personal factors respectively. These factors were stated at the second layer of the CLA, systematic causes.

In the third layer, the worldview level, an attempt was made to comprise a basis for the belief systems and hidden assumptions of Iranian people in relation to the present study’s stated issue. As Hofstede’s five cultural dimensions could best describe cultures’ belief systems, it was used to unravel the existing culture and to figure out the rationale behind their assumptions about teaching profession, technology, and the future concept. The dimensions were Power distance, Individualism, Masculinity, Uncertainty Avoidance, Pragmatism, and Indulgence. Tendency for group learning, respect for social norms, tradition, and religion were counted as evidence for the participants’ belief that substitution of EFL teachers by technology within 15 years is impossible. Four popular myths/metaphors about teaching and the future were given and analyzed in the fourth layer of CLA.

This level implied that the extinction of such a holy, highly honored profession within 15 years was improbable. In addition, four alternative scenarios of ELT were expressed based on Dator’s (2009), Continuation, Decline and Collapse, Limits and Discipline, and Transformation Continued Growth suggested that if the same progress pace of technology, economic, social, and political
system growth kept developing, ELT profession would be disregarded more than ever in Iran. Collapse Scenario assumed that if some conditions declined from their current situation due to some reasons, there would be more EFL teacher recruitment because less EFL technology would be used by learners.

The third scenario was Disciplined Society. It would happen if Continued Growth was not desirable due to the belief that natural and traditional ways should surpass the modern ones. Thus, this scenario suggested that teaching, as a holy and traditional profession, would be glorified and respected more than ever.

Last scenario was Transformation Society and it would happen when technology development flourishes and encompassed every aspect of humans’ life. As a result, Transformation Society assumed that AI and robotics would take responsibilities for humans’ education and decrease the need for EFL human teachers. Consequently, the ELT profession would decline. Results, in general, showed that replacement of English teachers by technology seems not to be inclined to happen in Iran within 15 years, at least because Iran’s culture would not allow it. Iran as a hierarchical, collectivist, and restrained society by a normative cultural orientation and preference for avoiding uncertainty cannot accept the technology innovation so immediately to replace teachers, although the highly valued teaching profession and its status seem to persist in this country. The myth level is another evidence for the fact that culture changes very slowly.

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